

1 **Impacts of compound extreme weather events on ozone in the present and future**

2
3 Junxi Zhang¹, Yang Gao^{2*}, Kun Luo¹, L. Ruby Leung^{3*}, Yang Zhang⁴, Kai Wang⁴ and
4 Jianren Fan¹

5
6 ¹State Key Laboratory of Clean Energy, Department of Energy Engineering, Zhejiang
7 University, Hangzhou, Zhejiang, 310027, China

8 ²Key Laboratory of Marine Environment and Ecology, Ministry of Education of
9 China, Ocean University of China, Qingdao, Shandong, 266100, China

10 ³Atmospheric Sciences and Global Change Division, Pacific Northwest National
11 Laboratory, Richland, Washington, 99354, USA

12 ⁴Department of Marine, Earth, and Atmospheric Sciences, North Carolina State
13 University, Raleigh, NC, 27695, USA

14
15 *Correspondence to: Dr. Yang Gao (yanggao@ouc.edu.cn)
16 Dr. L. Ruby Leung (Ruby.Leung@pnnl.gov)
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37

38

39 **Abstract**

40

41 The Weather Research and Forecasting model with Chemistry (WRF/Chem) was
42 used to study the effect of extreme weather events on ozone in the US for historical
43 (2001-2010) and future (2046-2055) periods under the RCP 8.5 scenario. During
44 extreme weather events, including heat waves, atmospheric stagnation, and their
45 compound events, ozone concentration is much higher compared to non-extreme events
46 period. A striking enhancement of effect during compound events is revealed when heat
47 wave and stagnation occur simultaneously as both high temperature and low wind speed
48 promote the production of high ozone concentrations. In regions with high emissions,
49 compound extreme events can shift the high-end tails of the probability density
50 functions (PDFs) of ozone to even higher values to generate extreme ozone episodes.
51 In regions with low emissions, extreme events can still increase high ozone frequency
52 but the high-end tails of the PDFs are constrained by the low emissions. Despite large
53 anthropogenic emission reduction projected for the future, compound events increase
54 ozone more than the single events by 10% to 13%, comparable to the present, and high
55 ozone episodes with maximum daily 8h average (MDA8) ozone concentration over
56 70ppbv are not eliminated. Using the CMIP5 multi-model ensemble, the frequency of
57 compound events is found to increase more dominantly compared to the increased
58 frequency of single events in the future over the US, Europe, and China. High ozone
59 episodes will likely continue in the future due to increases in both frequency and
60 intensity of extreme events, despite reductions in anthropogenic emissions of its
61 precursors. However, the latter could reduce or eliminate extreme ozone episodes, so
62 improving projections of compound events and their impacts on extreme ozone may
63 better constrain future projections of extreme ozone episodes that have detrimental
64 effects on human health.

65

66 Key words: WRF/Chem, heat waves, stagnation, compound event, high surface ozone

67

68

69

70 **1. Introduction**

71

72 Tropospheric ozone is a secondary air pollutant resulting from complicated
73 photochemical reactions in the presence of its precursors such as volatile organic
74 compounds, NO_x, and CO (Placet et al., 2000). During the past decades, ozone pollution
75 has been of increasing concern to the public because excessive ozone may have an
76 adverse effect on human health such as increased risk of death (Filleul et al., 2006).
77 Ozone also has important effects on agriculture, constructions, and ecology (Weschler,
78 2006; Gryparis et al., 2004). Moreover, as a greenhouse gas, increasing concentrations
79 of ozone may amplify global warming (Mitchell, 1989; Schimel et al., 2000). Thus, it
80 is important to understand factors that govern ozone concentration in a perturbed
81 environment.

82 Ozone formation is particularly active when favorable meteorological conditions
83 coincide with the presence of high precursor emissions (Sharma et al., 2017; Agrawal
84 et al., 2003). Meteorological factors that are closely related to ozone formation include
85 daily maximum temperature (Fiore et al., 2015), wind speed, cloud cover (Jacob and
86 Winner, 2009; Otero et al., 2016), etc. Using dynamical downscaling to develop high
87 resolution climate scenarios, Souri et al. (2016) found significant ozone increase in the
88 US during heat wave events, with regional mean maximum daily 8 h average (MDA8)
89 O₃ increases roughly by 0.3 ppbv to 2.0 ppbv compared with non-heat wave period
90 under RCP 8.5. Based on observed data in the US from 2001-2010, Flynn et al. (2010)
91 found significant ozone increase during heat waves in particular for high ozone
92 concentration (i.e., 95th percentile ozone increased by 25%) and PM_{2.5} increase during
93 atmospheric stagnation (i.e., 95th percentile ozone increased by 65%). Both heat waves

94 (Gao et al., 2013; Hou and Wu, 2016; Gao et al., 2012) and atmospheric stagnation
95 (Sillmann et al., 2013) have been projected to increase substantially in the future,
96 suggesting significant impacts on ozone and PM_{2.5} in the future.

97 Going beyond traditional study of single extreme weather events and their impacts,
98 compound effect of extreme events has been explored in recent studies (Meehl and
99 Tebaldi, 2004). Compound effect can be defined using different criteria including: 1)
100 two or more extreme events occurring simultaneously or successively; 2) combinations
101 of extreme events potentially reinforcing each other; 3) two or more events combined
102 to become an extreme event even though the events themselves are not extreme (Horton
103 et al., 2014; Zscheischler and Seneviratne, 2017). The compound effect of more than
104 one extreme weather event has been shown to potentially have a higher impact than a
105 single extreme weather event alone. For example, Leonard et al. (2014) concluded that
106 compound effect could be higher than simple additive effect. As an example, they found
107 that the compound effect of heat waves and drought on the global carbon cycle exceeds
108 the additive effect of the individual events. For ozone, heat waves and atmospheric
109 stagnation are two key environmental factors that may lead to compound effect, as high
110 surface temperature under atmospheric stagnation with low wind speed, clear sky, and
111 reduced precipitation and soil moisture may escalate into a heat wave. This motivates
112 the present study to investigate the compound effect of simultaneous occurrence of heat
113 waves and atmospheric stagnation on ozone pollution.

114 Model output from the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project phase 5 (CMIP5;
115 Seneviratne et al. (2012)) has been widely used to investigate climate change and its
116 impacts. Using a multi-model ensemble such as CMIP5 is particularly important for
117 studying high-impact and low-probability extreme events to yield more robust analyses
118 (Zscheischler et al., 2014; Taylor et al., 2012; Sillmann et al., 2013). However, air
119 quality is significantly influenced by regional processes such as cloudiness and
120 mesoscale circulation as well as local emissions. With high spatial and temporal
121 resolutions and more detailed representations of chemical reactions and emission

122 inventory (Differbaugh and Giorgi, 2012), regional climate and chemistry models are
123 useful tools that have been widely adopted to study air quality and impact of climate
124 change on air quality (Kharin et al., 2013; 2013; Gao et al., 2012; Leung and Gustafson,
125 2005; 2010). This study combines analysis of regional online-coupled meteorology-
126 chemistry simulations and analysis of the CMIP5 multi-model ensemble to investigate
127 the impact of extreme weather events on ozone concentration in the present and future
128 climate.

129 In what follows, we first investigate the ability of the regional climate-chemistry
130 model in reproducing the observed extreme weather events and ozone concentration in
131 the US. Following the evaluation, the impact of single and compound extreme weather
132 events on ozone concentration at present and future is examined. Lastly, future changes
133 of extreme weather events are discussed in the broader context of the multi-model
134 CMIP5 ensemble.

135

136 **2. Model description and configuration**

137

138 In this study, a modified version of WRF/Chem v3.6.1 (Yahya et al., 2017a) was
139 adopted for regional simulations. The detailed modification has been described in
140 Yahya et al. (2017b), but the main new features include the extended Carbon Bond 2005
141 (CB05) of Yahya et al. (2016) gas-phase mechanism with chlorine chemistry of Yahya
142 et al. (2016). The anthropogenic emissions used in WRF/Chem were based on the
143 emissions in RCP8.5 (Yarwood et al., 2005; Sarwar and Bhawe, 2007) and detailed
144 information of processing the RCP 8.5 emission to model-ready format is available in
145 Moss et al. (2010). Biogenic emissions were calculated online in WRF/Chem
146 depending on the meteorology at present or future using the Model of Emissions of
147 Gases and Aerosols from Nature version 2 (van Vuuren et al., 2011). The
148 meteorological and chemical initial and boundary conditions for WRF/Chem were
149 downscaled from simulations provided by the modified CESM/CAM version 5.3

150 (referred to as CESM_NCSU) (Yahya et al., 2017b; Guenther et al., 2006; 2014; He
151 and Zhang, 2014). Glotfelty et al. (2017) documented the details of the downscaling
152 method and provided a comparison of some meteorological parameters simulated by
153 CESM_NCSU and CESM in CMIP5, showing consistent performance between the two
154 CESM versions. Two simulation periods using WRF/Chem were selected in this study:
155 a historical period (2001-2010) and a future period (2046-2055), and simulations were
156 performed over the contiguous US (Fig. 1), with a horizontal grid spacing of 36 km and
157 34 vertical layers from surface to 100 hPa. The simulations for the historical period
158 have been comprehensively evaluated against surface and satellite observations in
159 Yahya et al. (2017a) and the projected changes in climate, air quality, and their
160 interactions for the future period have been analyzed in Yahya et al. (2017b). However,
161 those results have not been previously evaluated for climate extremes and their impacts
162 on surface O₃, which is the focus of this work.

163 In addition to the regional model results, output from the CMIP5 (<https://esgf->
164 [node.llnl.gov/search/cmip5/](https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip5/)) multi-model ensemble was used in this study to elucidate
165 the impact of climate change on compound extreme weather events. A total of 20
166 CMIP5 models were selected in this study, and the list of models is shown in Table 1.
167 Variables used in this study mainly include daily maximum near-surface air temperature,
168 daily precipitation, daily mean near-surface wind speed and daily mean 500 hPa wind
169 speed, and the data were interpolated to a spatial resolution of 2° × 2°. Three periods
170 were selected with two periods that overlap in part with that of the regional simulations
171 (1991-2010 as historical period and 2041-2060 in RCP 8.5), and an additional period
172 extending to the end of this century (2081-2100).

173

174

175

176

177

178
179
180

Table 1 A list of the CMIP5 models used in this study

Model	Institution	Resolution (Lon×Lat)	Reference
1. ACCESS1.0	Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organization (CSIRO), Australia and Bureau of Meteorology (BOM), Australia	1.875×1.25	Glotfelty and Zhang (2016)
2. ACCESS1.3		1.875×1.25	Yahya et al. (2017b)
3. BCC-CSM1.1	Beijing Climate Center, China Meteorological Administration	2.81×2.77	Bi et al. (2013)
4. CanESM2	Canadian Centre for Climate Modeling and Analysis, Canada	2.81×2.79	Dix et al. (2013)
5. CMCC-CM	Euro-Mediterraneo sui Cambiamenti Climatici, Italy	0.75×0.75	Xin et al. (2012)
6. CMCC-CMS		1.875×1.86	Arora et al. (2011)
7. CSIRO_Mk3.6.0	Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organization (CSIRO), Australia	1.875×1.86	Scoccimarro et al. (2011)
8. GFDL-ESM2M	NOAA Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory, USA	2.5×2.0	Weare et al. (2012)
9. GFDL-ESM2G		2.5×2.0	
10. HadGEM2_CC	Met Office Hadley Centre, UK	1.875×1.25	Rotstayn et al. (2010)
11. INM-CM4	Institute for Numerical Mathematics, Russia	2.0×1.5	Donner et al. (2011)
12. IPSL-CM5A-LR	Institut Pierre-Simon Laplace, France	3.75×1.875	Jones et al. (2011)
13. IPSL-CM5A-MR		2.5×1.25	
14. IPSL-CM5B-LR		3.75×1.875	
15. MIROC-ESM	Atmosphere and Ocean Research Institute (The University of Tokyo), National Institute for Environmental Studies and Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology	2.81×1.77	Volodin et al. (2010)
16. MIROC-ESM-CHEM		2.81×1.77	
17. MIROC5		1.41×1.39	
18. MPI-ESM-LR	Max Planck Institute for Meteorology, Germany	1.875×1.85	Dufresne et al. (2013)
19. MPI-ESM-MR		1.875×1.85	

20. MRI-CGCM3	Meteorological Institute, Japan	Research	1.125×1.125	Watanabe et al. (2010)
---------------	------------------------------------	----------	-------------	---------------------------

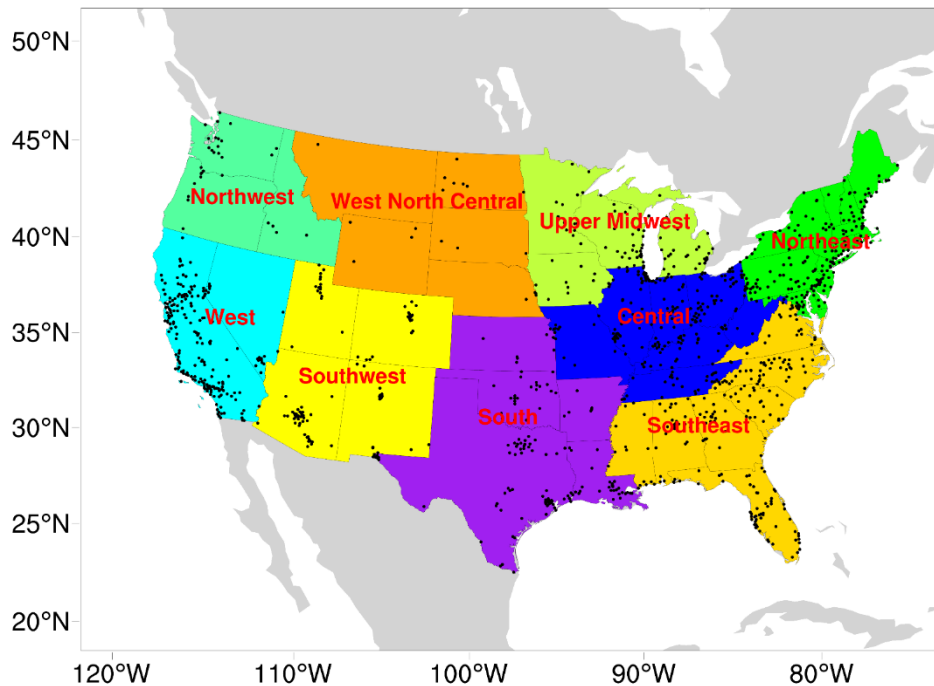
181

182 3. Evaluation of meteorology and ozone

183

184 The Air Quality System (AQS) dataset (downloaded from
 185 <https://www.epa.gov/aqs>) was used in this study to evaluate how well the WRF/Chem
 186 model performs in simulating ozone concentrations, particularly high ozone
 187 concentrations that are more strongly related to extreme weather events. The locations
 188 of observation stations in AQS are shown in Fig. 1 and overlaid on nine climate regions
 189 in the US (Karl and Koss, 1984). For evaluation of simulated extreme weather events,
 190 the NCEP North American Regional Reanalysis (Zanchettin et al., 2013) dataset was
 191 used.

192



193

194 Fig. 1. The WRF/Chem simulation domain and climate regions in the US. The red
 195 points (~ 1200) represent the observation stations of O₃ in AQS.

196

197 3.1 Evaluation of extreme weather events

198

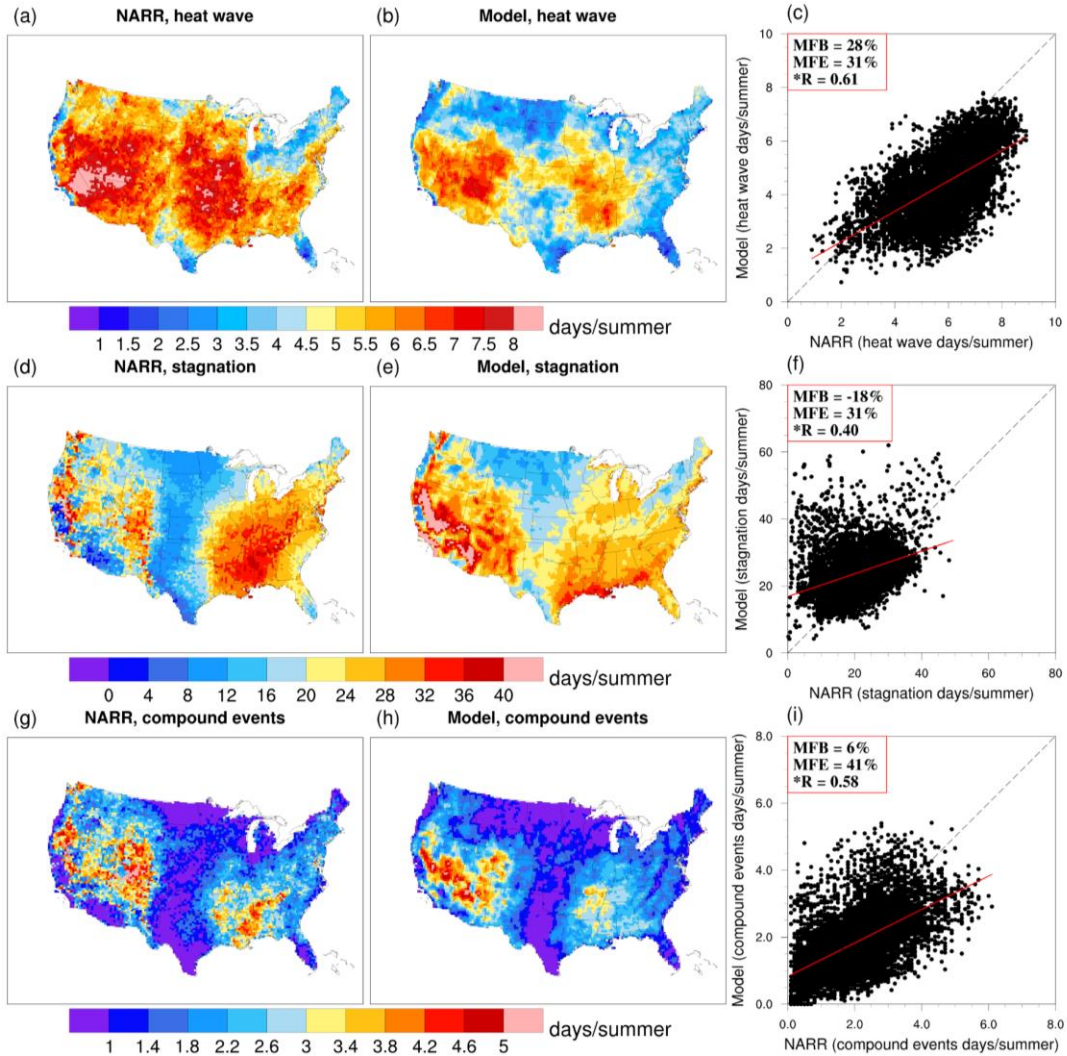
199 Two types of extreme weather events including heat waves and atmospheric

200 stagnation, as well as their compound events were investigated, considering their close
201 relationship with ozone pollution (Hou and Wu, 2016). A heat wave is defined to occur
202 when daily maximum 2-meter air temperature exceeds a certain threshold continuously
203 for three days or more. The threshold is set as the 97.5th percentile of the historical
204 period (2001-2010 for WRF/Chem and 1991-2010 for CMIP5 in this study) and is
205 location dependent to take into account the wide-ranging characteristics of different
206 regions (Yukimoto et al., 2012; Mesinger et al., 2005). An atmospheric stagnation day
207 is defined to occur when daily mean 10-m wind speed, daily mean 500 hPa wind speed,
208 and daily total precipitation are less than 20% of the climatological mean condition
209 (2001-2010 for WRF/Chem in this study) (Gao et al., 2012; Meehl and Tebaldi, 2004).
210 A compound event occurs when both heat wave and atmospheric stagnation occur
211 simultaneously on the same day. For each grid, the same threshold determined for the
212 present period is used for the future period to evaluate the future changes.

213 To evaluate the ability of the regional model in reproducing the extreme weather
214 events, Fig. 2 shows the distribution of mean number of summer heat wave days,
215 atmospheric stagnation days, and compound event days corresponding to coincidental
216 heat wave and atmospheric stagnation during 2001-2010. Observations based on the
217 NARR dataset and the model results are shown, along with scatterplots comparing the
218 observations and simulations at each NARR grid point over land. Statistical metrics,
219 including mean fractional bias (MFB), mean fractional error (MFE) and correlation
220 coefficient (R), based on the formulae (A2), (A3) and (A6) in the appendix, are shown
221 in the scatterplots.

222

223



224

225 Fig. 2. Distribution of mean number of extreme weather days in summer of 2001-
 226 2010 from observations (NARR; left panels) and model simulations (middle panels)
 227 and scatterplots comparing them at each NARR grid point over land (right panels) for
 228 heat wave days (Figs. 2a,b,c), atmospheric stagnation days (Figs. 2d,e,f) and
 229 compound event days (Figs. 2g,h,i). The numbers located on the top left of the
 230 scatterplots (Fig. 2c,f,i) indicate the statistical metrics including mean fractional bias
 231 (MFB), mean fractional error (MFE) and correlation coefficient (R). A r-test ($\alpha=0.05$)
 232 for the linear correlation coefficient was performed and *R indicates statistical
 233 significance at 95% confidence level. The red solid lines in the scatterplots are the
 234 linear regression lines, and the black dashed lines are one-to-one reference lines.

235

236 The spatial distributions of both heat waves and atmospheric stagnation are
 237 generally consistent between NARR and WRF/Chem (top and middle rows). For
 238 example, for heat waves (Figs. 2a,b), the model captures the high frequency of
 239 occurrence in the western US and eastern central US albeit widespread

240 underestimations particularly in the northern US and the central Great Plains. For
241 atmospheric stagnation (Figs. 2d,e), the observed dipole feature of high frequency of
242 occurrence in the western and eastern US, separated by the central Great Plains, is well
243 reproduced by the model but biases in the magnitude are noticeable. To quantitatively
244 evaluate the simulations, the WRF/Chem model results were bilinearly interpolated to
245 the NARR grid suggested by Horton et al. (2014), and scatterplots were drawn to show
246 the results for all the NARR grid points (Figs. 2c,f). No benchmark is available
247 regarding the statistical metrics for extreme weather events but we adopt the
248 benchmarks widely used in air quality studies. For example, Hou and Wu (2016)
249 suggested 15%/35% (MFB/MFE) for O₃ and 50%/75% (MFB/MFE) for PM_{2.5} species.
250 From this perspective, the MFB and MFE for either heat waves or atmospheric
251 stagnation are within or close to the benchmarks for O₃, and well within the benchmarks
252 for PM_{2.5} species. Moreover, the model results are correlated with NARR, with R equals
253 to 0.61 and 0.40, respectively, for heat waves and atmospheric stagnation and
254 statistically significant at 95% confidence level.

255 The western US receives most of its precipitation in the cold season when the
256 North Pacific jet stream steers storm tracks across the region (Neelin et al., 2013).
257 During summer, the North Pacific subtropical high pressure center expands and exerts
258 a stronger influence on the western US, increasing the frequency of atmospheric
259 stagnation (Wang and Angell, 1999). Combining the low wind speed and low
260 probability of precipitation during stagnation with low antecedent soil moisture
261 condition generally prevalent during summer, heat waves can develop to create a
262 maximum center of combined extreme events beyond the coastal mountain ranges of
263 the western US (Zhao and Khalil, 1993). The eastern central US is prone to heat wave
264 and stagnation as a result of the upper level ridge that develops during summer in that
265 region. These climatic conditions give rise to the dipole patterns of maximum heat wave
266 and stagnation in the western and eastern central US. The dipole pattern becomes more
267 obvious and magnified for the compound events because stagnation can promote the

268 development of heat waves, as discussed earlier. For the compound events, the
269 simulation performs well and even better than the metrics of atmospheric stagnation
270 events. The high values in western and southeastern US, as well as the low values in
271 the central and upper Midwestern US are reasonably captured by the model, with
272 statistically significant correlation ($R= 0.58$).

273 Thus, WRF/Chem in general well reproduced the spatial patterns and frequency
274 of the extreme weather events including heat waves, atmospheric stagnation, and their
275 compound events. Although atmospheric stagnation occurs more than 20 days during
276 the summer in large areas over the western and eastern US, heat waves do not occur for
277 more than 10 days generally, so the compound events of heat waves and stagnation are
278 rather rare and occur on average for no more than 5 days during summer over the US.
279 In the next section, ozone concentrations during these extreme weather events are
280 analyzed.

281

282 **3.2 Evaluation of ozone concentrations during extreme weather events**

283

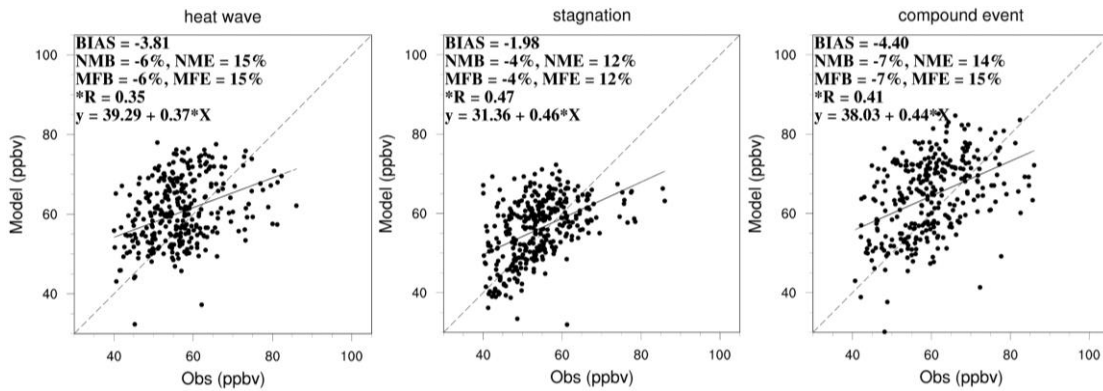
284 Maximum daily 8-hr (MDA8) ozone is an important variable considering its close
285 relationship with human health (USEPA, 2007) so we focus on the evaluation of MDA8
286 O_3 during summertime. Fig. S1 shows the spatial distributions of MDA8 ozone with or
287 without extreme weather event in the WRF/Chem simulations and the NARR/AQS
288 observations. MDA8 ozone with extreme weather events (Fig. S1; left panels) show
289 similar increase compared to MDA8 ozone without extreme weather events in both
290 model simulations and observations over the eastern US. In the west coast, the increase
291 is slightly higher in model simulations than in observation. Overall, WRF/Chem well
292 reproduced the influence of extreme weather event on enhancing MDA8 ozone over
293 the US.

294 From the perspective of public health, USEPA (2007) recommended attention to
295 ozone values higher than 40 ppbv because the human impact of ozone is small for low
296 ozone concentration. Thus, we compare the mean ozone concentrations during summer

297 of 2001-2010 between observed data (AQS) and model results for the following three
298 conditions in Fig. 3: 1) days with heat waves, but no atmospheric stagnation; 2) days
299 with atmospheric stagnation but no heat waves; 3) days with compound events (both
300 heat wave and atmospheric stagnation) occurring. Thus the first two conditions identify
301 single extreme events and the third condition identifies compound extreme events. We
302 compare observed ozone concentration greater than or equal to 40 ppbv and the
303 simulated ozone concentration corresponding to the same locations of the observations.

304 As depicted in Fig. 3, WRF/Chem reasonably reproduced the observed ozone
305 concentrations during the extreme weather events, showing statistically significant
306 correlations with the observed AQS data. Moreover, if the benchmark (15%/35% for
307 MFB/MFE and 10%/20% for NMB/NME) suggested by USEPA (2007) is used as a
308 reference, all the statistical metrics based on evaluation against ozone higher than 40
309 ppbv in observations are within or much smaller than the benchmarks, illustrating
310 promising ability of WRF/Chem in simulating the ozone concentrations during heat
311 waves, stagnation, and their compound events. Even if all ozone values including values
312 below 40 ppbv are considered, the four metrics (MFB/MFE and NMB/NME) are mostly
313 within the benchmarks and the correlation coefficients between model and observation
314 are only slightly reduced by 0.04, 0.11, and 0.1 for the three types of extreme weather
315 events, respectively, and all values are still statistically significant. However, the
316 general low biases of the simulations are obvious from the regression lines. Ozone
317 concentrations during compound extreme events are clearly shifted to higher values
318 relative to ozone concentrations during single extreme events.

319

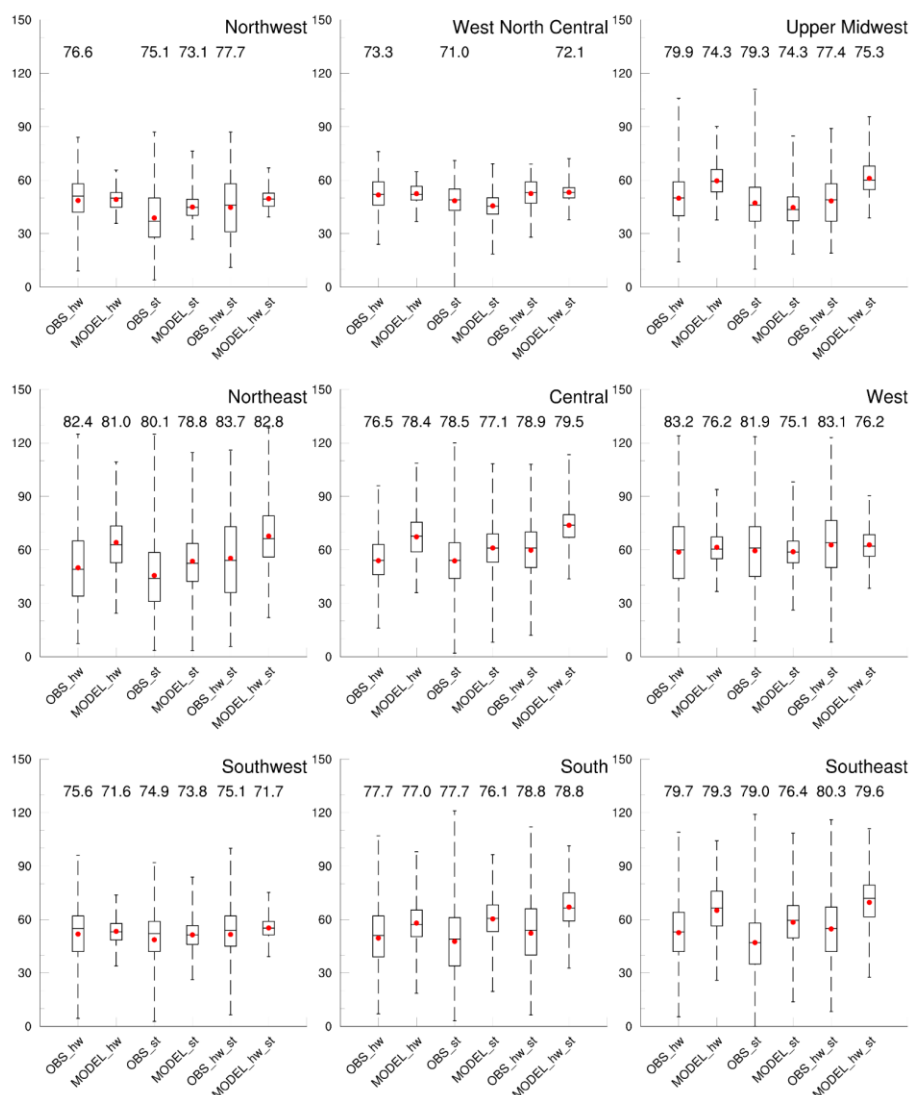


320
 321 Fig. 3. Ozone concentration comparison between observations (AQS) and WRF/Chem
 322 simulations during heat waves (left), atmospheric stagnation (middle), and compound
 323 heat wave and atmospheric stagnation events (right). Metrics shown inside each figure
 324 were from formula (A1) to (A6) in the Appendix. An r-test ($\alpha=0.05$) is performed to
 325 test the statistical significance and *R indicates statistical significance at 95%
 326 confidence level. The solid line is the linear regression line, and the dashed line is a
 327 one-to-one reference line.

328
 329 To delve into the spatial heterogeneity, ozone concentrations from model and
 330 observations for the three types of extreme weather events are shown using box-and-
 331 whisker plots in Fig. 4. Considering the detrimental effect on human health when
 332 MDA8 ozone concentration exceeds 70 ppbv by National Ambient Air Quality
 333 Standards (NAAQS), we evaluate the WRF/Chem simulated ozone concentrations
 334 above this particular threshold. We calculated the mean values of MDA8 ozone
 335 concentration exceeding 70 ppbv for each type of extreme weather events, and the mean
 336 values are marked at the top of each panel in Fig. 4.

337 The box-and-whisker plots show some unique features in the observations. For
 338 example, the mean ozone (red dot) concentrations tend to be slightly higher when heat
 339 waves and stagnation occur at the same time, while the mean values are relatively lower
 340 during atmospheric stagnation than during heat waves. These are consistent with Fig. 3
 341 when values are plotted regardless of the regions. This feature was reasonably captured
 342 by the model, in particular over regions in the eastern US, such as Northeast and
 343 Southeast. Regarding high ozone concentrations (i.e., values higher than 70 ppbv), the
 344 model is skillful in the eastern US with major anthropogenic emissions. The mean bias
 345 could be as small as 0.4 ppbv (over the Southeast during heat waves), and mostly within

346 1 ppbv. However, for some regions, i.e., West and Southwest, negative biases could
 347 reach a few ppbv; the negative biases in many regions are likely linked to an
 348 underestimation of heat wave intensity, which is reflected in the underestimation of heat
 349 wave days as shown in section 3.1. Other possible reasons for the negative biases in
 350 surface O₃ include uncertainties in precursor emissions, boundary conditions, as well
 351 as overpredictions in precipitation, as reported in Yahya et al. (2017a).
 352
 353



354
 355 Fig. 4. MDA8 ozone concentration comparisons during the summer of 2001-2010 in
 356 nine climate regions (according to Fig. 1), with box-and-whisker plots showing the
 357 minimum, maximum (line end-points), 25th percentile, 75th percentile (boxes),
 358 medians (black lines) and average (red point) of mean MDA8 ozone from observation
 359 (NARR/AQS; with prefix OBS_) and model (WRF/Chem; with prefix MODEL_)

360 during heat waves (with suffix hw), atmospheric stagnation (with suffix st) and
361 compound events of both heat wave and atmospheric stagnation (with suffix of hw_st).
362 The numbers at the top of each panel indicate the average values of MDA8 ozone
363 concentration above the standard (70ppbv).
364

365 To further evaluate the capability of WRF/Chem in modeling high ozone (beyond
366 70ppbv), Fig. S2 displays the interannual variability of high ozone over the US in the
367 WRF/Chem simulations and AQS observations. For observations, the variance of
368 annual mean high ozone were calculated only for grids with more than five years of
369 data. Similar to the ozone distribution in Fig. S1, larger values are mainly found in the
370 west coast and the eastern and central US. Variance over the eastern US in observations
371 is high while WRF/Chem is in general slightly smaller. Considering the total high ozone
372 episodes in historical periods, the contributions of extreme weather events to the high
373 ozone episodes are shown in Fig. S3. Only grids having 10 days or more with high
374 ozone are shown to avoid grid cells with very high fractions due to the small number
375 of high ozone episodes. WRF/Chem simulated a slightly larger fraction in the west coast
376 compared to observations and well captured the high fraction in the eastern US. This
377 feature is similar to the ozone distribution in Fig. S1. Hence overall, WRF/Chem
378 demonstrates a reasonable capability of modeling high ozone episodes and the
379 contribution of extreme weather events to high ozone episodes in the US.

380

381 **4. Impacts of extreme events and climate change on ozone** 382 **concentrations**

383

384 **4.1 Impacts of single and compound extreme events on ozone** 385 **concentrations**

386

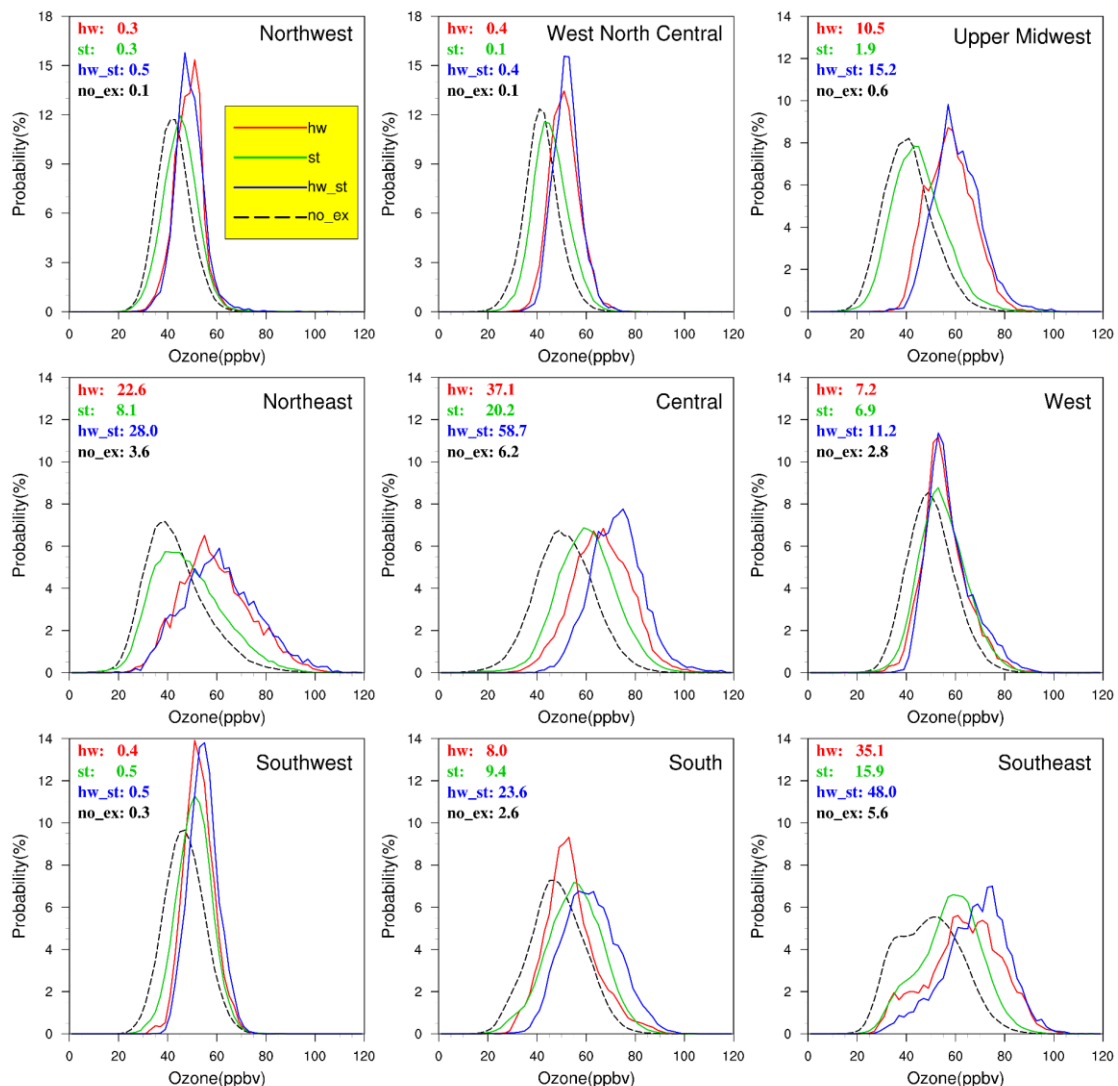
387 To investigate the impacts of the extreme weather events on ozone concentrations,
388 we composited the MDA8 ozone concentrations from WRF/Chem for the three types

389 of extreme weather events and to periods without any extreme event (non-extreme
390 event) in summer of 2001-2010 using probability density functions (PDFs) shown in
391 Fig. 5.

392 By comparing the solid lines (extreme event period) and dashed line (non-extreme
393 event period) in Fig. 5, all extreme weather events have positive impacts on ozone
394 particularly at the high-end tail of the distributions. The difference between ozone
395 concentrations with and without extreme events is statistically significant in all regions
396 at the 95% confidence level. For regions with mean ozone values exceeding 70 ppbv
397 (numbers shown in Fig. 5), much larger differences are noticeable between the PDFs of
398 extreme and non-extreme periods, with extreme events notably shifting both the low-
399 end and high-end tails towards higher values. These regions include Northeast, Central,
400 South, and West. Conversely, regions such as Northwest, West North Central and
401 Southwest show negligible differences between the PDFs. The spatial heterogeneity is
402 closely related to the spatial distribution of emissions in the US, i.e., regions with larger
403 increase of ozone concentration particularly near the high-end tail (i.e., Northeast,
404 Southeast, Central, Upper Midwest, South and West) due to extreme weather events are
405 also areas with higher anthropogenic emissions in the US (see also Fig. 3 in USEPA
406 (2007)). Thus, stronger photochemical reactions in those regions may enhance the
407 effect of extreme weather events on ozone formation.

408 Now comparing the effects of different types of extreme weather events on ozone
409 concentrations (solid lines of different colors in Fig. 5), the effect of heat waves on
410 ozone formation is generally larger than the effect of atmospheric stagnation, whereas
411 the compound effect is larger than the effect of either type of single extreme weather
412 event. This feature displays similar spatial heterogeneity as discussed above, i.e., the
413 largest impact from the compound effect occurs in the South and Central (about half of
414 the compound events leading to MDA8 ozone higher than 70 ppbv), followed by
415 Northeast, South, Upper Midwest and West (11%-28% compound event days resulting
416 in MDA8 O₃ of 70 ppbv or higher) and negligible increase from the compound events

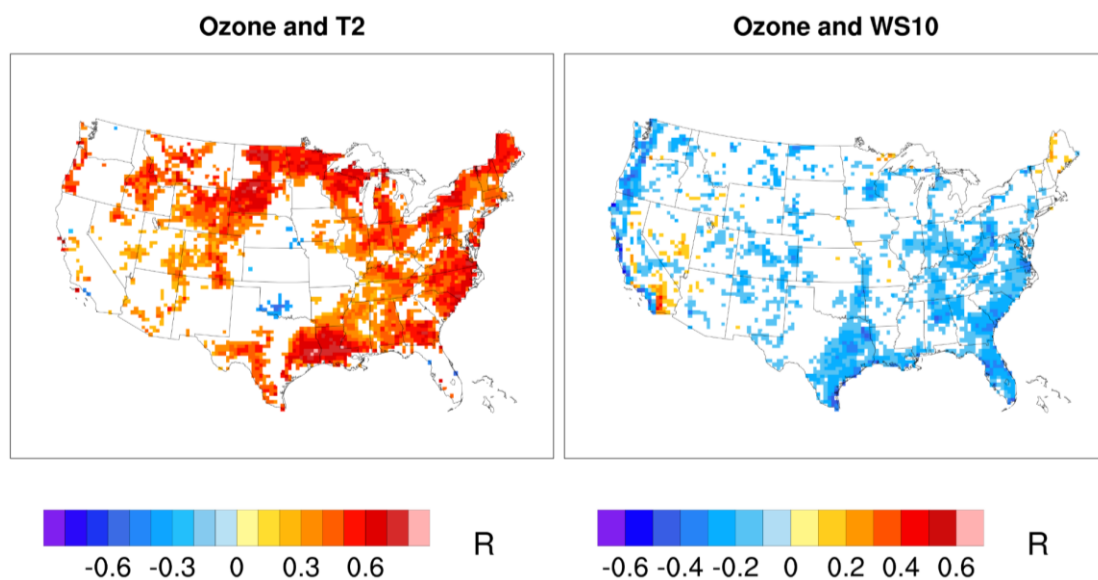
417 for other regions (Northwest, West North Central and Southwest).
 418
 419



420
 421 Fig. 5. Compositd probability density distributions of MDA8 ozone simulated by
 422 WRF/Chem for three types of extreme weather events (solid lines) and non-extreme
 423 event periods (dashed line) during summer of 2001-2010 in nine regions (according to
 424 Fig. 1). Each panel includes four numbers on the upper left showing the probability of
 425 MDA8 ozone higher than 70ppbv during extreme weather events for heat waves
 426 (hw:red), stagnation (st:green), compound extremes events (hw_st:blue) and non-
 427 extreme periods (no_ex:black). Note that all panels except for the Northwest and West
 428 North Central use the same scale for the y-axis
 429

430 Besides the distinguishing impacts extreme events have on ozone relative to non-
 431 extreme days, how high the concentration of ozone can reach during extreme events
 432 may depend on the intensity of the extreme events and the emissions. Fig. 6 shows the

433 correlations between ozone concentration with the daily maximum 2-meter temperature
 434 during heat waves and 10-meter wind speed during atmospheric stagnation events. The
 435 correlations between temperature and ozone are positive and statistically significant in
 436 areas with high emissions such as Northeast, Central, Upper Midwest, South, and
 437 Southeast. For stagnation events, the correlations are statistically significant mainly in
 438 South, Southeast, and along the west coast. These correlations between ozone and the
 439 intensity of extreme events are consistent with the shift of the high-end tails of the PDFs
 440 to higher ozone values, as shown in Fig. 5. In areas with low emissions (e.g., Northwest
 441 and West North Central), ozone concentrations are not well correlated with the intensity
 442 of extreme events because the production of ozone is limited by the low emissions
 443 (Vingarzan, 2004). Hence only the low-end instead of the high-end tails of the PDFs
 444 are shifted to higher values in regions with low emissions, and the PDFs on extreme
 445 days are noticeably narrower compared to the PDFs on non-extreme days (Fig. 5). As
 446 climate change may increase the frequency as well as the intensity of extreme events,
 447 ozone concentrations may be affected, regardless of emissions control in the future.
 448
 449



450

451 Fig. 6. Correlation between ozone concentration and (left) daily maximum 2-meter
 452 temperature (T2) during heat waves and (right) 10-meter wind speed (WS10) during
 453 atmospheric stagnation in the WRF/Chem simulations. Only values that pass the t-test
 454 of statistical significance ($\alpha=0.05$) are shown in colors.

455

456 **4.2 Impacts of climate change on ozone concentrations**

457

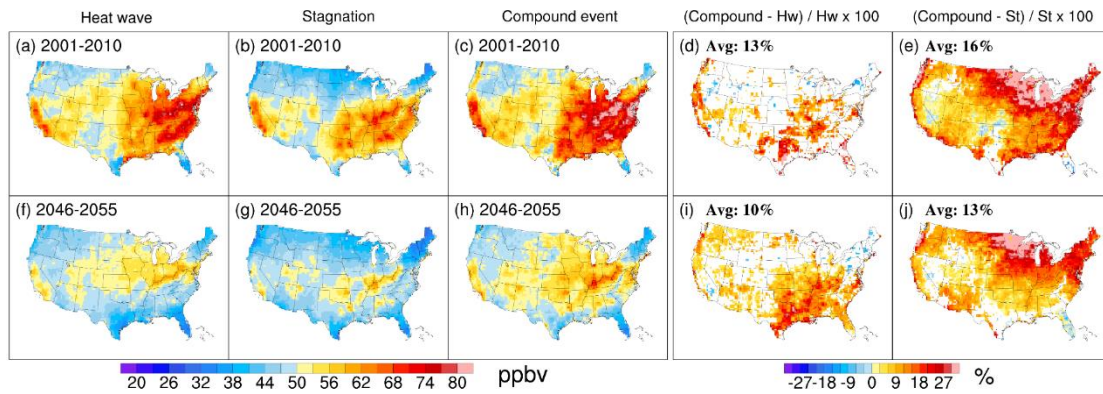
458 Having investigated the impacts of extreme weather events on ozone
459 concentration, we now focus on how ozone concentrations may change in the future
460 with climate change, changes in biogenic emissions in response to changes in climate,
461 and large anthropogenic emission reductions in the RCP 8.5 scenario. Fig. 7 shows the
462 spatial variations of ozone concentrations composited during extreme weather events
463 at present (top row) and in the future (bottom row). The spatial features displayed in
464 the top row are in agreement with what have been observed from Fig. 5, showing larger
465 impacts of extreme weather events on ozone formation east of the Rockies for both
466 single extreme events and compound events (Figs. 7a,b,c). Similarly large impacts are
467 also found in California, which are obscured in the regional average shown in Fig. 5.
468 Averaged over the US, MDA8 ozone concentrations increase by 22% and 12% during
469 heat waves and stagnation events compared to non-heat wave and non-stagnation days.
470 Compound events have significantly higher impact on ozone compared to the single
471 extreme events, with statistically significant differences of 13% and 16%, respectively,
472 for heat waves and stagnation (Figs. 7d,e). To understand why compound events have
473 larger impacts than single extreme events, Fig. S4 shows that during compound event
474 days, the daily maximum 2-meter temperature is comparable to that during heat waves
475 but 6.27°C higher than that during stagnation events, leading to a 16% increase in
476 MDA8 O₃ during compound events relative to stagnation events. Similarly, the 10-
477 meter wind speed during compound events is comparable to that during stagnation
478 events but 1.4 ms⁻¹ weaker than during heat wave days, leading to a 13% increase in
479 MDA8 O₃ relative to heat wave days.

480 In the future, as anthropogenic emissions are projected to decrease substantially
481 (i.e., Table 2 in USEPA (2007)), the mean ozone concentration correspondingly
482 decreases during both single extreme events and compound events compared to the
483 present day (i.e., Figs. 7f,g,h vs. Figs. 7a,b,c). However, even with the dramatic

484 anthropogenic emission reduction (i.e., 50% or more reduction in non-methane volatile
485 organic compounds and nitrogen oxides based on Table 2 in Gao et al. (2013)), extreme
486 weather events can still trigger the formation of high ozone concentration (e.g., in
487 central eastern US in Figs. 7f,g,h) to reach or exceed the present-day national standard
488 of 70 ppbv. From Fig. S4, the daily maximum 2-meter temperature is 5.54°C warmer
489 during compound events than stagnation events, leading to a 13% increase in MDA8
490 O₃ during compound events relative to stagnation events. Similarly, the 10-meter wind
491 speed is 1.28 ms⁻¹ weaker during compound events than heat wave events so MDA8 O₃
492 increases by 10% during compound events relative to heat wave events in the future.
493 Hence, compound events increase ozone concentrations by 10% and 13% more than
494 the effect of heat wave only and stagnation only, respectively. These numbers shown in
495 Figs. 7i, j are only 3% lower than those of the present day (Figs. 7d,e).

496 Despite dramatic reduction in anthropogenic emissions in the RCP 8.5 scenario
497 (Riahi et al., 2011), extreme weather events are still important considerations for air
498 quality and health in the future. This is because both frequency and intensity of extreme
499 events increase in the future, which compensate partly for the effects of reduced
500 emissions. From Fig. S5, heat waves occur on average 13.67 days more and 0.98°C
501 warmer in the future relative to the present, with most of the increase occurring in the
502 western US. There is no increase in the number of stagnation days in the future when
503 averaged over the US (Fig. S5), and the change in wind speed during stagnation is also
504 negligible (Fig. S6). However, the daily maximum 2-meter temperature is 1.42°C
505 warmer during stagnation events in the future compared to the present (Fig. S5). Lastly,
506 compound events occur on average 4.91 days more often, with temperature 1.25°C
507 warmer in the future compared to the present (Fig. S5). Hence the increase in the
508 number of heat waves and the warmer temperature during heat waves as well as
509 stagnation events increase their individual and compound effects on ozone
510 concentrations in the future. These motivate analysis of changes in extreme events in
511 the future using a multi-model ensemble for more robust results.

512



513

514 Fig. 7. Spatial distributions of mean MDA8 ozone concentrations simulated by
515 WRF/Chem for three types of extreme weather event episodes and the relative
516 difference between compound event and single event during summer in 2001-2010 (top
517 row) and 2046-2055 under RCP 8.5 (bottom row). In (d,e,i,j), only values with
518 statistically significant differences (t-test: $\alpha=0.05$) between the compound effect and
519 single event are shown, and the mean differences are labelled on the top left.

520

521 5. Changes of extreme weather events in future by CMIP5

522

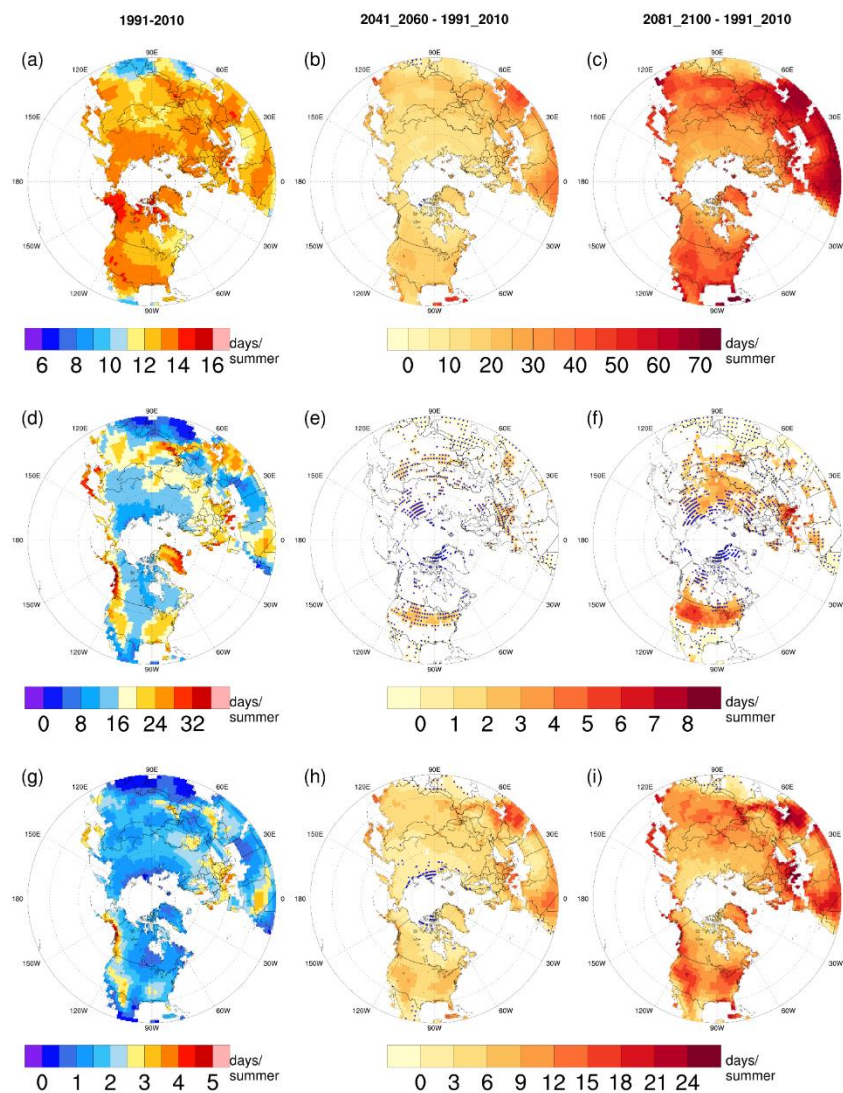
523 To provide further insight of future changes in ozone concentration, we analyzed
524 changes in extreme weather events using the multi-model ensemble of CMIP5 data.
525 Using CMIP5 data complements our analysis of the WRF/Chem simulations in two
526 ways. First, CMIP5 model outputs are available for a continuous period through 2100.
527 We analyzed three time periods, each 20 years long, for 1991-2010 as historical period,
528 and 2041-2060 and 2081-2100 in RCP 8.5 as future periods. Extending the analysis
529 period from 10 years for the regional climate simulations to 20 years for CMIP5 allows
530 for a more statistically robust analysis of extreme events. The added period of the late
531 century, 2081-2100, will elucidate how extreme weather events evolve with continuous
532 warming. Second, we extended our analysis using CMIP5 data to the entire northern
533 hemisphere starting from 20°N. The inclusion of other continents such as Europe and
534 China provides useful information for how extreme weather events may change in
535 densely populated regions, with potential impacts on air quality and health. Analysis of
536 the CMIP5 mean extreme event days over the US shows that in general, the CMIP5

537 mean has spatial patterns comparable to those of the observations and WRF/Chem
538 simulations but it has a much lower number of extreme event days, especially for
539 stagnation and compound events (not shown). The CMIP5 mean projected changes in
540 extreme event days also show comparable spatial patterns those of WRF/Chem over
541 the US, but again, the magnitudes of change are much smaller (not shown). Analysis of
542 the CMIP5 projections of extreme event changes is important to provide a multi-model
543 context of uncertainty.

544 The summer mean number of days at present (1991-2010) and changes in future
545 (2041-2060, 2081-2010) for heat waves, atmospheric stagnation, and compound events
546 are shown in Fig. 8. For robust comparisons between future and present climate, both
547 model agreement and significance are considered, as adopted by previous studies (Gao
548 et al., 2013; Gao et al., 2014). A total of 20 models were selected (listed in Table 1), and
549 values at any grid cell are considered to have agreement if more than 70% of the models
550 agree with the CMIP5 mean on the sign of the change. Once agreement is established,
551 statistical significance is tested over the grid cells, and the values at any grid cell are
552 statistically significant if at least half of the CMIP5 models show statistical significant
553 changes (t-test, $\alpha=0.05$). After the tests, most of the grid cells showing model agreement
554 also passed the statistical significance test; blue dots indicate grid cells with no
555 significant changes of extreme weather events. Three major continents were selected
556 for analysis and the results are summarized in Table 2.

557 As shown in Fig. 8 and Table 2, at present (Figs. 8a,d,g), the mean annual numbers
558 of heat waves, atmospheric stagnation and compound events are 12.9, 16.4 and 1.6,
559 respectively. In the future, there are robust increases of heat wave days worldwide,
560 consistent with previous studies (Seager et al., 2013), with a mean increase around 200%
561 by the end of this century. The changes in atmospheric stagnation are in general smaller
562 than the changes in heat waves; however, large increases can also be found in some
563 areas such as the western US. This is in contrast with the insignificant change in
564 stagnation days from the WRF/Chem simulation (Fig. S5), demonstrating the

565 importance for using a multi-model ensemble and investigating changes not just in the
 566 mid-century but further towards the end of the century when climate change signals
 567 become more prominent (Figs. 8e,f). The overall increase in stagnation events is on
 568 average 1 day per summer in the future over the northern hemisphere for atmospheric
 569 stagnation by the end of this century. Moreover, it is obvious that the compound event
 570 shows more dominant increases than stagnation event, with 2 days or less at present on
 571 average, but more than 10 days on average in the US, Europe and China. Since we have
 572 demonstrated that compound events have larger impact on ozone than single extreme
 573 events (Fig. 5), the large increase in compound event days suggests that they will be
 574 important considerations for projecting high ozone episodes.
 575



576

577 Fig. 8. Spatial distribution of historical (left column) and future changes in the mid-
578 century (second column) and end-of-century (third column) in the number of extreme
579 weather days per summer for heat waves (top row), atmospheric stagnation (middle
580 row) and compound events (bottom row) from CMIP5 over land in the north
581 hemisphere north of 20° N. For the future changes, only grids showing model
582 agreement are shown, with blue dots representing values with no statistical
583 significance.
584

585 As discussed in Section 4, both the frequency and intensity of extreme events have
586 important effects on ozone concentrations. From Fig. S7, the intensity of heat waves
587 is projected to increase with time throughout the 21st century as warming increases.
588 Both the WRF/Chem and CMIP5 results show larger increase in heat wave intensity
589 in the western US. During stagnation and compound events, the daily maximum 2-
590 meter temperature also increases with time. Consistent with WRF/Chem results (Fig.
591 S6), CMIP5 also shows negligible changes in wind speed during atmospheric
592 stagnation and compound event, but decrease during heat waves (Fig. S8), further
593 enhancing the effect on ozone formation.
594

595 Table 2. Average number of days of extreme weather event episodes in summer of 1991-
596 2010, 2041-2060 and 2081-2100, along with the future increase over the northern
597 hemisphere (NH) and three regions including the United States (US), Europe, and
598 China. Statistical significance test was applied using a t-test ($\alpha=0.05$), and values with
599 no statistical significance are italicized.
600

Areas	Heat wave (days/summer)		
	Hist (1991~2010)	2041~2060 - Hist	2081~2100 - Hist
NH	12.9	15.6	36.5
US	13.3	17.3	39.7
Europe	13.1	16.0	37.8
China	12.3	16.3	39.2
Areas	Stagnation (days/summer)		
	Hist(1991~2010)	2041~2060 - his	2081~2100 - Hist
NH	16.4	<i>0.2</i>	0.9
US	18.0	<i>0.6</i>	1.7
Europe	21.9	<i>0.2</i>	0.9
China	17.4	<i>0.1</i>	0.6

Areas	Compound events (days/summer)		
	Hist (1991~2010)	2041~2060 - Hist	2081~2100 - Hist
NH	1.6	4.1	9.2
US	2.0	5.1	11.3
Europe	1.9	4.9	11.5
China	1.6	4.6	10.5

601

602 **6. Conclusions and Discussions**

603

604 The regional model WRF/Chem version 3.6.1 has been used to downscale
605 simulations from the CESM_NCSU global model. The regional model well reproduced
606 the frequency of extreme weather events, including heat waves, atmospheric stagnation
607 and their compound events, and the ozone concentration during these extreme weather
608 events at present, compared to observations. Through comparison of ozone
609 concentrations during extreme weather events period and non-extreme period, we
610 established statistically significant higher ozone concentrations during the extreme
611 event period. In particular, compound events yield the highest contribution to high
612 ozone formation, followed in general by heat waves and atmospheric stagnation.

613 Compound events have larger impacts on ozone than single events because the
614 temperature during compound events is noticeably higher than that during stagnation-
615 only events and the wind speed during compound events is noticeably weaker than
616 during heat wave-only events. The combination of warmer temperature and weaker
617 winds promote photochemical reactions that produce high ozone episodes. Also
618 importantly, ozone concentrations increase with the intensity of extreme events in
619 regions with high emissions, leading to a shift in the PDFs towards higher ozone values,
620 and increasing the frequency of occurrence of high ozone episodes. In regions with low
621 emissions, extreme events noticeably increase the ozone concentrations at the low-end
622 tails, but the high-end tails are not shifted, leading to narrower PDFs during extreme
623 events relative to non-extreme events.

624 In the future, under the RCP 8.5 scenario, albeit large reductions in anthropogenic

625 emissions projected, extreme weather events can still trigger the formation of higher
626 ozone concentration. The increase in ozone concentrations during extreme events
627 relative to non-extreme events is comparable in the future as in the present. Furthermore,
628 compound events of heat waves and stagnation continue to have larger impacts on
629 ozone concentrations relative to the single weather extreme events. By utilizing a total
630 of 20 CMIP5 models, we found that under climate warming, more frequent extreme
631 weather events are projected to occur in mid- to end of this century. Among the
632 increases by the end of the century, compound events show a dominantly higher
633 fractional increase by a factor of 4-5, compared to the single events, i.e., heat waves (~
634 a factor of 2) or atmospheric stagnation (~ 14%), as shown in Table 2.

635 Since the CMIP5 models do not include detailed atmospheric chemistry, we cannot
636 assess how ozone concentrations may change in the mid-to-late 21st century. The
637 CMIP5 results indicate robust increases in the frequency and intensity of heat waves
638 and frequency of compound events with higher temperature in the future. While
639 reductions of anthropogenic emissions in the RCP 8.5 scenario will likely counter the
640 effects of extreme events on ozone concentrations, the frequency of high ozone
641 concentrations is enhanced by extreme events even in low emission regions (e.g.,
642 Northwest) in the present day (Fig. 5). Hence it is likely that high ozone episodes may
643 still occur in the future due to increases in extreme heat, despite reductions in
644 anthropogenic emissions, with adverse effect to human health.

645 However, similar to how low emissions constrain the high-end tails of the PDFs
646 of ozone from shifting to very high or extreme ozone concentrations even under
647 extreme weather conditions (e.g., Northwest in Fig. 5), reductions in anthropogenic
648 emissions in the future could reduce or eliminate the occurrence of extreme high ozone
649 episodes. Hence controlling anthropogenic emissions may be critical for reducing the
650 impacts of extreme events on extreme air quality episodes and associated human health
651 impacts. This may be especially important in regions like China that have experienced
652 severe air pollution in the recent decades. More attention to improving projections of

653 compound events and evaluating their impacts on ozone may better constrain the
 654 projections of extreme air quality episodes and inform strategies to reduce their
 655 detrimental effects on human health now and in the future.

656

657 **Appendix**

658

659 **Statistically metrics for evaluating model performance**

660

661 Metrics for model performance evaluation used in this study include BIAS (Mean
 662 Bias), NMB (Normalized Mean Bias, percent), NME (Normal Mean Error, percent),
 663 MFB (Mean Fractional Bias, percent), MFE (Mean Fractional Error percent) and R
 664 (Correlation Coefficient). Calculations of these metrics are shown below in Eqs. (A1)-
 665 (A5), where N is the number of sample size, MODEL and OBS represent the
 666 corresponding value in model simulation and observation (AQS sites or reanalysis data),
 667 respectively. As low OBS values can amplify the metrics, a cutoff of 40 ppbv or 60
 668 ppbv of ozone is suggested in evaluation for ozone. Benchmarks of MFB and MFE for
 669 O₃ are 15% and 35%, and of NMB and NME for O₃ are 10% and 20% (Tebaldi et al.,
 670 2011).

$$671 \quad BIAS = \frac{1}{N} \sum_1^N (Model - Obs) \quad (A1)$$

$$672 \quad NMB = \frac{\sum_1^N (Model - Obs)}{\sum_1^N (Obs)} \times 100\% \quad (A2)$$

$$673 \quad NME = \frac{\sum_1^N |Model - Obs|}{\sum_1^N (Obs)} \times 100\% \quad (A3)$$

$$674 \quad MFB = \frac{2}{N} \sum_1^N \left(\frac{(Model - Obs)}{(Model + Obs)} \right) \times 100\% \quad (A4)$$

$$675 \quad MFE = \frac{2}{N} \sum_1^N \left(\frac{|Model - Obs|}{(Model + Obs)} \right) \times 100\% \quad (A5)$$

676
$$R = \frac{\sum_1^N (Model - \overline{Model})(Obs - \overline{Obs})}{\sqrt{\sum_1^N (Model - \overline{Model})^2 \sum_1^N (Obs - \overline{Obs})^2}} \quad (A6)$$

677

678 **Acknowledgement.** This research was supported under Assistance Agreement No.
 679 RD835871 by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency to Yale University through
 680 the SEARCH (Solutions for Energy, AiR, Climate, and Health) project that supported
 681 L.R. Leung, Y. Zhang, and K. Wang, and by grants from the National Key Project of
 682 MOST (2017YFC0209801), National Natural Science Foundation of China (41705124)
 683 and the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities that supported J.
 684 Zhang, Y. Gao, K. Luo, and J. Fan. It has not been formally reviewed by EPA. The
 685 views expressed in this document are solely those of The SEARCH Center and do not
 686 necessarily reflect those of the Agency. EPA does not endorse any products or
 687 commercial services mentioned in this publication. PNNL is operated for DOE by
 688 Battelle Memorial Institute under contract DE-AC05-76RL01830. We thank
 689 Khairunnisa Yahya, a former graduate student of the Air Quality Forecasting
 690 Laboratory at NCSU for conducting the WRF/Chem simulations used in this work. We
 691 acknowledge the World Climate Research Programme's Working Group on Coupled
 692 Modelling, which is responsible for CMIP, and we thank the climate modeling groups
 693 for producing and making available their model output. Analysis data used to generate
 694 the plots in this manuscript can be accessed by contacting Yang Gao
 695 (yanggao@ouc.edu.cn), and the WRF/Chem model output can be accessed by
 696 contacting Yang Zhang (yzhang9@ncsu.edu).

697

698 **References**

699

- 700 Agrawal, M., B. Singh, M. Rajput, F. Marshall and J. N. B. Bell (2003). Effect of air
 701 pollution on peri-urban agriculture: a case study. *Environ Pollut* 126(3): 323-329.
 702 Arora, V., J. Scinocca, G. Boer, J. Christian, K. Denman, G. Flato, V. Kharin, W. Lee

703 and W. Merryfield (2011). Carbon emission limits required to satisfy future
704 representative concentration pathways of greenhouse gases. *Geophys Res Lett* 38(5):
705 387-404.

706 Bi, D., M. Dix, S. J. Marsland, S. O'Farrell, H. Rashid, P. Uotila, A. Hirst, E. Kowalczyk,
707 M. Golebiewski and A. Sullivan (2013). The ACCESS coupled model: description,
708 control climate and evaluation. *Aust. Meteorol. Oceanogr. J.* 63(1): 41-64.

709 Diffenbaugh, N. S. and F. Giorgi (2012). Climate change hotspots in the CMIP5 global
710 climate model ensemble. *Climatic Change* 114(3-4): 813-822.

711 Dix, M., P. Vohralik, D. Bi, H. Rashid, S. Marsland, S. O'Farrell, P. Uotila, T. Hirst, E.
712 Kowalczyk and A. Sullivan (2013). The ACCESS coupled model: documentation of
713 core CMIP5 simulations and initial results. *Aust. Meteorol. Oceanogr. J.* 63(1): 83-99.

714 Donner, L. J., B. L. Wyman, R. S. Hemler, L. W. Horowitz, Y. Ming, M. Zhao, J.-C.
715 Golaz, P. Ginoux, S.-J. Lin and M. D. Schwarzkopf (2011). The dynamical core,
716 physical parameterizations, and basic simulation characteristics of the atmospheric
717 component AM3 of the GFDL global coupled model CM3. *Journal of Climate* 24(13):
718 3484-3519.

719 Dufresne, J.-L., M.-A. Foujols, S. Denvil, A. Caubel, O. Marti, O. Aumont, Y.
720 Balkanski, S. Bekki, H. Bellenger and R. Benshila (2013). Climate change projections
721 using the IPSL-CM5 Earth System Model: from CMIP3 to CMIP5. *Climate Dynamics*
722 40(9-10): 2123-2165.

723 Filleul, L., S. Cassadou, S. Medina, P. Fabres, A. Lefranc, D. Eilstein, A. Le Tertre, L.
724 Pascal, B. Chardon, M. Blanchard, C. Declercq, J. F. Jusot, H. Prouvost and M. Ledrans
725 (2006). The relation between temperature, ozone, and mortality in nine french cities
726 during the heat wave of 2003. *Environ Health Persp* 114(9): 1344-1347.

727 Fiore, A. M., V. Naik and E. M. Leibensperger (2015). Air Quality and Climate
728 Connections. *J Air Waste Manage* 65(6): 645-685.

729 Flynn, J., B. Lefer, B. Rappengluck, M. Leuchner, R. Perna, J. Dibb, L. Ziemba, C.
730 Anderson, J. Stutz, W. Brune, X. R. Ren, J. Q. Mao, W. Luke, J. Olson, G. Chen and J.
731 Crawford (2010). Impact of clouds and aerosols on ozone production in Southeast
732 Texas. *Atmos Environ* 44(33): 4126-4133.

733 Gantt, B., J. He, X. Zhang, Y. Zhang and A. Nenes (2014). Incorporation of advanced
734 aerosol activation treatments into CESM/CAM5: model evaluation and impacts on
735 aerosol indirect effects. *Atmos Chem Phys* 14(14): 7485-7497.

736 Gao, Y., J. S. Fu, J. B. Drake, J. F. Lamarque and Y. Liu (2013). The impact of emission
737 and climate change on ozone in the United States under representative concentration
738 pathways (RCPs). *Atmos Chem Phys* 13(18): 9607-9621.

739 Gao, Y., J. S. Fu, J. B. Drake, Y. Liu and J. F. Lamarque (2012). Projected changes of
740 extreme weather events in the eastern United States based on a high resolution climate
741 modeling system. *Environ Res Lett* 7(4): 044025.

742 Gao, Y., L. R. Leung, J. Lu, Y. Liu, M. Y. Huang and Y. Qian (2014). Robust spring
743 drying in the southwestern U. S. and seasonal migration of wet/dry patterns in a warmer
744 climate. *Geophys Res Lett* 41(5): 1745-1751.

745 Glotfelty, T., J. He and Y. Zhang (2017). Impact of future climate policy scenarios on
746 air quality and aerosol-cloud interactions using an advanced version of CESM/CAM5:
747 Part I. model evaluation for the current decadal simulations. *Atmos Environ* 152: 222-
748 239.

749 Glotfelty, T. and Y. Zhang (2016). Impact of future climate policy scenarios on air
750 quality and aerosol-cloud interactions using an advanced version of CESM/CAM5: Part
751 II. Future trend analysis and impacts of projected anthropogenic emissions. *Atmos*
752 *Environ* 152: 531-552.

753 Gryparis, A., B. Forsberg, K. Katsouyanni, A. Analitis, G. Touloumi, J. Schwartz, E.
754 Samoli, S. Medina, H. R. Anderson, E. M. Niciu, H. E. Wichmann, B. Kriz, M. Kosnik,
755 J. Skorkovsky, J. M. Vonk and Z. Dortbudak (2004). Acute effects of ozone on mortality
756 from the "Air pollution and health: A European approach" project. *Am J Resp Crit Care*
757 170(10): 1080-1087.

758 Guenther, A., T. Karl, P. Harley, C. Wiedinmyer, P. I. Palmer and C. Geron (2006).
759 Estimates of global terrestrial isoprene emissions using MEGAN (Model of Emissions
760 of Gases and Aerosols from Nature). *Atmos Chem Phys* 6: 3181-3210.

761 He, J. and Y. Zhang (2014). Improvement and further development in CESM/CAM5:
762 gas-phase chemistry and inorganic aerosol treatments. *Atmos Chem Phys* 14(17): 9171-
763 9200.

764 Horton, D. E., C. B. Skinner, D. Singh and N. S. Diffenbaugh (2014). Occurrence and
765 persistence of future atmospheric stagnation events. *Nat Clim Change* 4(8): 698-703.

766 Hou, P. and S. L. Wu (2016). Long-term Changes in Extreme Air Pollution Meteorology
767 and the Implications for Air Quality. *Sci Rep-Uk* 6: 23792.

768 Jacob, D. J. and D. A. Winner (2009). Effect of climate change on air quality. *Atmos*
769 *Environ* 43(1): 51-63.

770 Jones, C., J. Hughes, N. Bellouin, S. Hardiman, G. Jones, J. Knight, S. Liddicoat, F.
771 O'Connor, R. J. Andres and C. Bell (2011). The HadGEM2-ES implementation of
772 CMIP5 centennial simulations. *Geosci Model Dev* 4(3): 543.

773 Karl, T. and W. J. Koss (1984). Regional and national monthly, seasonal, and annual
774 temperature weighted by area, 1895-1983.

775 Kharin, V. V., F. W. Zwiers, X. Zhang and M. Wehner (2013). Changes in temperature
776 and precipitation extremes in the CMIP5 ensemble. *Climatic Change* 119(2): 345-357.

777 Leonard, M., S. Westra, A. Phatak, M. Lambert, B. van den Hurk, K. McInnes, J. Risbey,
778 S. Schuster, D. Jakob and M. Stafford-Smith (2014). A compound event framework for
779 understanding extreme impacts. *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Climate Change* 5(1):
780 113-128.

781 Leung, L. R. and W. I. Gustafson (2005). Potential regional climate change and
782 implications to US air quality. *Geophys Res Lett* 32(16): 367-384.

783 Meehl, G. A. and C. Tebaldi (2004). More intense, more frequent, and longer lasting
784 heat waves in the 21st century. *Science* 305(5686): 994.

785 Mesinger, F., G. Dimego, E. Kalnay, P. Shafran, W. Ebisuzaki, D. Jovic, K. Mitchell, H.
786 Berbery, Y. Fan and W. Higgins (2005). North American Regional Reanalysis:

787 Evaluation Highlights and Early Usage. *Bull. Amer. Meteor. Soc.* 87(3): 561–608.

788 Mitchell, J. F. (1989). The “greenhouse” effect and climate change. *Reviews of*
789 *Geophysics* 27(1): 115-139.

790 Moss, R. H., J. A. Edmonds, K. A. Hibbard, M. R. Manning, S. K. Rose, D. P. van
791 Vuuren, T. R. Carter, S. Emori, M. Kainuma, T. Kram, G. A. Meehl, J. F. B. Mitchell,
792 N. Nakicenovic, K. Riahi, S. J. Smith, R. J. Stouffer, A. M. Thomson, J. P. Weyant and
793 T. J. Wilbanks (2010). The next generation of scenarios for climate change research and
794 assessment. *Nature* 463(7282): 747-756.

795 Neelin, J. D., B. Langenbrunner, J. E. Meyerson, A. Hall and N. Berg (2013). California
796 Winter Precipitation Change under Global Warming in the Coupled Model
797 Intercomparison Project Phase 5 Ensemble. *Journal of Climate* 26(17): 6238-6256.

798 Otero, N., J. Sillmann, J. L. Schnell, H. W. Rust and T. Butler (2016). Synoptic and
799 meteorological drivers of extreme ozone concentrations over Europe. *Environ Res Lett*
800 11(2): 24005.

801 Placet, M., C. O. Mann, R. O. Gilbert and M. J. Niefer (2000). Emissions of ozone
802 precursors from stationary sources: a critical review. *Atmos Environ* 34(12-14): 2183-
803 2204.

804 Qian, Y., S. J. Ghan and L. R. Leung (2010). Downscaling hydroclimatic changes over
805 the Western US based on CAM subgrid scheme and WRF regional climate simulations.
806 *Int J Climatol* 30(5): 675-693.

807 Riahi, K., S. Rao, V. Krey, C. H. Cho, V. Chirkov, G. Fischer, G. Kindermann, N.
808 Nakicenovic and P. Rafaj (2011). RCP 8.5-A scenario of comparatively high
809 greenhouse gas emissions. *Climatic Change* 109(1-2): 33-57.

810 Rotstayn, L. D., M. A. Collier, M. R. Dix, Y. Feng, H. B. Gordon, S. P. O'Farrell, I. N.
811 Smith and J. Syktus (2010). Improved simulation of Australian climate and ENSO -
812 related rainfall variability in a global climate model with an interactive aerosol
813 treatment. *Int J Climatol* 30(7): 1067-1088.

814 Sarwar, G. and P. V. Bhave (2007). Modeling the effect of chlorine emissions on ozone
815 levels over the eastern United States. *J Appl Meteorol Clim* 46(7): 1009-1019.

816 Schimel, D., D. Glover, J. Melack, R. Beer, R. Myneni, Y. Kaufman, C. Justice and J.
817 Drummond (2000). *Atmospheric Chemistry and Greenhouse Gases*.

818 Scoccimarro, E., S. Gualdi, A. Bellucci, A. Sanna, P. Giuseppe Fogli, E. Manzini, M.
819 Vichi, P. Oddo and A. Navarra (2011). Effects of tropical cyclones on ocean heat
820 transport in a high-resolution coupled general circulation model. *Journal of Climate*
821 24(16): 4368-4384.

822 Seager, R., M. F. Ting, C. H. Li, N. Naik, B. Cook, J. Nakamura and H. B. Liu (2013).
823 Projections of declining surface-water availability for the southwestern United States.
824 *Nat Clim Change* 3(5): 482-486.

825 Seneviratne, S. I., N. Nicholls, D. Easterling, C. M. Goodess, S. Kanae, J. Kossin, Y.
826 Luo, J. Marengo, K. McInnes and M. Rahimi (2012). Changes in climate extremes and
827 their impacts on the natural physical environment In: *Managing the Risks of Extreme*
828 *Events and Disasters to Advance Climate Change Adaptation* [Field et al. (eds.)]. A

829 Special Report of Working Groups I and II of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate
830 Change (IPCC). Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, and New York, NY,
831 USA, pp. 109-230.

832 Sharma, S., P. Sharma and M. Khare (2017). Photo-chemical transport modelling of
833 tropospheric ozone: A review. *Atmos Environ* 159: 34-54.

834 Sillmann, J., V. V. Kharin, F. W. Zwiers, X. Zhang and D. Bronaugh (2013). Climate
835 extremes indices in the CMIP5 multimodel ensemble: Part 2. Future climate projections.
836 *Journal of Geophysical Research Atmospheres* 118(6): 2473-2493.

837 Souri, A. H., Y. S. Choi, X. S. Li, A. Kotsakis and X. Jiang (2016). A 15-year
838 climatology of wind pattern impacts on surface ozone in Houston, Texas. *Atmos Res*
839 174: 124-134.

840 Taylor, K. E., R. J. Stouffer and G. A. Meehl (2012). An Overview of Cmp5 and the
841 Experiment Design. *B Am Meteorol Soc* 93(4): 485-498.

842 Tebaldi, C., J. M. Arblaster and R. Knutti (2011). Mapping model agreement on future
843 climate projections. *Geophys Res Lett* 38: L23701.

844 USEPA (2007). Guidance on the Use of Models and Other Analyses for Demonstrating
845 Attainment of Air Quality Goals for Ozone, PM2.5. and Regional Haze. EPA-454/B-
846 07e002.

847 van Vuuren, D. P., J. Edmonds, M. Kainuma, K. Riahi, A. Thomson, K. Hibbard, G. C.
848 Hurtt, T. Kram, V. Krey, J. F. Lamarque, T. Masui, M. Meinshausen, N. Nakicenovic,
849 S. J. Smith and S. K. Rose (2011). The representative concentration pathways: an
850 overview. *Climatic Change* 109(1-2): 5-31.

851 Vingarzan, R. (2004). A review of surface ozone background levels and trends. *Atmos*
852 *Environ* 38(21): 3431-3442.

853 Volodin, E., N. Dianskii and A. Gusev (2010). Simulating present-day climate with the
854 INMCM4.0 coupled model of the atmospheric and oceanic general circulations.
855 *Izvestiya, Atmospheric and Oceanic Physics* 46(4): 414-431.

856 Wang, J. X. and J. K. Angell (1999). Air stagnation climatology for the United States.
857 NOAA/Air Resource Laboratory ATLAS(1).

858 Watanabe, M., T. Suzuki, R. O'ishi, Y. Komuro, S. Watanabe, S. Emori, T. Takemura,
859 M. Chikira, T. Ogura and M. Sekiguchi (2010). Improved climate simulation by
860 MIROC5: mean states, variability, and climate sensitivity. *Journal of Climate* 23(23):
861 6312-6335.

862 Weare, B. C., C. Cagnazzo, P. G. Fogli, E. Manzini and A. Navarra (2012). Madden -
863 Julian Oscillation in a climate model with a well - resolved stratosphere. *Journal of*
864 *Geophysical Research: Atmospheres* 117(D1): -.

865 Weschler, C. J. (2006). Ozone's impact on public health: Contributions from indoor
866 exposures to ozone and products of ozone-initiated chemistry. *Environ Health Persp*
867 114(10): 1489-1496.

868 Xin, X., T. Wu and J. Zhang (2012). Introductions to the CMIP5 simulations conducted
869 by the BCC climate system model. *Adv. Climate Change Res.* 8: 378-382.

870 Yahya, K., P. Campbell and Y. Zhang (2017a). Decadal application of WRF/chem for

871 regional air quality and climate modeling over the US under the representative
872 concentration pathways scenarios. Part 2: Current vs. future simulations. *Atmos*
873 *Environ* 152: 584-604.

874 Yahya, K., K. Wang, P. Campbell, Y. Chen, T. Glotfelty, J. He, M. Pirhalla and Y. Zhang
875 (2017b). Decadal application of WRF/Chem for regional air quality and climate
876 modeling over the US under the representative concentration pathways scenarios. Part
877 1: Model evaluation and impact of downscaling. *Atmos Environ* 152: 562-583.

878 Yahya, K., K. Wang, P. Campbell, T. Glotfelty, J. He and Y. Zhang (2016). Decadal
879 evaluation of regional climate, air quality, and their interactions over the continental US
880 and their interactions using WRF/Chem version 3.6.1. *Geosci Model Dev* 9(2): 671-
881 695.

882 Yarwood, G., S. Rao, M. Yocke and G. Whitten (2005). Updates to the carbon bond
883 chemical mechanism: CB05 final report to the US EPA. RT-0400675: 2841-2842.

884 Yukimoto, S., Y. Adachi, M. Hosaka, T. Sakami, H. Yoshimura, M. Hirabara, T. Y.
885 Tanaka, E. Shindo, H. Tsujino and M. Deushi (2012). A new global climate model of
886 the Meteorological Research Institute: MRI-CGCM3—model description and basic
887 performance—. *Journal of the Meteorological Society of Japan. Ser. II* 90: 23-64.

888 Zanchettin, D., A. Rubino, D. Matei, O. Bothe and J. Jungclaus (2013). Multidecadal-
889 to-centennial SST variability in the MPI-ESM simulation ensemble for the last
890 millennium. *Climate dynamics* 40(5-6): 1301-1318.

891 Zhao, W. N. and M. A. K. Khalil (1993). The Relationship between Precipitation and
892 Temperature over the Contiguous United-States. *Journal of Climate* 6(6): 1232-1236.

893 Zscheischler, J., A. M. Michalak, C. Schwalm, M. D. Mahecha, D. N. Huntzinger, M.
894 Reichstein, G. Berthier, P. Ciais, R. B. Cook, B. El-Masri, M. Y. Huang, A. Ito, A. Jain,
895 A. King, H. M. Lei, C. Q. Lu, J. F. Mao, S. S. Peng, B. Poulter, D. Ricciuto, X. Y. Shi,
896 B. Tao, H. Q. Tian, N. Viovy, W. L. Wang, Y. X. Wei, J. Yang and N. Zeng (2014).
897 Impact of large-scale climate extremes on biospheric carbon fluxes: An
898 intercomparison based on MsTMIP data. *Global Biogeochem Cy* 28(6): 585-600.

899 Zscheischler, J. and S. I. Seneviratne (2017). Dependence of drivers affects risks
900 associated with compound events. *Sci Adv* 3(6): e1700263.

901