

1 We would like to thank the reviewers for their positive and very helpful comments. We believe that we  
2 have addressed each comment in modifications that we have made to the manuscript. Below, the  
3 comments are numbered, and a response to each is provided. Both clean and markup versions of the  
4 manuscript have been included in our submission. Also, please note that this file  
5 (ESP20\_response\_and\_markup.doc) does not include the figures. Figure captions have changed, which is  
6 reflected in the caption list. In addition, one figure had a label changed in response to a comment. The  
7 revised figure is at the end of this document.

8 **1) Comments by referees:**

9 Comments by Ben Hobbs, Reviewer #1

10 Comment 1.1: It is desirable to have a method that can site new and operate new power production  
11 facilities in a way that reflects new technological, policy, and economic trends, as we and others attempt  
12 to do with spatially and temporally explicit electricity market models [1].

13 Comment 1.2: I would add just one other limitation to their list, which is that the methodology does not  
14 account for shifts in emissions locations due to changes in electricity generation technology and  
15 resulting alterations in siting patterns. Nor does it downscale emissions to an hourly level consistent  
16 with daily meteorology. The latter is needed to account for correlations of high demand (and thus  
17 emissions) periods with the warm meteorological conditions conducive to tropospheric ozone  
18 formation. Accounting for such finescaled temporal relationships should receive more attention because  
19 impacts during ozone episodes may be more than proportionally affected by emissions changes [2].

20 Comments by Anonymous Reviewer #2:

21 Comment 2.1: The findings of these case studies are highly dependent on the ICLUS inputs, so the  
22 methods used in ICLUS to extrapolate population and land-use changes out to 2050 should be described  
23 more fully.

24 Comment 2.2: It would also be helpful if the authors would add a few sentences to better describe the  
25 future regulations included in the energy systems modeling, since these assumptions have a strong  
26 impact on the case study results.

27 Comment 2.3: The authors might also clarify how readers can access the ESP v. 2.0 tools and case study  
28 outputs for use in other modeling studies.

29 Comment 2.4: The authors should consider making growth factors and surrogate shapefiles available for  
30 intermediate years between 2005 and 2050.

31 Comment 2.5: I recommend that the authors clarify that the growth factors shown in Figure 4 represent  
32 "2050 population / 2005 population".

33 Comment 2.6: The caption for Figure 5 could better distinguish between the regional growth factors  
34 shown in the left panels and the county level growth allocations shown in the right panels. (Use of the  
35 term growth factors in both cases is confusing.)

36 Comment 2.7: Captions for Figures 9 - 12 would be easier to read if they used full descriptions of the  
37 cases being compared, rather than summary labels.

1 **2) Author responses to referees:**

2 Responses to Ben Hobbs, Reviewer #1

3 Response 1.1: We agree that a methodology for siting such sources would be a very desirable  
4 component of a long-term emission projection system. The reviewer provides an excellent reference to  
5 accompany this discussion, and we have chosen to add that citation and several others, including Cohon  
6 et al. (1980), which involves multi-objective power sector siting, and Kraucunas et al. (2014), which  
7 describes the PRIMA modeling framework that includes an electric utility siting component.

8 To address the comment further, we clarify in the *Introduction* that our methodology does not currently  
9 include point source siting. Later, in *Conclusions*, we highlight this omission as a limitation and state that  
10 it may be explored for incorporation in future versions of ESP.

11 Response 1.2: These are excellent suggestions. We have reworked the conclusions to discuss limitations  
12 in more detail. In particular, we highlight that the temporal and spatial resolution of the underlying  
13 components of ESP v2.0 are not currently capable of addressing the effects on energy and emissions of  
14 meteorological variability. We mention, however, that it could be advantageous to explore using ESP  
15 conjunctively with a more detailed electric sector model that incorporates a finer temporal resolution  
16 and that treats dispatch considerations more fully. We also now reference the Chen et al. article  
17 indicated by the reviewer.

18 Responses to Anonymous Reviewer #2:

19 Response 2.1: The reviewer's suggestion to provide additional detail regarding ICLUS processes and  
20 assumptions is very helpful. While a detailed discussion of ICLUS is beyond the scope of this paper, we  
21 have added a table to the document in which we provide additional information about the projection  
22 and point to a reference from which more information is available.

23 Response 2.2: We have attempted to address the reviewer's comment in our description of MARKAL in  
24 the new Table 1. This text provides information about the origin of the projection and which regulations  
25 are included. We also now clearly indicate that regulations that have not been finalized are not included.

26 Response 2.3: A section is included at the end of the paper discussing model and data availability.

27 Response 2.4: It is our preference to distribute data for 2005 and 2050 only at this time as the surrogate  
28 files are computationally intensive to develop and require considerable storage space. We indicate that  
29 interested parties may contact us for additional information.

30 Response 2.5: This change has been made.

31 Response 2.6: We have updated the text for the caption to more clearly reflect the information in the  
32 panels.

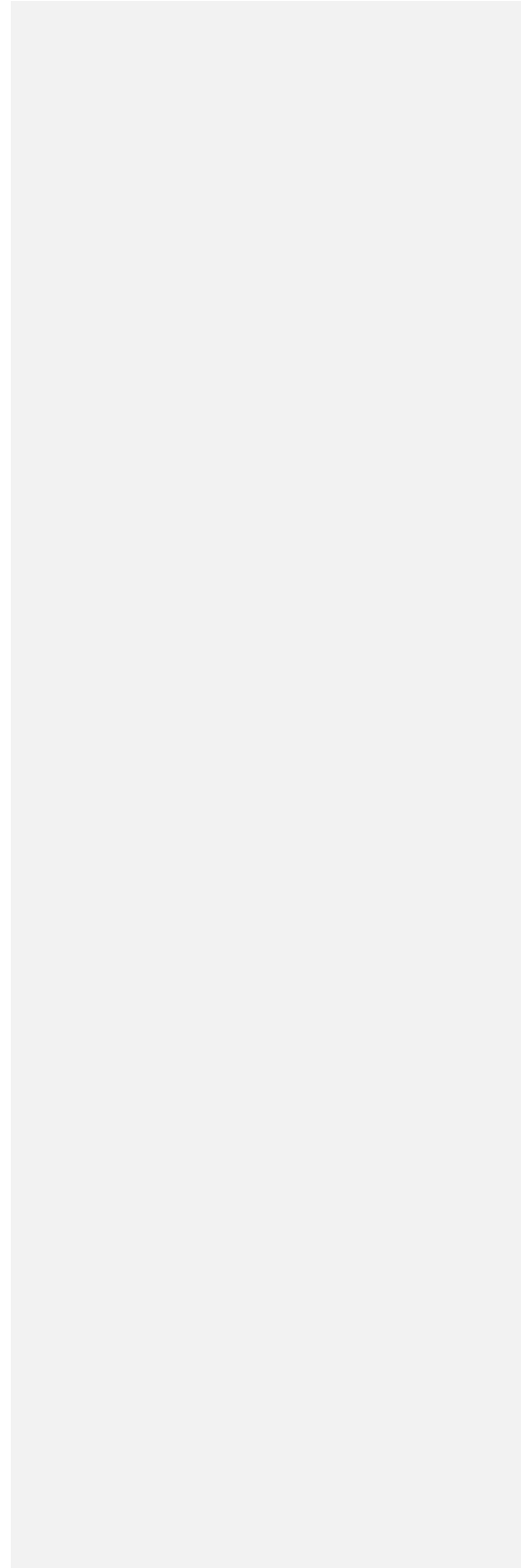
33 Response 2.7: We address this comment by adding parenthetical expressions to describe each of the  
34 scenarios being compared.

35 **3) Summary of changes to the manuscript**

36 Please see the marked up version of the manuscript below, indicating all changes that have been made.

1

3



1 **ESP v2.0: Enhanced method for exploring emission impacts**  
2 **of future scenarios in the United States – addressing spatial**  
3 **allocation**  
4

5 **L. Ran<sup>1</sup>, D. H. Loughlin<sup>2</sup>, Dongmei Yang<sup>1</sup>, Zach Adelman<sup>1</sup>, B. H. Baek<sup>1</sup> and C. G. Nolte<sup>2</sup>**

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# ESP v2.0: Enhanced method for exploring emission impacts of future scenarios in the United States – addressing spatial allocation

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## Abstract

The Emission Scenario Projection (ESP) method produces future-year air pollutant emissions for mesoscale air quality modeling applications. We present ESP v2.0, which expands upon ESP v1.0 by spatially allocating future-year **non-power sector** emissions to account for projected population and land use changes. In ESP v2.0, U.S. Census Division-level emission growth factors are developed using an energy system model. Regional factors for population-related emissions are spatially disaggregated to the county level using population growth and migration projections. The county-level growth factors are then applied to grow a base-year emission inventory to the future. Spatial surrogates are updated to account for future population and land use changes, and these surrogates are used to map projected county-level emissions to a modeling grid for use within an air quality model. We evaluate ESP v2.0 by comparing US 12 km emissions for 2005 with projections for 2050. We also evaluate the individual and combined effects of county-level disaggregation and of updating spatial surrogates. Results suggest that the common practice of modeling future emissions without considering spatial redistribution over-predicts emissions in the urban core and under-predicts emissions in suburban and exurban areas. In addition to improving multi-decadal emission projections, a strength of ESP v2.0 is that it can be applied to assess the emissions and air quality implications of alternative energy, population and land use scenarios.

## 1 Introduction

Emission projections are often the dominant factor influencing the outcome of future-year air quality modeling studies (e.g., Tagaris et al., 2007; Tao et al., 2007; Avise et al, 2009). Thus, building plausible emission scenarios and correctly allocating emissions to modeling grids are critical steps in conducting those studies. The Emission Scenario Projection v1.0 (ESP v1.0) method, described by Loughlin et al. (2011), facilitates the development of future-year air pollutant emission inventories by producing U.S. Census Division level-, source category- and pollutant-specific emission growth factors. For most emission categories, multiplicative emission growth factors are developed using the MARKet ALlocation (MARKAL) energy system model (Fishbone and Abilock 1981; Loulou et al., 2004). These factors are applied to a base-year emissions inventory, such as the United States Environmental Protection Agency

1 (US EPA) National Emissions Inventory (NEI) (US EPA, 2010), using the Sparse Matrix Operator Kernel  
2 Emission (SMOKE) model (Houyoux et al., 2000). The resulting future-year emission inventory is then  
3 temporally and spatially allocated to a gridded modeling domain for use by an air quality model such as  
4 the Community Multi-scale Air Quality (CMAQ) model (Byun and Schere, 2006), typically at 4 to 36 km  
5 grid resolution.

6 Since the release of ESP v1.0, a number of improvements to the method and its components have been  
7 made. For example, in ESP v1.0, pollutants represented explicitly in the MARKAL database were carbon  
8 dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>), sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>), and particulate matter less than 10 microns in  
9 diameter (PM<sub>10</sub>). The pollutant coverage in the ESP v2.0 MARKAL database has been expanded to  
10 include carbon monoxide (CO), methane (CH<sub>4</sub>), nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O), volatile organic compounds (VOCs),  
11 PM less than 2.5 microns in diameter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>), black carbon (BC), and organic carbon (OC). Furthermore,  
12 while the ESP v1.0 MARKAL database was calibrated to the 2006 Annual Energy Outlook (AEO) (US EIA,  
13 2006), the ESP v2.0 MARKAL database [used here](#) is calibrated to AEO 2010 (US EIA, 2010), [and the](#)  
14 [method accommodates MARKAL databases calibrated to more recent AEO projections](#). As a result,  
15 developments such as the economic recession of 2008 and the increased availability of natural gas can  
16 now be considered. Additional detail in the electric sector also facilitates consideration of coal plant  
17 retirements and improvements in the cost-effectiveness of renewables.

18 Another aspect of the method that has been improved is the spatial representation of future-year  
19 emissions. In ESP v1.0, the application of multiplicative emission growth factors resulted in emissions  
20 being grown (or shrunk) in place. This approach does not account for any spatial redistribution of  
21 emissions resulting from population shifts or land use changes. The grow-in-place assumption is  
22 common in air quality modeling applications, most of which project emissions only 5 to 15 years into the  
23 future (Woo et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2010). For ~~this~~ modeling time ~~horizon~~ [horizons within this range](#),  
24 the grow-in-place assumption may be reasonable in light of the many other uncertainties associated  
25 with predicting future emissions. The EPA's Office of Research and Development (ORD) is increasingly  
26 interested in air quality modeling applications that extend well beyond 2030, however. In its Global  
27 Change Air Quality Assessment, ORD examined the impacts of climate change on air quality through  
28 2050 (e.g. Nolte et al., 2008; US EPA, 2009b; Weaver, 2009). Similarly, the GEOS-Chem LIDORT  
29 Integrated with MARKAL for the Purpose of Scenario Exploration (GLIMPSE) framework is being used to  
30 examine climate and air quality management strategies through 2055 (Akhtar et al., 2013). The rationale  
31 for growing emissions in place is weaker when modeling over multi-decadal time horizons, where trends  
32 such as population growth and migration, as well as urbanization, may result in [a](#) very different future  
33 spatial distribution [of emissions](#).

34 Land use change models are useful tools for investigating alternative assumptions regarding the spatial  
35 distribution of future-year emissions. For example, the Integrated Climate and Land Use Scenarios  
36 (ICLUS) model (Theobald, 2005; US EPA, 2009a; Bierwagen et al., 2010) was developed to provide a  
37 consistent framework for producing future-year population and land use change projections. ICLUS  
38 outputs have been generated over the US for a base case scenario, as well as several alternatives that  
39 are consistent with those described in the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) Special  
40 Report on Emission Scenarios (IPCC, 2000).

1 The key advancement of ESP v2.0 is the integration of ICLUS results to adjust the spatial allocation of  
2 future-year emissions- [in the residential, commercial, transportation, and agricultural sectors](#). ICLUS  
3 results are integrated into ESP v2.0 in three places. First, we use ICLUS population projections to adjust  
4 energy demands in MARKAL, including passenger vehicle miles traveled, lumens for lighting, and watts  
5 per square foot of space conditioning. [CountySecond, county](#)-level population projections also are used  
6 to disaggregate the regional emission growth factors derived from MARKAL into county-level growth  
7 factors. ~~And~~Finally, ICLUS outputs are used to develop new future-year spatial surrogates that map  
8 county-level emissions to an air quality modeling grid. The incorporation of ICLUS into ESP v2.0 is  
9 depicted in Fig. 1. The two steps associated with spatial allocation of emissions are listed as 1 and 2 in  
10 the figure.

11 The objective of this paper is to describe, demonstrate and evaluate the new spatial allocation features  
12 within ESP v2.0. First, the typical approach for spatial allocation in emission processing is described.  
13 Next, the new spatial allocation method is presented and evaluated. The method is then applied using  
14 an experimental design that isolates separately the impacts of using projected spatial surrogates and  
15 those of mapping regional growth factors to the county level. Conclusions and future plans for ESP v3.0  
16 are presented in the last section.

## 17 **2 Background**

18 In most air quality modeling applications with CMAQ, the SMOKE model is used to transform an  
19 emission inventory, such as the NEI, from a textual list of sources and their respective annual emissions  
20 to a gridded, temporally allocated, and chemically speciated air quality model-ready binary file. Major  
21 steps in the generation of future emissions for an air quality model include the application of  
22 multiplicative emission growth and control factors to produce a future-year emission inventory,  
23 temporal allocation of emissions by season, day and hour, and spatial allocation of hourly emissions  
24 onto a 2-dimensional grid over the modeling domain. A major component of the spatial allocation  
25 process is the use of other high-resolution data, such as census block group population or road  
26 networks, as surrogates to map county-level emissions to grid cells.

27 Spatial surrogate computation for emission allocation is rarely mentioned in the documentation of air  
28 quality modeling studies. In the US, surrogate shapefiles (a standard file format for representing spatial  
29 data) are released by the US EPA Emissions Modeling Clearinghouse and are used to compute spatial  
30 surrogates to be used in SMOKE. Most of the surrogate shapefiles used at the time this analysis was  
31 conducted were created from 2000 census data (e.g. population and roads), as well as many other  
32 spatial datasets (such as building square footage and agricultural areas) that were generated around  
33 that time period. Note that the spatial surrogate shapefiles were subsequently updated in the 2011 EPA  
34 modeling platform (US EPA, 2011; US EPA, 2014).

35 The surrogate shapefiles are processed to create gridded surrogates using the Surrogate Tools software  
36 package (Ran, 2014), a part of the Spatial Allocator (SA) system (UNC, [20142014a](#)). Fig. 2 provides an  
37 example of the computation of a population-based spatial surrogate for a 12 km grid cell within Wake  
38 County, North Carolina, which includes the state's capital, Raleigh.

1 The total population range for each census block group area for Wake County and some adjacent  
2 counties (dark purple boundaries) in North Carolina is displayed. The surrogate value for any grid cell ( $i$ )  
3 and county ( $j$ ) is computed as:

$$4 \quad \text{SurrogateValue}(i, j) = \frac{\text{SurrogateWeight}(i, j)}{\sum_i \text{SurrogateWeight}(i, j)} \quad (2.1)$$

5 Wake County's total population, found by summing the population of each of its census block groups,  
6 was 627,846 in 2000. A population of 98,681 lived within the grid cell indicated by the arrow. The  
7 population-based spatial surrogate value for this grid cell and county is calculated as 98,681/627,846, or  
8 0.1572. Thus, 15.72% of Wake County population-related emissions are allocated to this grid cell.

9 Spatial surrogate values always range from 0 to 1; 0 indicates that no emissions are allocated to the grid  
10 cell (e.g., the grid cell does not intersect the county), and 1 indicates that all the county's emissions are  
11 allocated to the grid cell (e.g., the county is completely located within the grid cell). While the example  
12 grid cell lies within just one county, quite often a grid cell can cross multiple county boundaries. When  
13 this happens, a weighting method (area for polygons, length for lines, or number of points) is used.

14 As of April 2014, EPA has 91 different spatial surrogate shapefiles (e.g. population, housing, urban  
15 primary road miles) available via the EPA Emissions Modeling Clearinghouse (US EPA, 2014b). Since  
16 each surrogate has to be generated for each modeling grid domain, and air quality modeling often  
17 includes multiple nested domains, the Surrogate Tools and their associated quality assurance functions  
18 make surrogate computation much easier for preparing emission input to air quality models.

19 Accurate spatial allocation is particularly important for finer resolution modeling (e.g. 12 km or less)  
20 when multiple modeling grid cells are located within a county. While most previous CMAQ studies of  
21 future air quality have been conducted at relatively coarse resolutions ( $\geq 36$  km) (Hogrefe et al., 2004;  
22 Tagaris et al., 2007; Nolte et al., 2008), finer resolutions are becoming more common with the rapid  
23 advancement of computing capabilities (Zhang et al., 2010); [Gao et al., 2013](#); [Trail et al., 2014](#)). Thus,  
24 considering landscape changes due to human activities becomes particularly important in emission  
25 spatial allocation for high resolution air quality modeling over long time horizons into the future.

### 26 **3 Method**

27 Spatial allocation in ESP v2.0 involves the two-step process displayed in Fig. 1. [The models used in the](#)  
28 [method are listed and described briefly in Table 1.](#) For this paper, the method is demonstrated for a  
29 2050 emission scenario, projecting 2005 base-year emissions using growth factors from MARKAL. We  
30 use ICLUS-produced population and housing density projections that assume county-level population  
31 growth in line with the US Census Bureau projections and a land use development pattern that follows  
32 historic trends (US EPA, 2009a). [The following the business-as-usual \(BAU\) development assumption,](#)  
33 [the](#) method is applied to the conterminous US (CONUS) study area, excluding Mexico and Canada, with  
34 additional analysis conducted on the Southeast [U.S.](#) The [CONUS area](#), MARKAL emission projection  
35 regions, CMAQ 12 km modeling domain, and the Southeast area are depicted in Fig. 3. The grid uses [the](#)  
36 [standard](#) Lambert [Conformal Conic Projection, conformal conic projection](#) with 299 [grid](#)-rows and 459  
37 columns [and X and Y minimums of -2,556,000 and -1,728,000 meters, respectively.](#)



1 Fig. 4 shows county-level population growth factors over the CONUS as well as 2005 and 2050 housing  
 2 densities in the North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia area. In the ICLUS projection, there is a  
 3 distinct trend of population shifts towards big cities (e.g. Atlanta, Georgia and Charlotte, North Carolina)  
 4 and a resulting increase in housing density around those urban areas. In general, county populations  
 5 increase in most southern and coastal counties, but decrease in northern and inland rural counties.  
 6 The approaches for using these ICLUS projections to disaggregate regional emission growth factors and  
 7 create future-year spatial surrogates are presented below.

### 8 3.1 Developing County-Level Emission Growth Factors

9 MARKAL outputs include regional growth factors for energy-related Source Category Codes (SCCs).  
 10 SMOKE projection packets with growth factors for each species and source category of interest were  
 11 generated, as described by Loughlin et al. (2011). The six emission source sectors (US EPA, 2011)  
 12 included in this projection were:

- 13 1. Point sources from the Electric Generating Utility (EGU) sector
- 14 2. Non-EGU point sources (e.g. airports)
- 15 3. Remaining nonpoint sources (area sources not in agriculture and fugitive dust sectors)
- 16 4. Onroad mobile sources (–e.g. light duty vehicles)
- 17 5. Nonroad mobile sources (e.g. construction equipment)
- 18 6. Mobile emissions from aircraft, locomotives, and commercial marine [vessels](#)

19 Though MARKAL-generated regional growth factors capture large-scale emission growth patterns, they  
 20 do not capture variation in growth from one state to another or from one county to another within the  
 21 region. To capture this spatial variation while maintaining the overall regional growth pattern from  
 22 MARKAL, we introduce an adjustment calculation.

23 Let  $F_p$  denote the regional population growth factor and  $f_p$  denote the county-level population growth  
 24 factor. The ratio of  $f_p$  over  $F_p$  captures the relative population growth rate of a county in comparison to  
 25 its region (e.g.  $f_p/F_p = 1$  means the same growth rate and  $f_p/F_p > 1$  means the county population growth  
 26 is faster than the regional average growth). The regional emission growth factor  $F_e$  is adjusted by this  
 27 ratio in computing the initial county emission growth factor  $f'_e$ :

$$28 \quad \cancel{f'_e(r, j, SCC, s)} = \cancel{F_e(r, SCC, s)} * \frac{f_p(r, j)}{F_p(r)} \quad f'_e(r, j, SCC, s) = F_e(r, SCC, s) * \frac{f_p(r, j)}{F_p(r)}$$

29 (3.1)

Field Code Changed

30 where  $r$  is the region,  $j$  is a county within  $r$ , and  $s$  is the species. To ensure that the total regional  
 31 projected emission is preserved after applying the county-level growth factors, the projected county  
 32 emissions are re-normalized as:

$$33 \quad \cancel{e_{2050}(r, j, SCC, s)} = \cancel{[f'_e(r, j, SCC, s) * e_{2005}(r, j, SCC, s)] * R_{re}(r, SCC, s)}$$

$$34 \quad e_{2050}(r, j, SCC, s) = [f'_e(r, j, SCC, s) * e_{2005}(r, j, SCC, s)] * R_{re}(r, SCC, s) \quad (3.2)$$

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1 where  $e_{2005}$  and  $e_{2050}$  are county-level emissions for 2005 and 2050 and  $R_{re}$  is the ratio of regional  
 2 emissions computed using regional growth factors to regional emissions derived from county growth  
 3 factors:

$$\begin{aligned}
 4 \quad R_{re}(r, SCC, s) &= \frac{F_e(r, SCC, s) * \sum_j e_{2005}(r, j, SCC, s)}{\sum_j f'_e(r, j, SCC, s) * e_{2005}(r, j, SCC, s)} \\
 5 \quad R_{re}(r, SCC, s) &= \frac{F_e(r, SCC, s) * \sum_j e_{2005}(r, j, SCC, s)}{\sum_j f'_e(r, j, SCC, s) * e_{2005}(r, j, SCC, s)} \quad (3.3)
 \end{aligned}$$

6 The final county emission growth factors ( $f_e$ ) are then computed as:

$$\begin{aligned}
 7 \quad f_e(r, j, SCC, s) &= \frac{e_{2050}(r, j, SCC, s)}{e_{2005}(r, j, SCC, s)} \\
 8 \quad f_e(r, j, SCC, s) &= \frac{e_{2050}(r, j, SCC, s)}{e_{2005}(r, j, SCC, s)} \quad (3.4)
 \end{aligned}$$

9 For source categories expected to have emissions changes correlated with population changes, the  
 10 resulting set of  $f_e(r, j, SCC, s)$  factors are then used to grow the matching county-level emissions into the  
 11 future. A spreadsheet with example calculations is included in the supplemental files that accompany  
 12 this manuscript.

13 Changes in the spatial distribution of some emissions will not necessarily be correlated with population  
 14 shifts, however. For example, we use regional emission growth factors,  $F_e(r, SCC, s)$ , for electric utilities,  
 15 large external combustion boilers, and petroleum refining.

16 We applied ESP v2.0 to grow the 2005 NEI (US EPA, 2010) inventory to 2050. Fig. 5 displays  
 17 representative county-level emission growth factors. The two plots on the left are the MARKAL regional  
 18 growth factors for  $NO_x$  from highway Light Duty Gasoline Vehicles (LDGV) and for  $SO_2$  from residential  
 19 stationary source fuel combustion, both of which would be expected to be correlated with population.  
 20 The overall regional emission trends are driven by population growth, fuel switching and regulations  
 21 that limit emissions. The county-level growth factors illustrate the effects of projected county-by-county  
 22 population changes on these overall trends. Using county-level emission growth factors, we then  
 23 generated SMOKE projection packets and used SMOKE to grow the emission inventory to 2050.

### 24 3.2 Updating Surrogate Shapefiles and Emission Surrogates

25 The next step in spatial allocation is to create surrogate shapefiles using ICLUS-projected population and  
 26 housing density. Standard EPA population and housing surrogate shapefiles are slightly different from  
 27 2005 ICLUS data. To avoid this discrepancy and ensure that surrogate shapefiles are generated  
 28 consistently for comparison, ICLUS data are used to develop both the 2005 base and the 2050 shape  
 29 files.

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### 3.2.1 Surrogate Shapefiles

Using ICLUS data, we created four new surrogate shapefiles for both 2005 and 2050. The first shapefile contains census block group polygons with associated population, housing units, urban, and level of development (e.g., no, low or high). The census polygons boundaries are based on the EPA 2002 population surrogate shapefiles. For each census block group, ICLUS housing units are spatially allocated to the census polygons using the area weighted method. Then, ICLUS county population is allocated to each census block group within a county according to the fraction of the county's housing units within that block group. Using ICLUS outputs for 2000, 2005, 2040, and 2050, we computed housing unit changes from 2000 to 2005 and from 2040 to 2050, which are needed for housing unit change surrogate computation for 2005 and 2050. For both 2005 and 2050, we classified census block groups as urban if their ICLUS-produced population density per square mile is  $\geq 1000$ . This criterion is partially consistent with the US Census Bureau's definition of an urban area, although for simplicity, we did not use the Census Bureau's requirement of the surrounding area having a total population of 50,000 or more. In addition, census block groups were classified into no, low, or high development areas based on housing density.

Fig. 6 shows the change in population and urban surrogate shapefile data over the Southeast region between 2005 and 2050. The figure indicates expansion of urban areas, including Atlanta, Charlotte, Greensboro, and Raleigh. However, some rural areas, particularly in the north and south of this region, display slightly decreasing population densities.

The second surrogate shapefile we generated contains road networks. Though road networks are likely to expand in the future, it is very difficult to project future road networks. We use existing current road surrogate shapefiles with the ICLUS-identified urban areas to classify roads into four categories: rural and urban primary roads and rural and urban secondary roads. These categories are required for surrogate computation for mobile emission allocations. The third surrogate shapefile we generated contains rural land classification. We created this shapefile from the EPA 2002 rural land surrogate shapefile using urban and non-urban areas identified in the first shapefile. The last surrogate shapefile we created contains agricultural land classes. This shapefile was created from the EPA 2002 agricultural land surrogate file by excluding urban areas identified in the first shapefile.

### 3.2.2 Surrogates Computation

With the ICLUS-based surrogate shapefiles, we computed 2005 and 2050 surrogates using the Surrogate Tools. As noted previously, EPA employs a set of 65 spatial surrogates to allocate emissions from various source sectors to a gridded modeling domain. The 17 surrogates listed in Table 4.2 were computed using the four ICLUS-based shapefiles. We assumed that the other 48 surrogates remain unchanged from current EPA surrogates.

The percentage change of ICLUS population-based surrogates from 2005 to 2050 is shown in Fig. 7. As expected, population-based surrogate changes on the 12 km grid follow the trends shown in Fig. 4. Since surrogates for the grid cells intersecting a county necessarily sum to 1, large surrogate increases (red colors) in some grid cells are often accompanied by large decreases (blue colors) in other grid cells within the same county. Large percentage changes are particularly obvious in sparsely populated areas, such as parts of California, Nevada, Arizona, New Mexico, Texas, and Florida. The mean change of

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1 population-based surrogates from 2005 to 2050 is 6.23%, although a standard deviation of 46.96%  
2 indicates a wide range across the grid cells.

### 3 **4 Application**

4 We applied ESP v2.0 to generate 2005 and 2050 CMAQ-ready gridded emission files. Only the six sectors  
5 listed above from the 2005 NEI were used in the 2050 projection. Emissions from any SCCs not included  
6 in the projection packets were held constant from 2005. We used the Emission Modeling Framework  
7 (Houyoux et al., 2006) to conduct SMOKE modeling tasks.

8 Next, two additional 2050 inventories were created, one using the regional growth factors from  
9 MARKAL and one using the surrogates based upon 2005 ICLUS results. The four resulting gridded  
10 inventories that were developed are listed in Table 23.

11 *Future* represents the result of the full ESP v2.0 projection method. Comparing *Future* with *Base* thus  
12 reveals the projected changes in both magnitude and location of emissions over the 45-year period.  
13 Comparing *Future* with *Future-RegGF* isolates the effects of disaggregating regional growth factors to  
14 the county level. Similarly, comparing *Future* with *Future-05Surr* identifies spatial changes resulting from  
15 updating the future spatial surrogates.

16 The Fractional difference (FD) metric is used to evaluate grid-level differences among the inventories.  
17 For a model grid cell ( $i$ ) and species ( $s$ ), the FD is calculated as:

$$18 \quad \text{Fractional Difference (FD)} = 2 * \left[ \frac{e_A(i,s) - e_B(i,s)}{e_A(i,s) + e_B(i,s)} \right] * 100 \quad (4.1)$$

19 where  $e_A(i,s)$  and  $e_B(i,s)$  are the emissions of species  $s$  in grid cell  $j$  for the gridded inventories, A and B,  
20 that are being compared. FD is generally called fractional bias when it is used to evaluate errors of  
21 modeling results against observations (e.g. Morris et al., 2006). FD is a symmetric metric ranging from -  
22 200% to +200%. A value of 67% for FD represents that  $e_A$  is larger than  $e_B$  by a factor of ~~two~~2, while an  
23 FD of 0 means that values are the same. The mean and standard deviation of FD values across groups of  
24 grid cells provide information about the magnitude and variability of differences between two gridded  
25 inventories. Other statistical metrics can be used to evaluate differences from one gridded inventory to  
26 another. Several such metrics are described and applied in the supplemental information to this paper.

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#### 27 **4.1 Base and Future Emission Differences**

28 Fig. 8 shows FDs between annual emissions in the *Base* and *Future* for each of the six projected pollutant  
29 species. These plots reflect the combined effects of population growth and migration, economic growth  
30 and transformation, fuel switching, technological improvements, land use change, and various  
31 regulations limiting emissions (Loughlin et al., 2011). Most of the US has more than a 30% reduction  
32 (green and blue colors) in modeled  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{SO}_2$ , CO, VOC,  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  and  $\text{PM}_{10}$ . Grids with emission increases  
33 for these six species are mainly located in areas projected to have high population growth (e.g. Los  
34 Angeles and Atlanta). Among the six species,  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{SO}_2$  show reductions of more than a factor of 2 in  
35 many areas because of control requirements on electricity production, transportation, and many  
36 industrial sources. Emissions of CO, VOC,  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  and  $\text{PM}_{10}$  also fall across most of the domain.

## 1 4.2 Region-to-County Growth Disaggregation

2 Next, we evaluate the effect of disaggregating regional growth factors to the county level by examining  
3 the differences between *Future* and *Future-RegGF*. Grid cell-level FD values are shown in Fig. 9 for the  
4 six projected pollutants. The spatial ~~distributions~~distribution of FD indicates that regional-to-county  
5 disaggregation results in increased emissions around urban areas (e.g. Los Angeles, Las Vegas and Dallas  
6 in the West and Atlanta in the Southeast) as those areas expand into surrounding counties. Many grid  
7 cells at the fringe of large urban areas have FD values exceeding 30%, indicating a large increase in  
8 emissions as a result of using county-level growth factors. Large reductions in emissions, indicated by  
9 FD values  $\leq -20\%$ , are particularly obvious in rural areas in the West and South regions. Using county  
10 growth factors have high impacts on emission allocations in the regions of the West and South,  
11 particularly for SO<sub>2</sub>.

12 Another way to analyze FD results is to calculate mean FD (MFD) values across grid cells with common  
13 characteristics. For example, in Fig. 13, we provide mean FDs for each pollutant over grid cells that are in  
14 the same population density range.

15 For areas with greater density, the trend is that emission differences become increasingly positive,  
16 reflecting that ICLUS population algorithm typically results in migration of people to more dense areas.  
17 However, as described above, the ICLUS predicts continued urban sprawl such that the positive MFD in  
18 the urban cores (population density  $\geq 200\text{k}/\text{grid}$ , about  $1400/\text{km}^2$ ) is slightly less than in the more  
19 moderately dense areas, where density is between  $130\text{k}$  and  $200\text{k}/\text{grid}$ . Thus, projecting emission  
20 changes by region without using the county growth allocation method significantly *underestimates* the  
21 future emissions in the more populated areas.

## 22 4.3 Updating Emission Surrogates

23 Next, we evaluate the effects of adjusting future surrogates by comparing *Future* and *Future-05Surr*.  
24 The two gridded emission files were generated from the same 2050 county-level emission growth  
25 factors, but using ICLUS-derived surrogates for 2050 and 2005, respectively. Thus, emission differences  
26 are introduced only from different spatial surrogates. Fig. 11 presents the resulting FD values for the six  
27 projected pollutants.

28 In Fig. 11, it is apparent that large increases (FD  $\geq 20\%$ ) often occur in the grid cells surrounding large  
29 cities. Further, FD% increases are particularly obvious in the West and Southwest regions, where urban  
30 expansion moves into previously low density grid cells. The counties in these regions tend to be large;  
31 thus, changes in spatial surrogates affect a larger number of grid cells. In contrast, changes in gridded  
32 emissions tend to be less pronounced in areas with small counties that are closer in size to the  $12 \times 12$  km  
33 grid cells. Updating the spatial surrogates has a small or negligible impact in rural areas with limited  
34 urbanization. Among the six compared species, SO<sub>2</sub> has the least changes. SO<sub>2</sub> emissions from mobile  
35 sources would have been reduced considerably by regulations limiting sulfur content in fuels. Most of  
36 the remaining SO<sub>2</sub> emissions originate from electricity production and industrial sources. In the ESP v2.0  
37 method, we do not adjust the spatial surrogates for either category, assuming that they are not  
38 correlated with population. In contrast, incorporating the 2050 surrogates has particularly high impacts  
39 on CO and VOC. Major sources for these pollutants are the transportation, residential and commercial  
40 sectors, all of which are linked to population- and land-use base surrogates.

1 Fig. 12 also provides an indication of how updating surrogates affects emissions by land use class. Mean  
2 fractional differences (MFD) for each of 6 pollutants by 2050-population density ranges are shown in Fig.  
3 12. This figure indicates a complicated relationship. There is a small decrease in emissions in rural areas,  
4 and a larger decrease in the densest areas. Conversely, there is an ~~increase~~increase in emissions from  
5 categories ranging in density from 5k to 80k per cell.

6 Thus, emissions using 2050 surrogates allocate more emissions to the suburban areas as they densify,  
7 while emissions allocated to the high density urban core grid cells are reduced. This does not mean that  
8 populations in cities are projected to decline, but rather that the projected urban emissions are partially  
9 re-distributed to the fringe areas since county emission totals are the same for both scenarios. This  
10 analysis demonstrates that the common practice of projecting future emissions without projecting  
11 future surrogates can lead to over-prediction of urban core emissions and under-prediction of  
12 suburban/exurban emissions.

## 13 5 Conclusions

14 Gridded emission data are key inputs to air quality models. Pollutant growth factors play a dominant  
15 role in determining regional emission and air quality patterns (Tao et al., 2007; Avise et al., 2009). It is  
16 commonplace in such applications to apply these growth factors such that emissions are grown in place.  
17 In this paper, we demonstrate that the region-to-county growth factor disaggregation and county-to-  
18 grid allocation approaches included in ESP v2.0 yield a different spatial pattern of emissions. For a given  
19 population and land use change scenario, the region-to-county growth disaggregation enables the  
20 distinction of different growth levels among counties, and updating spatial surrogates provides a more  
21 realistic mapping of emissions to grid cells.

22 Conversely, growing residential emissions in place and applying current spatial surrogates to future-year  
23 emissions may result in an overprediction of urban core emissions and under-prediction of suburban  
24 emissions. Thus, ignoring these shifts may overstate future improvements in human exposure and  
25 health risk due to air pollution mitigation as more dense urban cores yield greater opportunities for  
26 human exposures (e.g. Post et al., 2012; West et al., 2013; Silva et al., 2013).

27 There are many uncertainties in future air quality studies associated with emissions, climate, and  
28 changes of landscape. Improving emission allocation in SMOKE will help reduce uncertainties in  
29 outcomes (e.g. O<sub>3</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations and climate forcing from gases and aerosols) from regional  
30 climate and air quality modeling systems such as the coupled WRF/CMAQ (Wong et al., 2012) and help  
31 improve confidence in making air quality policies related to human health and environment. Another  
32 important aspect of the ~~approaches~~approach presented here is that ~~they~~it could be applied to examine  
33 alternative development scenarios. For example, a smart growth scenario would project greater growth  
34 factors in cities and less in suburban/exurban areas than the BAU scenario on which ICLUS was based.  
35 Furthermore, within the larger ESP v2.0 framework, emissions and resulting impacts could be examined  
36 for wide ranging scenarios that differ in assumptions about population growth and migration, economic  
37 growth and transformation, technology change, land use change, and various energy, environmental  
38 and land use policies.

39 Work on the While ESP v2.0 represents a state-of-the-art method continues, for generating multi-decadal  
40 air pollutant emission projections for non-power sector sources, there are a number of limitations that

1 must be considered in evaluating its utility for specific applications. One such limitation is the current  
2 omission of a mechanism to change the spatial distribution of power sector and a v3.0 is under large  
3 industrial emission sources. Spatial re-allocation of these “point” source emissions requires a siting  
4 algorithm, the development. Planned improvements include enhancing the ability to explore economic  
5 growth or application of which is beyond the scope of ESP v2.0. We acknowledge that this is a desirable  
6 capability, however, and transformation assumptions that considerable research has been conducted in  
7 this area (e.g., Cohon et al., 1980; Hobbs et al., 2010; and also adding the ability to update Kraucunas et  
8 al., 2015).

9 Another limitation of ESP v2.0 is that temporal profiles for various emission sources. An example of why  
10 adjusted temporal profiles could be important is evident when examining the use of natural gas for  
11 reallocation of emissions is not included at this time. Our research suggests that the changing role of  
12 technologies and fuels in electricity production. Historically may affect seasonal and diurnal emission  
13 patterns. For example, natural gas historically has been used within combustion turbines to  
14 meet generate electricity for meeting summer afternoon electricity demands associated with air-air  
15 conditioning demands. With expanded access to natural gas resources, however, electric utilities are  
16 incrementally shifting gas to baseload electricity production. Thus, over the coming decades, the  
17 temporal profile is changing of gas-related emissions will change both seasonally and hourly. We plan to  
18 explore how to account for these dynamics and to examine their impact on emissions and air  
19 quality diurnally.

20 ESP will always be limited by the limitations of its components. The MARKAL energy modeling system,  
21 for example, does not account for economic feedbacks associated with changes in energy prices.  
22 Another consideration for future development is harmonization of. Also, real-world electric sector  
23 decisions are influenced by many factors, some of which act at a much finer resolution than the spatial  
24 and temporal resolution of MARKAL. For example, on hot summer days, electric utility dispatch  
25 decisions must factor in meteorological conditions that both increase energy demands and tropospheric  
26 ozone formation (Chen et al., 2015). Dispatch decisions thus might result in temporal and spatial  
27 changes that could not be captured by MARKAL. ESP v2.0 is more suited to longer-range projections  
28 with the intent on capturing long-term trends and the multi-decadal effects of transformations in  
29 energy, economic and land use. Alternatively, there may be approaches for using ESP in conjunction  
30 with a more detailed dispatch model.

31 Another current limitation is the inability to evaluate the effects of climate change on energy demands.  
32 Climate-related changes currently need to be evaluated outside of ESP v2.0. However, exogenous  
33 estimates of increased energy demands could be input into MARKAL to evaluate how they would affect  
34 energy system emissions.

35 These various limitations are driving our current ESP v3.0 development process. For example, we are  
36 working towards generating scenario-specific temporal adjustment factors, and we plan to explore the  
37 inclusion of point source siting algorithms. Furthermore, future ESP iterations will incorporate more  
38 recent versions of ICLUS and MARKAL, and thus utilize updated population, land use, economic, and  
39 energy projections, as well as recent emission regulations.

40 Other possible updates are being considered. To improve compatibility with other long-term  
41 projections, it may be advantageous to harmonize the population, land use and energy assumptions

1 with the IPCC's Representative Concentration Pathways (RCP) (Van Vuuren et al., 2011) and Shared  
2 Socioeconomic Scenarios (Van Vuuren et al., 2012). ~~The RCP scenarios are the successors to the IPCC's~~  
3 ~~SRES scenarios (IPCC 2000).~~

4 ~~Additional updates may be carried out in future work. For example, the underlying growth factors~~  
5 ~~generated with MARKAL change as the ongoing effort of developing the model and underlying data~~  
6 ~~continue. Similarly, Also, while the baseline spatial surrogates used here were developed in 2000. These,~~  
7 ~~these could be updated to the updated, 2010 surrogate files that are now used within the EPA's 2011~~  
8 ~~modeling platform. Furthermore, it would be interesting to compare the 2010 surrogates with the 2010~~  
9 ~~projected surrogate files developed here.~~

10 ~~There are a number of limitations associated with ESP v2.0. For example, while we can explore broad-~~  
11 ~~ranging scenarios, we are not currently able to examine the effect of climate change on wildfires,~~  
12 ~~windblown dust, or biogenics. Climate related changes to these emissions would need to be evaluated~~  
13 ~~outside of ESP v2.0. Similarly, the method has the limitations of each of its components. The MARKAL~~  
14 ~~energy modeling system, for example, does not account for economic feedbacks associated with~~  
15 ~~changes in energy prices. Despite these limitations, ESP v2.0 represents the state of the art method for~~  
16 ~~projecting multi-decadal U.S. air pollutant emissions.~~

## 17 **Contributions**

18 Limei Ran was the lead author and the lead in designing, implementing and demonstrating the spatial  
19 allocation component of ESP 2.0. Dan Loughlin conceived of the project and was instrumental in  
20 developing the spatial allocation method. Further, he provided the emission growth and control factors  
21 used to develop the future-year inventory. Dongmei Yang, Zach Adelman and B.H. Baek assisted with  
22 the development and implementation of the method, including applications of the various emissions  
23 modeling components. Chris Nolte was instrumental in developing ESP 1.0 and contributed to this effort  
24 through a thorough review and constructive comments on this manuscript.

## 25 **Model and data availability**

26 Most of the modeling components that comprise this methodology are publically available. SMOKE and  
27 the Spatial Allocator can be downloaded from the Community Modeling & Analysis System Center  
28 (<http://www.cmascenter.org>). ICLUS modeling tools and land use projections can be obtained from the  
29 U.S. EPA (<http://www.epa.gov/ncea/global/iclus/>). The MARKAL model is distributed by the Energy  
30 Technology Systems Analysis Program of the International Energy Agency (<http://www.iea-etsap.org>).  
31 Executing MARKAL requires licensing and additional software. Please contact Dan Loughlin  
32 ([loughlin.dan@epa.gov](mailto:loughlin.dan@epa.gov)) for information about obtaining the U.S. EPA's ~~MARKAL 9-region~~ database,  
33 which allows MARKAL to be applied to the U.S. energy system. The EPA's ~~MARKAL 9-region~~ database  
34 ~~is used in this study, as well as more recent versions, are~~ available upon request at no cost. Regional- and  
35 county-level emission growth factors and surrogate shapefiles for 2005 and 2050 are available for  
36 download in the Supplementary Information.

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6 Research and Development Energy and Climate Assessment Team, including Carol Lenox, Rebecca  
7 Dodder, Ozge Kaplan and William Yelverton.

#### 8 **Disclaimer**

9 While this work has been reviewed and cleared for publication by the U.S. EPA, the views expressed  
10 here are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official views or policies of the  
11 Agency. Mention of software and organizations does not constitute an endorsement.

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1 **Table 1.** Models used in the ESP v2.0 method.

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<u>Model</u>	<u>Description</u>
<u>MARKAL</u>	<u>MARKet ALlocation (MARKAL) is an energy system optimization model (Loulou et al., 2004). We use MARKAL with the ESP v2.0 database to characterize scenarios of the transition of the U.S. energy system from 2005 through 2055 in 5-year increments. ESP v2.0 is an updated version of the EPAUS9r 2010 v1.3 MARKAL database (Lenox et al., 2012). The following major sectors are included: electricity production, refineries, other energy-intensive industries, residential, commercial, and transportation. Spatial coverage is the U.S., and spatial resolution is the U.S. Census Division. Outputs include regional-level, energy-related technology penetrations, fuel use, and emissions of air pollutants and greenhouse gases. The ESP v2.0 baseline scenario is calibrated to approximate the AEO 2010. The primary environmental regulations included in the baseline are the Cross State Air Pollution Rule (CSAPR), Tier II mobile emission requirements, and the corporate average fuel efficiency standard that requires 54.5 miles per gallon by 2025. Regulations that have not been finalized are not included.</u>
<u>ICLUS</u>	<u>The Integrated Climate and Land-Use Scenarios (ICLUS) model is used to develop U.S. population and land use projections through 2100 (US EPA, 2009). The demographic model consists of a cohort-component model and a gravity model. Together, these produce future county-level population estimates. A land use change model then computes corresponding housing density at the hectare resolution, or 10,000 sq. m. Input assumptions regarding household size and travel times can be adjusted to allow different scenarios to be represented. We use a baseline scenario intended to be generally consistent with U.S. Census Bureau projections.</u>
<u>SMOKE</u>	<u>The Sparse Matrix Operator Kernel Emissions (SMOKE) modeling system is used to transform an emissions inventory into the emissions format needed for air quality modeling (UNC, 2014b). Specific steps carried out by SMOKE typically include: applying growth and control factors, spatially allocating emissions to a modeling grid, temporally allocating emissions to represent seasonal and diurnal patterns, and speciating emissions to provide more detail and account for additional factors such as temperature.</u>
<u>Surrogate tools</u>	<u>A set of programs used to develop spatial surrogate files for SMOKE (UNC, 2014a). These surrogates are then used to map emissions to grid cells.</u>
<u>CMAQ</u>	<u>The Community Scale Air Quality (CMAQ) modeling system is used to characterize meteorology, pollutant transport and chemical transformation, and result air pollutant concentrations (UNC, 2012). CMAQ can be applied at a variety of scales, and is commonly used for urban, state, and regional air quality modeling applications within the U.S. and around the world.</u>

1 **Table 2.** JCLUS-based surrogates generated for 2005 and 2050.

Surrogate Name	Surrogate Code
Population	100
Urban population	110
Rural population	120
Housing change	130
Housing change and population	137
Urban primary road miles	140
Rural primary road miles	200
Urban secondary road miles	210
Rural secondary road miles	220
Total road miles	230
Urban primary plus rural primary road miles	240
0.75 total roadway miles plus 0.25 population	255
Low intensity residential	300
Total agriculture	310
Rural land area	400
Residential – High density	500

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1 **Table 23.** Standard and sensitivity runs for ESP v2.0 demonstration and evaluation.

Inventory ID	Inventory Year	ICLUS Surrogates	Growth Factors
Base	2005	2005	N/A
Future	2050	2050	County
Future05Surr	2050	2005	County
FutureRegGF	2050	2050	Regional

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1 Figure captions:

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3 **Figure 1.** Schematic diagram showing components of Emission Scenario Projection v2.0 system. Dashed  
4 blue box contains enhancements from ESP v1.0.

5

6 **Figure 2.** Population-based spatial surrogate computation for CMAQ 12 km modeling grid (blue cells)  
7 over Wake County (dark purple polygon), North Carolina area from 2000 census population at the  
8 census block group level (grey color polygons).

9

10 **Figure 3.** CMAQ 12 km modeling domain showing MARKAL nine emission projection regions (dark  
11 purple) and the Southeast area (black box).

12

13 **Figure 4.** County-level population growth factors (2050/2005) (top) and ICLUS housing densities at 2005  
14 and 2050 (bottom) for the Southeast area shown in Figure 3. Areas in white are designated as  
15 undevelopable.

16

17 **Figure 5.** ~~NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> growth factors by MARKAL region (left) allocated to counties (right). NO<sub>x</sub> is for the~~  
18 ~~SCC representing Light Duty Gasoline Vehicles (LDGV), while SO<sub>2</sub> is for the SCC representing residential~~  
19 ~~stationary source fuel combustion. Light duty gasoline vehicle (LDGV) regional NO<sub>x</sub> growth factors,~~  
20 ~~generated by MARKAL, are shown in the top left panel. The top right panel shows corresponding county-~~  
21 ~~level growth factors after adjustments are made to account for ICLUS county-level population changes.~~  
22 ~~Similarly, the bottom two panels show regional- and county-level SO<sub>2</sub> growth factors for residential~~  
23 ~~combustion, before and after population-based adjustments have been made.~~ ▲

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25 **Figure 6.** ICLUS population density and urban shapefiles for 2005 are shown on the left. Difference plots  
26 indicating ICLUS-predicted changes to these metrics from 2005 to 2050 are shown to the right.

27

28 **Figure 7.** Population-based surrogate change (%) for CMAQ 12 km modeling grids.

29

30 **Figure 8.** Fractional difference (FD, %) of annual emissions, *Future* minus *Base*, over the 12 km CONUS  
31 domain. (*Future*: 2050 inventory, 2050 surrogates, county growth factors; *Base*: 2005 inventory, 2005  
32 surrogates) ▲

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1 **Figure 9.** Fractional difference (%) of annual 2050 emissions, *Future* minus *FutureRegGF*, for grid cells in  
2 the CONUS 12 km domain. (*Future*: 2050 inventory, 2050 surrogates, county growth factors;  
3 *FutureRegGF*: 2050 inventory, 2050 surrogates, regional growth factors)

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5 **Figure 10.** Mean fractional difference (MFD, %) of 2050 annual emissions, *Future* minus *FutureRegGF*,  
6 stratified by grid cell population at 2050. (*Future*: 2050 inventory, 2050 surrogates, county growth  
7 factors; *FutureRegGF*: 2050 inventory, 2050 surrogates, regional growth factors)

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9 **Figure 11** Fractional Difference (%) of annual 2050 emissions, *Future* minus ~~*Future05Surr*~~*Future05Surr*,  
10 for grid cells in the CONUS 12 km domain. (*Future*: 2050 inventory, 2050 surrogates, county growth  
11 factors; *Future05Surr*: 2050 inventory, 2005 surrogates, county growth factors)

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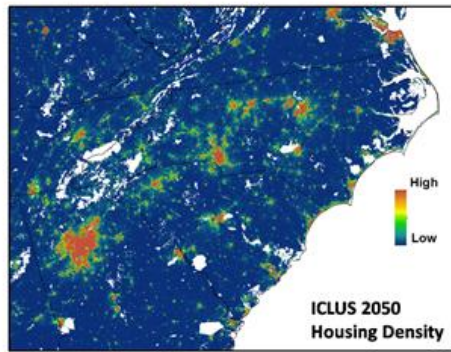
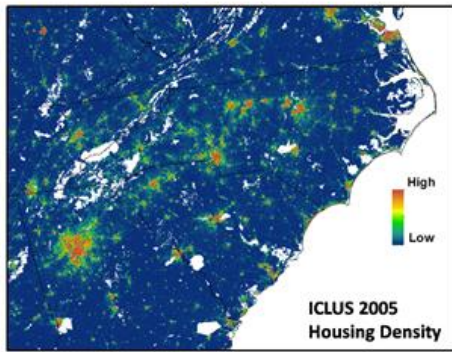
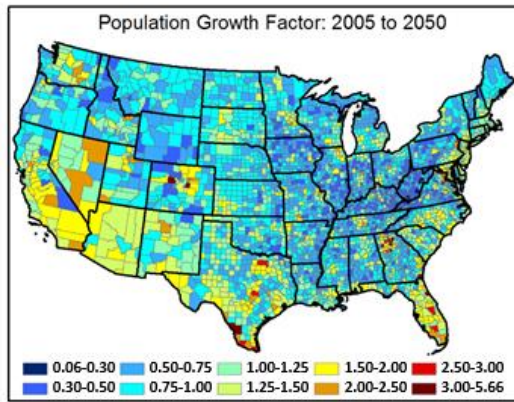
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13 **Figure 12.** Mean fractional difference (MFD, %) of 2050 annual emissions, *Future* minus *Future05Surr*,  
14 stratified by 2050 grid cell population. (*Future*: 2050 inventory, 2050 surrogates, county growth factors;  
15 *Future05Surr*: 2050 inventory, 2005 surrogates, county growth factors)

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3 **Figure 4.** County-level population growth factors (2050/2005) (top) and ICLUS housing densities at 2005  
4 and 2050 (bottom) for the Southeast area shown in Figure 3. Areas in white are designated as  
5 undevelopable.