



1 Gains and losses in surface solar radiation with dynamic

2 aerosols in regional climate simulations for Europe

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9 Abstract

The solar resource can be highly influenced by clouds and atmospheric aerosol, which has been 10 named by the IPCC as the most uncertainty climate forcing agent. Nonetheless, Regional Climate 11 Models (RCMs) hardly ever model dynamically atmospheric aerosol concentration and their 12 interaction with radiation and clouds, in contrast to Global Circulation Models (GCMs). The 13 objective of this work is to evince the role of the interactively modeling of aerosol concentrations 14 and their interactions with radiation and clouds in Weather Research and Forecast (WRF) model 15 16 simulations with a focus on summer mean surface downward solar radiation (RSDS) and over Europe. The results show that the response of RSDS is mainly led by the aerosol effects on 17 18 cloudiness, which explain well the differences between the experiments in which aerosol-radiation 19 and aerosol-radiation-cloud interactions are taken into account or not. Under present climate, a 20 reduction about 5% in RSDS was found when aerosols are dynamically solved by the RCM, which is larger when only aerosol-radiation interactions are considered. However, for future projections, 21 22 the inclusion of aerosol-radiation-cloud interactions results in the most negative RSDS change 23 pattern (while with slight values), showing noticeable differences with the projections from either the other RCM experiments or from their driving GCM (which do hold some significant positive 24 signals). Differences in RSDS among experiments are much more softer under clear-sky conditions. 25





26 1 – Introduction

Regional Climate Models (RCMs) are powerful tools providing high resolution climate information 27 28 by dynamically downscalling coarser datasets, e.g. from Global Circulation Models (GCMs). Their 29 added value is not only about the increased resolution, but also about the fact that such an increased 30 resolution allows modeling and considering fine scale processes and features that are missed or 31 misrepresented otherwise, e.g. local circulations and land uses (Rummukainen 2010, Jacob et al 2014, 2020, Schewe et al 2019). Still, certain phenomena need to be parametrized, e.g. the 32 turbulence within the planetary boundary layer, the microphysics processes and all about cumulus. 33 However, there are relevant processes that GCMs usually model dynamically, but RCMs usually do 34 35 not. This is the case of the atmospheric aerosols concentration and their multiple non-linear interactions (eg. Taylor et al 2012 vs. Ruti et al 2016), the so-called aerosol-radiation and aerosol-36 37 cloud interactions (Boucher 2015).

38 Depending on their nature and on the ambient conditions, aerosols can act to scatter and/or absorb the solar radiation, which may result on less or more solar radiation reaching the surface; less 39 40 because of its scattering (direct effect), more if absorption (semi-direct effect) leads to clouds burnoff and/or inhibition (Giorgi et al 2002, Nabat et al 2015a, Li et al 2017, Kinne 2019). Aerosols also 41 42 act as cloud condensation nuclei (indirect effect), which may also result on less or more solar 43 radiation reaching the surface. Abundance of cloud condensation nuclei rebounds on enhanced 44 scattering by whitened clouds of smaller drops with increased size and lifetime, and on the drizzle suppression which reduces bellow-cloud wet deposition processes (Seinfeld et al 2016, Kinne 45 46 2019). Contrary, in-cloud aerosol scavenging processes lead to out-of-clouds cleaner atmospheres 47 (Croft et al 2012). All these processes have the potential to alter local and regional circulations, therefore impacting beyond the radiative balance (Kloster et al 2010, Wilcox et al 2013, Nabat et al 48 2014, Wang et al 2016, Pavlidis et al 2020). 49

50 In the current context of climatic crisis, the scientific challenge is getting twofold: (1) a good 51 understanding of processes that occur in the atmosphere and of what will occur in the future, 52 because this is crucial (IPCC 2013) in order to (2) advance effective measures both at global and 53 regional scales (IPCC 2014). In particular, climate change mitigation strategies require that low-54 carbon energies grow very fast in the coming decades (Rohrig et al 2019, IRENA 2019). This rapid 55 transition of the energy sector towards renewables-powered decarbonized systems makes the energy 56 production, transmission and distribution increasingly sensitive to weather and climate variability





(Jerez et al 2013, Bloomfield et al 2016, Collins et al 2018, Kozarcanin et al 2018, Troccoli et al
2018, Germer & Kleidon 2019, Turner et al 2019, van der Wiel et al 2019, van Ruijven et al 2019).
Thus, several works have been devoted to assess this issue through the use of climate modelling
tools (Crook et al 2011, Gaetani et al 2014, Jerez et al 2015, Tobin et al 2015, Wild et al 2015,
Tobin et al 2016, Bartók et al 2017, Tobin et al 2018, Ravestein et al 2018, Schlott et al 2018, Gil et
al 2019, Jerez et al 2019, Müller et al 2019, Soares et al 2019, Solaun & Cerdá 2019, Zappa et al
2019).

64 From the extensive literature, we rescue here four key features that motivated the present work. 65 First, the increasing use of RCM to perform evaluations of the renewable energy resources and their 66 supplying potential (e.g. Jerez et al 2013, 2015, 2019, Tobin et al 2015, 2016, Gil et al 2019, Soares 67 et al 2019). Second, the key role of aerosols regarding the accuracy of the simulated solar resource by climate models (Gaetani et al 2014, Nabat et al 2015b, Gutiérrez et al 2018, 2020, Boé et al 68 69 2020, Pavlidis et al 2020). Third, the reported discrepancies between GCMs and RCMs future 70 projections for the solar resource (Jerez et al 2015, Bartók et al 2017), which still remain largely a mystery. And fourth, none of the previous studies has unveiled so far the non-evident role of 71 72 interactively modeled atmospheric aerosol concentrations and the resulting aerosol-radiation and aerosol-cloud interactions for simulating the solar resource using regional climate models under 73 74 present and future climate scenarios.

Hence, our objective here is to shed light on that. For that, we made use of a widely applied RCM, the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) Model (Skamarock et al 2008) and its coupled form with Chemistry (WRF-Chem; Grell et al 2005), to perform sets of present (period 1991-2010) and future (period 2031-2050) simulations over Europe in three ways: (1) without dynamic aerosol modeling, (2) with dynamic aerosols and aerosol-radiation interactions activated, and (3) with dynamic aerosols and both aerosol-radiation and aerosol-cloud interactions activated.

81 Section 2 provides experimental details. Section 3 presents the results. Conclusions are drawn and
82 discussed in Section 4.





83 2 – Experiments and data

We performed three experiments using the WRF model version 3.6.1 (Skamarock et al 2008; 84 85 available at https://www.mmm.ucar.edu/weather-research-and-forecasting-model, last accessed on 2019-11-28). In all cases, the simulated periods were 1991-2010 (present) and 2031-2050 (future). 86 87 Initial and boundary conditions were taken from GCM simulations: the r1i1p1 MPI-ESM-LR 88 historical and RCP8.5-forced runs (Giorgetta at al. 2012a,b; available at https://cera-www.dkrz.de, 89 last accessed on 2019-11-28) from the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5; https://pcmdi.llnl.gov/mips/cmip5/; Taylor et al 2012). The Representative Concentration Pathway 90 RCP8.5 (Moss et al 2010) depicts the highest radiative forcing along the XXI century among all 91 92 RCPs, with doubled CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O concentrations by 2050 compared to the last record of the historical period. Both the observed (past) and estimated (future) temporal evolution of the 93 concentration of these species was appropriately considered in the WRF executions (Jerez et al 94 95 2018).

96 The three experiments consisted of, and are named as:

BASE: aerosols are not treated interactively, the by-default WRF setup was used, which considers
250 cloud condensation nuclei per cm³ to form clouds, and the aerosol radiative effect is assumed to
come as an external forcing.

ARI: aerosols are treated interactively (see bellow) and aerosol-radiation interactions are activatedin the model.

ACI: aerosols are treated interactively, as in ARI experiments, and both aerosol-radiation andaerosol-cloud interactions are activated in the model.

The WRF spatial configuration consisted of two one-way nested domains (Supp Fig 1). The inner one (target domain) is an Euro-Cordex (<u>https://www.euro-cordex.net/</u>; Jacob et al 2014, 2020) compliant domain covering Europe with an horizontal resolution of 0.44° in latitude and longitude. The outer one has a horizontal resolution of 1.32° and covers the most important areas of Saharan dust emission as in Palacios-Peña et al 2019a. This configuration was necessary to generate and include the information of the Saharan dust intrusions through the boundaries of our target domain for the ARI and ACI experiments, because the boundary conditions from the GCM do not provide





111 this information. In the vertical dimension, 29 unevenly spaced eta levels were specified in the two 112 domains, with more levels near the surface than upward, and the model top was set to 50 hPa. The 113 physics configuration of the WRF model consisted of the Lin microphysics scheme (Lin et al. 114 1983), the RRTM radiative scheme (Iacono et al. 2008), the Grell 3D ensemble cumulus scheme 115 (Grell 1993, Grell and Dévényi 2002), the University of Yonsei boundary layer scheme (Hong et al. 2006) and the Noah land surface model (Chen & Dudhia 2001, Tewari et al. 2004). Boundary 116 117 conditions from the GCM were updated every 6 hours, including the low boundary condition for the 118 sea surface temperature. Nudging was applied to the outer domain, but not to the target domain.

119 To perform ARI and ACI experiments, we used the WRF model coupled with Chemistry (WRF-120 Chem) version 3.6.1 (Grell et al 2005, Chin et al 2002). WRF-Chem runs with GOCART aerosol 121 module (Ginoux et al 2001). This scheme was coupled with RACM-KPP (Stockwell et al 1997, 122 Geiger et al 2003) as chemistry option. The Fast-J module (Wild et al 2000) was used as photolysis 123 option. Biogenic emissions were calculated using the Guenther scheme (Guenther et al 2006). The 124 simulated aerosols included five species, namely sulphate, mineral dust, sea salt aerosol, organic 125 matter and black carbon. Anthropogenic emissions coming from the Atmospheric Chemistry and 126 Climate Model Intercomparison Project (ACCMIP; Lamarque et al 2010) were kept unchanged in 127 the simulation periods (we considered the 2010 monthly values). Natural emissions depend on 128 ambient conditions and varied accordingly in our simulations following Ginoux et al 2001 for dust 129 and Chin et al 2002 for sea salt.

130 The inclusion of aerosol-radiation and aerosol-cloud interactions in ARI and ACI simulations are 131 extensively described in Palacios-Peña et al 2020. However, a brief summary is included here. The 132 former (aerosol-radiation) are included following Fast et al 2006 and Chapman et al 2009. The 133 overall refractive index for a given size bin was determined by volume averaging associating each 134 chemical constituent of aerosol with a complex index of refraction. The Mie theory and the 135 summation over all size bins were used to determine the composite aerosol optical properties 136 assuming wet particle diameters. Finally, aerosol optical properties are transferred to the shortwave 137 radiation scheme. Aerosol-cloud interactions were implemented by linking the simulated cloud 138 droplet number with the microphysics schemes (Chapman et al 2009) affecting both the calculated 139 droplet mean radius and the cloud optical depth. Although this WRF-Chem version (3.6.1) does not 140 allow a full coupling with aerosol-cloud interactions, the microphysics implemented here is a single 141 moment scheme that turns into a two moments scheme in the simulations denoted as ACI.





142 The WRF outputs were recorded every hour, in particular for the variables of interest here, namely 143 Surface Downward Solar Radiation (RSDS) and Total Cloud Cover (CCT). We also compute AOD 144 at 550 nm from the WRF-Chem outputs following Palacios-Peña et al (2019b). RSDS_{cs} and AOD_{cs} 145 will denote the RSDS and AOD values under clear sky conditions, computed here at the daily time 146 scale from those days with values of CCT lower than 1%. The RSDS and CCT data simulated by 147 the driving GCM runs were used for comparison purposes. We also retrieved the AOD at 550 nm as 148 seen by the GCM from the MACv2 data (Kinne et al 2019), whose anthropogenic changes are in 149 accordance with the RCP8.5 while its coarse mode (of natural origin) was not allowed to change. 150 Summer (JJA: June-July-August) means of all the variables were used in the analysis. The analysis 151 involving RSDS_{cs} and AOD_{cs} will be considered only over those grid points where at least 75% of 152 the summer mean values in the time series (i.e. at least 15 records per period) are not missing values 153 (which, according to our methodology, would occur only if all days within a summer season have 154 CTT values $\geq 1\%$).

155 3 - Results

We focus on the summer season (JJA), when solar energy provides its most, AOD tipically reaches 156 157 the highest values and the aerosol radiative effect has been proven to be strongest (Pavlidis et al 2020). As a first test, Supp Fig 2a-d provides the GCM, BASE, ARI and ACI JJA climatologies of 158 159 RSDS in the present period. Although the four patterns depict similar structures, a closer look to the 160 deviations of the climatologies from the WRF experiments with respect to the GCM (Supp Fig 2e-161 g) reveals significant differences through resembling patterns: positive values (higher RSDS values 162 in the RCM experiments) south and northward (up to 20 and 30% respectively), and negative values 163 in between (10-15%, eventually up to 25%). Nonetheless, there still exist significant differences 164 within the set of WRF experiments (Fig 1a-c), in which this research puts the focus.

The inclusion of interactive aerosols (ARI and ACI experiments) reduce the JJA mean values of RSDS in central and northern parts of our domain by a few percents as compared to the BASE experiment (Fig 1a,b). This reduction is generally stronger in ARI than in ACI. Consequently, the ACI minus ARI pattern (Fig 1c) depicts mostly positive values over central and southern regions. In order to try to understand these patterns, Fig 1 also provides differences in the CCT and AOD summer climatologies between experiments and the spatial correlations (*s_corr*) between these patterns and those of RSDS differences (panels d to f and g to i, respectively). Compared to BASE,





172 both ARI and ACI lead to more cloudiness in central and northern regions and less cloudiness 173 southward, specially in ACI (Fig 1d-f), which is well correlated with the spatial distribution of the 174 differences between experiments in RSDS. Also, the dynamic treatment of aerosols lead to 175 noticeable differences (up to 10%) in the AOD values between ACI and ARI (Fig 1i), and the AOD 176 climatologies from these two experiments provides a consistently non-nule picture (Fig 1g,h; nule values can be considered for BASE). However, the paterns for AOD do not correlate with those for 177 178 RSDS. In fact, the temporal correlation at the grid point level between the series of differences in 179 RSDS and in CTT is above 0.8 (negative) in most of the domain, while differences in AOD hardly 180 correlates in time with differences in RSDS (Supp Fig 3a-f). Hence, the CTT differences prevail 181 over the AOD differences in driving the RSDS differences between pairs of experiments in the 182 present-day climate simulations. This also holds under future conditions, while the patterns of 183 differnces in the analyzed varables show different structures (Supp Fig 4 and 5a-f).

184 Therefore, there is an overall a direct and predominant link between the aerosols effect on 185 cloudiness and its impact on the amount of solar radiation reaching the surface. Contrary, the effect 186 of interactive aerosols schemes on AOD seems to play a minor and more local role in certain locations, where it eventually can help to straightly explain the differences in RSDS between ACI 187 and ARI as the matching between the RSDS and CCT differences devanishes. For instance, a closer 188 189 look to local differences between ARI/ACI and BASE reveals regions (in central and eastern 190 Mediterranean Europe) where, in spite of the less CCT simulated in experiments with interactive 191 aerosols (Fig 1d,e), they also simulate less RSDS than BASE (Fig 1a,b). This could be explained by 192 the differences in AOD and its locally relevant impact on RSDS over thse regions, as pointed out by 193 Supp Fig 3d. Also, over areas of central Europe, while differences between ACI and ARI in CTT 194 are small (Fig 1f), ACI provides higher values of RSDS than ARI (Fig 1c), which could be 195 explained by the larger AOD values in the ARI simulation (Fig 1i).

196 Under clear-sky conditions (Fig 2), both the spatial correlations between patterns of AOD and 197 RSDS differnces, and the temporal correlations between the respective series computed at the grid 198 point level (Supp Fig 3g-i, 5g-i and 6), support the relevant role of the AOD_{cs} variable for the 199 simulation of RSDS_{cs}. Nonetheless, differences in RSDS_{cs} are lower than differences in RSDS, basically nule between ACI and ARI. It is important to note that this analysis considers coincident 200 201 clear-sky dates between the pairs of experiment being faced (the percentage of days retained under 202 this approach can be seen in Supp Fig 7). Without this restriction (see the percentage of days 203 retained in Supp Fig 8) the match between both variables devanishes both in the present and the





future periods (Supp Fig 9 and 10), may indicating the masking effect of Earth orbit related issues,of large scale climate drivers and/or local forcings such as water vapor content.

206 Cloudiness also seems to lead the future projections for the RSDS summer climatologies (Fig 3). 207 BASE and ARI change patterns for RSDS (Fig 3b,c) resemble each other, with negative signals (up 208 to 10%) appearing in northernmost regions while positive signals (up to 5%) appear southward 209 within our target domain. These latter are more widespread in ARI than in BASE, which makes the 210 ARI pattern the most similar to the change pattern from the GCM (Fig 3a). However, when 211 aerosols-cloud interactions are included in the WRF runs, such a positive RSDS change signals 212 mostly disappear while the northern negative ones reinforce in some parts as compared to the ARI 213 pattern (Fig 3d). All this is in quite good agreement with the corresponding change patterns for CCT 214 (Fig 3e-h) – including the fact that the negative change signals for CCT appearing southward in the 215 GCM, BASE and ARI experiments are way less evident in ACI - and occurs in spite of two 216 constraining facts regarding the AOD simulation approaches in our WRF experiments: (1) AOD 217 remains unchanged in the BASE experiment (as illustrated by Fig 3j), and (2) AOD changes from 218 the ARI and ACI experiments are hardly realistic because their anthropogenic component is 219 disregarded (as specified in Section 2), and thus depict patterns (Fig 3k,l) that have nothing to do 220 with the GCM projection in Fig 3i (which does consider time evolving anthropogenic aerosols). In 221 fact, the spatial correlation between the patterns of AOD and RSDS changes is lower than between 222 the patterns of CTT and RSDS changes, specially in ACI, the experiment in which aerosols also act 223 on clouds.

224 The change signals for RSDS_{cs} and AOD_{cs} (Fig 4) depict softer and with a different spatial structure 225 to those for RSDS and AOD in the ARI and ACI experiments, turning mostly negative southward 226 and positive northward for RSDS_{cs}, which occurs similarly in the three experiments (BASE, ARI 227 and ACI). There is no clear relation between AOD_{cs} change patterns and RSDS_{cs} changes (low 228 spatial correlation), except for some local signals in areas at the North-East. However, as discussed 229 above, the role of retaining, or not, coincident clear-sky dates between pairs of experiments is 230 important to filter out the true role of AOD_{cs} on RSDS_{cs}. Thus, the fact that change patterns are 231 constructed over different dates may partially explain the apparently negligible role of AOD_{cs} on 232 RSDS_{cs} in this case. But only partially, as the BASE change pattern for RSDS_{cs} (simulated on the 233 ground of nule AOD_{cs} change) resemble the respective patterns from ARI and ACI experiments.





234 4 - Discussion and conclusions

We presented here a research on the role of dynamically modeled atmospheric aerosols in regional climate simulations with a focus on impacts on the solar resource during the summer season from a climatic perspective, including projected changes to a medium-range horizon and analysis under clear-sky conditions. For that we evaluated a set of 20-yr long runs (spanning both present and future periods) with resolved aerosol-radiation and aerosol-radiation-cloud interactive (two-way) interactions, on the ground of which we drew original conclusions.

241 In general, the inclusion of interactive aerosols reduces the amount of solar radiation reaching the 242 surface by a few percent points (~5%) under present climate, as expected (Nabat et al 2015a, 243 Gutiérrez et al 2018, Pavlidis et al 2020). This effect is larger when the aerosol-cloud interaction 244 remains turned off, because its activation leads to less cloudiness (over the Mediterranean Europe) 245 and lower AOD values (over the Atlantic Europe), as evidenced when ACI and ARI simulations 246 were compared. Differences in RSDS between experiments are in overall well agreement with the 247 differences found in cloudiness, while they seem to be unlinked with the differences in AOD in 248 many parts of the domain. In agreement with (Pavlidis et al 2020), AOD plays its major role under 249 clear-sky conditions. However, the signals supporting its importance under such conditions would 250 be masked unless coincident dates (at the daily time-scale) are considered. Anyway, differences in 251 JJA-mean values of RSDS under clear skies between experiments with and without dynamic 252 aerosols are hardly about 1%, while still significant in some of the southernmost parts of our 253 European domain, and almost nule between ACI and ARI.

254 Regarding the future projections, the patterns for RSDS and those for CCT show again high spatial 255 correlations in all the GCM and RCM (BASE, ARI and ACI) projections. Although lower, still high spatial correlations define the matching between the RSDS change patterns and those for AOD in 256 257 the GCM and the ARI experiment. GCM, BASE and ARI experiments agree in projecting positive 258 RSDS change signals in southern and eastern areas (around 5%), while clear differences are found 259 between the GCM and the BASE or ARI RSDS change patterns (with these two latter being very 260 similar) in central and northeastern areas, where the positive signals from the GCM turns notably 261 negative both in BASE and ARI. ACI provides the most singular and negative picture of RSDS 262 changes among all shown, with widespread decreasing signals of a few percent points, apparently 263 unlinked to the changes projected in AOD.





264 Previous works (Jerez et al 2015) had already detected inconsistencies in the change signals 265 between RCM projections and those from their driving GCM, which had been related to the way 266 aerosols had been represented in the RCM through its impact on the simulated AOD (Bartók et al 267 2017, Gutiérrez et al 2020, Boé et al 2020), and in particular to the time-evolving aerosols in 268 scenarios. Our results constitute an example of the impact of cloudiness and AOD in RSDS through 269 aerosol-related physical mechanisms while keeping unchanged the anthropogenic aerosol emissions 270 through the simulation period, revealing in this case the prevailing role of CCT changes to explain 271 RSDS changes, and the capacity of the aerosol-radiation-cloud interactions to significantly alter the 272 RSDS change patterns (more than what aerosol-radiation interactions alone do). Although change 273 patterns for RSDS look much more uniform among experiments under clear-sky conditions, the 274 results presented here may indicate that action-oriented messages from modelling experimts that did 275 not consider the role of aerosols, in particular in a dynamic way, could be potentially misleading, 276 thus calling for future research efforts in this line.

277 Author contribution

S. J. conceived this study. L. P.-P., P. J.-G. and J. P. M. designed the experiments and J. M. L.-R.
carried out them. S. J. performed the analysis and prepared the manuscript with contributions from
all co-authors.

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288 Code and data availability

289 All data and codes used here are available for research purposes by contacting the corresponding author.





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537 Figure caption

- **Figure 1.** Relative differences between the WRF simulations in the RSDS (a to c), CCT (d to f) and AOD at 550 nm (g to i) summer (JJA) climatologies in the present period (1991-2010), squared if statistically significant (p<0.05); units: %. Note that panels g and h are referred to the horizontal colorbar just below them and simply represent the AOD summer climatologies in ARI and ACI respectively. Spatial correlations (s_corr) between the patterns in the second and third rows and the respective patterns in the first row are indicated in the headers.
- 544 **Figure 2.** Relative differences between the WRF simulations in the RSDS_{cs} (a to c) and AOD_{cs} at 545 550 nm (d to f) summer (JJA) climatologies, this is under clear-sky conditions, in the present period 546 (1991-2010), squared if statistically significant (p<0.05); units: %. Note that panels d and e are 547 referred to the horizontal colorbar just below them and simply represent the AOD summer 548 climatologies in ARI and ACI respectively. Gray shaded areas depict grid point where less than 75% 549 of the summer mean values in the time series of RSDS_{cs} and AOD_{cs} were not missing values. Spatial 550 correlations (s_corr) between the patterns in the second row and the respective patterns in the first 551 row are indicated in the headers.
- **Figure 3.** Projected changes for the RSDS (a to d), CCT (e to h) and AOD at 550nm (i to l) summer (JJA) climatologies by the GCM (first column) and the WRF experiments (second to fourth columns); units: %. Squares highlight statistically significant signals (p<0.05). Note that panel i is referred to the horizontal colorbar just below it. Spatial correlations (s_corr) between the patterns in the second and third rows and the respective patterns in the first row are indicated in the headers.
- **Figure 4.** Projected changes for the $RSDS_{cs}$ (a to c) and AOD_{cs} at 550nm (d to f) summer (JJA) climatologies, this is under clear-sky conditions, by the WRF experiments, squared if statistically significant (p<0.05); units: %. Gray shaded areas depict grid point where less than 75% of the summer mean values in the time series of $RSDS_{cs}$ and AOD_{cs} were not missing values in both the present and the future period. Spatial correlations (*s_corr*) between the patterns in the second row and the respective patterns in the first row are indicated in the headers.





RSDS, CCT & AOD JJA climatologies for 1991-2010: differences between experiments



0.02 0.03 0.04 0.05 0.06 0.07 0.08 0.09 0.10

Figure 1





\mathbf{RSDS}_{cs} & \mathbf{AOD}_{cs} JJA climatologies for 1991-2010: differences between experiments



Figure 2





RSDS, CCT & AOD JJA changes (2031-2050 vs. 1991-2010)



-60 -40 -20 0 20 Figure 3





 $RSDS_{cs}$ & AOD_{cs} JJA changes (2031-2050 vs. 1991-2010)



Figure 4