

1 SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION FOR:

2 The value of remote marine aerosol measurements for 3 constraining radiative forcing uncertainty

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15 SI Methods

16 SI Methods: Model Version

17 We use the Global Atmosphere 4 (GA 4.0; Walters et al., 2014) configuration of the Hadley Centre General
18 Environment Model version 3 (HadGEM3; Hewitt et al., 2011), which incorporates the UK Chemistry and
19 Aerosol (UKCA) model at version 8.4 of the UK Met Office's Unified Model (UM). UKCA simulates trace gas
20 chemistry and the evolution of the aerosol particle size distribution and chemical composition using the GLObal
21 Model of Aerosol Processes (GLOMAP-mode; Mann et al., 2010) and a whole-atmosphere chemistry scheme
22 (Morgenstern et al., 2009; O'Connor et al., 2014). The model has a horizontal resolution of 1.25x1.875 degrees
23 and 85 vertical level. The aerosol size distribution is defined by seven log-normal modes: one soluble nucleation
24 mode as well as soluble and insoluble Aitken, accumulation and coarse modes. The aerosol chemical
25 components are sulfate, sea salt, black carbon (BC), organic carbon (OC) and dust. Secondary organic aerosol
26 (SOA) material is produced from the first stage oxidation products of biogenic monoterpenes under the
27 assumption of zero vapour pressure and is combined with primary particulate organic matter after kinetic
28 condensation. Use of the GLOMAP model to simulate aerosol size and composition changes reduces Southern
29 Ocean radiative biases in HadGEM3 (Bodas-Salcedo et al., 2019).

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31 GLOMAP simulates new particle formation, coagulation, gas-to-particle transfer, cloud processing and
32 deposition of gases and aerosols. The activation of aerosols into cloud droplets is calculated using globally
33 prescribed distributions of sub-grid vertical velocities (West et al. 2014) and the removal of cloud droplets by
34 autoconversion to rain is calculated by the host model. Aerosols are also removed by impaction scavenging of
35 falling raindrops according to the collocation of clouds and precipitation (Lebsock et al., 2013; Boutle et al.,
36 2014). Aerosol water uptake efficiency is determined by kappa-Kohler theory (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007)
37 using composition-dependent hygroscopicity factors.

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39 We prescribe anthropogenic emissions using the emission inventory prepared for the Atmospheric Chemistry
40 and Climate Model Inter-comparison Project (ACCMIP) and also prescribed in some of the CMIP Phase 5
41 experiments. Present-day carbonaceous aerosol emissions were prescribed using a ten year average of 2002 to
42 2011 monthly mean data from the Global Fire and Emissions Database (GFED3; van der Werf et al., 2010) and
43 according to Lamarque et al. (2010) for 1850. We prescribe volcanic SO₂ emissions for continuously emitting
44 and sporadically erupting volcanoes (Andres et al., 1998) and for explosive volcanic eruptions (Halmer et al.,
45 2002). Surface ocean dimethyl-sulfide concentrations are prescribed using Kettle and Andreae (2000) and
46 emitted into the atmosphere using a surface wind speed dependent parametrisation (following Nightingale et al.,
47 2000). Sea spray is emitted into the atmosphere using the Gong (2003) surface wind speed dependent
48 parametrisation.
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50 Several modifications were made to version 8.4 of UKCA to overcome known structural deficiencies in the
51 model. An organically-mediated boundary layer nucleation parametrisation (Metzger et al., 2010) was included
52 so that remote marine and early-industrial aerosol concentrations were not unrealistically low in the model. We
53 also added a parametrisation for ice crystal suppression of precipitation known to bring remote marine aerosol
54 concentrations in line with measurements (Browse et al., 2012). Dust in the base model is calculated using the
55 CLASSIC bin scheme (Woodward et al., 2001), which we replaced in our model version so that dust is emitted
56 using the GLOMAP modal scheme. This means interactions between dust and other aerosols are explicitly
57 simulated. We better resolve the optical properties of aerosols across wavelengths by improving the resolution
58 of the default look-up tables. Finally, we made minor adjustments to some process parametrisations so that
59 parameter values could be perturbed globally. All changes to the model are described fully in Yoshioka et al.
60 (2019).

62 **SI Methods: Perturbed Parameter Ensembles**

63 We make use of the ATM and AER-ATM perturbed parameter ensembles (PPEs) described in Yoshioka et al.
64 (2019). Results in the main article make use of the AER PPE except for the quantification of aerosol ERF and its
65 components. These two PPEs were designed to provide complementary insights into causes of uncertainty in the
66 climate system. The 235 member AER PPE samples uncertainties in a set of 26 aerosol parameters, whilst the
67 191 member AER-ATM PPE samples uncertainties in 18 aerosol and 9 physical atmosphere parameters related
68 to clouds, radiation and moisture. The effects of rapid atmospheric adjustments to aerosols are not included in
69 AER, but are included in AER-ATM (although they have a relatively minor impact on aerosol forcing in this
70 model (Mulcahy et al., 2018)). Therefore, ERF is calculated for the AER-ATM PPE and combined with the
71 CERES top-of-the-atmosphere constraint employed in Regayre et al. (2018), whilst RF is calculated for the
72 AER PPE and combined with the predominantly Northern Hemisphere aerosol constraint employed in Johnson
73 et al. (2019).

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75 Both PPEs were nudged towards European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) ERA-
76 Interim reanalyses. Nudging means that pairs of simulations have near-identical synoptic-scale features, which
77 enables the effects of parameter perturbations to be quantified using single-year simulations, although the
78 magnitude of forcing will vary with the chosen year (Yoshioka et al., 2019; Fiedler et al., 2019). We nudge well
79 above the Earth's surface in order to strike a balance between the computational cost of perturbing multiple
80 parameters and the computational saving of using prescribed meteorology to overcome internal variability
81 (Zhang et al., 2016). In the AER-ATM PPE only horizontal winds above the boundary layer (around 2km) for
82 the year 2006 were prescribed, whilst in AER, horizontal winds and temperatures for 2008 were prescribed
83 above around 1km. In each PPE the model was allowed to respond to parameter perturbations (a spin-up period)
84 prior to simulating the data used here. Despite these differences, results in the main article are consistent across
85 the PPEs.

88 **SI Methods: Sampling and uncertainty**

89 We sample uncertainty in model output using uniform pdfs across each parameter range. The uncertainty in
90 individual parameters could be sampled in a more informed manner. For example, Yoshioka et al. (2019) used
91 expert elicited information about likely parameter values to create parameter pdfs, which were used by Watson-
92 Paris et al. (submitted) to sample uncertainty in aerosol forcing uncertainty. The additional information provided
93 by expert elicited parameter pdfs is invaluable for quantifying the causes of model uncertainty (e.g. Regayre et
94 al., 2018) because the choice of pdfs affects the contributions to variance in model output. However, in nearly
95 30 dimensions, samples of combined parameter value using multiple pdfs with centralised tendencies will be
96 heavily weighted towards the centre of the parameter space. Since our intention in this article is to sample the
97 range of model behaviour in response to the full spectrum of uncertain parameter combinations prior to
98 constraint using measurements, we use uniform pdfs with maximum and minimum values from the expert
99 elicited ranges.

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101 A set of around 200 model variants that make up the PPEs are much too small to allow statistical analysis of
102 model performance across nearly 30 dimensions of parameter space. We therefore use output from the PPEs to
103 train Gaussian Process emulators (e.g. Lee et al., 2012), which define how the model outputs vary continuously
104 over the parameter space. Some additional uncertainty is caused by emulating (rather than simulating) model
105 output and this uncertainty is incorporated into our model-measurement constraint process. We sample Monte
106 Carlo points from the emulated parameter space to produce the set of one million model variants.

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108 **SI Methods: Measurements**

109 Measurements were collected during the ACE-SPACE campaign between December 2016 and March 2017. The
110 measurement methodology is explained in Schmale et al. (2019) as well as in the metadata of the datasets cited
111 below. We constrain the model uncertainty using near-surface measurements of cloud condensation nuclei
112 concentrations at 0.2% and 1.0% supersaturations (CCN_{0.2} and CCN_{1.0}; Tatzelt et al., 2019), as well as number
113 concentrations of particles larger than 700 nm (N₇₀₀; Schmale et al., 2019a) and mass concentrations of non-sea-
114 salt sulfate in PM₁₀. We compare simulated and measured CCN_{0.2} concentrations because cloud-active aerosol
115 concentrations are fundamentally important for RF_{aci}. We use CCN_{1.0} measurements to challenge the model's
116 ability to reproduce concentrations of relatively small aerosols that only activate to form cloud droplets at very
117 high supersaturations. We target the highly uncertain sea spray emission flux scaling parameter by comparing
118 concentrations of N₇₀₀ to simulated concentrations of sea spray aerosol, under the assumption that over the
119 Southern Ocean, sea spray is the predominant (if not only) source of relatively large aerosols. Finally, we
120 compare non sea salt sulfate concentrations (which omit primary sulfate in sea spray aerosol) in order to
121 constrain the uncertainty in the emission flux of dimethyl-sulphide from the ocean surface. The sea salt fraction
122 of sulfate was calculated using sodium as a tracer for the enrichment of sea salt in the aerosol phase (Sander et
123 al., 2003). Non-sea-salt sulfate was calculated by subtracting this fraction from the total particulate sulfate as
124 detected from PM10 filters.

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126 Data for all variables were averaged for comparison with monthly mean model values by taking the mean of all
127 data points that were collected at locations corresponding to positions within model gridboxes. This spatial and
128 temporal degradation introduces representation errors that we account for using our model-measurement
129 comparison (next section). However, the reduction in data volume makes the model-measurement comparison
130 over one million model variants tractable.

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132 **SI Methods: Model-measurement comparisons**

133 Our constraint approach follows Johnson et al. (2019) and involves comparing model variants (parameter
134 combinations) to a set of measurements and ruling out variants that are judged to be implausible. This method
135 uses the statistical methodology of history matching, which has been effectively applied to complex models in a
136 range of fields (Craig et al., 1997; Williamson et al., 2013; McNeill et al., 2016; Rodrigues et al., 2017 and
137 Andrianakis et al., 2017). We account for emulator uncertainty, measurement uncertainty (instrument error) and
138 representativeness uncertainties (caused by spatial and temporal mismatches in resolution and sampling between
139 model and measurements). We do not include potential structural errors (e.g. from missing processes) in our
140 constraint approach because such errors cannot be robustly quantified a priori.

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142 For each measurement we calculate a ‘measure of implausibility’ for each of the one million model variants,
143 calculated as the model-measurement difference standardised by the combined emulator, measurement and
144 representativeness uncertainties. Using this ‘implausibility measure’ we can identify implausible model variants
145 and rule our implausible parts of parameter space via the combination of the ‘closeness’ of the measurement and
146 model output, and the size of the related uncertainties. The ‘implausibility metric’ is as:

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$$I(x) = \frac{|M - O|}{\sqrt{[Var(M) + Var(O) + Var(R)]}}, \quad (1)$$

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150 where M is the model variant output and O is the observed value (the measurement). In the denominator $Var(M)$
151 is the variance in the model estimate (caused by emulator uncertainty), $Var(O)$ is the variance in the
152 measurement (i.e., instrument or retrieval uncertainty) and the representativeness error, $Var(R)$, is the variance
153 associated with comparing model output to measurements at different spatial (Schutgens et al., 2016a; Weigum
154 et al. 2016, Schutgens et al., 2017) and temporal (Schutgens et al., 2016b; Schutgens et al., 2017) resolutions.
155 We compare the 2016-17 measurements to the models nudged towards 2008 meteorology for AER and 2008
156 meteorology for AER-ATM because the measurements were not collected when the PPE was created. The
157 $Var(R)$ term therefore includes additional uncertainty due to inter-annual variability. According to the definition
158 of the implausibility measure, model variants will not be ruled out if either the model-measurement difference is
159 small or the uncertainty in the denominator is large. In other words, we retain model variants that are skilful and

160 model variants whose skill cannot be adequately determined because the model-measurement comparison
 161 uncertainties are too large.

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 163 The variance terms in the denominator of Eq. (1) are calculated uniquely for each measurement. Following
 164 Johnson et al., (2019), we use a measurement uncertainty of 10%, a spatial co-location uncertainty of 20% and a
 165 temporal co-location uncertainty of 20%. Emulator uncertainty is calculated for each model-measurement
 166 combination using the error on the predicted mean from the emulator for the model variant. We use residuals in
 167 de-trended monthly mean output from a HadGEM-UKCA hindcast simulation over the period of 1980-2009
 168 (Turnock et al., 2015) to estimate the inter-annual variability for each variable across all model gridboxes and
 169 months.

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 171 We calculate implausibility values for each of the one million model variants for every measurement. Deciding
 172 which model variants to retain would be trivial were we comparing the sample output to a single measurement.
 173 We would sequentially rule out the variant with the highest implausibility metric until some small fraction of the
 174 original sample remained. However, our task is more complex. We need to rule out model variants based on
 175 multiple implausibility metrics that are distinct for each measurement location and measurement type.

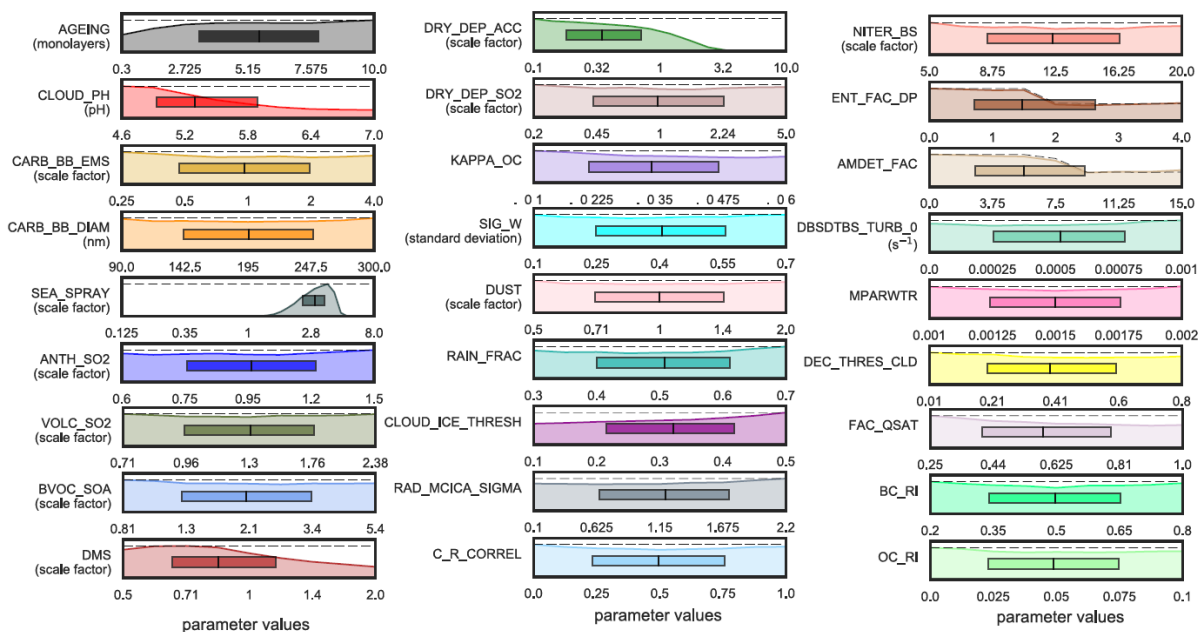
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 177 A variant may compare well with a measurement type in one location and poorly in another because spatial and
 178 temporal features in the measurement data (e.g. changing aerosol sources) mean each measurement could
 179 provide different information about the plausibility of the models. To avoid prematurely ruling out model
 180 variants based on a few poor comparisons, we only rule out variants if their implausibility exceeds a defined
 181 threshold for more than a tolerable fraction of measurements. We choose threshold and tolerance values with a
 182 goal of retaining around 3% of the original sample. The subjective choice of 3% retention determines the results
 183 to some extent. Retaining a smaller percentage of the model variants could potentially over-constrain the model.
 184 However, retaining a larger proportion risks weakening the constraint and retaining additional implausible
 185 variants.

186 SI Results

187 SI Results: Constrained marginal parameter distributions

188 In Fig. 3 of the main article we show the marginal probability distributions for the 26 parameters in the AER
 189 PPE. These marginal distributions show the effect of measurement constraint on individual parameter
 190 likelihoods. Rejecting the majority of the model variants reduces the maximum density, so marginal densities
 191 for the constrained sample are scaled such that the tops of the constrained and unconstrained pdfs are aligned.
 192 Similar parameter constraints are found when constraining the AER-ATM PPE using the same constraint
 193 process and original set of measurements (Fig. S1). In addition to parameters that are perturbed in both PPEs,
 194 we show the effect of measurement constraint on the few physical atmosphere parameters (Rad_Mcica_Sigma
 195 and Fac_Qsat) that are constrained by our process as well as additional aerosol parameters that were perturbed
 196 in AER-ATM (BC_RI and OC_RI).

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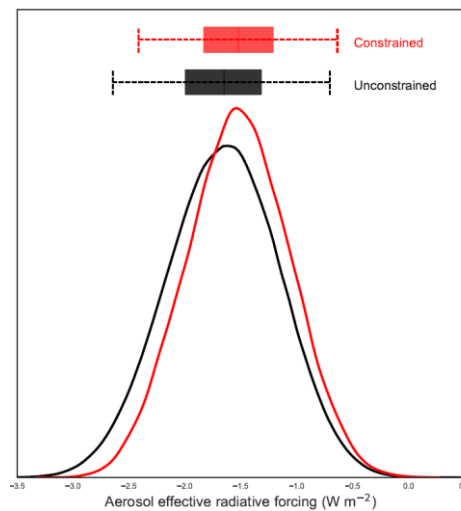
Fig. S1. Marginal probability distributions for aerosol and physical atmosphere parameters from the AER-ATM PPE after constraint. The density of parameter values in the unconstrained sample are shown as dashed lines. Densities of constrained samples are shown in colour. The 25th, 50th and 75th percentiles of each marginal distribution are shown in the central boxes. Parameter values on the x-axes correspond to values used in the model (Yoshioka et al., 2019).

SI Results: Wind Speed discrepancies

Southern Ocean wind speeds during the ACE-SPACE expedition were often much lower than climatological mean values, but on average were higher than winds in our ensemble (Schmale et al., 2019). Wind speed discrepancies do not affect our results, possibly because differences in the resulting wave heights cause compensating effects between sea spray emission fluxes and the removal rate of aerosols by the ocean (Korhonen et al., 2010). Marginal parameter distributions are constrained consistently when we remove measurements with average wind speed differences larger than 50% of the measured value from the model-measurement comparison.

SI Results: Additional constraint to achieve radiative balance

We additionally test the effect of ruling out model variants that differ from the Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy System (CERES; Loeb et al., 2009) measurement of global, annual mean top-of-the-atmosphere outgoing shortwave radiative flux of 98.3 $W m^{-2}$ by more than 0.25 $W m^{-2}$, which was the constraint used in Regayre et al., (2018). The constraint on ERF using the CERES-derived top-of-the-atmosphere fluxes in addition to the ACE-SPACE measurement dataset weakens the reduction in aerosol ERF from 8% to 7%. Fig. S2 (for comparison with Fig. 4a) shows the effect of this additional constraint on aerosol ERF. Retaining only model variants that agree with top-of-the-atmosphere radiative flux measurements does not noticeably affect the constraint on aerosol ERF (as shown in Regayre et al., 2018). Furthermore, the marginal parameter pdfs are unaffected by the additional constraint.



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Fig. S2. Probability distribution of ERF_{aci} from the AER-ATM PPE. Values from the unconstrained sample of one million model variants are in black. Red lines show the values constrained by ACE-SPACE measurements and additionally constrained using CERES top-of-the-atmosphere measurements. Plotting features are identical to Fig. 4.

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