



1 A new statistical approach to improve the satellite based 2 estimation of the radiative forcing by aerosol- cloud 3 interactions

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8

9 Abstract

10 In a previous, study of *Quaas et al., (2008)* the radiative forcing by anthropogenic aerosol due
11 to aerosol-cloud interactions, RF_{aci} , was obtained by a statistical analysis of satellite retrievals
12 using a multilinear regression. Here we employ a new statistical approach to obtain the six
13 fitting parameters, determined using a non-linear statistical approach to obtain the six fitting
14 parameters, for the relationship between planetary albedo and cloud properties and, further, the
15 relationship of the cloud properties and aerosol optical depth. The statistical approach is
16 compared to the results from radiative transfer simulations over three different regions and for
17 different seasons. We find that the results of the new approach agree well with the simulated
18 results over both land and ocean. The new statistical approach increases the correlation
19 coefficient of the fitted to the satellite-retrieved albedo by 21%-23% and decreases the error,
20 compared to the previous approach.

21 1 Introduction

22 Aerosols are considered to have a large effect on climate, both through aerosol radiation
23 interactions, and through aerosol-cloud interactions by serving as cloud condensation nuclei
24 (CCN), therefore increasing N_d and thus cloud albedo (*Twomey, 1974*), as well as rapid cloud
25 adjustments (*Boucher et al., 2013*). Much work has been done to quantify the radiative forcing
26 by aerosol-cloud interaction (RF_{aci}), yet it remains highly uncertain. The annual radiative
27 forcing from aerosol induced changes in cloud albedo were reported as -0.7 Wm^{-2} with an
28 uncertainty range -1.8 to -0.3 Wm^{-2} (*Boucher et al., 2013*); this effect could offset much of the
29 warming from greenhouse gases (*Huber and Knutti, 2011*), emphasizing the need to understand
30 the effect so that we can better predict the future climate.

31 In this study, we concentrate on the RF_{aci} , the change in cloud albedo with increasing aerosol.
32 An increasing aerosol at constant cloud water content is supposed to decrease droplet size,
33 which in turn increases the cloud albedo due to the increase scattering of the smaller, more
34 numerous cloud droplets. *Feingold et al. (2001, 2003)*; *McComiskey et al., (2009)* proposed a
35 metric to quantify the microphysical component of the cloud albedo effect ($ACI =$
36 $-d \ln N_d / d \ln \alpha$), where N_d is the cloud droplet number concentration and α in some proxy
37 for the aerosol burden. Note that the partial derivatives must be calculated at constant liquid
38 water path (LWP). A variety of proxies has been used to represent the cloud response to the
39 change in aerosol, e, g., cloud optical depth (τ_c), cloud drop number concentration (N_d) and r_e .
40 Similarly, various proxies have been used to represent the aerosol particles affecting the cloud,
41 including aerosol number concentration (N_a), aerosol optical depth (τ_a) and aerosol index (AI).



42 An overview about published relationships and their biases due to mismatches between
43 process- and analysis scales are discussed in *McComiskey and Feingold, (2012)*. Values for
44 ACI metrics from observations often differ significantly from model-based values (*Quaas et al., 2008, 2009; Bellouin et al., 2008; Penner et al., 2011, 2012*). For example, the
45 observational-based values of RF_{aci} , often in the range of -0.2 to -0.6 Wm^{-2} (*Quaas et al., 2008;*
46 *Bellouin et al., 2013*), is tend to be weaker than the modeled values in the range of -0.5 to -1.9
47 Wm^{-2} (*IPCC, 2007*). The differences in model and observational-based RF_{aci} have to be
48 reconciled. *Penner et al., (2011)* reported that the lower sensitivities of cloud droplet number
49 concentration, when considering aerosol optical depth (AOD) compared to aerosol index as
50 aerosol quantity may lead to a significant underestimation in satellite-based RF_{aci} . However,
51 *Quaas et al., (2011)* pointed out the weaknesses in the approach used by *Penner et al., (2011)*.
52 Clearly, further study is needed to reduce the uncertainties in both observational- and model-
53 based estimates of aerosol RF_{aci} and to reconcile the differences.

54
55 *Quaas et al., (2008)* derived the anthropogenic aerosol RF_{aci} based on satellite retrievals of
56 aerosol and clouds properties using statistical relationships between cloud properties and
57 anthropogenic aerosols without the use of radiative transfer model. They developed a statistical
58 relationship between planetary albedo and cloud properties using a multilinear fit, and further,
59 the relationships of cloud properties and aerosol optical depth. *Quaas et al. (2008)* suggested
60 that uncertainties in the statistical relationship and fitting parameters introduced uncertainty in
61 the estimate of RF_{aci} . Therefore, it is useful to reassess the estimated RF_{aci} by using a new
62 statistical fitting approach. The main objective of this study is to explore the uncertainty in the
63 satellite-based quantification of RF_{aci} . This study differs from previous studies by introducing
64 new statistical fitting approach to obtain the fitting parameters for the estimates of RF_{aci} ,
65 determined using a nonlinear fit between planetary albedo and cloud properties. To verify the
66 present approach, the results from both statistical approaches are compared with the results
67 from a radiative transfer model.

68 Recent studies suggest that the south Asian region is one of the world's most populous (~24%
69 of the world population) region with growing industrial and transport sectors. A large and
70 increasing power demand, fuel consumption, and equally diverse geographical features make
71 this region among the global hotspots of aerosols. The complex geography of this region
72 contributes significant amounts of natural aerosols (desert dust, pollen, sea-salt etc) into the
73 atmosphere, which mix with anthropogenic ones, making the aerosol environment one of the
74 most complex in the world (*Moorthy et al., 2015*). The large spatial heterogeneity of the sources
75 coupled with the atmospheric dynamics driven by topography and contrasting monsoons, make
76 South Asia's aerosol very difficult to characterize and to model their implications on radiative
77 and climate forcing. While tropospheric perturbations would produce strong regional
78 signatures, their global impacts still remain marginally above the uncertainty levels (*IPCC,*
79 *2013*). In the recent years, several studies are carried out on the aerosol characterization and its
80 direct effect over south Asia, but there have been very few studies reported on the aerosol
81 indirect effect using ground- and satellite-based measurements due to complex aerosol and
82 cloud environments. Therefore, we discuss the RF_{aci} for both anthropogenic and natural
83 fraction of aerosol for a period of six-years (2008-2013) for three different regions of south
84 Asia (Arabian Sea (AS; 63°E - 72°E , 7°N - 19°N), Bay of Bengal (BOB; 85°E - 94°E , 7°N - 19°N)
85 and Central India (CI; 75°E - 84°E , 20°N - 30°N)), having significantly distinct aerosol
86 environments as a result of variations in aerosol sources and transport pathways (*Cherian et*



87 *al., 2013; Das et al., 2015; Tiwari et al., 2015*) Additionally, we also discuss the uncertainties
88 of the results in the following sections.

89 2 Data

90 We combine measurements of aerosol, cloud and radiative properties to derive the top-of-the
91 atmosphere (TOA) RF_{aci} of both anthropogenic and natural aerosols. Data acquired by sensors
92 mounted on Aqua (*Parkinson, 2003*) and Aura (*Schoeberl et al., 2006*) are used in this study.
93 We use the broadband shortwave planetary albedo (α) (*Wielicki et al., 1996; Loeb, 2004; Loeb*
94 *et al., 2007*) as retrieved by the Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy System (CERES) in
95 combination with cloud properties from the MODerate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer
96 (MODIS; *Minnis et al., 2003*) and AOD (τ_a) and fine mode fraction (FMF) as retrieved by the
97 MODIS onboard Aqua (*Remer et al., 2005*). Albedo and cloud properties are from the CERES
98 Single-Scanner-Footprint (SSF) Level-2 Edition-3A data set at 20×20 km² horizontal
99 resolution and aerosol properties (AOD and FMF) at 550nm from the MYD04 level-2
100 collection-5.1 dataset at 10×10 km² horizontal resolution are used. We used UV-aerosol index
101 (UV-AI; *Torres et al., 1998*) measured by Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI; *Levell et al.,*
102 *2006*) onboard Aura from the OMAERUVG level-2 version 003 dataset at $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ grid,
103 which is a gridded dataset containing retrievals from the OMAERUV (*Torres et al., 2007*)
104 algorithm. The data from CERES and MODIS level-2 products are interpolated to a
105 $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ regular longitude-latitude grid to separate the aerosol and cloud properties for
106 anthropogenic and natural aerosols using UV-AI. Daily data, taken at roughly 13:30 local time,
107 cover the 2008-2013 period.

108 3 Methods

109 All statistics between aerosol and cloud properties are computed separately for 3 regions and
110 for each month of data at $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ grid resolution. To avoid the greater uncertainty that
111 exists in a clear distinction between aerosols and clouds and accurate retrieval of cloud
112 properties, only single-layer cloud with liquid water path (LWP) > 20 gm⁻² are taken into
113 account. RF_{aci} for anthropogenic and natural aerosols are calculated using the methods outlined
114 by *Quaas et al., (2008)* with the new statistical approach. As a part of this process, the method
115 by *Kim et al., (2007)* MODIS-OMI algorithm (MOA) is employed to classify the aerosol types
116 into one of four types sea-salt, carbonaceous, dust and sulfate using MODIS FMF and OMI
117 UV-AI data. FMF provides information on the representative size of the aerosol. FMF is close
118 to 1 for mostly small aerosol particles, which implies an anthropogenic origin and FMF
119 becomes small for non-anthropogenic aerosol like dust. UV-AI allows to detect the absorption
120 due to the presence of an aerosol layer by utilizing the sensitivity of absorptive aerosol in UV.
121 Under most condition, UV-AI is positive for absorbing aerosols and negative for non-absorbing
122 aerosols. Using these two independent data sets, aerosol can be classified. Details for the
123 aerosol classification are discussed in *Kim et al., (2007)*. For the purpose of this research, the
124 combination of dust and sea-salt AOD considered as a natural AOD and an anthropogenic AOD
125 contains the combination of carbonaceous and sulfate. Further, the RF_{aci} is estimated for both
126 anthropogenic and natural aerosols.

127 3.1 Satellite-based estimate of RF_{aci}

128 RF_{aci} is a function of the relationship between AOD and N_d in a cloud. N_d is not directly
129 provided by satellite product and must be computed using cloud optical thickness (τ_c) and



130 effective droplet radius (r_e) for liquid water clouds assuming adiabaticity (*Brenguier et al.*,
131 2000).

$$N_d = \gamma \tau_c^{1/2} r_e^{-5/2} \quad (1)$$

132 Where, $\gamma = 1.37 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^{-0.5}$ in this study.
133 *Quaas et al.*, (2008) is adopted the *Loeb (2004)* approach for the estimate of planetary albedo.
134 Albedo (α) of a cloud scene can be well described by a sigmoidal fit as

$$\alpha \approx (1 - f)[a_1 + a_2 \ln \tau_a] + f[a_3 + a_4 (f \tau_c)^{a_5}]^{a_6} \quad (2)$$

135 Where, a_1 - a_6 are fitting parameters obtained by a multilinear regression, where a_5 is set as 1.
136 Dependency of τ_a is introduced to include the clear part of the scene in the above equation and
137 f is the cloud fraction. The satellite-based estimate of RF_{aci} for anthropogenic and natural
138 aerosols can be expressed as

$$\Delta F_{\text{ant/nat}}^{\text{RF}_{\text{aci}}} = f_{\text{liq}} \cdot A(f, \tau_c) \frac{1}{3} \frac{d \ln N_d}{d \ln \tau_a} [\ln \tau_a - \ln(\tau_a - \tau_a^{\text{ant/nat}})] S \quad (3)$$

139 where, $A(f, \tau_c) = a_4 a_5 a_6 [a_3 + a_4 (f \tau_c)^{a_5}]^{a_6 - 1} (f \tau_c)^{a_5}$

140 RF_{aci} is calculated separately for the anthropogenic and natural aerosols for all three regions
141 for each month. $A(f, \tau_c)$ is the empirical function relating albedo to f and τ_c . $\tau_a^{\text{ant/nat}}$ is aerosol
142 optical depth for anthropogenic and natural aerosol, respectively, S is the daily mean solar
143 incoming solar radiation.

144 A goal of the present study is to assess the uncertainty in the satellite-based estimate of the
145 RF_{aci} . For that purpose, we adopted the new statistical nonlinear fitting approach to obtain the
146 six fitting parameters in Eq. (2). Instead of considering $a_5=1$ in the multiple regression, as in
147 *Quaas et al. (2008)*, we obtained the values of all six fitting parameters using a nonlinear fitting
148 approach for each month and region. To get an impression of the performance of our statistical
149 approach, we correlate α and RF_{aci} at TOA obtained from both statistical fitting methods
150 (multilinear and nonlinear) vs. α and RF_{aci} simulated by radiative transfer model for all three
151 regions. The following section describes the detail information about the simulation of α and
152 RF_{aci} using the radiative transfer model.

153 3.2 Simulation of planetary albedo (α) and RF_{aci}

154 In order to verify both the statistical approaches, we performed a radiative transfer simulation
155 to obtain α and RF_{aci} for all three regions. Radiative transfer calculations are performed with
156 the SBDART [Santa Barbara DISORT Atmospheric Radiative Transfer; *Ricchiuzzi et al.*,
157 1998] that is a plane-parallel radiative transfer code based on the DISORT algorithm for
158 discrete-ordinate-method radiative transfer in multiple scattering and emitting layered media
159 (*Stamnes et al.*, 1988). The discrete ordinate method provides a numerically stable algorithm
160 to solve the equations of plane-parallel radiative transfer in a vertically inhomogeneous
161 atmosphere. Simulations are carried out for the solar spectrum (0.2-4.0 μm) for all three regions.
162 In the present study, simulations are carried out to simulate first α and later RF_{aci} for the given
163 inputs. Here α is evaluated as the ratio of broadband outgoing (or upwelling) shortwave flux to
164 the incoming (or downwelling) solar flux. Inputs to the model include profiles of temperature
165 and water vapor which are resolved into 32 layers extending from 1000 to 1 mbar and come
166 from European Centre for Medium-range Weather Forecast (ECMWF) reanalysis data. Total
167 columnar amount of atmospheric ozone is provided from OMI-AURA. Surface albedo is set to



168 0.15 to represent a typical land cover value for CI and, predefined option of the ocean surface
 169 is used for the oceanic regions (AS and BOB). In the SBDART model, the cloud parameter
 170 inputs are effective droplet radius (r_e), liquid water path (LWP) and the cloud fraction, all of
 171 which are taken from MODIS retrievals reported in the CERES-SSF product. The geometrical
 172 thickness of cloud (CGT) is computed as a difference between cloud top and bottom heights.
 173 Cloud top height is taken from CERES-SSF product and cloud base height is evaluated using
 174 the geopotential height profile from ECMWF data. Only liquid water clouds are considered in
 175 the estimation of RF_{aci} . The upwelling and downwelling fluxes are computed individually
 176 computed for all three regions at satellite (MODIS-Aqua as a reference) overpass time.
 177 The local radiative forcing associated with the RF_{aci} is estimated as the difference between the
 178 perturbed and unperturbed radiative fluxes caused by perturbation in N_d due to the addition of
 179 aerosols while keeping the same meteorology. RF_{aci} is diagnosed by making two calls to the
 180 radiative transfer code: the first call used the unperturbed satellite-derived N_d and the second
 181 used perturbed N_d due to anthropogenic and natural aerosols. The numerical evaluation of
 182 radiative flux for the perturbed case starts by determining the finite perturbation of cloud
 183 droplet number concentration (ΔN_d), calculated as follows:

$$\Delta N_d^{ant/nat} = \frac{d \ln N_d}{d \ln \tau_a} [\ln \tau_a - \ln(\tau_a - \tau_a^{ant/nat})] \quad (4)$$

184 The finite perturbation in N_d are evaluated separately for anthropogenic and natural aerosol to
 185 estimate the radiative flux for the perturbed case. The perturbed value of \dot{N}_d ($N_d + \Delta N_d$) is used
 186 to obtain a perturbed value of r_e using Eq. (5) for constant liquid water content because r_e is
 187 used as an input to the radiative transfer code.

$$\dot{N}_d = q_l / \left(\frac{4}{3} \pi r_e^3 \rho_w \right) \quad (5)$$

188 Where, ρ_w is the liquid water density, q_l the liquid water content (q_l =liquid water path /
 189 geometrical thickness). RF_{aci} is diagnosed as $RF_{unperturbed} - RF_{perturbed}$ radiative fluxes at the top
 190 of the atmosphere, because increased concentrations of aerosol reduce the effective radius of
 191 cloud particles and smaller cloud particles reflect more radiation back to space. The following
 192 section describes the details of regression analysis of α and RF_{aci} performed between values
 193 from statistical-approaches and simulated values.

194 4 Results

195 4.1 Regression analysis

196 As stated in section 3.1, the satellite-based estimates of RF_{aci} are dependent on the fitting
 197 parameters α_1 - α_6 , obtained here from the two different statistical fitting approaches (multilinear
 198 and nonlinear). The parameters obtained from these two approaches are listed in Table-S1 for
 199 all three regions investigated in this study. These parameters vary with months since we
 200 conducted both the fitting approaches for each month, but only the mean seasonal parameters
 201 are shown here. The main differences in fitting parameters from both methods are found in the
 202 values of α_4 , α_5 and α_6 . The weight given to α_4 and α_6 in the nonlinear fit is larger than for the
 203 multilinear regression fitting, which may reduce the weight of α_5 .

204 To accomplish the objective of this study, we correlate α and RF_{aci} at TOA obtained from both
 205 statistical fitting approaches (multilinear and nonlinear) with estimates obtained from radiative
 206 transfer model for all three regions. Fig. 1 shows scatter density plots of comparison between
 207 model-simulated albedo and the one computed from satellite measurements at $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ grid



208 resolution using both statistical methods for all three regions. This regression analysis suggests
209 that the albedo fitted by the new statistical approach (nonlinear fit) agrees well with the model-
210 simulated albedo over both land and ocean. The scatter of the results from the nonlinear fit
211 around the 1:1 line is much smaller compared to multilinear fit, which is also reflected in the
212 coefficients of determination (R^2) ranging from 0.74 to 0.79. However, a reduction in over and
213 underestimation at very large and very small albedos, respectively, is found in the nonlinear fit
214 compared to the multilinear statistical approach. This is also clearly reflected in the values for
215 the root mean square error (RMSE), which reduces from 0.042-0.065 to 0.010-0.017,
216 supporting the expectation that the new statistical method is more reliable. Additionally, a
217 comparison between the planetary albedo computed using both statistical fits and the CERES
218 retrieved albedo is shown in Fig. S3 for all three regions. Similar to the results discussed above,
219 the analysis shows a good agreement between the CERES derived albedo and the one
220 calculated using the nonlinear fit.

221 In addition, we performed a comparison of RF_{aci} obtained from satellite measurements using
222 both statistical approaches with the one simulated by SBDART for each season and for each
223 region. Fig. 2 illustrates the linear regression of RF_{aci} from the two statistical approaches plotted
224 against the one obtained from the radiative transfer model for both anthropogenic and natural
225 aerosols for all seasons and all three regions. The analysis showed satisfactory results with
226 Pearson's correlation coefficient $r=0.82$ and 0.75 and $RMSE=0.037 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ and 0.042 Wm^{-2} for
227 anthropogenic and natural fraction of aerosols, respectively. An examination of Fig. 2 reveals
228 that the nonlinear fitting approach reduces the scatter seen for the multilinear fit and the
229 improvement in correlation with the simulated forcing. Using the nonlinear fit increases the
230 correlation coefficient by 21%-23% and decreases the RMSE by from 0.007 Wm^{-2} to 0.011
231 Wm^{-2} compared to multilinear approach.

232 4.2 RF_{aci} and Uncertainties

233 Aerosol and clouds vary substantially as a function of time in all regions; thus, it is interesting
234 to analyze aerosol-cloud interactions as a function of season. Fig. 3 shows the seasonal
235 variability of six-year averaged radiative forcing by aerosol-cloud interaction for the three
236 regions as defined above. The maximum anthropogenic RF_{aci} is found over oceanic regions
237 (AS: -0.15 Wm^{-2} , BOB: -0.16 Wm^{-2}), instead of regions over land (CI: -0.12 Wm^{-2}) with high
238 anthropogenic emissions. This is because maritime clouds are more susceptible to changes in
239 concentration of anthropogenic aerosols (Quaas *et al.*, 2008). In contrast, the natural RF_{aci} is
240 generally stronger over land (-0.15 Wm^{-2}) than over oceanic regions (AS: -0.098 Wm^{-2} , BOB:
241 -0.07 Wm^{-2}). It is seen that the anthropogenic RF_{aci} is strongest during winter over AS and BOB,
242 with values near -0.19 Wm^{-2} and -0.22 Wm^{-2} , whereas it is strong (-0.2 Wm^{-2}) during pre-
243 monsoon over CI (land). The dominance of natural aerosols in pre-monsoon results a large
244 natural RF_{aci} both over land (-0.15 Wm^{-2}) and ocean (-0.098 Wm^{-2} and -0.07 Wm^{-2}).

245 It is useful to compute the associated uncertainties in the above results due to various
246 parameters. Uncertainty involves the ones due to satellite retrievals of AOD which can be
247 highly biased in the vicinity of cloud due to swelling (Koren *et al.*, 2007), and also due to 3D
248 effects (Wen *et al.*, 2007). Since both biases may be particularly high for thick clouds, our
249 estimate of the RF_{aci} could be still be overestimated. The uncertainty in MODIS retrievals of
250 AOD from validation studies (Levy *et al.*, 2007) was quantified at $0.03+0.05\tau_a$ over ocean and
251 $0.05+0.15\tau_a$ over land. However, since we use the MODIS-OMI algorithm (Kim *et al.*, 2007)
252 to estimate the anthropogenic and natural fraction of AOD, uncertainty in this is given as 1σ
253 standard deviations as per Table-S2. From satellite intercomparison, the uncertainty in radiative



254 flux retrievals by CERES is estimated at 5% (Loeb, 2004), and uncertainty in cloud optical
255 depth is 21% (Minnis *et al.*, 2004). The computed RF_{aci} in this study is closely associated with
256 the statistical fitting approach as described in section 3. As mentioned earlier, two different
257 statistical fitting methods are used to obtain the regression coefficients for the estimates of
258 RF_{aci} . The study showed that the new nonlinear fitting approach reduces by ~20%-25% the
259 uncertainty from the statistical relationship and fitting parameters. The propagation of error
260 yields an influence of these relative uncertainties in the input quantities on the computed RF_{aci}
261 of $\sim\pm 0.08 Wm^{-2}$. It should be noted that we refer here to the published quantifiable uncertainties
262 in the satellite retrievals. Limitation involves in this approach or in the satellite measurements
263 contribute to the overall uncertainty but cannot be quantified.

264 5 Conclusion

265 In this study, we employed a new nonlinear statistical fitting approach to develop the statistical
266 relationship. A satellite-based algorithm is used to quantify the anthropogenic and natural
267 fraction of aerosol optical depth for the computation of RF_{aci} from satellite retrievals. In order
268 to verify, α and RF_{aci} estimates using the new statistical approach (nonlinear) along with the
269 previous statistical approach (multilinear fit), these are compared with the results obtained from
270 radiative transfer simulations. The results show a better agreement between model-based
271 estimates and the one estimated using the nonlinear approach compared to the multilinear
272 approach. The nonlinear approach relatively increases by 21%-23% the correlation coefficient
273 and decreases by $0.007 Wm^{-2}$ to $0.011 Wm^{-2}$ the RMSE compared to multilinear approach. The
274 RF_{aci} is found to be consistent with the value found by statistical relationship between aerosol
275 and cloud properties from MODIS and CERES, respectively, and radiative transfer
276 calculations. Further studies using the data retrieved from active remote sensing instruments
277 (lidar and radar) may be useful to test the assumption made in the present study concerning the
278 proxy of aerosol column, the overestimation of AOD over land and deal with the multi-layer
279 clouds.

280

281 Acknowledgments

282 The authors gratefully acknowledge the constant encouragement received from the Director,
283 SAC for carrying out the present research work. Valuable suggestions received from Deputy
284 Director, EPSA, and Head, CVD also gratefully acknowledged. CERES SSF data were
285 obtained from the NASA Langley Research Center Atmospheric Sciences Data Center
286 (ASDC), and MODIS data used in this study were acquired as part of NASA(tm)s Earth
287 Science Enterprise. The MODIS Science Teams developed the algorithms for the AOD
288 retrievals. The data were processed by the MODIS Adaptive Processing System and the
289 Goddard Distributed Active Archive (DAAC). The Dutch-Finnish built OMI instrument is part
290 of the NASA EOS Aura satellite payload. The OMI project is managed by NIVR and KNMI
291 in Netherlands. The OMI data were also obtained from the DAAC. Reanalysis data are from
292 the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts. The authors would like to thank
293 the data distribution centers for their support, Markand Oza for helpful discussion, and their
294 family for the continuous motivation. JQ acknowledges funding by the European Research
295 Council (GA no 306284).

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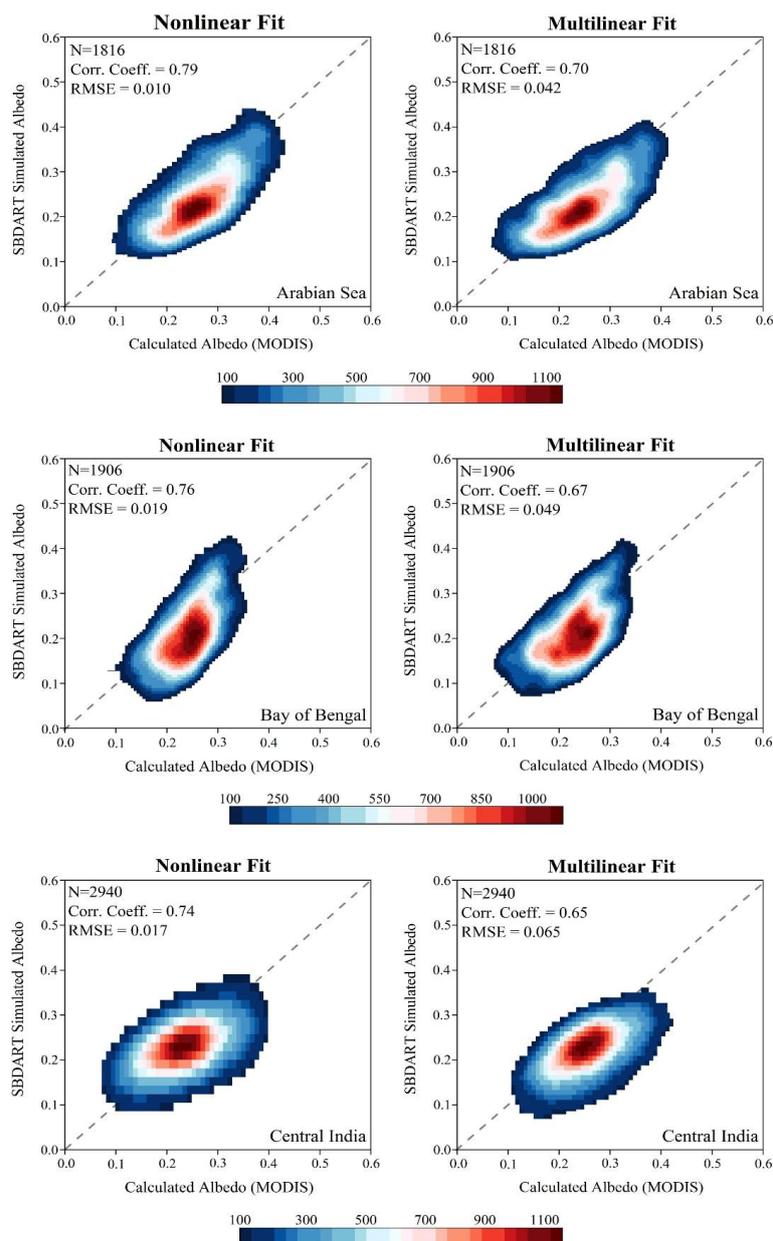
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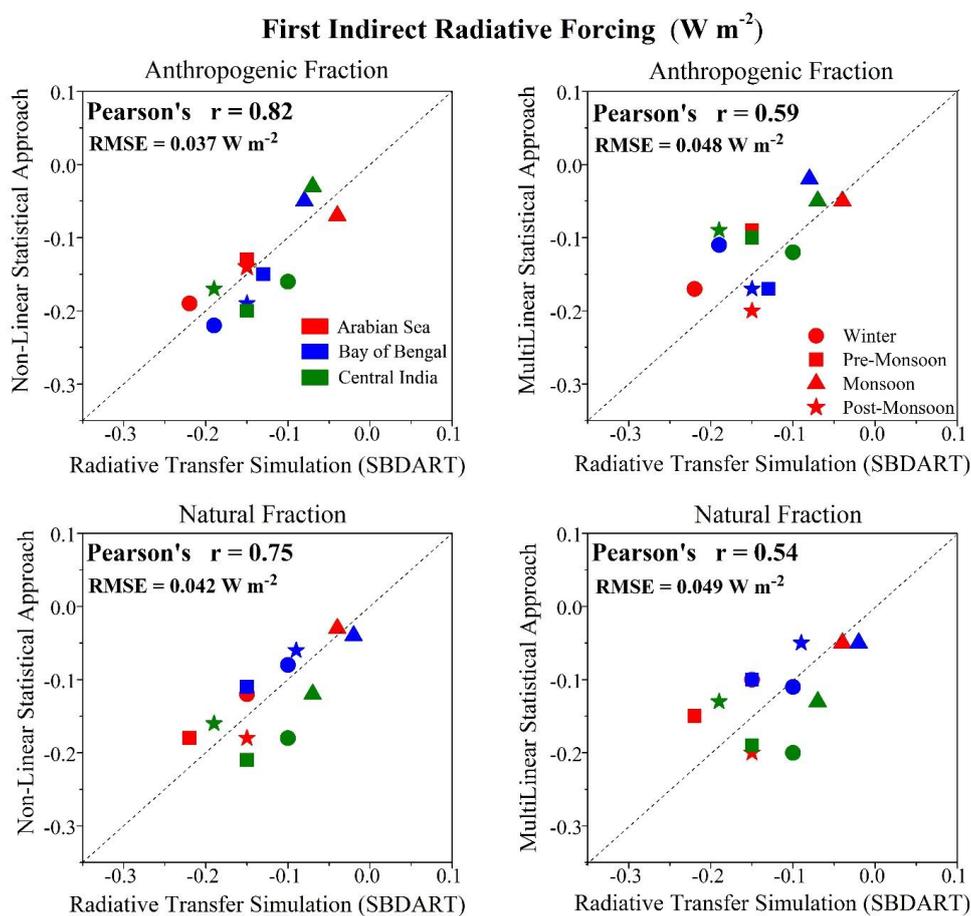


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420 Figure 1. Scatter density plots of model-simulated albedo and the one computed using both
421 statistical fitting method (nonlinear and multilinear fit) using satellite measurements for
422 all three regions.



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428 Figure 2. Comparison between satellite-based RF_{aci} using both statistical fits and the one
429 simulated by the SBDART model for all three regions and for all seasons. The different
430 color indicates the regions, whereas the different symbols indicates the different seasons.
431 Note that the fit is separately performed for each season and each region.

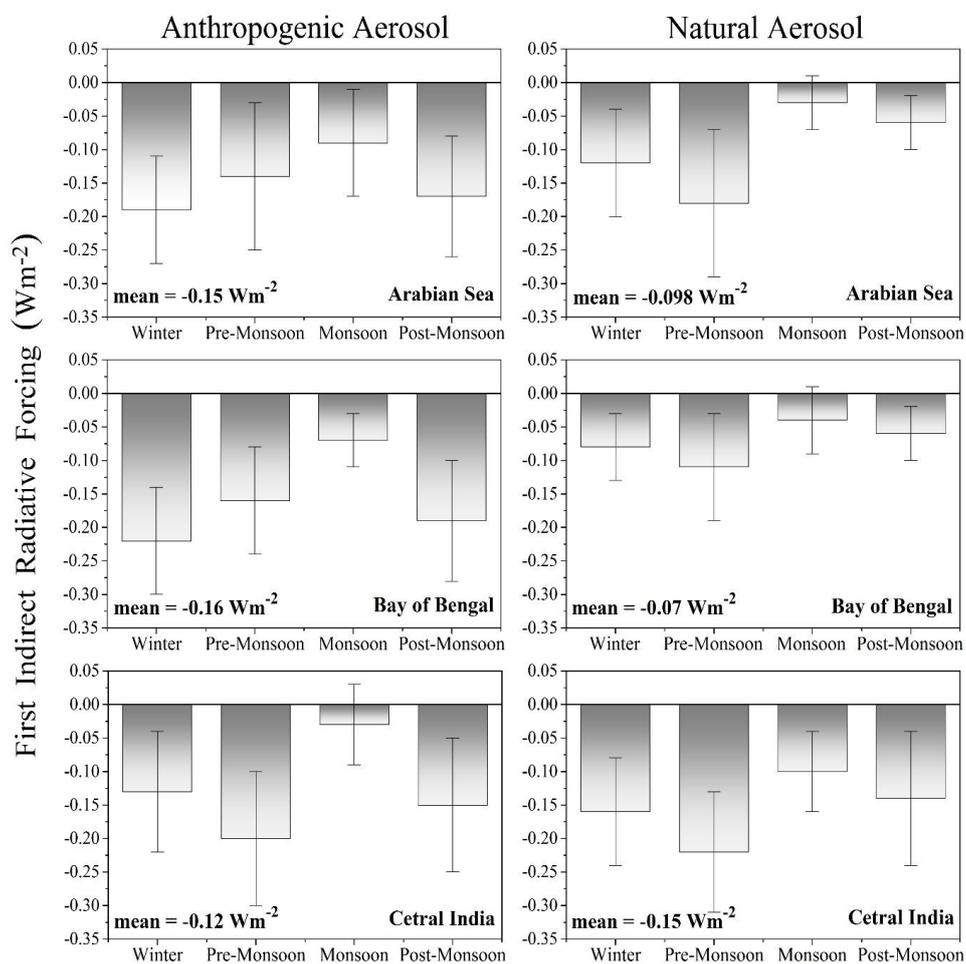
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438 Figure 3. Seasonal variability of six-year averaged RF_{aci} obtained using the nonlinear fit for all
439 three regions for both anthropogenic and natural aerosols along with mean values.

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