



Evaluating Secondary Inorganic Aerosols in 3-Dimensions

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Abstract.

The spatial distribution of aerosols and their chemical composition dictates whether aerosols have a cooling or a warming effect on the climate system. Hence, properly modeling the 3-dimensional distribution of aerosols is a crucial step for coherent climate simulations. Since surface measurement networks only give 2-D data, and most satellites supply integrated column information, it is thus important to integrate aircraft measurements in climate model evaluations. In this study, the vertical distribution of secondary inorganic aerosol (i.e. sulfate, ammonium and nitrate) is evaluated against a collection of 14 AMS flight campaigns and surface measurements from 2000-2010 in the USA and Europe. GISS ModelE2 is used with multiple aerosol microphysics (MATRIX, OMA) and thermodynamic (ISORROPIA II, EQSAM) configurations. Our results show that the MATRIX microphysical scheme improves the model performance for sulfate, but that there is a systematic underestimation of ammonium and nitrate over the USA and Europe in all model configurations. In terms of gaseous precursors, nitric acid concentrations are largely underestimated at the surface while overestimated in the higher levels of the model, influenced by strong stratosphere-troposphere exchange. Heterogeneous reactions on dust surfaces is an important sink for nitric acid, even high in the troposphere. At high altitudes, nitrate formation is calculated to be ammonia limited. The underestimation of ammonium and nitrate in polluted regions is most likely caused by a too



27 simplified treatment of the $\text{NH}_3/\text{NH}_4^+$ partitioning which affects the $\text{HNO}_3/\text{NO}_3^-$ partitioning.

28 **1. Introduction**

29 The impact of aerosols on climate and air quality is a function of their chemical composition,
30 abundance and spatial distribution. Understanding the vertical profile of aerosols is crucial for
31 radiative forcing calculations (Xu and Penner, 2012), since aerosols interact with radiation
32 directly through absorption and scattering (Bauer and Menon, 2012; Haywood and Boucher,
33 2000; Stocker et al., 2013), and indirectly via interactions with clouds (Lohmann and Feichter,
34 2005). Comparisons of model results with organic aerosol aircraft data showed large
35 discrepancies in the free troposphere (Heald et al., 2005, 2011). Sulfate and ammonium nitrate
36 aerosols, although much simpler to model than organics, have not been studied in the vertical
37 in much detail. There is large uncertainty in the magnitude of the forcing induced by sulfate and
38 ammonium nitrate aerosols, with estimates for the preindustrial to present day direct radiative
39 forcing of sulfate ranging from -0.6 to -0.2 Wm^{-2} while for ammonium nitrate from -0.3 to -0.03
40 Wm^{-2} (Stocker et al., 2013) under present day conditions. These forcings are projected to
41 change in the future, driven by trends in precursor emissions. The projected increase in
42 agricultural ammonia emissions, which will result in greater availability of ammonia, contrasted
43 with the projected reductions in NO_x emissions, can lead to an increased relative contribution
44 of ammonium nitrate to the total secondary inorganic aerosol (SIA) abundance, due to the
45 strong projected decrease of sulfate aerosols (Hauglustaine et al., 2014; Hodas et al., 2014).
46 Yet, the effect of these changes on ammonium nitrate concentrations are still a matter of active
47 research: *Paulot et al.* [2016] showed increases in nitrate load in the free troposphere, while
48 surface concentrations decreased, and *Pusede et al.* [2016] showed changes in tropospheric



49 chemistry in western USA, with increased ammonium nitrate production during daytime rather
50 than at night.

51 Thermodynamically, ammonia tends to neutralize sulfuric acid over the highly volatile nitric acid
52 (Tagaris et al., 2007). The formation of fine-mode nitrate is a function of ammonia, sulfate
53 availability and relative humidity (RH), since its precursor, nitric acid, condenses following
54 thermodynamic equilibrium (Potukuchi and Wexler, 1995a, 1995b). Sulfuric acid and nitric acid
55 also participate in heterogeneous uptake on dust particles, forming coarse sulfate and nitrate, a
56 process that acts as a sink for the gas phase precursors (Bauer and Koch, 2005; Ravishankara,
57 1997).

58 In this paper we evaluate ammonium, nitrate and sulfate aerosols in the NASA GISS ModelE2
59 against surface and aircraft observations, extending what *Bauer et al.* [2007b] did for nitrate
60 aerosol for the year 2000, by using new aerosol configurations that had been implemented in
61 GISS ModelE2 since then, and a substantially extended record of SIA measurements, both from
62 ground stations and various flight campaigns. To assess the model in terms of SIA surface
63 distribution and vertical profiles, we evaluated the performance of three aerosol
64 configurations, described in section 2.1.1, by comparing them against surface data measured
65 over the USA and Europe during 2000-2010, and 14 flight campaigns, as described in section
66 2.2. We then study the climatology of the model against measurements, both at surface and at
67 higher altitudes (sections 3.1-3.3), and explore the model uncertainties with the help of
68 sensitivity experiments (section 3.4).

69 2. Experimental approach



70 **2.1 Model description**

71 The NASA GISS ModelE2 model (Schmidt et al., 2014) was run with interactive tropospheric
72 (Shindell et al., 2001, 2003) and stratospheric chemistry (Shindell et al., 2006) and coupled with
73 three different aerosol configurations, as described below. A horizontal resolution of 2° in
74 latitude by 2.5° in longitude and a vertical resolution of 40 layers to 0.1 hPa was used. The
75 simulation was nudged using 6 hourly National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP)
76 reanalysis data (Kalnay et al., 1996) for the horizontal wind component. Sea surface
77 temperatures (SSTs) and sea ice cover were prescribed using the Met Office Hadley Center's sea
78 ice and sea surface temperature data set (HadISST1) (Rayner et al., 2003).

79 The nitrate optical depth of GISS ModelE2 in the CMIP5 archive was found to be problematic,
80 consistent with the findings of *Shindell et al.* [2013] for a likely too high nitrate load. In our work
81 the nitrate scheme had been corrected and nitrate distribution in the column reflects surface
82 sources such as agricultural, industrial and biomass burning areas.

83 **2.1.1 Aerosols schemes**

84 Two aerosol schemes were used in this study: OMA (One Moment Aerosol) (Koch et al., 2006;
85 Miller et al., 2006) and MATRIX (Multiconfiguration Aerosol TRacker of mIXing state) (Bauer et
86 al., 2008). OMA is a bulk mass scheme with one fine mode bin of prescribed size for SO_4^{2-} , NH_4^+ ,
87 and NO_3^- . In OMA, heterogeneous uptake of SO_2 and HNO_3 on dust surfaces is also included,
88 which takes place on the three smallest size bins out of the five size bins used for mineral dust
89 (Bauer et al., 2004, 2007). MATRIX is a microphysical scheme representing nucleation,
90 condensation and coagulation. Sulfate is tracked with both number and mass concentrations
91 for 16 populations, which are based on mixing state. MATRIX represents an intermediate level



92 of complexity; only the total mass of nitrate, ammonium and aerosol water is calculated, and
93 then distributed across populations based on the sulfate abundance in each one of them,
94 assuming internally mixed components. This approach greatly reduces the required number of
95 transported variables.

96 Due to the focus on SIA in this paper we will give a brief description of the sulfate and nitrate
97 schemes in our model. The sulfate chemistry module in both schemes, OMA and MATRIX, is
98 based on Koch et al. (1999) and includes prognostic calculation of gas and aqueous phase DMS,
99 MSA, SO₂ and sulfate concentrations. This provides the sulfate mass in the OMA scheme, and
100 provides aqueous sulfate production rates and H₂SO₄ concentrations as input parameters for
101 MATRIX microphysics (Bauer et al., 2008).

102 To partition between the gas and particle phases the model uses the non-linear
103 thermodynamics. Both schemes were run coupled to the secondary inorganic aerosol
104 thermodynamics scheme EQSAM (Metzger et al., 2002a, 2002b). MATRIX was also run coupled
105 to ISORROPIA II (Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007), which was only recently introduced into GISS
106 ModelE2. EQSAM is a parameterized thermodynamics scheme that relies on the relationship
107 between activity coefficients and RH to calculate the solute activity and the non-ideal solution
108 properties, while ISORROPIA II calculates the equilibrium constants and solves the
109 thermodynamic equations analytically. Both models use the same input parameters: NH_x
110 (NH₃+NH₄⁺), SO₄²⁻, XNO₃ (HNO₃+NO₃⁻), RH and temperature, and interactively calculate the SO₄²⁻
111 , NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻ and aerosol H₂O concentrations at equilibrium, as well as the residual NH₃ and
112 HNO₃ in the gas phase.

113 The thermodynamical equilibrium for Aitken mode sized particles, which is important for CCN,



114 might not be properly captured by models (*Benduhn et al.* [2016]). This is not expected to be a
115 problem in this study because Aitken mode particles are a small fraction of the total aerosol
116 mass. In addition, for the coarse mode, large uncertainties exist regarding the availability of
117 crustal and coarse mode material in equilibrium thermodynamic calculations. Our simulations
118 do not take into consideration crustal (e.g. Mg^{2+} , K^+ , Ca^{2+}) and sea salt (e.g. Na^+ , Cl^-) ions in the
119 thermodynamics, although this option is available in the model.

120 The model ran in the following three configurations: OMA-EQSAM, MATRIX-EQSAM, and
121 MATRIX-ISORROPIA, and we are comparing model $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ (particles with dry diameter smaller
122 than $2.5\ \mu\text{m}$) with measured $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ at surface, and model PM_1 (particles with dry diameter
123 smaller than $1\ \mu\text{m}$) with measured PM_1 at the vertical, for consistency with the available
124 measurements.

125 2.1.2 Emissions

126 This study used the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project phase 5 (CMIP5) historical
127 anthropogenic emissions until 2005 (Lamarque et al., 2010) and the Representative
128 Concentration Pathway 4.5 (RCP4.5) scenario thereafter (van Vuuren et al., 2011). Biomass
129 burning emissions came from the Global Fire Emissions Database (GFED3) inventory (van der
130 Werf et al., 2010). The emissions include seasonal variations for the biomass burning, soil NO_x ,
131 shipping and aircraft sectors (Lamarque et al., 2010), yet lack seasonal variability for all other
132 anthropogenic emissions, including agricultural NH_3 sources. In order to prevent unrealistic
133 ammonium and nitrate aerosols loads during wintertime, the agricultural NH_3 emissions were
134 altered using the local solar zenith angle, in order to produce a more realistic seasonal
135 variability, but kept the total annual emissions the same. This approach is comparable to *Adams*



136 *et al.* [1999] and *Park* [2004] who scaled ammonia emissions from crops and fertilizers
137 according to the number of daylight hours.

138 **2.1.3 Sensitivity runs**

139 NH_3 emissions are controlled by the agricultural sector (Lamarque et al., 2010), both in the USA
140 and Europe, where more than 80% of NH_3 emissions are agriculture-related (van Damme et al.,
141 2015; Paulot et al., 2014). We test how changing agricultural NH_3 emissions affect ammonium
142 nitrate formation under two scenarios: double and five times higher agricultural NH_3 emissions,
143 using the MATRIX-ISORROPIA aerosol configuration. The results of that sensitivity are presented
144 in section 3.4.

145 **2.2 Observational datasets**

146 **2.2.1 Surface measurements**

147 We evaluate our simulations against nitrate and sulfate $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ data measured by the
148 Interagency Monitoring of Protected Visual Environments (IMPROVE) network over the
149 continental United States (Malm et al., 1994, 2004), and against ammonia, ammonium, nitric
150 acid, nitrate, SO_2 and sulfate measured by the European Monitoring and Evaluation Programme
151 (EMEP), available via the NILU-EBAS database, for the years 2000-2010. From EMEP we use the
152 corrected sulfate for sea salt (XSO_4) (EMEP, 2014, Chp. 3) as it better represents fine sulfate.
153 IMPROVE currently has 212 sites, predominantly rural (Hand et al., 2011, 2012), while EMEP has
154 around 40 sites measuring aerosol composition in Europe, many of which are urban (Tørseth et
155 al., 2012). The data in Europe is reported in $\mu\text{gX m}^{-3}$ (where X is either sulfur or nitrogen) and in
156 the USA in $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. We decided to keep these units unchanged in the rest of the manuscript, and



157 convert the units of the model to represent those of the measurements, rather than doing the
158 opposite. We compared monthly mean values from all available stations with monthly mean
159 model output. An examination of the mean spatial distribution over the USA (Figure 1) revealed
160 distinct regimes with different pollution levels, which motivated a regional division of the data
161 into eastern USA (EUSA) and western USA (WUSA). Europe (EU; Figure 2) and the Arctic (ARC;
162 data from flight campaigns only) were studied independently (Table 1). The standard deviation,
163 correlation coefficient (R), and normalized mean bias (NMB) between the monthly mean
164 surface values within the studied regions (black frames in Figures 1 and 2) and the model's
165 monthly mean at the stations locations in each region, were calculated. It is important to note
166 that during the 11-year period the number of measuring sites has varied in each region, and
167 that not all stations measured all species.

168 **2.2.2 Flight campaigns**

169 The Aerodyne Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (AMS), which measures chemical composition and
170 size distribution of non-refractory particles (such as ammonium, nitrate and sulfate) with
171 diameter smaller than 1 μm (Allan et al., 2003; Jimenez et al., 2003), had been part of many
172 flight campaigns in the past decade. Another common method to measure inorganic particle
173 composition is using the particle-into-liquid-sampler (PILS), which quantifies the ionic content
174 of particulate matter using ion chromatography (Weber et al., 2001). In this study we use data
175 from 14 flight campaigns, two of which used the PILS instrument for chemical composition
176 measurements, and the rest used the AMS (Table 2). The flights took place in the Northern
177 Hemisphere during short campaign periods, predominantly during spring and summer seasons,
178 between 2001-2011. The flight tracks of the campaigns used here are presented in Figure 3.



179 Data were retrieved using the Tools for Airborne Data interface (<https://tad.larc.nasa.gov/>), as
180 well as the AMS global database (<https://sites.google.com/site/amsglobaldatabase/>). For every
181 campaign a mean regional vertical profile was calculated by averaging the flight data within the
182 model's grid. For short-range campaigns such as ACE, CRISTAL, MILAGRO, TexAQS, and EUCAARI
183 all available data were used, for ITOP the transit flight data were parsed out, and for the rest of
184 the campaigns only data within the regional boundaries we study (black frames in Figure 3)
185 were used. These boundaries were chosen in accordance with the surface observations.
186 The campaign-average profile was compared against the monthly mean model output, a not
187 uncommon practice in model-aircraft comparison studies (e.g. Bauer et al., 2007; Emmons et
188 al., 2000; Shindell et al., 2003). The simulations were sub-sampled by taking into consideration
189 the geographical variability of the flights, but not the sub-monthly temporal variability, to yield
190 a mean corresponding profile. The one standard deviation variability of the campaign data per
191 model level was calculated for the measurements and model simulations, which represents the
192 spatial variability of the concentrations during the whole field campaign for the measurements,
193 and the spatial variability of the monthly mean modeled concentrations for the model. The
194 duration of the field campaigns ranged from 7 to 17 days. In the Results section we picked 4
195 representative campaigns that display systematic behavior, one for each region (Figure 7). The
196 rest of the campaigns can be found in the appendix (Figure A2, A3).

197 **3. Results and discussion**

198 In terms of mean surface concentrations (measured and modeled) in the Western Hemisphere
199 sulfate concentrations are higher than nitrate concentrations. That is not the case in the



200 Eastern Hemisphere, since over western Europe sulfate and nitrate aerosols are comparable in
201 mass (Figure 2), consistent with *Schaap et al.* [2004]. At the whole atmospheric column (not
202 shown here), sulfate peaks over east EU and northern Africa due to in-cloud production and
203 transport, while the nitrate column distribution corresponds to the surface distribution, with
204 maxima over the continental hot spots, driven by urban pollution and biomass burning.

205 **3.1 Surface climatology**

206 Surface data show high concentrations of nitrate and sulfate in the industrialized EUSA and EU
207 and lower concentrations in WUSA, with some urban hot spots (Figures 1 and 2). We compared
208 the model skill, with respect to measurements, under the three different aerosol configurations
209 in Figure 4 for nitrate (left) and sulfate (right). The regional clusters observed reflect the fact
210 that performance in terms of R and NMB is controlled by region rather than aerosol scheme.
211 For sulfate, the simulation with no microphysics (OMA, blue) is always biased lower (by 1-4%)
212 compared to the other two simulations (MATRIX, red and green), a result of having sulfate
213 aerosols spread over the entire size distribution, leading to longer lifetime of sulfate mass in
214 MATRIX. As an indication, the mean lifetime of sulfate in 2005 was 4.2 days in the two MATRIX
215 simulations, against 3.2 days in the OMA simulation. We observe a systematic underestimation
216 of ammonium, nitrate and sulfate in EUSA and EU (35% for nitrate, 30% for ammonium, 20% for
217 sulfate). Despite the negative bias, the three aerosol types correlate well with measurements in
218 these regions ($R > 0.5$). This high correlation is due to the fact the simulations successfully
219 capture the aerosol seasonal cycle (discussed in the next section). In the WUSA, the simulations
220 overestimate sulfate by 12%, and underestimated nitrate by 80%, while there is no correlation
221 between the model and observations for nitrate. The different behavior across regions reflects



222 the fact that the WUSA is driven by agricultural emissions while in the EUSA industrial and
223 residential emissions dominate. The ability of the model to capture the seasonality (discussed
224 in the next section) is important for model skill and is discussed in the next section.

225 **3.2 Surface seasonality**

226 Figure 5 shows that in the EU there is little variation in the SO₂ seasonality between the three
227 simulations, which is emission-level driven. The modeled surface concentration overestimates
228 measurements by about 0.5 µgS m⁻³, with an amplified seasonal cycle. Past studies (Dentener et
229 al., 2006; Vestreng et al., 2007) have raised concerns regarding the accuracy of SO₂ emission
230 inventories, which might be part of the explanation of the SO₂ overestimation. Additionally,
231 wintertime chemistry slowdown due to reduced photochemistry increases the SO₂ lifetime,
232 resulting in reduced sulfate formation rates, contributing to the underestimation of sulfate
233 concentration which can be as high as a factor of 2 during winter months. For sulfate, the
234 difference between the simulations is dominated by the aerosol scheme, with the summertime
235 peak being more pronounced in the MATRIX simulations than in the OMA one. As explained in
236 the previous section, MATRIX simulates higher concentrations due to the existence of smaller
237 particles with longer lifetimes compared to OMA. Surface NH₃ (Figure 5) is overestimated in all
238 three simulations, which might be due to incorrect NH_x partitioning calculated by EQSAM and
239 ISORROPIA II, a hypothesis that is supported by the underestimate of ammonium. Contrary to
240 SO₂ and NH₃, nitric acid is underestimated by the simulations by a factor of 3. This contributes
241 to the underestimation of nitrate in all simulations. The simulated seasonality of nitrate
242 matches that of the measurements, peaking during winter and reaching a minimum during



243 summer. *Konovalov et al.* [2008] identified a slight underestimation of NO_x in emission
244 inventories in southern Europe, which would contribute to underestimations of XNO_3 .
245 IMPROVE has extensive sulfate and nitrate surface data to compare against the model
246 simulations. EMEP provides additional HNO_3 data from 9 stations, predominantly around the
247 Great Lakes, which is not enough for a proper regional analysis. Unfortunately, ammonium and
248 gas phase aerosol precursors are not routinely measured via the IMPROVE network. In the
249 eastern USA (Figure 6) the model simulations exhibit peak sulfate concentrations during
250 summer, with the MATRIX simulations having a stronger seasonality than OMA, which better
251 matches observations. For nitrate, all simulations systematically underestimate measurements
252 during most of the year (by about $0.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), except during winter, where MATRIX slightly
253 overestimates them (less than $0.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). The HNO_3 underestimation by the model, as evident
254 by the limited measurements we obtained in EUSA (Figure A1), contributes to the nitrate
255 underestimation.

256 In WUSA the simulated sulfate and nitrate seasonality (Figure 6 left panels) is flat compared to
257 the measurements. For sulfate, the measured range is $0.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, while in the MATRIX
258 simulations the range is $0.25 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and OMA-EQSAM is $0.15 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. All simulations
259 underestimate measurements during summer and overestimate them during winter. The
260 measured maximum sulfate concentrations are around summer. This feature is captured by
261 OMA-EQSAM, but the MATRIX simulations calculate spring and fall peaks instead. For nitrate,
262 the measurements peak in early winter, a feature that is not captured by the simulations, as
263 modeled nitrate peaks in winter. During the winter OMA-EQSAM and MATRIX EQSAM are
264 similar, probably due to the common thermodynamical scheme, while MATRIX-ISORROPIA II is



265 higher by $0.05 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. Modeled nitrate is underestimated compared to measurements
266 throughout the year: in the MATRIX simulations it is underestimated by about $0.45 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (80%
267 of the measured value), and in OMA-ISORROPIA it is underestimated by about $0.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$.

268 3.3 Vertical Profiles

269 The simulated mean vertical profiles of sulfate, ammonium, nitric acid (when available), and
270 nitrate are evaluated against the mean measured profiles in Figure 7. The measured and
271 modeled standard deviations (gray shading and dashed lines, respectively), along with the
272 number of days each layer was sampled (black squares), are shown as well. Generally, aerosol
273 concentrations decrease with altitude as they peak near emission sources at the surface. Some
274 of the data used in this study were affected by intense fire plumes (Fisher et al., 2010; Jacob et
275 al., 2010), as can be seen in the ATCPAC (ARC) and ARCTAS spring and summer (ARC) panels
276 (Figure 7 and A2). Fires act as a source of NO_x , NH_3 and SO_2 , increasing the concentration of
277 sulfate, ammonium and nitrate in the measurements. Fire emissions are included in our
278 simulations, yet these emissions could be underestimated, as *Ichoku and Ellison* [2014]
279 indicated is the case in many bottom-up emission inventories such as GFED3 (used here), and
280 are also a function of properly resolving the transport. Even if all these factors are accurate in
281 the model, the monthly mean output we use would dilute the signal of a fire event as observed
282 in a flight profile.

283 Modeled sulfate concentrations are underestimated compared to the measurements (first
284 column in Figure 7 and Figures A2 and A3). The MATRIX simulations that include aerosol
285 microphysics show higher concentrations compared to the bulk scheme. During INTEX-A (EUSA)



286 the MATRIX simulations produced in the boundary layer around $1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ higher sulfate
287 concentrations compared to OMA. The thermodynamic scheme (EQSAM or ISORROPIA II)
288 makes a minor difference for sulfate, stemming from the simulations' climate feedbacks, with
289 the green and red lines overlaying each other. All these results are consistent with the ones
290 presented earlier for the surface.

291 In remote environments like the Florida Keys (CRISTAL-FACE, Figure A3), Azores (ITOP-UK,
292 Figure A3) and the Arctic (ARCTAS spring and summer, Figure 7 and A2), ammonium and nitrate
293 concentrations are generally very low, and the models are able to reproduce the aerosol
294 concentrations. However, in campaigns over land such as: EUCAARI EU, EUSA: INTEx-A, NEAQS,
295 DISCOVER-MD, CALNEX WUSA, TexAQS, and Mexico: MILAGRO-MIRAGE, INTEx-B, there is
296 consistent underestimation of both ammonium and nitrate, especially in the boundary layer
297 (Figures 7, A2 and A3). The sensitivity runs we performed, presented later, explore whether this
298 is due to precursor levels or to the thermodynamic parameterization used.

299 From the nitric acid profiles (third column in Figure 7 and Figure A2), it is evident that the
300 model strongly overestimates the measurements in the middle and upper troposphere. This
301 had been noted before by *Shindell et al.* [2006], who attributed this model overestimation to
302 enhanced stratosphere-troposphere exchange, which brings HNO_3 -rich air masses from the
303 lower stratosphere to the upper troposphere. On top of that, the modeled nitric acid shows
304 distinct OMA and MATRIX profiles, which diverge with increasing height, with differences that
305 can become as high as 0.3 ppbv. Though there is not much dust at these altitudes, the inclusion
306 of heterogeneous reactions on dust surfaces in OMA is the main difference in the gas phase



307 chemistry of OMA and MATRIX schemes. The coarse mode nitrate mass formed by those
308 heterogeneous reactions almost fully accounts for the difference in HNO_3 between the two
309 schemes. We exclude the nitrate that forms on dust (coarse nitrate) from the nitrate profiles,
310 since neither they are in the PM_{10} aerosol measurements, nor they are calculated in the MATRIX
311 simulations.

312 The overestimation of nitric acid does not result in overestimation of nitrate, which is also
313 affected by the availability of both sulfate and ammonia, on top of environmental factors like
314 relative humidity and temperature. Even though nitrate concentrations are low in many
315 locations (below $2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), the simulations underestimates it to be below $0.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in EUSA
316 (INTEX-A in Figure 7, NEAQS, DISCOVER-MD, and TexAQS in Figure A2), WUSA (CALNEX in Figure
317 7), arctic (ARCPAC in Figure A2), Central America (INTEX-B in Figure A2, MILAGRO-MIRAGE, and
318 CRISTAL-FACE in Figure A3), consistent with the spring-summer surface underestimation.
319 Another key point is that there is little difference in the nitrate concentrations simulated by the
320 different aerosol configurations. Differences between the simulations are evident only in the
321 boundary layer in EUCAARI (EU, Figure 7), $\sim 0.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and ACE-ASIA (Japan, Figure A3), $\sim 0.3 \mu\text{g}$
322 m^{-3} . In these locations, the difference is not evident on a thermodynamic scheme basis, but
323 rather on a microphysical scheme, with MATRIX-EQSAM and MATRIX-ISORROPIA grouped
324 against OMA-EQSAM. The difference in concentration between the simulations is also evident
325 in the ammonium profiles of these campaigns. In EUCAARI, nitrate and ammonium have higher
326 concentrations in the OMA-EQSAM simulation, while sulfate is consistently larger in the
327 MATRIX ones. In ACE-ASIA however, both sulfate and ammonium concentrations are higher
328 with OMA-EQSAM, yet nitrate concentrations are higher in the MATRIX simulations. It is



329 evident from these profiles that the simulations with lower sulfate concentrations are also the
330 simulations with higher nitrate concentrations. The role of thermodynamics to the $\text{NH}_3/\text{NH}_4^+$
331 partitioning at different NH_3 levels will be discussed in the next section.

332 **3.4 Sensitivity runs**

333 In order to study the interplay between precursor concentrations and thermodynamics we
334 perturbed the ammonia emissions from agriculture. For these runs, presented in Figure 8, we
335 use the MATRIX-ISORROPIA scheme with standard NH_3 emission (green line), double
336 agricultural NH_3 emissions (purple line) and five times agricultural NH_3 emissions (brown line).
337 At the surface, as NH_3 emissions are increased, the ammonium and nitrate underestimation by
338 the model disappears (Figure 8). However, a comparison with the limited available surface NH_3
339 measurements reveals that even with the standard NH_3 emissions the model overestimates
340 NH_3 concentrations. This is also evident in TexAQS and CALNEX (WUSA) NH_3 profiles (Figure A4).
341 Similarly, in the vertical, with increasing NH_3 emissions the nitric acid model overestimation
342 decreases (Figure A5), as more NH_3 becomes available to react with nitric acid and partition it
343 to the aerosol phase. These results indicate that the $\text{NH}_3/\text{NH}_4^+$ partitioning is not accurately
344 calculated by the model, and that this strongly affects the nitric acid/nitrate partitioning.
345 Further evidence to support our conclusion lies in Figure 9 that presents the modeled and
346 measured partitioning ratios (NH_3 over total NH_x , and HNO_3 over total XNO_3). For NH_x all three
347 simulations are grouped together, while for XNO_3 a distinct difference between the
348 thermodynamic schemes is revealed: MATRIX-EQSAM overestimate the partitioning ratio
349 during the summer, and MATRIX-ISORROPIA II is closer to measurements. From the surface



seasonality of the individual species (Figure 5) it is clear that the divergence in the ratio is driven mainly by nitrate concentrations, as HNO_3 concentrations are the same for MATRIX-EQSAM and MATRIX-ISORROPIA II (red and green curves overlaying each other). The difference between these two simulations in terms of nitrate concentrations are of the order of $0.05 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ and are most distinct during summer (Figure 5). Similarly, the difference between the simulations for XNO_3 is greater during summer. Thermodynamically, other than precursor levels, the difference in behavior in summer and the rest of the year is also controlled by temperature and RH.

Conclusions

In this work we used a collection of surface measurements and flight campaigns over the USA and Europe from 2000-2010 to study the regional and vertical distribution of secondary inorganic aerosols and their precursors under different aerosol configurations of the GISS ModelE2. In the USA sulfate aerosol dominate the near surface SIA composition, but over EU the nitrate aerosol contribution is comparable in mass.

We compare the behavior of SIA concentrations in high (EUSA, EU) and low (WUSA) aerosol precursor source regions, as the relative contribution of different sectors generates different chemical regimes. We observe a systematic underestimation of near surface concentrations in the EUSA and EU compared to the surface network measurements: 35% for nitrate, 30% for ammonium, 20% for sulfate. However, despite the negative bias, all three simulations have high correlation coefficients ($R > 0.5$) when compared against surface data. In the WUSA the results for sulfate and nitrate are different in sign, sulfate is biased high (12%) with $R = 0.43$, while



371 nitrate is biased low (80%) with no correlation between the simulations and the measurements
372 ($R < 0.1$). The correlation is also driven by the difficulty of the model to capture the annual cycle
373 of the species.

374 Microphysics has improved the sulfate simulation, as the MATRIX scheme yields consistently,
375 both at the surface and in the vertical, higher sulfate concentrations, due to smaller particles
376 having longer lifetimes compared to OMA, the bulk scheme (4.2 days against 3.2 days). For
377 ammonium nitrate simulations there is an additional level of complexity in the form of accurate
378 thermodynamics, which is sensitive both to the precursors and to environmental parameters
379 such as temperature and humidity. Since we have performed nudged simulations, they do not
380 show big differences in temperature and RH, so the differences between the simulations are
381 expected to be dominated by the thermodynamical scheme and not the underlying
382 meteorological parameters. In terms of precursors, NH_3 is slightly overestimated, as indicated
383 by surface measurements over EU in Figure 5 and TexAQS and CALNEX campaigns in Figure A3.
384 HNO_3 is underestimated at the surface but overestimated at higher levels. The overestimation
385 is attributed to too strong stratosphere-troposphere exchange, yet including heterogeneous
386 reactions on dust surfaces decreases the overestimation. Overall, aerosol mass is consistently
387 underestimated both at surface and in the boundary layer.

388 In our sensitivity runs, increasing NH_3 emissions results in NH_3 overestimation, however it
389 improves our simulated HNO_3 profiles. When more NH_3 is available it reacts with HNO_3 to form
390 ammonium nitrate, resolving underestimations in the aerosol phase. Hence, the partitioning of
391 NH_x which strongly affects the partitioning of XNO_3 is not accurately simulated in the model.



392 *Aan de Brugh et al.* [2012] identified an overestimation of gas phase precursors during daytime
393 (equivalent to summer) and overestimation of aerosol phase species during nighttime
394 (equivalent to winter), and found it to be related to the time scale of vertical mixing against the
395 timescale of thermodynamic equilibrium. This relationship was not analyzed here, since it
396 requires high temporal resolution model output.

397 An examination of aerosol pH (not presented here) indicated a pH range from 1 to 2 over EU.
398 This range was recently identified by *Weber et al.* [2016] as a buffering pH zone where
399 partitioning of ammonium nitrate between the gas and aerosol phases is sensitive. Thus, ions
400 which affect pH might play an important role in nitrate formation. Hence, taking into
401 consideration crustal and sea salt ions could affect our thermodynamics and partitioning in
402 regions where these ions are abundant, as *Karydis et al.* [2016] demonstrated. However, these
403 are currently tracked as bulk dust and sea salt aerosols in the model. In addition to tracking Na^+ ,
404 Cl^- , etc. separately, we would need to consider the different time scales of the thermodynamics
405 associated with aerosol size distribution. In the future, we plan to investigate the influence of
406 pH on the results in more detail.

407 In this paper we have demonstrated the importance of size resolved sulfate chemistry.
408 However, currently we treat nitrate as bulk, as it is computationally expensive to add 15 nitrate
409 tracers. Perhaps underestimation of nitrate is not only a matter of thermodynamics but
410 microphysics as well, and that properly resolving the size distribution, and considering the
411 chemistry that depends on that would improve our simulations.

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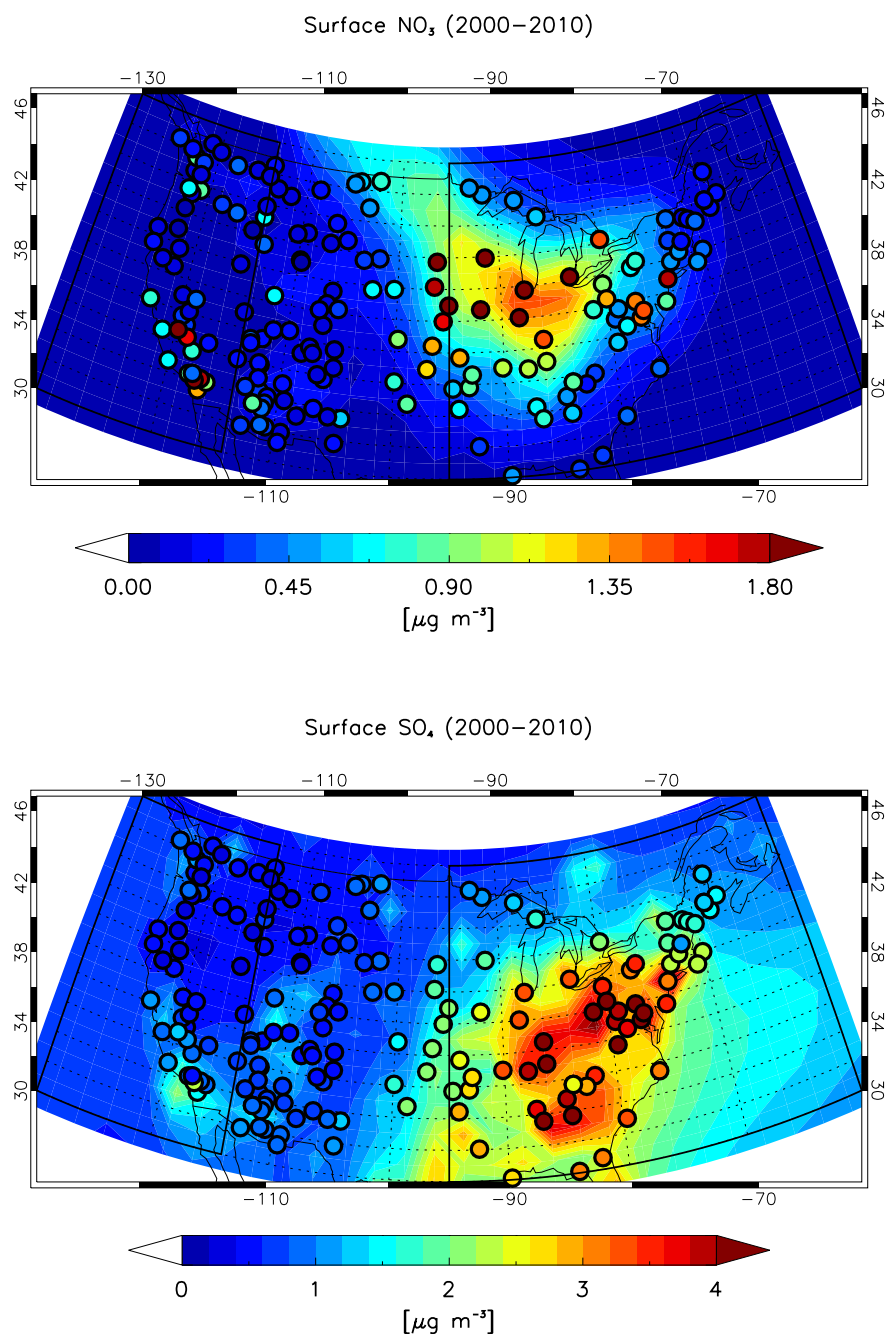
Table 1. Regional boundaries for data division

Region	Boundaries
Arctic (ARC)	55°-90°N, 60°-170°W
Eastern USA (EUSA)	30°-50°N, 60°-95°W
Western USA (WUSA)	30°-50°N, 114°-130°W
European Union (EU)	35°-70°N, 10°W-30°E



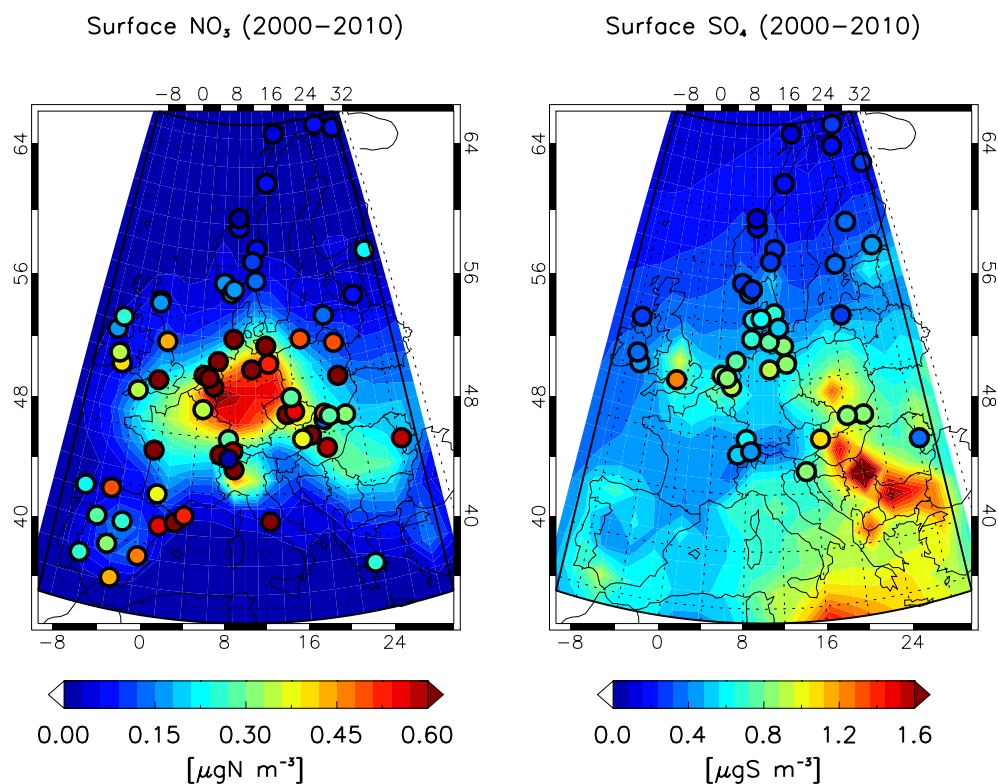
Table 2. Airborne measurements used in this study.

Campaign (Aircraft)	Region (season, year)	Technique and reference	Regime
ACE-Asia (CIPRAS TWIN OTTER)	Japan (spring, 2001)	AMS (Huebert, 2003)	Polluted
CRYSTAL- FACE (CIPRAS TWIN OTTER)	South Florida (summer, 2002)	AMS (Conant et al., 2004)	Polluted
ITOP (BAE- 146)	Azores (summer, 2004)	AMS (Fehsenfeld et al., 2006)	Remote
INTEX-A (DC- 8, J-31)	Eastern USA (summer, 2004)	CIMS (HNO ₃), PILS (SO ₄ , NH ₄ , NO ₃) (Singh et al., 2006)	Polluted
NEAQS (NOAA-P3)	Eastern USA (summer, 2004)	CIMS (HNO ₃), AMS (SO ₄ , NH ₄ , NO ₃) (Fehsenfeld et al., 2006)	Polluted
INTEX-B (DC- 8)	Western USA (spring, 2006)	CIMS (HNO ₃), AMS (SO ₄ , NH ₄ , NO ₃) (Leaitch et al., 2009)	Polluted
MILAGRO (C120)	Mexico (spring, 2006)	AMS (DeCarlo et al., 2008)	Polluted
TexAQS (NOAA-P3)	Texas (fall, 2006)	CIMS (NH ₃ , HNO ₃), AMS (SO ₄ , NH ₄ , NO ₃) (Parrish et al., 2009)	Polluted
EUCAARI (BAE-146)	NW EU (spring, 2008)	AMS (Morgan et al., 2010)	Polluted
ARCPAC (NOAA-P3)	Arctic (spring, 2008)	CIMS (HNO ₃), AMS (SO ₄ , NH ₄ , NO ₃) (Fisher et al., 2010)	Fire
ARCTAS (DC- 8, P-3)	Arctic (spring/summer 2008)	CIMS (HNO ₃), AMS (SO ₄ , NH ₄ , NO ₃) (Jacob et al., 2010)	Fire
CALNEX (NOAA P-3)	West coast (summer, 2010)	CIMS (HNO ₃ , NH ₃), AMS (SO ₄ , NH ₄ , NO ₃) (Ryerson et al., 2013)	Polluted
DISCOVER- MD (P-3B, UC-12)	Maryland (summer, 2011)	TD-LIF (HNO ₃) (Anderson et al., 2014), PILS (SO ₄ , NH ₄ , NO ₃) (Ziemba et al., 2013)	Polluted



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747 **Figure 1.** Mean nitrate (upper panel) and sulfate (lower panel) surface concentration (2000–
 748 2010) simulated by MATRIX-EQSAM overlaid by measurements from the IMPROVE network.
 749 The model data units match the units of the measured data ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$).



750

751 **Figure 2.** Mean nitrate (right panel) and sulfate (left panel) surface concentration (2000-2010)
 752 simulated by MATRIX-EQSAM overlaid by measurements from the EMEP network. The model
 753 data units match the units of the measured data ($\mu\text{gX m}^{-3}$ with X being N for nitrate and S for
 754 sulfate).

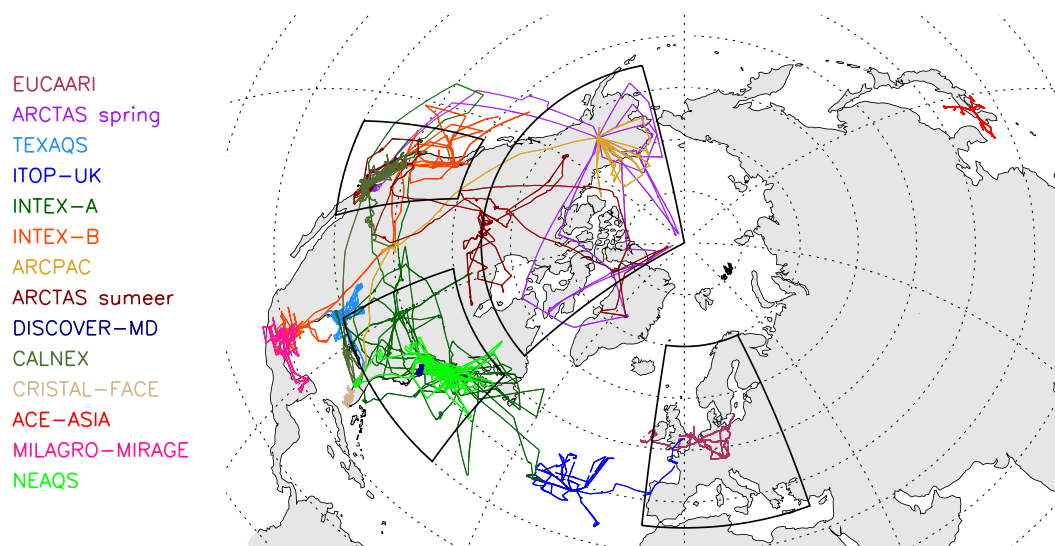


Figure 3. Flight tracks of 14 flight campaigns used in this study (2001-2011).

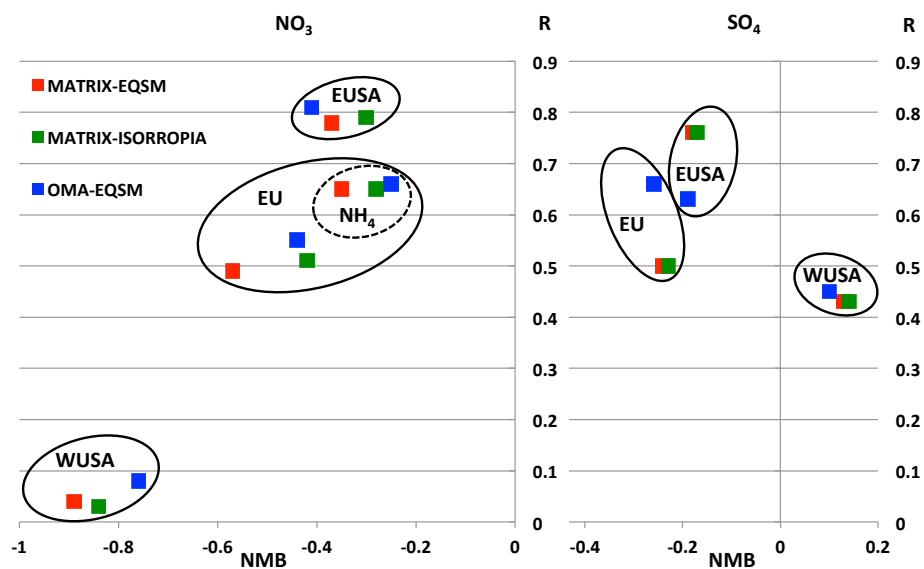
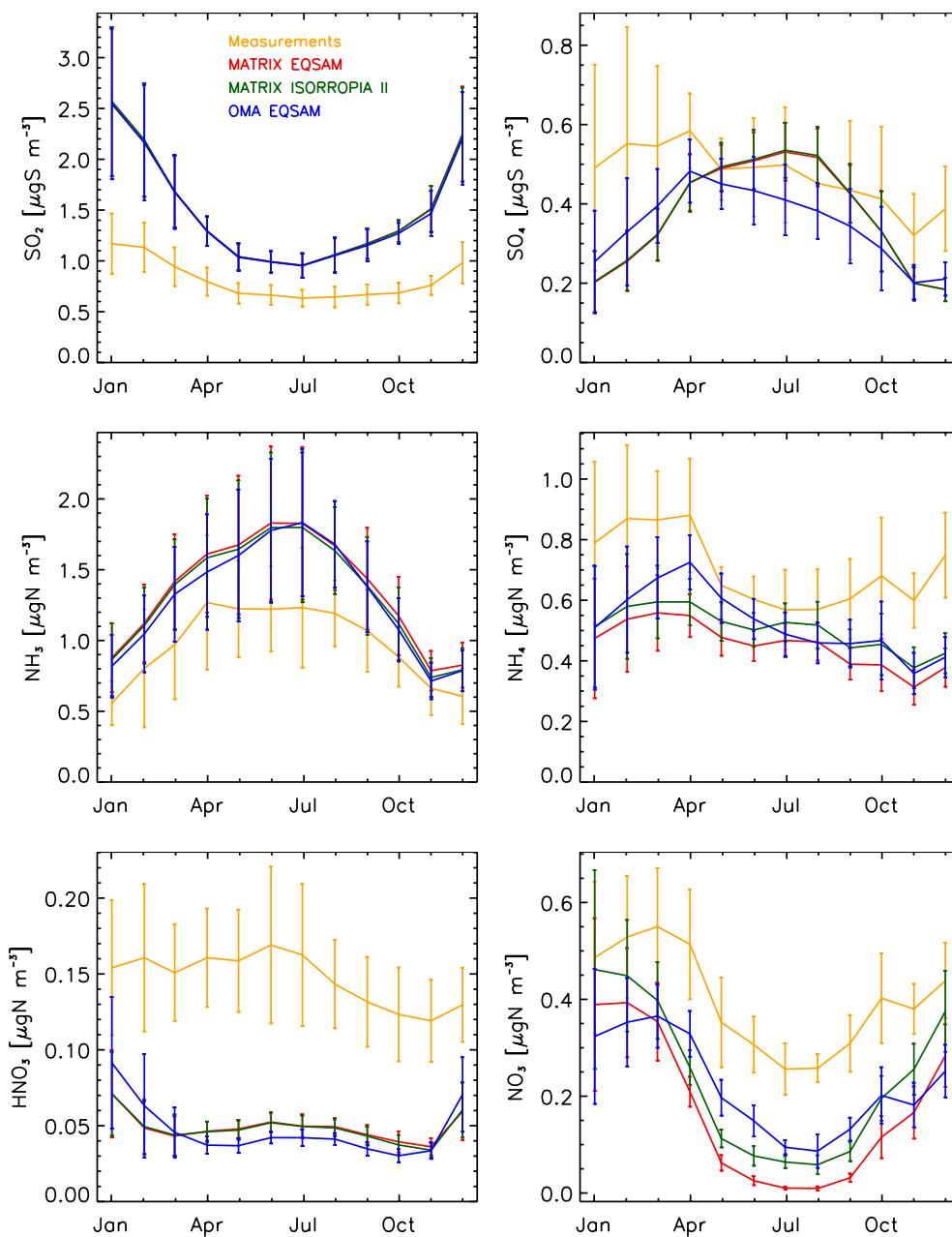


Figure 4. Surface regional statistics (2000-2010). Left panel: nitrate and ammonium (data available only for EU); right panel: sulfate. The correlation coefficient (R) between the simulation and the measurements is in the y-axis, and normalized mean bias (NMB) is in the x-axis. MATRIX-EQSM is in red, MATRIX-ISORROPIA II is in green and OMA-EQSM is in blue.

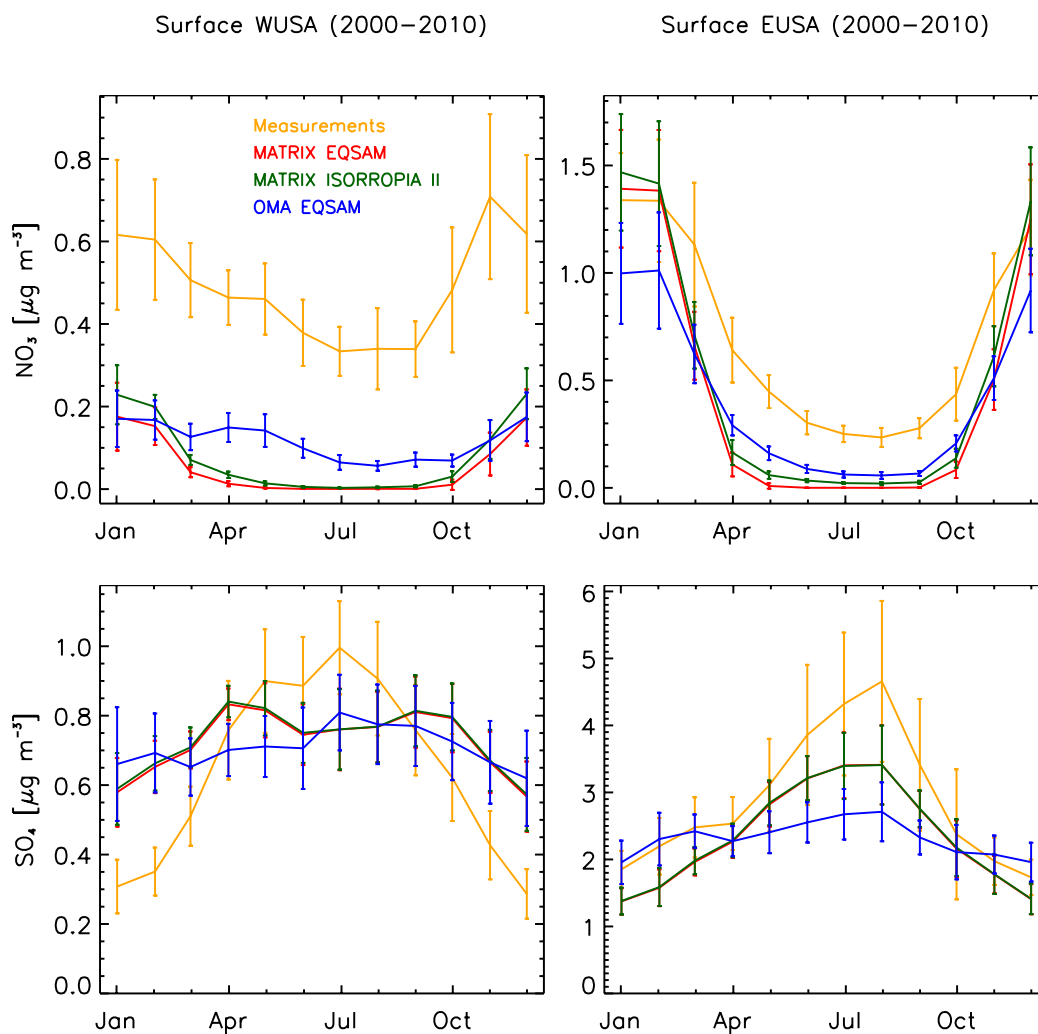


Surface EU (2000–2010)



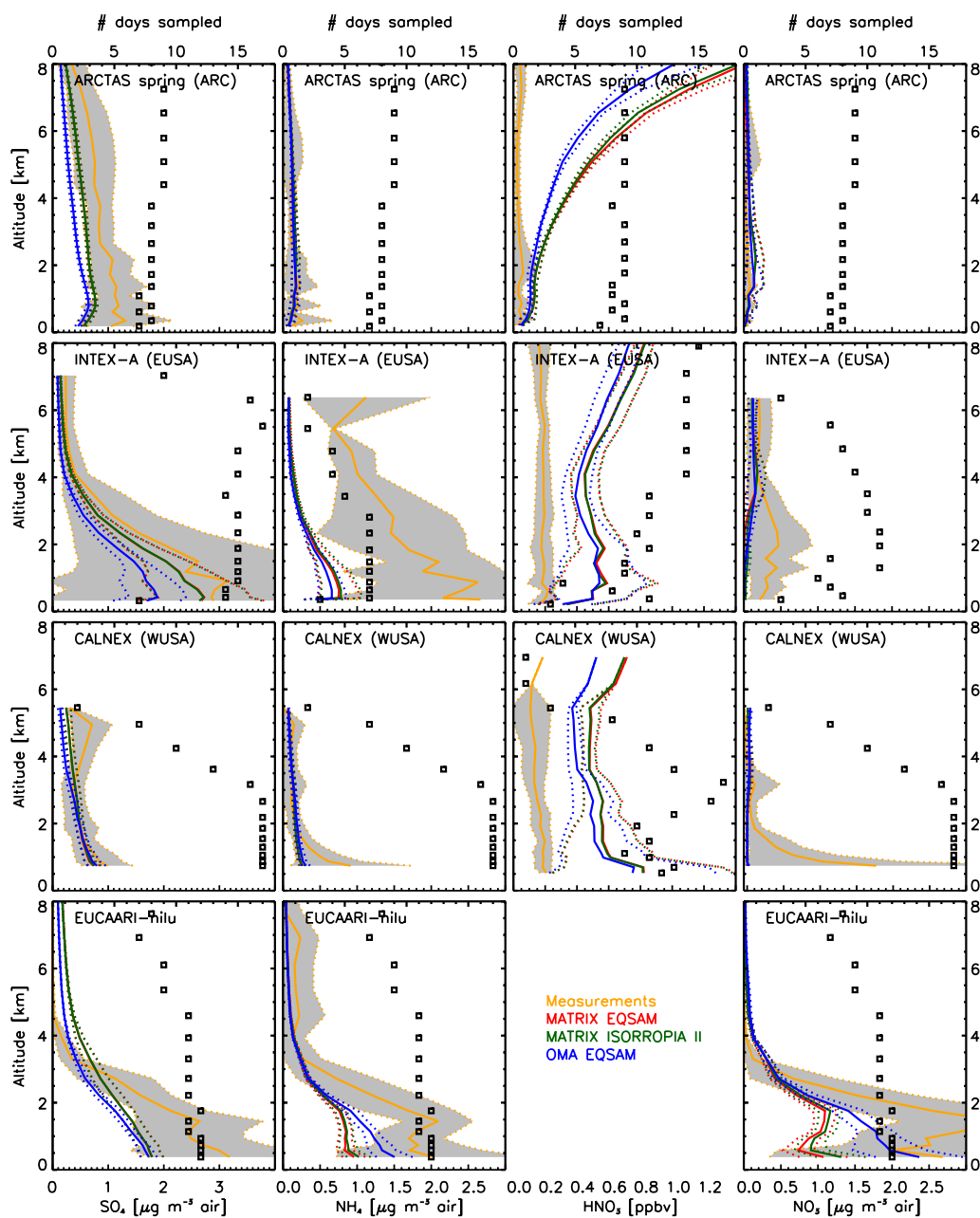
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769 **Figure 5.** 2000–2010 mean annual cycle over Europe, error bars represent \pm one standard
 770 deviation. Measurements are in orange, MATRIX-EQSAM is in red, MATRIX-ISORROPIA II is in
 771 green and OMA-EQSAM is in blue.



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773 **Figure 6.** 2000-2010 mean annual cycle over WUSA (left) and EUSA (right), error bars represent
 774 \pm one standard deviation. Measurements are in orange, MATRIX-EQSAM is in red, MATRIX-
 775 ISORROPIA II is in green and OMA-EQSAM is in blue.

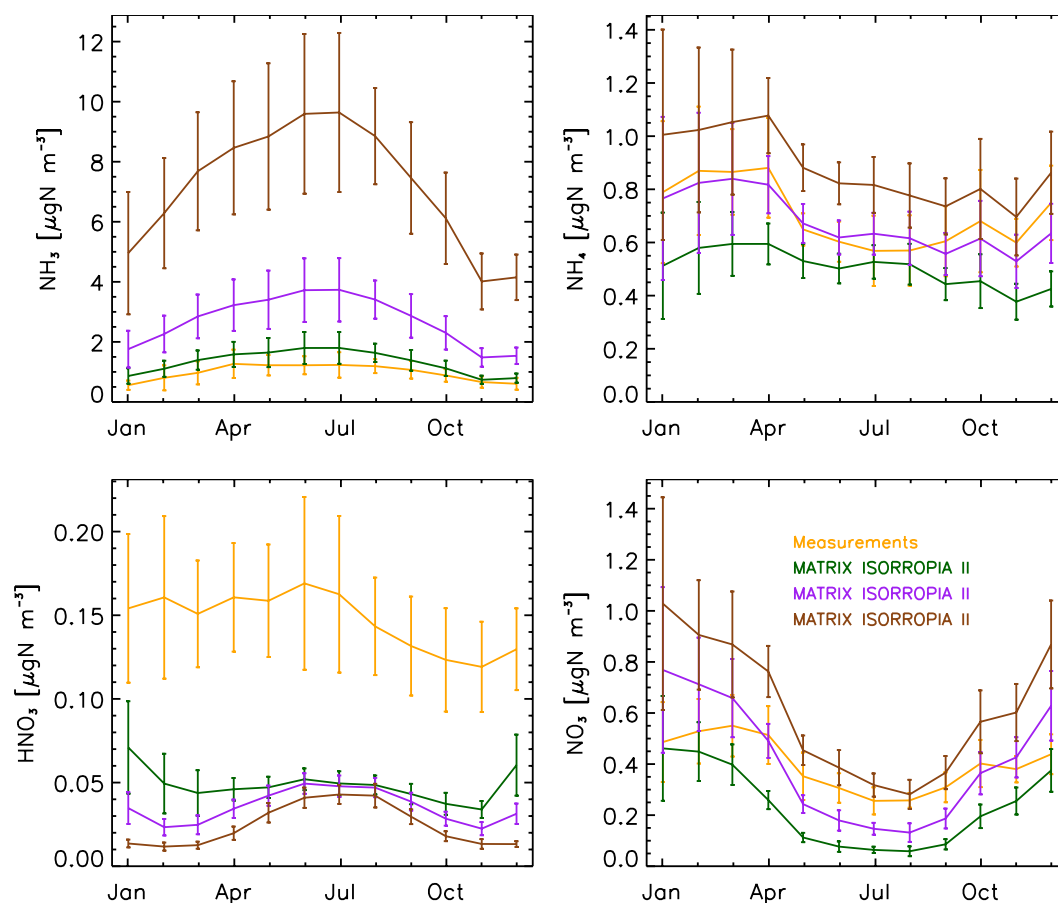


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777 **Figure 7.** Mean regional concentration profiles from the arctic (first row), eastern USA (second
 778 row), western USA (third row) and Europe (fourth row). First column is SO_4 , second is NH_4 , third
 779 is HNO_3 and fourth is NO_3 .



Surface EU (2000–2010)

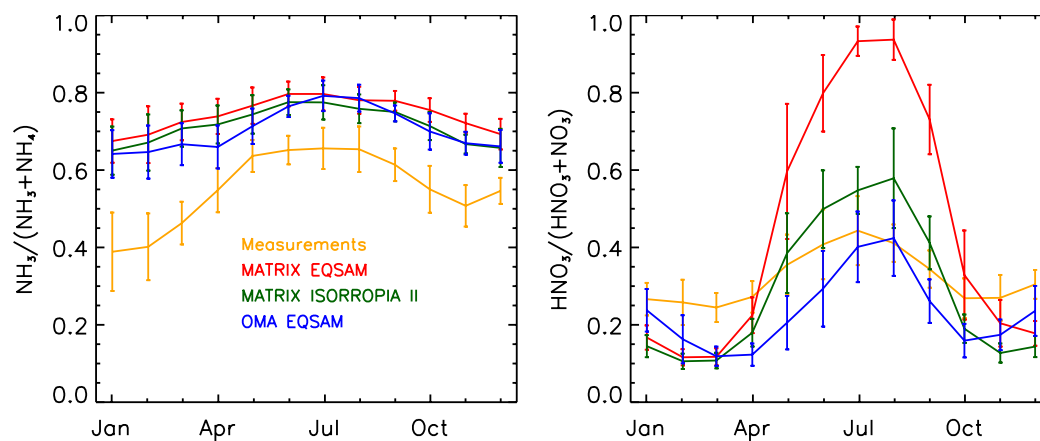


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781 **Figure 8.** 2000–2010 mean annual cycle over Europe, error bars represent \pm one standard
 782 deviation. Measurements are in orange, MATRIX-ISORROPIA II: with regular emissions is in
 783 green, with double agricultural NH_3 emissions is in purple, and with 5-times agricultural NH_3
 784 emissions is in brown.



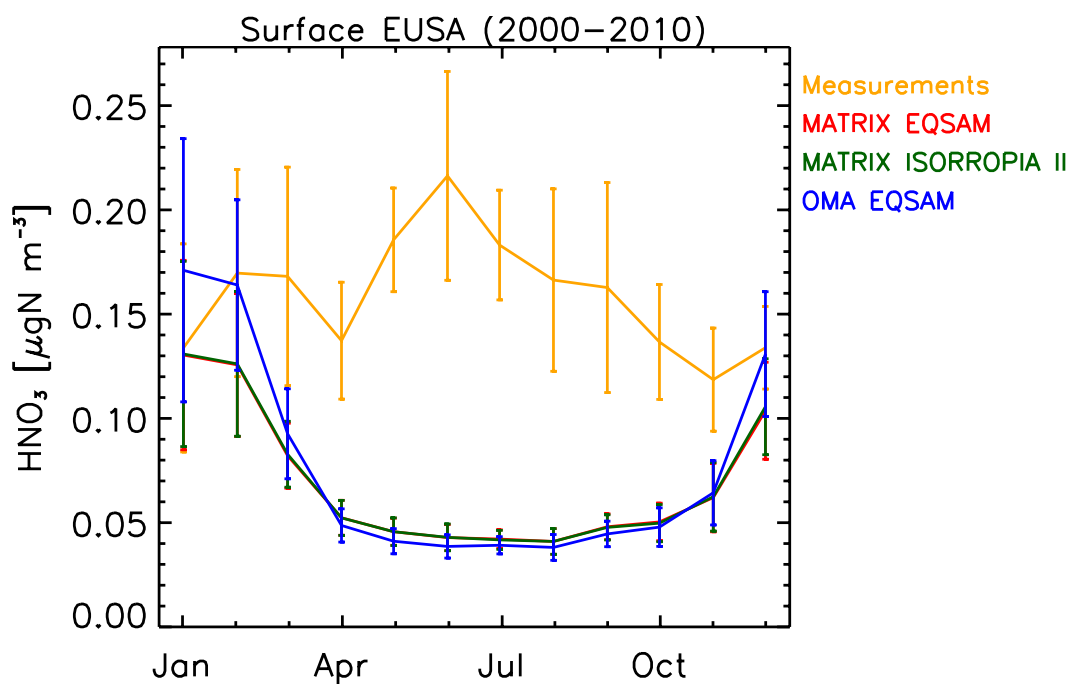
Surface ratio EU (2000–2010)



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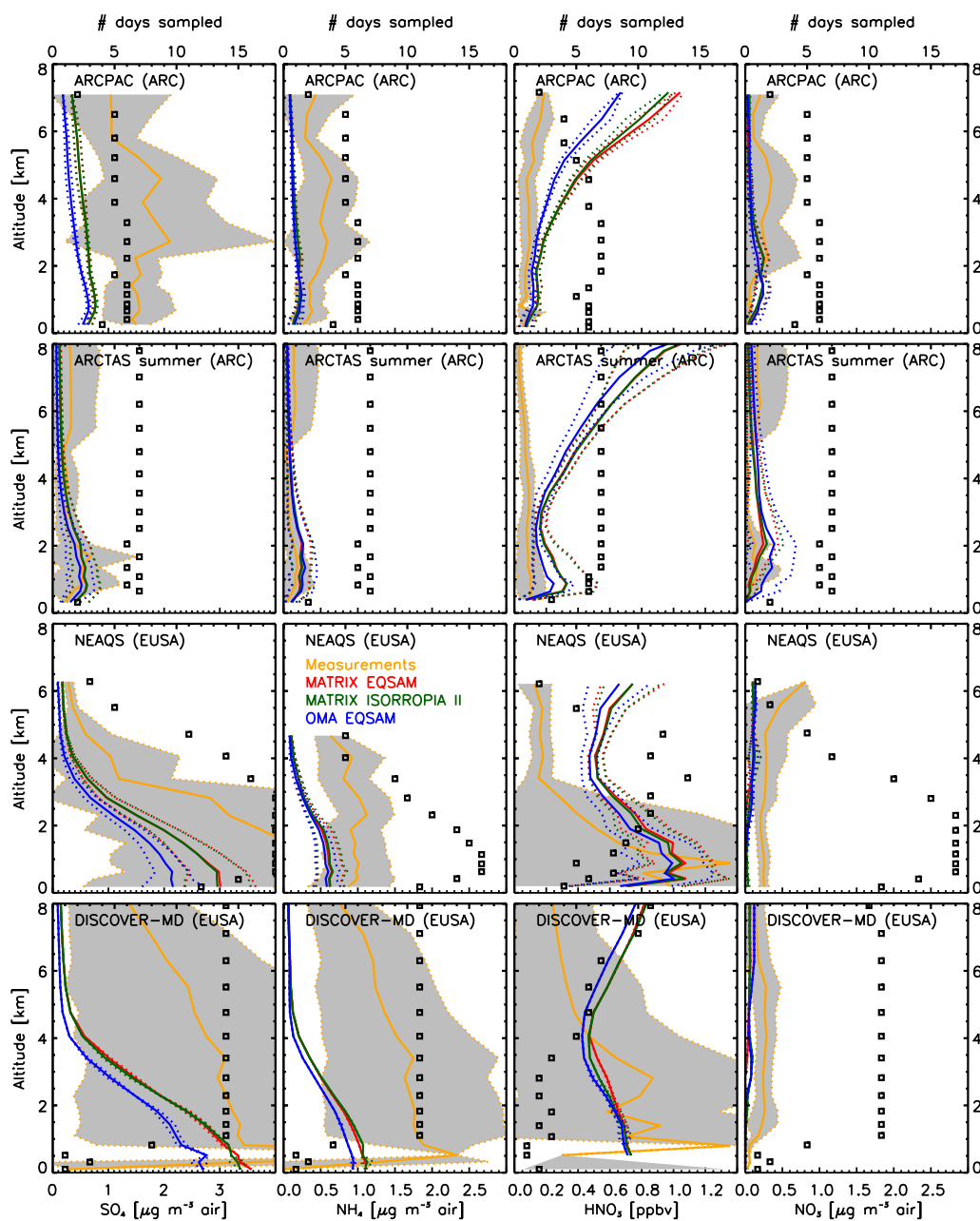
786 **Figure 9.** 2000–2010 mean partitioning ratio annual cycle over Europe, error bars represent \pm
 787 one standard deviation. Measurements are in orange, MATRIX-EQSAM is in red, MATRIX-
 788 ISORROPIA II is in green and OMA-EQSAM is in blue.

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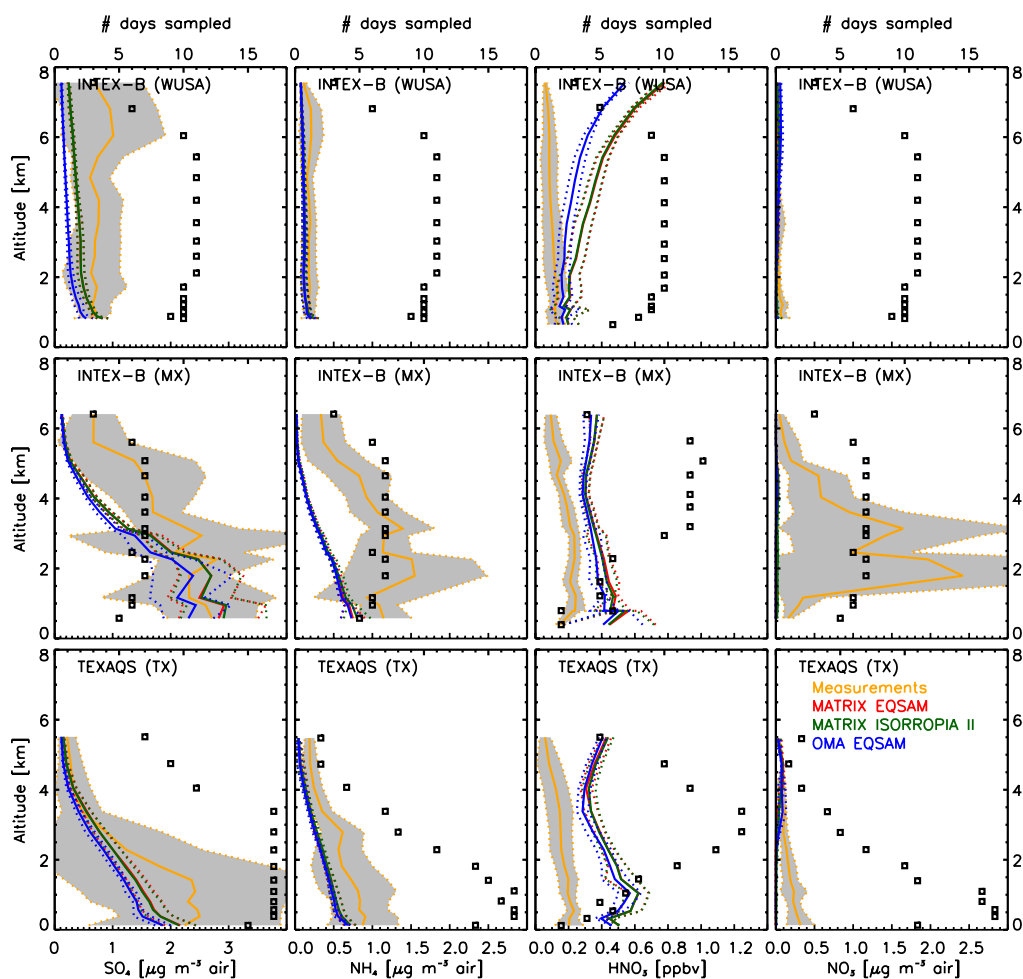
791 **Figure A1.** 2000-2010 HNO_3 mean annual cycle over EUSA (right), error bars represent \pm one
 792 standard deviation. Measurements are in orange, MATRIX-EQSAM is in red, MATRIX-ISORROPIA
 793 II is in green and OMA-EQSAM is in blue.



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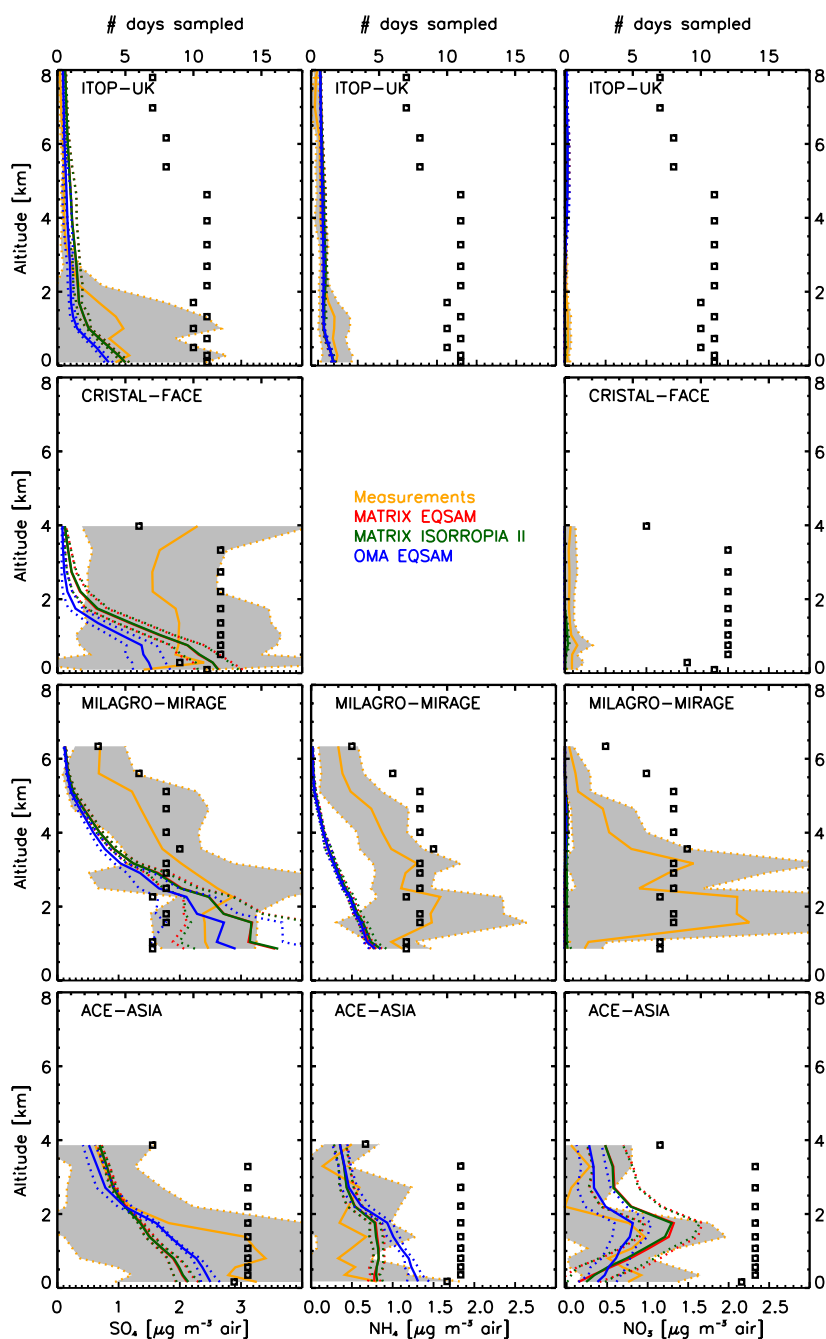
795 **Figure A2.** Mean regional concentration profiles. First column is SO_4 , second is NH_4 , third is
 796 HNO_3 and fourth is NO_3 . Measurements are in orange, MATRIX-EQSAM is in red, MATRIX-
 797 ISORROPIA II is in green and OMA-EQSAM is in blue.

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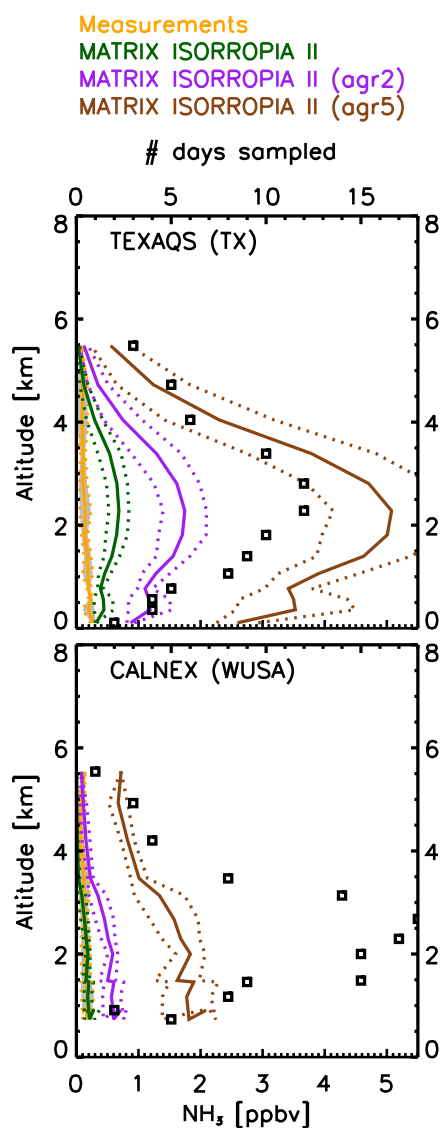
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800 **Figure A2:** continued



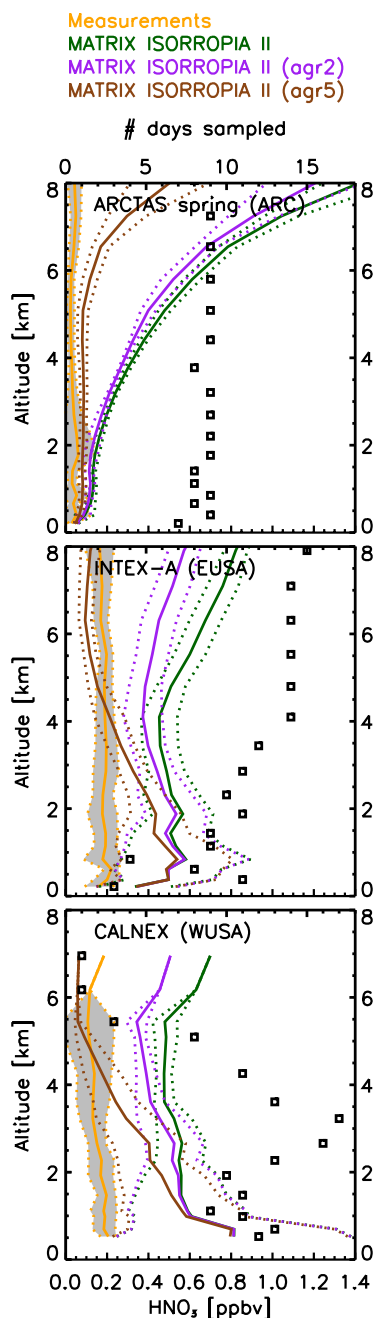
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802 **Figure A3.** Mean regional concentration profiles. First column is SO_4 , second is NH_4 , and third is
 803 NO_3 . Measurements are in orange, MATRIX-EQSAM is in red, MATRIX-ISORROPIA II is in green
 804 and OMA-EQSAM is in blue.



805

806 **Figure A4.** Mean regional NH₃ profiles from the TexAQS (upper panel) and CALNEX (lower
 807 panel) campaigns. Measurements are in orange, MATRIX-ISORROPIA II: with regular emissions
 808 is in green, with double agricultural NH₃ emissions is in purple, and with 5-times agricultural
 809 NH₃ emissions is in brown.



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811 **Figure A5.** Mean regional HNO_3 profiles from the arctic, EUSA and WUSA. Measurements are in
 812 orange, MATRIX-ISORROPIA II: with regular emissions is in green, with double agricultural NH_3
 813 emissions is in purple, and with 5-times agricultural NH_3 emissions is in brown.