



# Multi-model evaluation of aerosol optical properties in the AeroCom phase III Control experiment, using ground and space based columnar observations from AERONET, MODIS, AATSR and a merged satellite product as well as surface in-situ observations from GAW sites

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**Abstract.** Within the framework of the AeroCom (Aerosol Comparisons between Observations and Models) initiative, the present day modelling of aerosol optical properties has been assessed using simulated data representative for the year 2010, from 14 global aerosol models participating in the Phase III Control experiment. The model versions are close or equal to those used for CMIP6 and AerChemMIP and inform also on bias in state of the art ESMs. Modelled column optical depths (total, fine and coarse mode AOD) and Ångström Exponents (AE) were compared both with ground based observations from the Aerosol



Robotic Network (AERONET, version 3) as well as space based observations from AATSR-SU instruments. In addition, the modelled AODs were compared with MODIS (Aqua and Terra) data and a satellite AOD data-set (MERGED-FMI) merged from 12 different individual AOD products. Furthermore, for the first time, the modelled near surface scattering (under dry conditions) and absorption coefficients were evaluated against measurements made at low relative humidity at surface in-situ  
10 GAW sites.

Statistics are based mainly on normalised mean biases and Pearson correlation coefficients from colocated model and observation data in monthly resolution. Hence, the results are mostly representative for the regions covered by each of the observation networks. Model biases established against satellite data yield insights into remote continental areas and oceans, where ground-based networks lack site coverage. The satellite data themselves are evaluated against AERONET observations,  
15 to test our aggregation and re-gridding routines, suggesting relative AOD biases of -5%, -6%, +9% and +18% for AATSR-SU, MERGED-FMI, MODIS-aqua and MODIS-terra, respectively, with high correlations exceeding 0.8. Biases of fine and coarse AOD and AE in AATSR are found to be +2%, -16% and +14.7% respectively, at AERONET sites, with correlations of the order of 0.8.

The AeroCom MEDIAN and most of the participating models underestimate the optical properties investigated, relative  
20 to remote sensing observations. AERONET AOD is underestimated by  $21\% \pm 17\%$ . Against satellite data, the model AOD biases range from -38% (MODIS-terra) to -17% (MERGED-FMI). Correlation coefficients of model AODs with AERONET, MERGED-FMI and AATSR-SU are high (0.8 - 0.9) and slightly lower against the two MODIS data-sets (0.6 - 0.8). Investigation of fine and coarse AODs from the MEDIAN model reveals biases of  $-10\% \pm 20\%$  and  $-41\% \pm 29\%$  against AERONET and -13% and -24% against AATSR-SU, respectively. The differences in bias against AERONET and AATSR-SU are in agree-  
25 ment with the established satellite bias against AERONET. These results indicate that most of the AOD bias is due to missing coarse AOD in the regions covered by these observations.

Underestimates are also found when comparing the models against the surface GAW observations, showing AeroCom MEDIAN mean bias and inter-model variation of  $-44\% \pm 22\%$  and  $-32\% \pm 34\%$  for scattering and absorption coefficients, respectively. Dry scattering shows higher underestimation than AOD at ambient relative humidity and is in agreement with recent  
30 findings that suggest that models tend to overestimate scattering enhancement due to hygroscopic growth. Broadly consistent negative bias in AOD and scattering suggest a general underestimate in aerosol effects in current global aerosol models.

The large diversity in the surface absorption results suggests differences in the model treatment of light absorption by black carbon (BC), dust (DU) and to a minor degree, organic aerosol (OA). Considerable diversity is found among the models in the simulated near surface absorption coefficients, particularly in regions associated with dust (e.g. Sahara, Tibet), biomass burning  
35 (e.g. Amazonia, Central Australia) and biogenic emissions (e.g. Amazonia). Regions associated with high anthropogenic BC emissions such as China and India exhibit comparatively good agreement for all models.

Evaluation of modelled column AEs shows an underestimation of  $9\% \pm 24\%$  against AERONET and -21% against AATSR-SU. This suggests that overall, models tend to overestimate particle size, with implications for lifetime and radiative transfer calculations.



40 An investigation of modelled emissions, burdens and lifetimes, mass-extinction-coefficients (MECs) and optical depths (ODs) for each species and model reveals considerable diversity in most of these parameters. These are discussed in detail for each model individually. Inter-model spread of aerosol species lifetime appears to be similar to that of mass extinction coefficients, suggesting that AOD uncertainties are still associated to a broad spectrum of parameterised aerosol processes.

## 1 Introduction

45 The global aerosol remains one of the largest uncertainties for the projection of future Earth's climate, in particular because of its impact on the radiation balance of the atmosphere (IPCC (2014)). Aerosol particles interact with radiation through scattering and absorption, thus directly altering the atmosphere's radiation budget (aerosol-radiation interactions, or ARI). Moreover, they serve as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) and can thus, among other things, influence further climate relevant components such as clouds and their optical properties (e.g. cloud droplet number concentrations, cloud optical depth) and lifetime as well as  
50 cloud coverage and precipitation patterns (aerosol-cloud interactions, or ACI) (IPCC (2014)).

A challenging part of modelling the global aerosol is its comparatively high variability in space and time, as compared to well-mixed greenhouse gases such as carbon dioxide and methane. The radiative impact aerosols exert depends on the amount and the properties of the aerosol. Emissions and lifetime combined lead to different amounts of aerosol in transport models. The lifetime of aerosol particles in the atmosphere is of the order of one week and is, to first order, dependent on  
55 their size. Particles in the accumulation mode (particle diameter between  $0.3\text{--}1\ \mu\text{m}$ ) show the longest residence times due to less effective atmospheric sink processes. The sources of aerosol are complicated since not all aerosol particles are directly emitted. Instead, particles can also be formed in the atmosphere (secondary aerosol) which is dealt with in various degrees of complexity in models (e.g. Tsigaridis et al. (2014)). Both natural and anthropogenic emissions are highly uncertain due to lack of measurements and information or documentation flow.

60 Natural aerosols constitute a large part of the atmospheric aerosol, being composed of sulphur and organic components, as well as sea salt and dust. Emissions of sea salt and dust are strongly dependent on local meteorology and surface properties and, thus, require sophisticated parameterisations in global models with comparatively coarse resolution. In models, these emissions are usually computed based on simulated winds and constitute a major source of uncertainty (e.g. Carslaw et al. (2013)). Marine dimethyl-sulphide (DMS) and volcanic emissions are responsible for approximately a third of the global anthropogenic  
65 sulphur budget. Both eruptive and passively degassing volcanic sulphur emissions are highly uncertain, with estimates ranging between  $1\text{--}50\ \text{Tg}$  (e.g. Andres and Kasgnoc (1998), Halmer et al. (2002), Textor et al. (2004), Carn et al. (2017)). In addition, atmospheric aerosol particles undergo continuous alteration (e.g. growth, mixing) due to micro-physical processes that occur on lengths and timescales that cannot be resolved by global models, such as nucleation or gas-to-particle conversion.

The chemical and physical properties of aerosol particles determine how they interact with radiation. They are highly dependent on the aerosol type and state of mixing. Aerosol optical properties such as the aerosol scattering and absorption  
70 coefficients, the aerosol optical depth (AOD) and the Ångström exponent (AE) are closely linked with aerosol forcing estimates as they determine how aerosols interact with incoming and outgoing long and shortwave radiation. A key parameter that



determines the efficiency of scattering and absorption of radiation is the complex refractive index ( $n + i\kappa$ ), which depends on aerosol type (chemical composition) and mixing. It is accounted for in models in different ways (e.g. volume mixing, Maxwell  
75 Garnett, core-shell, e.g. Klingmüller et al. (2014)). The absorptive properties of dust aerosol, for instance, are dependent on the mineralogy of the dust particles, resulting in some dust types being more absorptive than others (e.g. Lafon et al. (2006)), which has direct implications for forcing estimates (e.g. Claquin et al. (1998)).

Scattering and absorption coefficients are derived from these extinction efficiencies and depend on particle size distribution and wavelength. In general, water uptake will enhance the light extinction efficiency. This is mostly relevant for scattering, since  
80 absorptive aerosols such as dust and black carbon are generally considered to be hydrophobic (which can, to a minor degree be violated in aged aerosol due to mixing, e.g. Cappa et al. (2012)). For instance, between 0% and 40% relative humidity (RH) (a range that is often considered "dry" for the purposes of GAW in-situ measurements), the light scattering can be enhanced (up to about 20% due to hygroscopic growth for some types of aerosol (e.g. Zieger et al. (2013)). This is important when comparing models with in-situ observations, since the latter are often performed at low humidity (RH<40%) but not at absolutely dry  
85 conditions (Gaw Report 227 (2016)). Some models tend to overestimate the scattering enhancement factor at low RH (and high RH) and hence, the amount of light scattering (Burgos et al. (2020, submitted)).

AOD is the vertically integrated light extinction (absorption + scattering) due to an atmospheric column of aerosol and is a function of wavelength. AAOD is the corresponding equivalent for the absorptive power of an aerosol column and tends to be small compared to AOD (ca. 5-10% of AOD). Both AOD (mostly scattering) and AAOD (absorption) are of particular  
90 relevance for aerosol forcing assessments (e.g. Bond et al. (2013)). Major absorbing species are black carbon (BC), followed by dust (DU) and, to a certain degree, organic aerosols (OA) (e.g. Samset et al. (2018) and references therein).

Simulating the AOD (and AAOD) in a global model is a challenging task as it requires many prerequisites to be correct, not only the assumptions on optics (e.g. shape and refractive index, atmospheric radiative transfer), but also the emissions, transport, ageing, sources and sinks of all aerosol species, which determine the aerosol composition in space and time. Therefore, it  
95 is useful to also investigate other related optical parameters that can help to assess model performance. The AE, for instance, describes the wavelength dependency of aerosol extinction and is related to the size of the aerosol (i.e. larger particles exhibit less spectral dependence of scattering, resulting in smaller value of the AE). It can thus, provide a qualitative assessment of modelled particle size (e.g. Schuster et al. (2006)). For instance, an underestimation of AE suggests an overestimation of the particle size. Like AE, fine and coarse mode AOD can also give insights into the particle size domains, which can help establish  
100 differences between natural and anthropogenic aerosols (since the major natural constituents, dust and sea salt, dominate the coarse mode AOD).

Kinne et al. (2006) provided a first analysis of modelled column aerosol optical properties of 14 aerosol models in the initial AeroCom experiments. They found that, on a global scale, aerosol optical depth (AOD) from different models compared well to each other and generally well to global annual averages involving trusted ground based references (model biases of the order  
105 +10% to -20%). However, they also found considerable diversity in the aerosol speciation among the models, mainly related to differences in transport and water uptake. The diversity for carbonaceous aerosol remained small as similar approaches were



adopted in all models. They concluded that this diversity in component contribution adds (via differences to aerosol size and absorption), to uncertainties for associated aerosol direct radiative effects.

This study investigates modelled aerosol optical properties of the most recent models participating in the AeroCom 2019 control experiment (in the following denoted CTRL, <https://wiki.met.no/aerocom/phase3-experiments>) on a global scale. Making use of the increasing amount of data which have become available during the past decade, we are able to extend the assessment of modelled optical properties beyond what was originally presented in Kinne et al. (2006). Here, we use observations of ground and space based observations of the above introduced columnar variables of total, fine and coarse AOD and AE as well as, for the first time, surface in-situ measurements of scattering and absorption coefficients, primarily from surface observatories contributing to Global Atmospheric Watch (GAW), obtained from the World Data Centre for Aerosols (GAW-WDCA) archive.

This paper is structured as follows. The next section 2 introduces the observations (OBS), variables (VAR) and models (MOD) used, followed by a discussion of the analysis details for the model evaluation and a short section discussing the representativity of the results. The section ends with a brief discussion of results from a validation study investigating the performance of the satellites used against ground based AERONET data. Section 3 starts with an overview of globally averaged emissions, burdens, lifetimes, mass-extinction-coefficients (MECs) and optical depths (ODs) for each model and aerosol species, followed by a discussion of the results from the AeroCom MEDIAN model and regional model diversity in the optical parameters considered. The section ends with a discussion of the results from comparison of modelled optical properties with the different observation records used. These results are presented in the form of performance charts of retrieved normalised biases and correlation coefficients for each OBS / VAR / MOD combination. This is followed by a dedicated section 4, which discusses the results for each model individually in order to identify strengths and weaknesses of each model in comparison with the observations and the other models. The paper ends with our conclusions from this comprehensive inter-comparison study.

## 2 Methods

### 2.1 Observations and variables

Several ground and space-based observations have been utilised in order to establish a comprehensive evaluation at all scales. Table 1 summarises all variables and observation networks that have been used. They are introduced in more detail below.

Fig. 1 shows yearly average mean values of the observed AERONET AODs and column extinction Angstrom exponents. Dust dominated regions such as Northern Africa and Southwest Asia are clearly visible both in the coarse AOD and the AE, but also in the total AOD, indicating its importance for the global AOD signal due to dust. The displayed satellite fields of AOD (MERGED-FMI) and AE (ATSR-SU) are particularly useful in remote regions and over the oceans where ground based measurements are less common, and, thus, add substantially to the global picture when assessing models. For example, satellites capture the nearly constant ocean AOD background of around 0.1 (mostly arising from sea salt) which is not really measured by the land dominated, ground-based observation networks. The AE from AATSR-SU for instance, shows a latitudinal southwards



140 decreasing gradient in remote ocean regions, indicating coarse(r) particle sizes, likely due to cleaner and, thus, more sea salt  
dominated regions. Transatlantic dust transport results in an increased particle size west of the Sahara (e.g. Kim et al. (2014))  
as is captured by AATSR-SU. Finally, as can be seen in the lowermost panel of Fig. 1, in-situ sites from GAW show the  
highest density in Europe, followed by North America, while other regions are poorly represented. The differences in the  
spatial coverage for each observation data-set are important to keep in mind when interpreting the results presented in Sect. 3  
145 (especially Figs. 10 and 11).

The following subsections introduce briefly each of the observation data-sets used.

### 2.1.1 AERONET

The Aerosol Robotic Network (AERONET, Holben et al. (1998)) is a ground-based, well established remote sensing network  
based on sun photometer measurements of columnar optical properties. The network comprises several hundred measurement  
150 sites around the globe (Fig. 1).

In this paper, cloud screened and quality assured daily aggregates of AERONET AODs,  $AOD < 1 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $AOD > 1 \mu\text{m}$  and  
AE from the version 3 (Level 2) Sun and SDA products (e.g. O'Neill et al. (2003), Giles et al. (2019)) have been used. No  
further quality control measures have been applied due to the already high quality of the data.

For the analysis, the spectral AOD values were used to derive an AOD at 550 nm using the provided AE. Data from the short  
155 term DRAGON campaigns (Holben et al. (2018)) was excluded in order to avoid putting too much weight on the associated  
regions (that show high density of measurement sites) with respect to the network averaged statistical parameters used in  
this study. No further site selection has been performed, since potential spatial representativity issues associated with some  
AERONET sites were found to be of minor relevance for this study (Sect. 2.4, Fig. A5). Fig. 1 shows the sites used for all  
variables, where colors indicate the 2010 mean values at each location. Table 1 includes relevant information about the data-set.

### 160 2.1.2 Surface in-situ data

Surface in-situ measurements of the aerosol light scattering and absorption coefficients, were accessed through the GAW-  
WDCA database EBAS (<http://ebas.nilu.no/>). The EBAS database also includes various observations of atmospheric chemical  
composition and physical parameters, although those were not used here. For both scattering and absorption variables, only  
level 2 data from the EBAS database were used (i.e., quality controlled, hourly averaged, reported at STP). All data in EBAS  
165 have version control, and a detailed description of the quality assurance and quality control procedures for GAW aerosol in-situ  
data are available in Laj et al. (2020, submitted). Additionally, for this study, data was only considered if it was associated with  
the EBAS categories *aerosol* or *pm10*. The *aerosol* category indicates the aerosol was sampled using a whole air inlet, while  
*pm10* indicates the aerosol was sampled after a  $10 \mu\text{m}$  aerodynamic diameter size cut. It was assumed whole air and *pm10*  
would provide the better comparison with model simulations than measurements with smaller cut size (e.g., *pm2.5* or *pm1*).  
170 Invalid measurements were removed based on values in the flag columns provided in the data files. Furthermore, outliers were  
identified and removed using value ranges of  $\{-10, 1000\} \text{Mm}^{-1}$  and  $\{-1, 100\} \text{Mm}^{-1}$  for scattering and absorption coeffi-  
cients, respectively. The outliers were removed in the original 1h time resolution before averaging to monthly for comparison



with the monthly model data. For most of the absorption data, the measurements are performed at wavelengths other than 550 nm. These were converted to 550 nm assuming an absorption Angstrom exponent (AAE) of 1 (e.g. Bond and Bergstrom (2006)). For the scattering coefficients, only measurements at  $RH \leq 40\%$  were considered. For the model evaluation, the 2010 monthly model data was converted to STP using the following formula:

$$X_{STP} = X_{AMB} \times \left( \frac{p_{STP}}{p_{AMB}} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{T_{AMB}}{T_{STP}} \right) \quad (1)$$

where  $p_{STP}$  and  $T_{STP}$  are standard IUPAC standard pressure and temperature, and  $p_{AMB}$  and  $T_{AMB}$  are air pressure and temperature at the corresponding site location. The correction was performed on a monthly basis using the station altitude to estimate the pressure and monthly near surface (2m) temperature from ERA5.

A few urban sites were removed from consideration for the model analysis, as these sites are likely not representative on spatial scales of a typical model grid. For scattering coefficients got excluded Granada; Phoenix; National Capitol - Central, Washington D.C; and for absorption coefficients Granada; Leipzig Mitte; Ústí n.L.-mesto.

The biases of each model for individual in-situ sites are shown in Appendix Figs. A1 and A2 for scattering and absorption, respectively. Due to the limited number of stations, and in order to increase temporal sampling coverage of the monthly aggregates used, a 2005-2015 climatology was used to compare with the 2010 model output (unlike for the other observations which solely used 2010 data, see Tab. 1). The climatology for each site was computed requiring at least 30 valid daily values over the 10 year period, for each of the months. Prior to that, daily values were computed from the hourly data applying a minimum 25% coverage constraint (i.e. at least 6 valid hourly values per day).

### 2.1.3 MODIS data

Daily gridded level 3 AOD data data from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) has been used from both satellite platforms (Terra and Aqua) for evaluation of the models. The merged land and ocean global product (named `Aerosol_Optical_Depth_Land_Ocean_Mean` in the product files) of the recent collection 6.1 was used. This is an updated and improved version of collection 6 (e.g. Levy et al. (2013), Sayer et al. (2014). For changes between both data-sets, see Hubanks (2017).

### 2.1.4 AATSR SU v4.3 data

The AATSR v4.3 SU data-set provides gridded AOD and associated parameters from the AATSR instrument series, developed by Swansea University (SU) under the ESA Aerosol Climate Change Initiative. The AATSR instrument on ENVISAT covers the period 2002-2012 and in this study, data from 2010 is used. The instrument's conical scan provides two near simultaneous views of the surface, at solar reflective wavelengths from 555 nm to 1.6  $\mu\text{m}$ .

Over land, the algorithm uses the dual-view capability of the instrument to allow estimation without a priori assumptions on surface spectral reflectance (North (2002), Bevan et al. (2012)). Over ocean, the algorithm uses a simple model of ocean



205 surface reflectance including wind-speed and pigment dependency at both nadir and along-track view angles. The retrieval directly finds an optimal estimate of both the AOD at 550 nm, and size, parameterised as relative proportion of fine and coarse mode aerosol. The local composition of fine and coarse mode is adopted from the MACv1 aerosol climatology (Kinne et al. (2013)). The local coarse composition is defined by fraction of non-spherical dust and large spherical particles typical of sea salt aerosol, while fine mode is defined by relative fractions of weak and strong absorbing aerosol. A full description of these component models is given in (de Leeuw et al. (2015)). Further aerosol properties including AE and AOD (not used in  
210 this study) are determined from the retrieved AOD and composition. Aerosol is retrieved over all snow-free and cloud-free surfaces. The most recent version SU AATSR V4.3 (North and Heckel (2017)) advances on previous versions by improved surface modelling and shows reduced positive bias over bright surfaces. The output at L2 is total column AOD at 550 nm, at 10 km resolution, and associated aerosol properties. Retrieval uncertainty and comparison with sun photometer observations show highest accuracy retrieval over ocean and darker surfaces, with higher uncertainty over bright desert surfaces, and land  
215 surface at southern latitudes (Popp et al. (2016)). The level 3 output is re-gridded to daily and monthly 1x1 degree resolution, intended for climate model comparison.

In this study, AE as well as total, fine and coarse AODs are used. Results (normalised biases and correlation coefficients) from an inter-comparison with AERONET measurements is shown in Fig. 2 (discussed in more detail in Sect. 2.5).

### 2.1.5 Merged satellite AOD data

220 The MERGED-FMI data-set (1995-2017), developed by the Finnish Meteorological Institute, includes gridded L3 monthly AOD products merged from 12 available satellite products (Sogacheva et al. (2019)). The merging method is based on the results of the evaluation of the individual satellite AOD products against AERONET. Those results were utilised to infer a regional ranking which was then used to calculate a weighted AOD mean. Because it is combined from the individual products of different spatial and temporal resolution, the AOD merged product is characterised by the best possible coverage, compared  
225 with other individual satellite products. The AOD merged product is at least as capable of representing monthly means as the individual products (Sogacheva et al. (2019)). Standard pixel-level uncertainties for the merged AOD product were estimated as the root mean squared sum of the deviations between that product and other eight merged AOD products calculated with different merging approaches applied for different aerosol types (Sogacheva et al. (2019)).

## 2.2 Models

230 This study uses output from 13 models that are participating in the AeroCom 2019 control experiment (<https://wiki.met.no/aerocom/phase3-experiments>, denoted in the following as CTRL). For this experiment, modellers were asked to submit simulations of at least the years 2010 and 1850, with 2010 meteorology and prescribed (observed) sea-surface temperature and sea ice concentrations. Modellers were asked to use CMIP6 emission inventories, when possible. Detailed information about the models and their treatment of aerosol optics are provided in the AeroCom optics questionnaire (supplementary material).  
235 An overview of all models is provided in table 2. More details about each of the models is provided in the corresponding discussion section 4.



The  $AOD > 1 \mu\text{m}$  fields were not directly submitted but were computed as difference:  $AOD - AOD < 1 \mu\text{m}$ . For the comparison with the surface in-situ data, modellers were asked to provide fields of extinction ( $EC_{dry}$ ) and absorption ( $AC_{dry}$ ) at dry conditions ( $RH=0\%$ ). The dry scattering ( $SC_{dry}$ ) was computed via  $SC_{dry} = EC_{dry} - AC_{dry}$ . Some of the models that provided these data, submitted dry EC but ambient AC, in which case that combination was used, consistent with the idea that absorbing aerosol tend to be hydrophobic. Note that for some models, not all required fields were available, which is indicated by gaps in the resulting heat-map plots shown in Figs. 3-7 and Figs. 10, 11). Some of the models reported the columnar optical properties based on clear-sky (CS) assumptions, while others assumed all-sky (AS) conditions to compute hygroscopic growth and extinction efficiencies. These choices are indicated in Table A1 and differences can be inferred from Fig. 7.

### 2.2.1 Computation of AeroCom ensemble mean and median

The monthly AeroCom ensemble mean and median fields were computed in  $2^\circ \times 3^\circ$  resolution (Tab. 2). Model fields were all re-gridded to this resolution before the ensemble mean and median was computed. Only those models were considered that had submitted all required optical property variables used in this study (Tab. 1). Those used for constructing the ensemble model are indicated in Table A1. In this paper, the output from the median model is used (denoted MEDIAN below) if not otherwise indicated.

In addition local diversity  $\delta$  fields were computed for each variable and are defined as follows:

- Diversity ensemble mean:  $\delta_1 = \text{std. dev.} / \text{mean}$  (not so good / meaningful in case of outliers)
- Diversity ensemble median:  $\delta_2 = \text{IQR} / \text{median}$  (outlier resistant definition)

where IQR denotes the interquartile range (i.e. the difference between the 3rd and 1st quartile).

### 2.3 Data analysis

The analysis of the data was performed using the pyaerocom software (Appendix C). The ground and space based observations are colocated with the model simulations by matching with the closest model grid-point in the originally provided model resolution. In the case of ground-based observations (AERONET and GAW in-situ), the model grid point closest to each measurement site is used. For the satellite observations, both the model data and the (gridded) satellite product are re-gridded to a resolution of  $5^\circ \times 5^\circ$  and the closest model grid point to each satellite pixel is used. The choice of this rather coarse resolution is a compromise, mostly serving the purpose of increasing the temporal representativity (i.e. more data points per grid cell) in order to meet the time resampling constraints (defined below).

Since many model fields were only available in monthly resolution, the colocation of the data with the observations (and the computation of the statistical parameters used to compare the models) was performed in monthly resolution. Any model data provided in higher temporal resolution was averaged to obtain monthly mean values, prior to the analysis. For the higher resolution observations (1), the computation of monthly means was done using a hierarchical resampling scheme, requiring at least 25% coverage. Practically this means that the daily AERONET data was resampled to monthly, requiring at least 7 daily values in each month. For the hourly in-situ data, first a daily mean was computed (requiring at least 6 valid hourly values)



and from these daily means, monthly means were computed requiring at least 7 daily values. Data that did not match these  
270 coverage constraints were invalidated.

Throughout this paper, the discussion of the results will use two statistical parameters to assess the model performance. The  
normalised mean bias (NMB) is defined as  $NMB = \frac{\sum_i^N (m_i - o_i)}{\sum_i^N o_i}$  and the Pearson correlation coefficient (R) to assess the model  
performance. These parameters were computed for each variable / obs. network / model combination and are presented in the  
form of heat-map performance charts (Figs. 10, 11).

275 The next section presents several sensitivity studies that were performed in order to investigate the spatio-temporal represen-  
tativity of this analysis strategy, which is based on network-averaged, monthly aggregates, as representativity (or lack thereof)  
comprises a major source of uncertainty (e.g. Schutgens et al. (2016), Schutgens et al. (2017), Sayer and Knobelspiesse (2019)).  
The focus here was to assess how such potential representation errors affect the biases and correlation coefficients used to assess  
the model performance and comparison with other models.

## 280 2.4 Representativity of the results

As described in the previous Section 2.3, monthly aggregates of the models and observations were colocated in space and  
time. The resulting point cloud of monthly mean values from all sampling coordinates (sites / aggregated satellite pixels)  
was then used to compute the biases and correlation coefficients. These are then used to assess the performance of individual  
models and the ensemble mean, discussed in the following sections (Figs. 10 and 11). The comparison of the (often) temporally  
285 incomplete observational records (that are sampled at distinct locations) can introduce considerable representation errors both  
on spatial and on temporal scales (see e.g. Schutgens et al. (2016), Schutgens et al. (2017), Wang et al. (2018), Sayer and  
Knobelspiesse (2019) and references therein). These errors can affect established biases between model and observations but  
also other performance measures such as correlation coefficients. We consider this to be the major source of uncertainty for  
this study. Therefore, several sensitivity studies have been performed in order to investigate how potential spatio-temporal  
290 representation errors affect the global monthly statistical parameters used in this study. Temporal representation uncertainties  
were investigated 1. for in-situ absorption coefficients using hourly TM5 data from the AeroCom INSITU experiment evaluated  
against GAW measurements (Fig. A4) and 2. for columnar AOD using 3-hourly data from ECMWF-IFS, evaluated against  
AERONET AODs (Fig. A3). In addition, spatial representativity errors were investigated by collocating the ensemble mean  
AOD field both with observations from all AERONET sites (available in 2010) and with a selection of sites that are considered  
295 representative on spatial scales covered by a typical model grid cell. The latter was selected based on Wang et al. (2018) using  
only sites that show an absolute spatial representation error smaller than 10% and the result of this comparison is shown in  
Fig. A5). The results of these 3 sensitivity studies are summarised in Tab. 3) and show that the overall differences are of the  
order of 10% and 0.2 for NMB and correlation, respectively. For the in-situ absorption inter-comparison, the results in monthly  
resolution show better performance in nearly all statistical parameters, compared to hourly (Fig. A4).

300 From these results, we conclude that differences in these network averaged statistics, arising from spatio-temporal represen-  
tation errors, are small compared to the diversity in the results found among the different models participating in this study  
(shown in Figs. 10 and 11).



Based on these findings, and due to the fact that some model data was only available in monthly resolution, it was therefore decided that all model and observation comparisons in this study would be performed in monthly resolution. This was done because we believe that it will make the inter-model results more consistent and hence, more suitable for *inter*-comparison, since they carry similar representation errors (which are introduced by the incompletely sampled observational records).

The small differences in bias and correlation that we find in our sensitivity tests (Figs. A3, A4, A5) are important results that indicate that the magnitude of spatio-temporal representation uncertainties (in statistical parameters derived from annual averages over whole networks) is of the order of  $\pm 10\%$ . For non-geostationary satellites, the absolute temporal representation errors are likely larger due to the low sampling coverage, combined with cloud contamination in certain regions (e.g. South Pacific). A detailed investigation of these uncertainties is beyond the scope of this work. Nonetheless, a further simple sensitivity study was performed aiming to investigate, how our choice of resolution in the satellite/model comparison (i.e. based on  $5^\circ \times 5^\circ$  resolution and monthly averages) would affect the results (NMB and R), as compared to an analysis that is performed in daily resolution and using the highest available horizontal resolution for each model / satellite (see Tab. 1 for an overview of the satellites used). This was done for each model that provided daily (or higher resolution) data and for the variables AOD, AOD  $< 1 \mu\text{m}$ , AOD  $> 1 \mu\text{m}$  and AE. The results are shown in Table A2. In most cases, the higher resolution data results in slightly less negative biases and differences can be up to  $+10\%$  in NMB (e.g. AE SPRINTARS vs. AATSR-SU). However, in most cases the differences are marginal and are well below  $5\%$ .

Finally, we want to stress that the uncertainties established here and discussed above are not to be misinterpreted with corresponding uncertainties over sub-domains or at specific locations and times, which can be significantly larger as shown in the various literature referred to above.

## 2.5 Evaluation of satellite products at AERONET stations

All satellite data-sets were evaluated against the ground based AERONET data in order to establish an estimate of the relative differences (biases, correlation coefficients) between the different data-sets when comparing with the models. The evaluation of the gridded satellite level 3 products was performed in the same manner as the evaluation of the models (see previous Sect. 2.3). Note that for this analysis the satellite data was used in the original  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  resolution.

The results of this analysis are shown in Figure 2 and reveal generally high correlation with AERONET measurements ( $R > 0.80$ ). In terms of NMB, AATSR-SU and the MERGED-FMI product show slight underestimations (NMB  $\approx -5\%$ ) while MODIS Aqua and Terra yield slightly overestimated AODs of approximately  $+9\%$  and  $+18\%$ , respectively.

We remark that this analysis is biased by the uneven distribution of AERONET sites (highest density in Europe and North America, Fig. 1) and that problematic regions in the satellite retrievals (e.g. Sahara) may not be well represented in this comparison.

In case of the AATSR-SU data, the retrieval includes a conservative cloud mask utilising thermal channels in addition to optical, and thereby avoids retrieval near cloud edges. Evaluation under aerosol CCI of six data-sets showed AATSR and SeaWifs exhibited the lowest bias (with SeaWifs) with respect to ocean and coastal sun photometers (Popp et al. (2016)).



### 3 Results

In this section the results from the model evaluation are presented, starting with an overview of annual averaged emissions, burdens, lifetimes, MECs and ODs for each aerosol species and model, followed by a discussion of the results from the ensemble model and regional model diversity. Finally, the results of the optical property evaluation are presented. This is followed by a discussion section for the results from the individual models.

#### 3.1 Modelled emissions, burdens, lifetimes, MECs and ODs

Figures 3, 4, 5, and 6 show the global annual average of emissions, lifetimes, burdens and MECs, for each aerosol species and for each model, respectively. The colors in the performance charts are applied row-wise in order to highlight differences between the models. Also included in each plot are mean, median and diversity (IQR) for each species. Note that the latter are computed directly from the provided table values for each species and model, and not using the ensemble mean and median fields (which were used for the inter-comparison with the measurements shown in Figs. 10 and 11). In addition, Figure 7 shows corresponding averages for the individual optical depths (ODs) of each aerosol species (i.e. BC, DU, OA, NO<sub>3</sub>, SO<sub>4</sub> and SS; and their sum) as well as H<sub>2</sub>O OD, reported clear-sky (CS) and/or all-sky AOD (where provided).

In the following we briefly discuss the main results from this global perspective of the aerosol life-cycles. The focus in this section will be on the discussion of the ensemble median results and the corresponding model-spread in percent, derived via the provided MEDIAN and  $\delta_{IQR}$ . Results of individual models are discussed in Sect. 4.

The median emissions (Fig. 3) are highest for sea salt (5090 Tg/yr), followed by dust (1430 Tg/yr), sulphur species (192 Tg/yr), OA (78 Tg/yr, primary) and BC (10 Tg/yr). Models agree well in their BC emissions, which is expected since most models used the CMIP6 BC emission inventories (see AeroCom optics questionnaire (supplementary material)). The highest diversity is found for OA (64%) followed by sea salt (51%) and DMS (42%) and dust (32%). These differences are not surprising, since the emissions of these species are typically computed online (fully or partly) in the models and hence, are highly dependent on the individual parameterisations applied (see AeroCom optics questionnaire (supplementary material)).

The lifetimes shown in Fig. 4 were computed using the provided burdens (Fig. 5) and total deposition for each variable (not shown). BC lifetime is around 5.5 days and, in contrast to the BC emissions, shows a rather high diversity of 42% between the models. The modelled NO<sub>3</sub> lifetimes show the largest diversity with values ranging between 2.7 days (GEOS) up to around 10 days (TM5 and EC-Earth). SO<sub>4</sub> and OA have lifetimes of around 5 and 6 days, respectively (and diversities of around 30%). The ensemble median lifetimes of dust and sea salt are around 0.6 and 3.7 days, respectively. However, the individual models tend to show high variability in these (globally dominant) species with diversities of around 100% and 52% for the residence times of dust and sea salt, respectively.



The modelled atmospheric burdens for each species are shown in Fig. 5). They mostly reflect the corresponding diversities that could be associated with their main sources (emissions) and sinks (deposition). Dust and sea salt burdens, for instance, show considerable variability among the models, with median values of  $15 \pm 8$  Tg and  $9 \pm 3.4$  Tg, respectively. The highest diversity is found for  $\text{NO}_3$  (among the 8 models accounting for it) and burdens range between 0.08 Tg (OsloCTM3) and 0.93 Tg (GEOS) The modelled BC burdens also exhibit a considerable spread of around 65% with a median value of 0.16 Tg (Fig. 5). Since the BC emissions are relatively harmonised among the models, the variability in the BC burden is likely due to (ageing / mixing induced) differences in the BC deposition efficiencies, particularly in strong source regions such as China and India (e.g. Riemer et al. (2009), Matsui et al. (2018)).

MECs are shown in Fig. 6 and were calculated by dividing the OD (Fig. 7) for each species by the corresponding burden (Fig. 5). The two ECHAM models (indicated with a star) were not considered to compute mean, median and IQR, since the  $\text{OD}_i$  values were diagnosed at dry conditions, while all other models reported ambient speciated ODs. This explains the comparatively low MECs for these two models. Diversities of MECs are of the same order of magnitude as for the burdens, indicating different treatment related to the underlying assumptions that determine the extinction efficiencies for each species. The largest diversities in MEC are found for BC, DU and  $\text{NO}_3$  ( 50%).

Ultimately, the model spread in the burdens, combined with the diversity in MECs results in a considerable large diversity in the speciated ODs shown in Fig. 7. For most species, the model spread exceeds 50% (i.e. SS,  $\text{NO}_3$ ,  $\text{SO}_4$ , OA) while, interestingly, AOD (both CS and AS where provided) indicate much better agreement between the models (11% in CS AOD and 17% in AS). Note that for these estimates of diversity, the two ECHAM models were excluded, since they reported dry speciated ODs. With values of around 0.13, the total AODs (CS and AS) and agree well with the values found in Kinne et al. (2006) (see Fig. 1 therein).

### 3.2 Modelled annual global distributions of optical properties and their diversity

Figure 8 shows global maps from the ensemble median (Sect. 2.2.1) for each variable (left) and corresponding diversities (right). Also included are annual average values of the corresponding ground observations at the individual site locations. The legends in each plot provide average values of the ensemble model (global and at obs. sites) and the observations (at obs. sites).

The latter provide an indication of potential biases between model and observations and how representative the observation locations are with respect to the whole globe. AODs, for instance, show an annual average value of 0.21 at the AERONET site locations, while the ensemble model shows a corresponding value of 0.16, indicating an absolute AOD bias of about 0.05 (or 24%).

The plotted diversity maps provide insights into the regional model-spread. These may be useful, for instance, to identify regions where models tend to disagree which ultimately may help to explain differences observed when comparing the models with observations (which may be performed in different regions due to lack of spatial coverage). The overall highest diversity, for instance, is found for the simulated surface in situ aerosol absorption coefficients and is particularly prominent in Amazonia,



a region of substantial regular biomass burning events (peaking in early September in 2010) and also new particle formation (NPF) events from biogenic emissions. Reasons for these differences may be a combination of the different treatments of SOA formation (and absorptive properties of OA), or potential differences in the emission altitudes (see AeroCom optics questionnaire (supplementary material)). The diversity in in-situ surface absorption is also high in the South Pacific / Antarctica and Australia, which is also affected by regular biomass burning events. Interestingly, models tend to agree in major source regions such as China and India (low diversity in surf. absorption).

The dust dominated Sahara region shows considerable diversity in surface absorption but little diversity in surface scattering. This is an indication of differences in the treatment of dust absorption optical properties. The increased diversity in AE in this region suggests differences in dust size distribution, which may, to a certain degree, be linked with the increased diversity seen in  $AOD > 1 \mu\text{m}$ , which reflects the diversity between the models found for dust emissions, burdens, lifetimes and MECs (Figs. 3 and 5, 4, 6). Explaining these dust related differences in detail is beyond the scope of this work, and needs further investigation.

Another notable region is the (comparatively clean) South Pacific and Antarctica which shows a belt of high diversity in surface absorption (but not scattering) and AE and considerable diversity in  $AOD > 1 \mu\text{m}$  (over land). This behaviour may arise from a combination of differences in sources, lifetimes and long range transport of the aerosol (e.g. dust shows  $> 50\%$  diversity in lifetime, see also Li et al. (2008)). It may also be due to differences in the absorption optical properties of OA (due to organic Ocean emissions), combined with potential differences in sea ice retreat. Most likely, it is a combination of all these effects.

Furthermore, elevated and/or mountainous desert regions such as the Southern Peruvian and Northern Chilean Andes, Tibet show high diversity in  $AOD > 1 \mu\text{m}$ . These regions are however, associated with generally low AODs and thus such differences may not have a significant impact on the global radiation budget.

Unfortunately, most ground based observations (used in the following Sect. 3.3 to evaluate the individual models) provide little or no coverage in these remote regions, where the models show high diversity.

Figure 9 shows annual mean biases retrieved when evaluating the ensemble AODs against the merged satellite product as well as biases established against AERONET AODs and the surface in-situ scattering measurements. The legend provides the network biases and correlation coefficients for each data-set.

South-east Asia appears to be a region where modelled AOD is low (by about  $-40\%$ ) both compared to MERGED-FMI and to AERONET. It can also be clearly seen that the underestimated scattering (by  $44\%$  over all GAW stations) is mostly representative for Europe and the US, where the site density is highest. These regions also show underestimated AERONET AODs, but only by about  $-14\%$  (as can be seen in web visualisation, see Appendix C).

Furthermore, models tend to underestimate scattering and AOD at the few available polar sites. This is also the case for surface absorption (e.g. Barrow, Alert, Tiksi and Neumeyer in Figs. A1, A2). However, models tend to yield rather diverse results at some of these stations, showing over and underestimations (e.g. absorption at Barrow, scattering at Neumeyer).



### 3.3 Results from optical properties evaluation

Figures 10 and 11 show performance matrices of the normalised mean bias (NMB) and the Pearson correlation coefficient, respectively. These are displayed for each model, variable and observation data-set used. The results from the AeroCom ensemble mean and median (Sect. 2.2.1) are plotted in the rightmost column, suggesting that overall, models moderately underestimate the selected optical properties, both when evaluated against ground and space-based remote sensing and in situ observations. In terms of bias (NMB) the mean model shows slightly better performance compared to the observations with up to +10% improvement (e.g. surface scattering and  $AOD > 1 \mu\text{m}$ ). In terms of correlation (Fig. 11) both median and mean show similar results. Relative biases between the different satellite AOD products mostly resemble the biases found when evaluating the satellites against AERONET (Fig. 2). However, compared to the ground based observations, the satellites can show significantly different results as can be seen, for instance, in the  $AOD > 1 \mu\text{m}$  from NorESM2 vs. AATSR-SU and AERONET, respectively. This is because the satellites generally show higher spatial coverage and are thus, also sensitive to the oceans (Fig. 1). This demonstrates the usefulness of incorporating satellite data, even though these may carry larger uncertainties and representativity errors (Sect. 2.4). For instance, compared to AODs from the two MODIS instruments, models show the largest negative biases, which mostly reflects the results from the satellite evaluation (Sect. 2.5, Fig. 2, i.e. positive biases of +9% and +18% for Aqua and Terra against AERONET).

The differences in NMB for  $AOD > 1 \mu\text{m}$  and AE between AERONET and AATSR-SU for the models mostly reflect the respective biases found in the satellite assessment (i.e. ca. -15% for  $AOD > 1 \mu\text{m}$  and +15% for AE).

The comparison with the surface in-situ data shows considerably large negative biases (and the lowest correlations) of -44% and -32%, for dry scattering and absorption, respectively at the GAW site locations (Fig. 1). In case of scattering, a small fraction (but likely not more than 20%) of these biases may be due to the fact that models reported at RH=0% and the observations are being performed at RH between 0% - 40%.

Correlation coefficients (Fig. 11) are generally high for the median model ( $> 0.6$ ) but can be as low as 0.12 for individual model assessments.

## 4 Discussion of results from individual models

In this section, the results shown in Figs. 3-7 and Figs. 10 and 11 are discussed for each model individually. This includes a small introduction into each of the models.

### 4.1 CAM5-ATRAS

The Community Atmosphere Model version 5 (CAM5) with the Aerosol Two-dimensional bin module for foRmation and Aging Simulation (ATRAS) (Matsui (2017); Matsui and Mahowald (2017)) calculates the following atmospheric aerosol and chemistry processes: emissions, gas-phase chemistry, new particle formation, condensation of sulphate, nitrate, and organic aerosols, coagulation, cloud activation, aqueous-phase chemistry, dry and wet deposition, and aerosol-radiation and aerosol-



cloud interactions. Aerosol particles from 1 nm to 10000 nm in dry diameter are represented with a two-dimensional sectional representation with 12 size bins and 8 BC mixing state bins. Meteorological nudging was used for temperature and wind fields in the free troposphere (<800 hPa) using the MERRA2 data.

470 The sources and burden of OA exceed the model ensemble by 90% and 50%, respectively (Figs. 3, 5). This is likely because the ATRAS model considers OA formation from semi-volatile and intermediate volatility organic compounds in addition to anthropogenic and biogenic VOCs based on the volatility basis set approach (Matsui et al. (2014a), Matsui et al. (2014b), Matsui (2017)). The NO<sub>3</sub> burden is lower than the model ensemble, consistent with Matsui and Mahowald (2017). The burdens of BC, SO<sub>4</sub>, SS, and DU and the lifetimes of all aerosol species in CAM5-ATRAS are similar to those in the model ensemble  
475 (Figs. 3-4). BC MEC is larger than the model ensemble by 40% (Fig. 6) likely because the ATRAS model calculates the enhancement of absorption by BC aging processes explicitly by resolving the BC mixing state with 8 bins (pure BC, BC-free, and 6 internally-mixed BC bins). The value of BC MEC in this study ( $9.5 m^2 g^{-1}$ ) is close to that in Matsui et al. (2018) ( $10 m^2 g^{-1}$ ).

The biases of aerosol optical properties in CAM5-ATRAS are similar to those in the model ensemble (Fig. 10). Model  
480 simulations generally agree well with the observations for AOD (MERGED-FMI and AATSR-SU), coarse mode AOD (ATSR-SU), fine mode AOD (AERONET and AATSR-SU), and AE (AERONET) (Fig. 10) with correlation coefficients exceeding 0.6 (Fig. 11). Simulated AOD is underestimated by 21% compared with AERONET AOD and by 33 - 57% compared with MODIS AOD, which is consistent with Matsui and Mahowald (2017). Scattering and absorption coefficients are also underestimated by 24 - 40% compared with the GAW observations.

## 485 4.2 EC-Earth3-AerChem and TM5

Two configurations of the atmospheric composition model TM5 (Tracer Model 5) are included in this study (van Noije et al. (2014)): a standalone version of TM5, and an atmosphere-only version of the CMIP6 climate model EC-Earth3-AerChem (van Noije et al. (2020, in preparation)). The standalone model is driven by meteorological and surface fields from the ERA-Interim reanalysis (Dee et al. (2011)), whereas in the climate model there is online interaction between TM5 and the atmospheric  
490 general circulation model, which is based on model cycle 36r4 of ECMWF's Integrated Forecasting System (IFS). The sets of meteorological and surface variables that drive TM5 are similar in both configurations. In the EC-Earth simulations analyzed in this study, sea surface temperatures and sea ice concentrations were prescribed using AMIP forcing fields provided for CMIP6; in addition, vorticity, divergence and surface pressure fields were nudged to ERA-Interim, using a Newtonian relaxation scheme with a time constant of 8 h and 15 min in the whole atmosphere.

495 TM5 uses the aerosol scheme M7 (Vignati et al. (2004)), which represents sulphate, black carbon, organic aerosols, sea salt and mineral dust with seven lognormal size distributions or modes. Aerosol components are assumed to be internally mixed inside the modes. The formation of secondary organic aerosols in the atmosphere is described following Bergmann et al. (in preparation)). Ammonium-nitrate and methane sulphonic acid (MSA) are described by their total mass, and assumed to be present only in the soluble accumulation mode (see van Noije et al. (2014) for more details). TM5 has an interactive  
500 tropospheric chemistry scheme (Williams et al. (2017)), which also describes the aqueous-phase oxidation of dissolved sulphur



dioxide in clouds.

When calculating the dust source, TM5 does not include particles with dry diameter larger than 16  $\mu\text{m}$ . This may explain why the mean emitted dust mass is smaller than in other models. Differences in 10 m wind speeds generally reduce the dust emissions from the main source regions in EC-Earth compared to TM5 (Fig. 3), leading to proportionally lower dust burdens.

505 Sea salt emissions, on the other hand, which depend on 10 m wind speeds and sea surface temperatures, are very similar in the two models. The mean OA lifetime in EC-Earth is 9% longer than in TM5, and in both models are longer than in the other models. This may be in part due to the use of interactive chemistry in TM5 (and EC-Earth), which may lead to a depletion of oxidants over regions with high biogenic VOC emissions, thereby increasing their lifetime (Sporre et al. (in preparation)). The aerosol optical properties in TM5 are calculated based on Mie theory, where the mixing rules of Bruggeman and Maxwell-  
510 Garnett are applied as approximations of the refractive index of the internally mixed modes. The contributions of the individual aerosol components are estimated by distributing the resulting total ambient extinction of each mode over the individual dry aerosol components, using volume weighting. In this way the extinction due to the presence of water is associated with the other aerosol components. This will enhance the species AOD and MEC values for TM5 and EC-Earth compared to models in which the water contribution is not included, such as ECHAM-HAM and ECHAM-SALSA (Fig. 7).

515 Compared to the observations (Figs. 10 and 11), both TM5 and EC-Earth show similar performance and are generally in good agreement with observations in terms of bias (NMB), outperforming the ensemble values in all comparisons. Particularly, AOD and  $\text{AOD} < 1 \mu\text{m}$  show good performance with biases smaller than 10% and high correlation ( $R \leq 0.79$ ), with  $\text{AOD} < 1 \mu\text{m}$  being slightly overestimated and AOD being slightly underestimated. The latter is due to a slightly underestimated  $\text{AOD} > 1 \mu\text{m}$ , both against AERONET and AATSR-SU, which is also reflected in the slightly positive AE bias. Comparison of the diagnosed  
520 dry scattering with surface in-situ measurements (at  $\text{RH} < 40\%$ ) results in biases of -15%. The corresponding comparison of dry absorption, indicates a slightly better performance in TM5 (-2%) than in EC-Earth (-7%), which may be due to the fact that the dust burden in TM5 is about 35% larger than in EC-Earth (and corresponding MECs are similar). The latter would also explain why  $\text{AOD} > 1 \mu\text{m}$  biases are less negative (by about +10%) in TM5 compared to EC-Earth.

### 4.3 ECHAM-HAM

525 The global aerosol-climate model ECHAM6.3-HAM2.3 (ECHAM-HAM in the following) is part of the fully coupled aerosol chemistry climate model ECHAM-HAMMOZ (Tegen et al. (2019), Schultz et al. (2018)). Aerosol microphysical processes in ECHAM-HAM are described with the modal M7 aerosol model (Vignati et al. (2004)) in contrast to ECHAM-SALSA which employs the sectional aerosol scheme SALSA (Kokkola et al. (2018)). The aerosol representation in ECHAM-HAM has been evaluated in Tegen et al. (2019) but using different aerosol emissions (different inventories for anthropogenic and biomass  
530 burning emissions as well as a different sea salt emission parameterisation). For the CTRL experiment the sea salt emission parameterisation from Guelle et al. (2001) was chosen, firstly because the one proposed by Long et al. (2011) and Sofiev et al. (2011) resulted in an underestimation of the sea salt concentrations (Tegen et al. (2019)) and secondly, to be consistent with the CTRL setup of ECHAM-SALSA (Sect. 4.4. However, this comes at the price of larger sea salt particles (on average), resulting in a slightly decreased correlation against AERONET compared to Tegen et al. (2019). The latter, however, may to a certain



535 degree also be affected by different representation errors as Tegen et al. (2019) use 6-hourly data to colocate in time, while  
this study relies on monthly means (Sect. 2.4, particularly Tab. 3). AOD over land is lower than in AERONET or MODIS  
observations (Fig. 10) which may be due to several reasons, for instance because  $\text{NO}_3$  is missing, too low emissions of OA  
or a misrepresentation of SOA (the OA burden in ECHAM-HAM is lower than in most other models, see Fig. 5 and Tegen  
et al. (2019)).  $\text{AOD} < 1 \mu\text{m}$  is overestimated over ocean and dusty regions which is indicated by the stronger overestimation  
540 compared to AATSR-SU (dominated by ocean) than to AERONET (more representative of land). The coarse mode AOD on  
the other hand is underestimated over land (too low compared to AERONET, Fig. 10) but overestimated over the subtropical  
ocean (as can be seen in web visualisation of the results), leading to almost no bias compared to AATSR-SU. Except for  
regions dominated by dust aerosol AE is biased low. The overestimation of AE in dust dominated regions combined with the  
overestimation of fine mode AOD and the longer lifetime of dust particles compared to other models (Fig. 4) indicates a too  
545 small size of dust particles. The underestimation of AE compared to AERONET and AATSR is surprising since fine mode  
AOD is overestimated (Fig. 10). The aerosol size distribution of ECHAM-HAM agrees reasonably well with observations  
(Tegen et al. (2019)) and Tegen et al. (2019) find a positive bias of AE compared to AERONET. This could be related to the  
different sea salt emission parameterisation applied in CTRL or may be affected by temporal sampling errors (Schutgens et al.  
(2016), Sayer and Knobelspiesse (2019)).

#### 550 4.4 ECHAM-SALSA

SALSA is the sectional aerosol microphysics module within the ECHAM-HAMMOZ aerosol-chemistry-climate model (Kokkola  
et al., 2018) alongside the modal aerosol module M7 (Tegen et al., 2019). The implementation of SALSA to ECHAM-  
HAMMOZ and its evaluation against satellite retrievals, ground based remote sensing retrievals, and in situ observations  
has been described by Kokkola et al. (2018). One change in these model simulations compared to those in Kokkola et al.  
555 (2018) are, in addition to using anthropogenic emissions required for AEROCOM III simulations, is using sea salt emission  
parameterisation of Guelle et al. (2001) for the reasons described in the previous section 4.3.

As the atmospheric model is the same in ECHAM-HAM and ECHAM-SALSA, results between the two model configura-  
tions are quite similar. An overall view of the performance of SALSA is that the values fall within the spectrum of model  
ensemble values except for the burdens of BC and SU for which SALSA predicts highest values of all models (Fig. 5). The BC  
560 lifetime is highest among all models (9.6 days, Fig. 4) which explains the high burden. On the other hand, reasons for the high  
 $\text{SO}_4$  burden are not obvious and, since corresponding emissions and lifetimes are comparable with the other models. It may  
hence be related to the oxidation efficiency of sulphate from its precursors (DMS,  $\text{SO}_2$ ).

When comparing the total simulated (clear sky) AOD of SALSA to the observations (Fig. 10), values are biased low com-  
pared to AERONET as well as MODIS Aqua and Terra. The latter is likely due to the positive biases found for the MODIS in-  
565 struments (Fig. 2) especially also because a positive AOD bias is found against the other two satellites (AATSR and MERGED-  
FMI). This indicates, that SALSA underestimates AOD over most of the land area while overestimating AOD over the oceans.  
Exceptions for the underestimation are Australia and North Africa where SALSA exhibit high values for the total AOD. This  
is likely due to the contribution of dust to the AOD and is also reflected in the coarse mode AOD. Compared to AATSR-



SU, the coarse mode AOD of SALSA is significantly overestimated with a normalized bias of +24%, while the AERONET  
570 comparison indicates good agreement over land in  $\text{AOD} > 1 \mu\text{m}$  (NMB=-3%). On the other hand, over regions affected by  
dust, coarse mode AOD is overestimated in SALSA. For example, AERONET sites north of Africa exhibit simulated values  
higher than those measured. While the apparent high overestimation against AATSR-SU may be, to a certain degree, due to  
low biased AATSR-SU data (Fig. 2), these results indicate that possible overestimates in  $\text{AOD} > 1 \mu\text{m}$  are likely due to ocean  
575 regions. Regions with high dust loads also exhibit overestimation of coarse mode AOD. These is in agreement with the findings  
of Kokkola et al. (2018) who find large positive biases in  $\text{AOD} > 1 \mu\text{m}$  over the oceans, in addition to dusty regions. This is  
expected to be due to high simulated relative humidity in ECHAM over the oceans or too high hygroscopicity for SS aerosol.  
It is noteworthy that although coarse mode AOD is overestimated over regions where AOD is dominated by sea salt and dust,  
their emissions are not higher in SALSA (Fig. 3) and it is likely that the simulated size distribution of SALSA is such that SS  
and DU particles influence radiation effectively.

#### 580 4.5 ECMWF-IFS

As part of the Copernicus Atmosphere Monitoring Service (CAMS; <https://atmosphere.copernicus.eu/>), ECMWF runs a ver-  
sion of the IFS model that includes prognostic aerosol and tropospheric chemistry schemes to produce global forecasts of  
atmospheric composition. The underlying meteorological model is essentially identical to that used for operational medium-  
585 range weather forecasting and is documented at <https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/documentation-and-support>, but at a lower  
resolution of 40 km to offset the cost of the extra schemes. The results presented here are from a “cycling forecast” configu-  
ration, that is, a forecast with free-running aerosols and chemical species (no assimilation of atmospheric composition), with  
meteorology reinitialised at 00 UTC each day from operational ECMWF analyses.

The aerosol component is described in Rémy et al. (2019) and based on the earlier work of Morcrette et al. (2009). This  
is an externally-mixed hybrid bin/bulk scheme, consisting of three size bins each for desert dust (up to  $20 \mu\text{m}$  dry radius) and  
590 sea salt (up to  $20 \mu\text{m}$  radius at 80% relative humidity), and bulk tracers for organic matter, black carbon and sulphate aerosol.  
For organic matter and black carbon, there are separate hydrophobic and hydrophilic tracers, with a fixed *ageing* timescale  
for conversion of the former to the latter. There is also an  $\text{SO}_2$  precursor tracer driving the sulphate production via a latitude-  
and temperature-dependent conversion timescale. There is no separate DMS tracer, and no primary sulphate aerosol emission,  
but all sulphate and precursor emissions are treated as  $\text{SO}_2$  (resulting in a seemingly large contribution of  $\text{SO}_2$  in Fig. 3). The  
595 tropospheric chemistry scheme is described in Flemming et al. (2015), but in the version described here this is not directly  
coupled to the aerosol scheme.

Compared to the other AP3 models, the total sea salt emissions and burden are very large, as can be see in Figures 3 and 5.  
Emissions are three times larger than the ensemble mean, but due to a short lifetime (see Figure 4) the burden is only three  
times larger. However, the sea salt contribution to AOD remains similar to other models because the large size distribution  
600 reduces the extinction per unit mass. These are known issues with the emission scheme in this version of the model (based on  
Grythe et al. (2014)), and the subject of ongoing development.



The model also has one of the smallest sulphate burdens, which appears to be the result of both relatively low total sulphur emissions and a short lifetime (Fig. 4). Organic aerosol emissions are higher than most models, although the burden and lifetime are similar to other models. This is likely due to the fact that there is no secondary organic precursor scheme, and secondary organic production is included instead as if it were a primary emission.

Although correlation coefficients for AOD (Figure 11) for this model exhibit relatively high values, there is a significant low bias against all the AOD data-sets (satellite and AERONET, Fig. 10). This is likely related to the relatively short lifetimes of many species compared to other models, which can be seen in Figure 4. There is also a low bias against both AERONET and AATSR AE, suggesting that particles are on average too large; this may well be due at least in part to the unusually high sea salt burden in the model noted above.

#### 4.6 EMEP MSC-W

The EMEP MSCW model is a chemical transport model, designed for policy related applications to combat acid deposition, eutrophication and health adverse air pollution (Simpson et al. (2012)). It calculates the mass concentrations of all main anthropogenic and natural aerosols, contributing to the health related indicators  $PM_{2.5}$  and  $PM_{10}$ . The results presented in the paper were obtained in a model run at  $0.5 \times 0.5^\circ$  grid, driven by 3-hourly ECMWF-IFS meteorology and using ECLIPSE6b emissions (ECLIPSE6a for shipping), both for the year of 2010. The model includes aerosols with diameters up to  $10 \mu m$  and calculates the mass concentrations aerosols in fine and coarse mode. Then, the extinction and absorption coefficients are calculated for the individual aerosol components using mass extinction/absorption coefficients and accounting for aerosol hygroscopic growth (aerosol effective radii, growth factors and specific extinction efficiencies are tabulated) (Schulz et al. (2012)).

The calculated all-sky AOD is -10% lower compared to globally averaged annual AOD from AERONET (correlation 0.76). Comparison with satellite AOD shows suggests underestimations between 34%-51%, and the relative differences here mostly reproduce the biases observed between the satellites (Fig. 2). These results indicate that EMEP underestimates AOD more over the oceans than over land. Evaluation results against those observations for different world regions are inconclusive in terms of model bias (inferred from web visualisation of the results, Appendix C). Furthermore, fine AOD is overestimated by 20% compared with AERONET data and slightly (by only 11%) underestimated compared to AATSR-SU, whereas coarse AOD is considerably underestimated (by 68 and 70% respectively). Consistently with that, the AE is somewhat overestimated (by 36% and 44%), indicating a disproportion between the contributions to AOD from the fine and coarse aerosols. This suggests that either the EMEP model calculates too few coarse particles or the applied MECs are too low (which may be the case for dust, Fig. 6). One of the possible reasons for that is that fine sea salt and dust particles are assumed to have diameters smaller than  $2.5 \mu m$ , so that the extinction due to sea salt and dust aerosols with diameters between  $1-2.5 \mu m$  contributes to the (overestimated)  $AOD < 1 \mu m$  rather than the (underestimated)  $AOD > 1 \mu m$ .

Aerosol specific ODs (Fig. 7) of  $NO_3$  and OA are somewhat larger than the corresponding ensemble median values. This is in agreement with the relatively large loads for those components (Fig. 5) and may be due to the fact that the model calculates both fine ammonium nitrate and coarse  $NO_3$  on sea salt and dust. Also, the OA burdens include both primary sources as well



as anthropogenic and biogenic secondary OA. For the other aerosols, EMEP calculated aerosol loads and AODs are somewhat smaller than the mean / median values. The resulting MECs are in general agreement with the ensemble, with the exception of SO<sub>4</sub>, which is one of the largest (probably due to too effective hygroscopic growth). The latter, however, is compensated by the comparatively low SO<sub>4</sub> burden (SO<sub>x</sub> emissions from ECLIPSE6b used by the EMEP model are smaller than from CMIP6).

640 The small discrepancy between Total AOD and the sum of the aerosol specific AODs is because the modelled BC AOD is only due to anthropogenic emissions (and does not include forest fires) and DU AOD is only due to windblown dust (while some fugitive anthropogenic dust is also included in the total AOD).

Absorption coefficient is diagnosed from BC and dust mass concentrations, using mass-absorption coefficients. Compared to the climatological GAW observations (at RH<40%), the 2010 dry (RH=0%) modelled absorption coefficients are biased low  
645 (by 40%) and the correlation is 0.66, which is a fair result given the crude simulation approach. The dry scattering coefficient is underestimated by 47% on average (R = 0.74).

#### 4.7 GEOS

GEOS is a global Earth system model, containing components for atmospheric circulation and composition, ocean circulation and biogeochemistry, land surface processes, and data assimilation (Rienecker et al. (2008)). The version of GEOS Earth Sys-  
650 tem Model (with a GOCART aerosol module) used for this study is Icarus-3\_3\_p2. The simulations run at a spatial resolution of 1.0° x 1.0° latitude and 72 vertical levels from surface up to 0.01hPa ( 85km) with “replay” mode, denoting simulations driven by the reanalysis meteorological fields from the Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for Research and Applications version 2 (MERRA2). This is done to assure that weather and climate patterns are accurately represented for the simulated time. The GOCART module includes major aerosol types of black carbon (BC), organic carbon (OC), brown carbon (BRC),  
655 sulphate, nitrate, ammonium, dust, and sea salt (Chin et al. (2002), Colarco et al. (2010), Bian et al. (2019)). The emissions of dust, sea salt, DMS, and biogenic VOCs are model calculated time-varying fields. All other aerosol emissions used in this study follow the instruction of the AeroCom Phase III History experiment. The major updates on this GOCART version include newly implemented nitrate and ammonium (Bian et al. (2017)), anthropogenic and biomass burning SOAs, as well as separate treatment of optical properties for brown carbon (from biomass burning source) and organic carbon (from all other sources).

660 The emissions of aerosols and their precursors used in this GEOS study are similar to those of the ensemble median except OA, which is closer to the ensemble mean (Fig. 3). The simulated atmospheric burdens are within 30% of the ensemble median with the exception of dust and nitrate (Fig. 5). The higher dust burden given by GEOS can be explained by its long lifetime (with 9.7 days the longest among the models, Fig. 4). However, the higher nitrate burden cannot simply be explained with its lifetime (Fig. 5). According to the AeroCom Phase III nitrate experiment, the majority of nitrate formed in the atmosphere is  
665 associated with atmospheric dust and sea salt in coarse mode (Bian et al. (2017)). A careful budget analysis for nitrate would need more information in its chemistry formation and particle size distribution, which is beyond the scope of this paper.

In general, aerosol optical fields (i.e. AE, AOD, Sc. coeff., and Abs. coeff.) simulated by GEOS agree well with various ground station and satellite observations (Fig. 10) and show comparatively high correlation (mostly >0.7, Fig. 11). The es-



670 established biases are close to the MEDIAN results, except for the  $AOD > 1 \mu\text{m}$ , which shows overestimations both against AERONET and AATSR-SU (Fig. 10). This is consistent with the high dust and sea salt burdens (Fig. 5) as discussed above.

#### 4.8 GFDL-AM4

The Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory Atmospheric Model version 4 has cubed-sphere topology with  $96 \times 96$  grid boxes per cube face (approximately 100 km grid size) and 33 levels in the vertical, contains an aerosol bulk model that generates mass concentration of aerosol fields (sulphate, carbonaceous aerosols, sea salt and dust) from emissions and a “light” chemistry mechanism designed to support the aerosol model but with prescribed ozone and radicals (Zhao et al., 2018a). The model is driven by time-varying boundary conditions, and natural and anthropogenic forcings developed in support of CMIP6 (Eyring et al., 2016), except for ship emission of  $\text{SO}_2$  (BC ship emission is included), which has unintentionally not been included. The dust is emitted from constant sources with their erodibility expressed as a function of surrounding topography (Ginoux et al., 2001). The sea salt emissions are based on Mårtensson et al. (2003) and Monahan et al. (1986) for fine and coarse mode particles, respectively. Aerosols are externally mixed except for black carbon, which is internally mixed with sulphate. The optical properties of the mixture are calculated by volume weighting of their refractive indices using a Mie code. In the present configuration, the model is run with observed sea surface temperatures (SSTs) and sea-ice distribution (Taylor et al., 2000). In addition, the wind components are nudged, with a 6-hour relaxation time, towards the NCEP-NCAR re-analysis provided on a T62 Gaussian grid with 192 longitude equally spaced and 94 latitude unequally spaced grid points (Kalnay et al., 1996). This resolution is lower than in GFDL-AM4, which may create a low bias of aerosol emission depending on surface winds.

685 In Fig. 3, aerosol emission from GFDL-AM4 are within 25% of the ensemble mean, except for  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{SO}_4$ , which are the lowest among all models essentially because ship emissions are missing in the simulations. The lower emissions of sulphur compounds does not translate in low atmospheric burden (Fig. 5) as their lifetime is among the highest between the models (Fig. 4), either because of weak oxidation or deposition. On the other hand, the other aerosols have a shorter lifetime than other models (Fig. 4) while their burdens are well within 25% the AP3 mean values (Fig. 5). The opposite bias between sulphur compounds and the other aerosols suggest an issue with oxidation of  $\text{SO}_2$  rather than wet or dry deposition. In Figure 6 the MEC values are within the diversity of the AP3 models except for sea salt which is lower by a third. This may be because of the cap on hygroscopic growth at 97% relative humidity or the emission parameterisation, as the scheme of Mårtensson et al. (2003) generates much less sea salt sub-micron particles than Monahan et al. (1986). An alternative explanation is that dry deposition velocity is too strong. The GFDL-AM4 AODs from individual species (Fig. 7) are within the AP3 model diversity except BC, which has the highest value most likely due to the treatment of its internal mixing with sulphate. This high bias will convert into high bias of fine mode AOD, as it appears in Figure 10 where the positive biases of fine mode AOD compare to AERONET and AATSR-SU are the largest among all models. Other normalized biases are relatively weak compared to other models (Figure 10). AOD bias is slightly negative against AERONET and the different satellites. The differences in these biases mostly represent the biases found for the different satellites at AERONET stations (Fig. 2). However, it is important to note, that this model version reported all-sky AOD, while most other models report AOD at clear-sky, which would likely shift the biases towards increased underestimation of AOD (e.g. Sect. 4.11, see also AeroCom optics questionnaire (supplementary



material)). Overall, optical properties are well correlated with observations with coefficients greater than 0.74 except for the scattering and absorption coefficients provided by the surface in-situ data with values at 0.49 and 0.57, respectively (Fig. 11).  
705 Concerning the Angstrom exponent, one set of value (AERONET) gives poor correlation (0.52) while another (ATSR-SU) provides reasonable correlation (0.74).

#### 4.9 GISS-OMA

GISS-OMA is the short name of the GISS ModelE Earth system model (Kelley et al. (in preparation)), coupled with the One-Moment Aerosol scheme (OMA; Bauer and Tsigaridis (submitted)). In OMA, all aerosols are externally mixed and tracked  
710 by their total mass only, except for sea salt and dust where 2 and 5 size-resolved sections are used, respectively. OMA tracks sulphate, nitrate, ammonium, carbonaceous aerosols (black and organic carbon), dust (up to  $16\ \mu\text{m}$ ) and sea salt (up to  $4\ \mu\text{m}$ ).

Relevant to this work, a random maximum cloud overlap is calculated in the column, which is then used to define a totally cloudy or totally cloud-free state in radiation, using a pseudo-random number generation. This is described in Hansen et al. (1983). For all-sky AOD calculations 100% relative humidity is used, while for clear-sky we use ambient. This applies to  
715 the whole atmospheric column, as dictated by the random maximum cloud overlap calculation. In GISS-OMA there is no calculation from AE. Instead, we calculate it from the AOD calculations in radiation, which are probably underestimating AOD at 870nm by about 10%.

The results from the evaluation of optical properties shown in Figs. 10 and 11 show a comparatively good agreement with the observations in terms of bias and correlation. The simulated CS AOD shows a bias of -26% against AERONET, which  
720 is slightly lower than the ensemble median. In comparison with the satellites, biases of -14% and -19% are found against the MERGED-FMI data-set and AATSR-SU. Similar to the other models, and as explained above, the comparison with MODIS AODs indicates larger negative biases (and slightly decreased correlation) as these satellites show the overall highest AODs (Fig. 2). Considering these relative biases established for the satellites at AERONET sites, AE,  $\text{AOD} > 1\ \mu\text{m}$  and  $\text{AOD} < 1\ \mu\text{m}$  show similar results when compared with AERONET and AATSR-SU, with biases of the order of -20 to -40% for all three  
725 variables.

A possible explanation for these underestimated AODs could be that burdens of  $\text{SO}_4$  and sea salt are comparatively low (Fig. 5), which is also reflected by the fact that both  $\text{AOD} < 1\ \mu\text{m}$  and  $\text{AOD} > 1\ \mu\text{m}$  appear to be underestimated, both against AERONET and AATSR-SU. In case of sea salt, however, the comparatively low burden is likely due to low emissions (Fig. 3) and may, to a certain degree, be compensated by a relatively high SS MEC (+44% compared to median, Fig. 6). A comparatively  
730 low burden for nitrate (-33%) is compensated by the largest MEC (ca. +166%). The increased dust emissions, together with an increased lifetime yield a comparatively high burden (Fig. 5) and the fact that the corresponding DU OD is close the the median (Fig. 7) may be due to the low dust MEC (6). In case of BC, the low burden (likely arising from short lifetime) is compensated by the highest BC MEC among the models.

Compared to the in-situ measurements, GISS-OMA shows good agreement (NMB=1%) and comparatively high correlation  
735 with surface scattering, and fairly good performance also for the surface absorption coefficients (NMB=-24%), with comparatively low correlation (R=0.52).



#### 4.10 INCA

The INCA (INteraction with Chemisty and Aerosols) and ORCHIDEE land surface modules has been coupled to LMDZ dynamical core to conform the LMDZORINCA model. It has been run with forced sea-surface temperatures, sea-ice concentrations and with nudged monthly wind-fields from ERA-Interim. The comparisons with the climatological simulations without nudged-winds shows slightly larger emissions of those aerosols driven interactively by wind at the surface Balkanski et al. (2004), Schulz et al. (2009). The aerosol modelling in INCA relies on a modal approach to represent the size distribution of DU, SS, BC, NO<sub>3</sub>, SO<sub>4</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub> and OA with a combination of accumulation and coarse log-normal modes (both soluble and insoluble). Since these runs use a simplified chemistry scheme, DMS emissions are prescribed and not interactively calculated, and the secondary organic aerosols are not simulated. Hence the organic aerosols are underestimated by this model (low burden in Fig. 5). The current version is modelling BC as internally mixed with sulphate (Wang et al. (2016)), where the refractive index is estimated using the Garnet-Maxwell method. This results in an increased and more accurate BC absorption. On the other hand, the dust refractive index is deduced from dedicated experiments Biagio et al. (2017, 2019) showing a marked impact on the longwave part of the spectrum. This results in a less absorbing dust aerosol. BC emissions are derived from inventories and are equally partitioned between surface and altitude.

The emissions of dust and sea salt have values close to the ensemble mean. With LMDZORINCA the global emitted mineral dust is 1560 Tg/yr (Fig. 3) is within the interval proposed by Kok et al. (2017) for fine and coarse modes. The simulations are based on a coarse insoluble mode (MMD= 2.5  $\mu\text{m}$  and  $\sigma$ ). Meanwhile, an improved version with 4 modes (Albani et al. (in preparation)) shows that including larger particles implies significant higher emissions, although burdens do not increase as substantially as emissions due to the small lifetime of larger particles (Checa-Garcia et al. (in preparation)). Sea salt the emissions amount to 4030 Tg/yr and include accumulation and coarse soluble modes (the super-coarse mode is calculated but not included in this estimation). OA emissions (48.3 Tg/yr) are underestimated compared to other models (ensemble mean 98.2 Tg/yr) because SOA formation is not accounted for. This also explains the comparatively low burden of OA (0.79 Tg, Fig. 5). All lifetimes are close to the ensemble central values but for sea salt which has a lifetime of 3.1 days.

Our values of MEC are close to the ensemble mean. For those species modelled by a single mode (like dust) we expect less spatial variation of MEC compared to other models with several modes. Regarding optical properties, the AE is highly underestimated both against AERONET and AATSR-SU (ca. -65%). This is due to a smaller dynamical response for wavelength in the visible with respect to other models. The total AOD indicates a slight overestimation compared to the multi-model central values, which is likely due to the overestimations of SO<sub>4</sub> and dust contributions to optical depth, which may partially be compensated by the expected lower values of OA optical depths (Fig. 7).

#### 4.11 NorESM2

The atmosphere module in NorESM2 (NorESM2-MM, see Seland et al. (in preparation)), CAM6-Nor (Olivie et al. (in preparation)), is an updated version of CAM5.3-Oslo, for which optical properties have been described and validated by Kirkevåg et al. (2018). Seen in conjunction with these studies, the results presented here can be interpreted as follows. The dust burden is



770 the lowest (5.7 Tg) among the AP3 models, and also low compared to the burden in the un-nudged NorESM2-LM simulation  
(9.9 Tg), and in CAM5.3-Oslo with fSST and nudged meteorology for year 2000 (16.3 Tg). The lifetime of dust is 1.9 days  
and is about the same in all these simulations. This is consistently also the lowest among the AP3 models. The large drop  
in burden from CAM5.3-Oslo and the un-nudged NorESM2 is to a large degree a result of tuned dust emissions, while the  
change between the un-nudged (1870 Tg/yr) and the nudged (1090 Tg/yr) NorESM2 simulations with fSST is consistent with  
775 the considerably lower U10 (especially over land) and dust emissions in nudged vs. free meteorology. While NorESM2 sea salt  
emissions are among the lowest for AP3, the burden is mid-range, and with the highest MEC (4.1 m<sup>2</sup>/g), this model has the  
highest sea salt AOD values, which is reflected in the positive coarse mode bias against AATSR satellite observations (Fig 10).  
The relatively high MEC is likely due to SS particle sizes which are shifted towards the more optically efficient accumulation  
mode, compared to other AP3 models. Sea salt MEC was even higher in CAM5.3-Oslo (5.0 m<sup>2</sup>/g), but a change in assumed  
780 RH (from all-sky to clear-sky) for hygroscopic growth brought about a ca. 19% reduction. The excessive sea salt AOD is  
a result of tuning of the CMIP6 control simulation for NorESM2 with respect to radiative balance at TOA. Compared with  
AERONET (mainly continental stations) AOD is underestimated, particularly by fine mode particles. One possible reason may  
be that nitrate aerosols and anthropogenic SOA are not taken into account in the model. Despite missing anthropogenic SOA,  
our OA burden is still among the highest compared to the other models. Due to the overestimated extinction by sea salt, AE  
785 is more underestimated compared to satellite (ocean areas dominate) than to AERONET (mainly continental stations), but the  
over-all AE bias is close to the AeroCom AP3 mean. The large underestimate in surface scattering and absorption compared  
to EBAS is consistent with the underestimated AOD over the continents, but as for the majority of the models, the negative  
bias here is stronger than for the vertically integrated AOD values (compared to AERONET). The high negative bias in surface  
absorption is consistent with the low dust burden, resulting from the low emissions and short lifetimes, compared to the other  
790 models (Figs. 3-5)

#### 4.12 OsloCTM3

The OsloCTM3 is a global, offline CTM driven by 3-hourly meteorological data from the European Centre for Medium Range  
Weather Forecast (ECMWF) Integrated Forecast System (IFS) model, and is an updated version of the OsloCTM2 used in  
previous AeroCom phases (Søvde et al. (2012), Lund et al. (2018)). The model is run in a 2.25°x2.25° horizontal resolution,  
795 with 60 vertical levels (the uppermost centered at 0.1 hPa) using the Community Emission Data System (CEDS) (Hoesly et al.  
(2018), van Marle et al. (2017)) emission inventory. The treatment of transport and scavenging, as well as individual aerosol  
modules, is described in detail in Lund et al. (2018) and references therein. In OsloCTM3, the absorption properties have  
been updated, with BC mass absorption coefficient (MAC) following formula in Zanatta et al. (2016) and a weak absorption  
implemented for OA (Lund et al. (2018)). OsloCTM3 has a BC MAC value of 12 m<sup>2</sup>/g and BC MEC is among the highest  
800 between the models (Fig. 6). The implementation of stronger absorption contributes to the high positive bias (+73%) in surface  
absorption compared to the surface in-situ observations and in contrast to the other models, which tend to underestimate  
surface absorption at the in-situ locations (Fig. 10). The burden of nitrate is low, and sulphate high compared to the other  
models, whereas all other aerosol species in OsloCTM3 are close to model mean values. An evaluation of the burdens and



AOD simulated by the OsloCTM3 for year 2010 CEDS emissions against in-situ and remote sensing observations is provided  
805 by Lund et al. (2018). The optical properties for aerosols emitted from biomass burning assume internally mixed aerosol and  
thus, the reported AOD from BC and OA includes only fossil fuel and biofuel emissions (Fig. 7). This results in lower AOD  
from OA for OsloCTM3 compared to the other models. The combined BC+OA contribution to AOD amounts to 0.0086. Only  
all-sky (AS) AOD is provided from OsloCTM3 (Tab. A1 for models that provided CS). This is done because a reliable sub-  
grid scale parameterisation for RH is unavailable, in order to avoid the AOD used in the radiative transfer calculations to be  
810 biased low or high. Compared with the observations, AOD is slightly underestimated, both at AERONET sites (-6%) and the  
satellite comparisons suggest slightly higher underestimations. The low bias (ca. -20%) for AE is consistent between ground  
and satellite retrievals and is also reflected in the low bias for coarse and high bias for fine AOD (Fig. 10). In contrast to surface  
absorption, the surface scattering is biased low compared to observations, which would result in a strong low bias in single  
scattering albedo. Correlation with the observations is generally among the higher ones compared to the other models (Fig.  
815 11).

#### 4.13 SPRINTARS

SPRINTARS (Takemura et al. (2005, 2009)), coupled with a coupled atmosphere-ocean general circulation model (MIROC,  
Tatebe et al. (2019)), is used in this study although there is also a version coupled with a global cloud resolving model, NICAM  
(e.g., Sato et al. (2016)). The calculated dust and sea salt emissions with nudged wind field by meteorological reanalysis data  
820 are smaller than those without nudging since the emission amounts strongly depend on the wind speed near the surface (see also  
Sect. 4.11), which are proportional to 3rd and 3.41th powers, respectively. The 6-hourly reanalysis data cannot represent the  
gust of wind. The difference between the case with and without nudging is larger in finer horizontal resolution. SPRINTARS  
has one of the finest resolutions among the participating models in this study. SPRINTARS estimates the global and annual  
total emissions of dust and sea salt to be 1390 Tg/yr and 3390 Tg/yr, respectively (Fig. 3) with the horizontal resolution of T85  
825 (approx.  $1.4^\circ \times 1.4^\circ$ ). Both the lifetime of sea salt and dust are short compared to the other models (Fig. 4), and in case of dust  
this may be attributed to strong wet deposition over the outflow regions. This, combined with the low emissions, explains the  
low burdens of these natural species (Fig. 5 which is consistent with the high underestimation of the  $AOD > 1 \mu\text{m}$  (Fig. 10). On  
the other hand, the calculated AE by SPRINTARS is underestimated, which would rather suggest an overestimation of particle  
size. However, for this model, this could be attributed to an inappropriate computation of standard deviations of log-normal  
830 size distributions of  $\text{SO}_4$  and OA, when calculating optical properties (based on the Mie theory). An internal investigation has  
confirmed that the diagnosed AE calculated from prognostic mass mixing ratio of each aerosol component is around 1.5 over  
the industrialized and biomass burning regions, with the appropriate standard deviations of the size distributions. This revision  
(which is not shown in this article) results in a better AOD performance, with an global annual mean of 0.112, as opposed to  
0.072 found in this study (Fig. 7).

835 Overall, the underestimated dust and sea salt sources result in an underestimation and low correlation in all optical properties  
that have been investigated in this study (Figs. 10 and 11). Consistently, the largest negative biases are found in the evaluation  
of the coarse AOD, both for AERONET and AATSR (Fig. 4).



## 5 Conclusions

In this study a comprehensive inter-comparison of 14 models from the Phase III AeroCom Control experiment has been performed. The focus was on the assessment of the modelled column integrated aerosol optical properties AOD, AOD <math>< 1 \mu\text{m}</math>, AOD >

The results of the model evaluation against all ground based observations are summarised in Fig. 12. It shows results of the AeroCom MEDIAN and MEAN (triangles) and corresponding uncertainties estimated from the results of the individual models (plotted as circles). The AE is underestimated by about -9% and shows considerable spread between the models. This suggests that, on average, the simulated particle size is overestimated. This may imply a too short aerosol lifetime or too large fraction of coarse particles present in the models. It may also impact the atmospheric radiation budget due to shifts in the wavelength dependency of aerosol scattering. While the underestimated AE suggests too coarse particles in the models, the analysis of the AOD > https://aerocom-evaluation.met.no/overall.php?project=aerocom&exp=hygro#).

The recent findings from the trends analysis by Mortier et al. (2020, submitted) indicate, that observed model biases remain mostly constant over time and are not particular for the investigated year 2010.

Surface dry scattering and absorption coefficients are underestimated by about -40% and -30%, respectively (at GAW sites, Fig. 1). Both variables show considerable spread between the models, similar to the results for AOD >



be somewhere between 0% and 40%. Thus, on average, the measurements should show larger scattering due to hygroscopic growth. However, the models overestimate the scattering enhancement factor due to hygroscopic growth, as found by Burgos et al. (2020, submitted) (Fig. 5 therein). From a qualitative perspective, a potential overestimation of the scattering enhancement factor in the models agrees well with our finding that models underestimate (ambient) AOD less than dry scattering (by about a factor of 2).

Altogether it is noteworthy that most models underestimate consistently several of the different extensive aerosol optical properties (AOD, fine and coarse mode AOD, scattering and absorption coefficients), both derived from in-situ and remote sensing sensors. This suggests that aerosol loads might be underestimated in the models for the year 2010. Such underestimates are partly compensated by different aerosol optical models and, for instance, higher mass extinction coefficients.

In future studies the biases found in this study should be investigated, for instance, by incorporating different aspects into the analysis, such as model resolution (particularly vertical), profile extinction data (to investigate "where" the mass is located) and column water content (to assess hygroscopic growth). In addition, a comparison with surface mass concentration measurements could provide valuable insights related to the question, whether the models are missing mass or whether assumptions about optical properties are causing the underestimated scattering coefficients and optical depth. Such an analysis would certainly benefit also from a better global coverage of surface measurement sites, since the analysis performed in this study is mostly representative for Europe and the US, where the density of GAW sites is highest (Fig. 1).

*Code and data availability.* Most of the data analysis was performed using the open source software pyaerocom (version 0.9.0, release upcoming). All additional analysis scripts are stored in a private GitHub repository and can be provided upon request. All data used in this study is stored on servers of the Norwegian Meteorological Institute and can be provided upon request.

## Appendix A: GAW site evaluation biases

Figs. A1 and A2 show the established biases (NMB) of near surface scattering and absorption coefficients, at all GAW sites (Sect. 2.1.2) used in this paper.

## Appendix B: Sensitivity studies related to spatiotemporal representativity results

As introduced in Sect. 2.4 and summarised in Tab. 3, several tests have been performed in order to investigate the spatiotemporal representativity and associated uncertainties. The results of tests related to temporal representativity errors are shown in Figs. A3, A4, the former being an analysis of monthly vs. 3hourly AOD data vs. AERONET and the latter being an analysis of hourly vs. monthly using surface in-situ absorption data. Both tests do not indicate that the magnitude of these uncertainties in the network-averaged annual statistics exceed 10% in NMB or 0.15 in correlation. Particularly, the results from the in-situ



test differ by only 2.4% in NMB which may be attributed to the fact that these data generally shows more continuous sampling coverage throughout the 24h of each day as these techniques do not rely on the availability of sunlight.

An investigation of spatial representativity errors was done for AERONET AODs, by choosing a subset of sites considered representative based on Wang et al. (2018). The result is shown in Fig. A5 and also does not show substantial differences in light of the diversity found in between the models (Figs. 10 and 11).

### Appendix C: Pyaerocom and web visualisation

Most of the analysis in this study was performed with Pyaerocom (Github: <https://github.com/metno/pyaerocom>, Website: <https://pyaerocom.met.no/>). It is an open source python software project and is being developed and maintained at the Norwegian Meteorological Institute, focussing on model evaluation for aerosol models and the AeroCom initiative.

A dedicated website is associated to this study and allows to explore the data from many angles and includes interactive visualisations of performance charts, scatter plots, bias maps and individual station timeseries data, for all models and observation variables, as well as barcharts summarising regional statistics. All results from the optical properties evaluation discussed in this paper are available online at: <https://aerocom-evaluation.met.no/overall.php?project=aerocom&exp=PIII-optics2019-P#> (last access: 20.12.2019)

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**Table 1.** Observations used in this study, including relevant meta data information (Ver: Data Version; Lev: Data level; Freq: Original frequency of data used to derive monthly means; Res: Resolution of gridded data product; Clim: Use of a multi-annual climatology or not; #st: Number of stations / coordinates, with observations used; Date: Retrieval date from respective data base).

Data ID and Source	Variable	Ver.	Lev.	Freq.	Res.	Clim.	#st.	Date
GAW EBAS	Abs. coeff.		3	hourly		Y	39	2019/12/18
GAW EBAS	Sc. coeff.		3	hourly		Y	37	2019/12/18
AERONET Sun	AE	3	2	daily		N	250	2019/09/20
AERONET Sun	AOD	3	2	daily		N	240	2019/09/20
AERONET SDA	AOD<1um	3	2	daily		N	226	2019/09/20
AERONET SDA	AOD>1um	3	2	daily		N	226	2019/09/20
MODIS <sub>t</sub> Terra	AOD	6.1	3	daily	1x1	N	2235	2019/11/22
MODIS <sub>a</sub> Aqua	AOD	6.1	3	daily	1x1	N	2241	2019/11/25
AATSR-SU Swansea	AOD	4.3	3	daily	1x1	N	2055	2016/09/30
AATSR-SU Swansea	AE	4.3	3	daily	1x1	N	2055	2016/09/30
AATSR-SU Swansea	AOD<1um	4.3	3	daily	1x1	N	2055	2016/09/30
AATSR-SU Swansea	AOD>1um	4.3	3	daily	1x1	N	2055	2016/09/30
MERGED-FMI	AOD			monthly	1x1	N	2080	2019/10/21



**Table 2.** Models used in this study, along with horizontal grid resolution, number of vertical levels (Levs) and key references.

Name	Lat. / Lon.	Levs.	References
CAM5-ATRAS	1.9 x 2.5	30	Matsui (2017), Matsui and Mahowald (2017)
EC-Earth3-AerChem	2.0 x 3.0	34	van Noije et al. (2014), van Noije et al. (2020, in preparation)
TM5	2.0 x 3.0	34	van Noije et al. (2014), Bergmann et al. (in preparation)
ECHAM-HAM	1.9 x 1.9	47	Tegen et al. (2019)
ECHAM-SALSA	1.9 x 1.9	47	Bergman et al. (2012), Kokkola et al. (2018)
ECMWF-IFS	0.4 x 0.4		Rémy et al. (2019)
EMEP	0.5 x 0.5	20	Simpson et al. (2012), Schulz et al. (2012)
GEOS	1.0 x 1.0	72	Colarco et al. (2010),
GFDL-AM4	1.0 x 1.2	33	Zhao et al. (2018b)
GISS-OMA	2.0 x 2.5	40	Koch et al. (2006, 2007), Tsigaridis et al. (2013)
INCA	1.3 x 2.5	79	Balkanski et al. (2004), Schulz et al. (2009)
NorESM2	0.9 x 1.2	32	Kirkevåg et al. (2018), Olivie et al. (in preparation), Seland et al. (in preparation)
OsloCTM3	2.2 x 2.2	60	MYHRE et al. (2007); Myhre et al. (2009)
SPRINTARS	0.6 x 0.6	56	Takemura et al. (2005)



**Table 3.** Results from sensitivity studies related to spatio-temporal representation errors. AERONET\* indicates that two different site selection schemes were used (see text and Fig. A5). See also Tab. A2 for an assessment of satellite resampling sensitivities.

Test type	Var.	Model	Freq.	Obs	$\Delta_{\text{NMB}} [\%]$	$\Delta_R$	Fig.
Temporal	Abs. coeff.	TM5 (INSITU)	hourly	In-situ (GAW)	-2.3	+0.20	A4
Temporal	AOD	ECMWF-IFS	3-hourly	AERONET	+6.9	-0.10	A3
Spatial	AOD	ENSEMBLE	monthly	AERONET*	-3.6	-0.04	A5



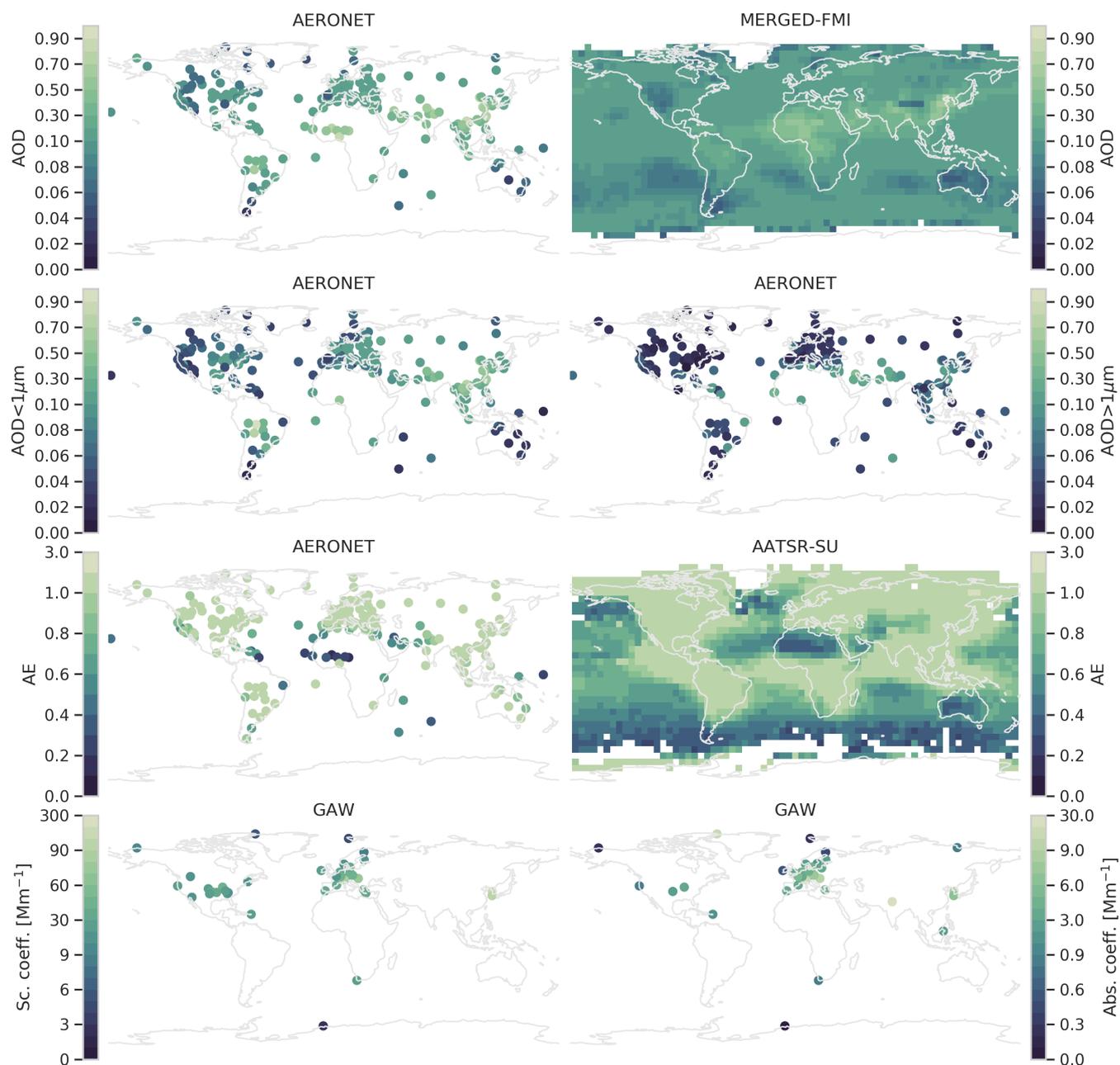
**Table A1.** Model names and corresponding AeroCom database IDs. Also indicated is whether models diagnosed a clear-sky AOD (CS) or not and which models were included in the AeroCom mean and median ensemble.

Name	AeroCom ID	CS AOD	Ensemble
CAM5-ATRAS	CAM5-ATRAS_AP3-CTRL	Y	Y
EC-Earth3-AerChem	EC-Earth3-AerChem-met2010_AP3-CTRL2019	Y	Y
TM5	TM5-met2010_AP3-CTRL2019	Y	Y
ECHAM-HAM	ECHAM6.3-HAM2.3-met2010_AP3-CTRL	Y	Y
ECHAM-SALSA	ECHAM6.3-SALSA2.0-met2010_AP3-CTRL	Y	Y
ECMWF-IFS	ECMWF-IFS-CY45R1-CAMS-CTRL-met2010_AP3-CTRL	Y	N
EMEP	EMEP_rv4_33_Glob-CTRL	N	Y
GEOS	GEOS-i33p2-met2010_AP3-CTRL	N	Y
GFDL-AM4	GFDL-AM4-met2010_AP3-CTRL	N	Y
GISS-OMA	GISS-ModelE2p1p1-OMA_AP3-fsST	Y	Y
INCA	INCA_AP3-CTRL	Y	N
NorESM2	NorESM2-met2010_AP3-CTRL	Y	Y
OsloCTM3	OsloCTM3v1.01-met2010_AP3-CTRL	N	Y
SPRINTARS	MIROC-SPRINTARS_AP3-CTRL	Y	Y

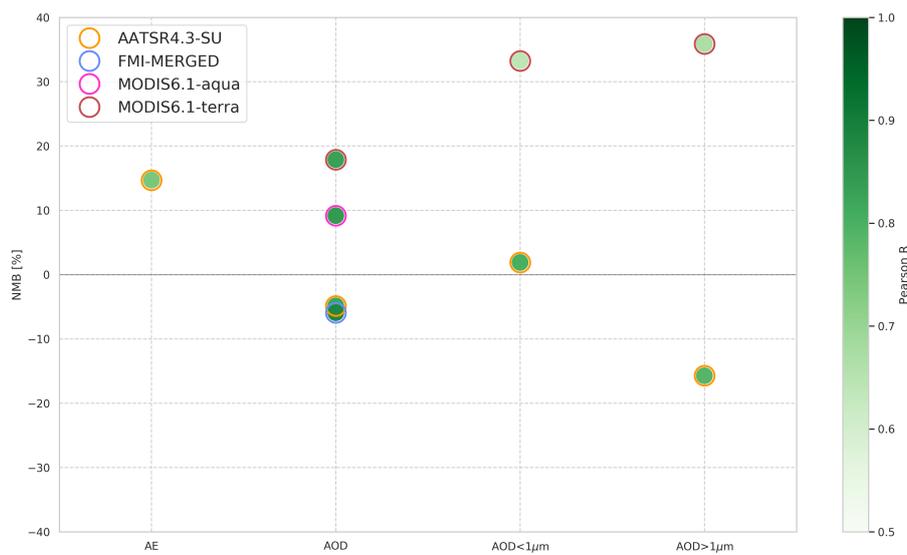


**Table A2.** Comparison of statistics (NMB and R) retrieved when co-locating models with satellite data a) in monthly resolution and  $5^\circ \times 5^\circ$  horizontally with requirement of at least 7 daily values to compute a monthly mean, as done in this study (*Low*) and b) in daily resolution and in highest available horizontal resolution from both data-sets (*High*).

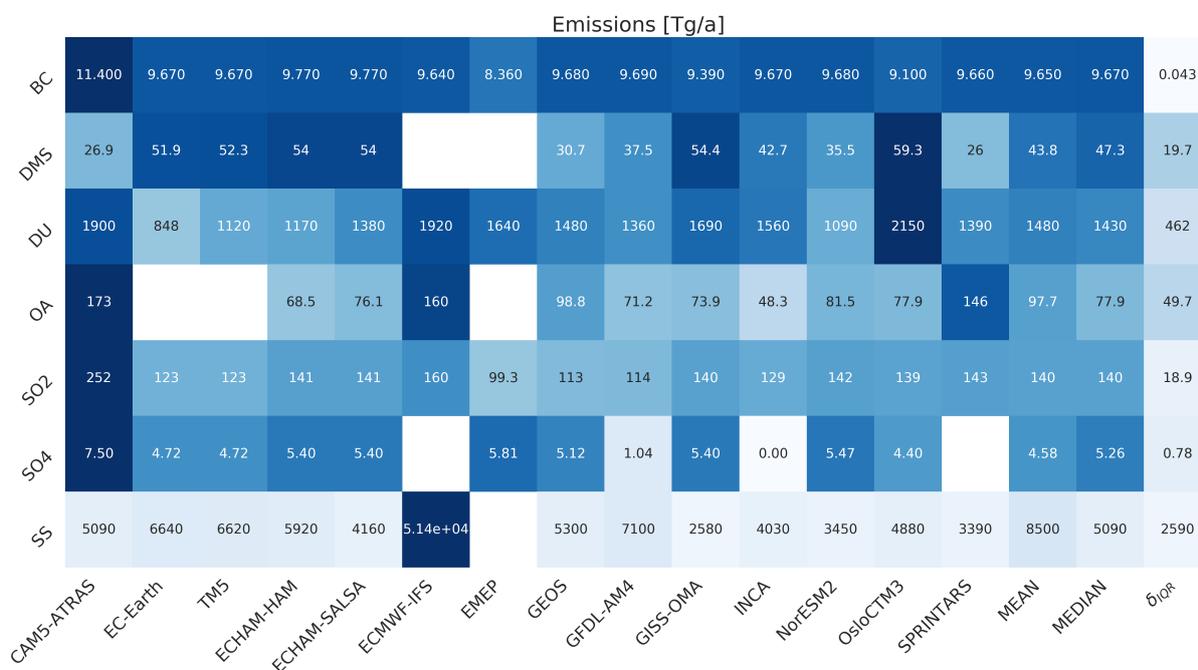
Model	Satellite	Variable	Statistics:		R	
			Resolution:	NMB [%]	Low	High
CAM5-ATRAS	AATSR4.3-SU	AOD	-1.8	-2.1	0.67	0.51
	MODIS6.1-aqua	AOD	-25.9	-20.4	0.58	0.36
	MODIS6.1-terra	AOD	-33.3	-28.2	0.58	0.36
ECMWF-IFS	AATSR4.3-SU	AE	-47.3	-36.9	0.74	0.65
		AOD	-19.2	-22.8	0.79	0.70
	MODIS6.1-aqua	AOD	-35.5	-24.4	0.64	0.51
EMEP	MODIS6.1-terra	AOD	-41.9	-31.5	0.62	0.51
	AATSR4.3-SU	AE	36.6	42.6	0.67	0.50
		AOD	-34.4	-30.4	0.73	0.58
		AOD<1 $\mu$ m	-10.9	-2.6	0.74	0.57
		AOD>1 $\mu$ m	-69.8	-69.3	0.64	0.54
	MODIS6.1-aqua	AOD	-45.4	-40.3	0.66	0.48
OsloCTM3	MODIS6.1-terra	AOD	-50.8	-45.7	0.66	0.48
	AATSR4.3-SU	AOD	-12.4	-13.4	0.83	0.69
	MODIS6.1-aqua	AOD	-27.4	-28.3	0.72	0.52
SPRINTARS	MODIS6.1-terra	AOD	-34.6	-35.2	0.72	0.51
	AATSR4.3-SU	AE	-51.1	-41.4	0.59	0.52
	TM5	AE	2.9	8.7	0.74	0.62
		AOD	-1.8	-3.9	0.75	0.55
		AOD<1 $\mu$ m	3.4	3.4	0.81	0.66
		AOD>1 $\mu$ m	-9.8	-14.6	0.64	0.41
	MODIS6.1-aqua	AOD	-19.9	-18.2	0.73	0.53
	MODIS6.1-terra	AOD	-27.8	-25.9	0.72	0.52



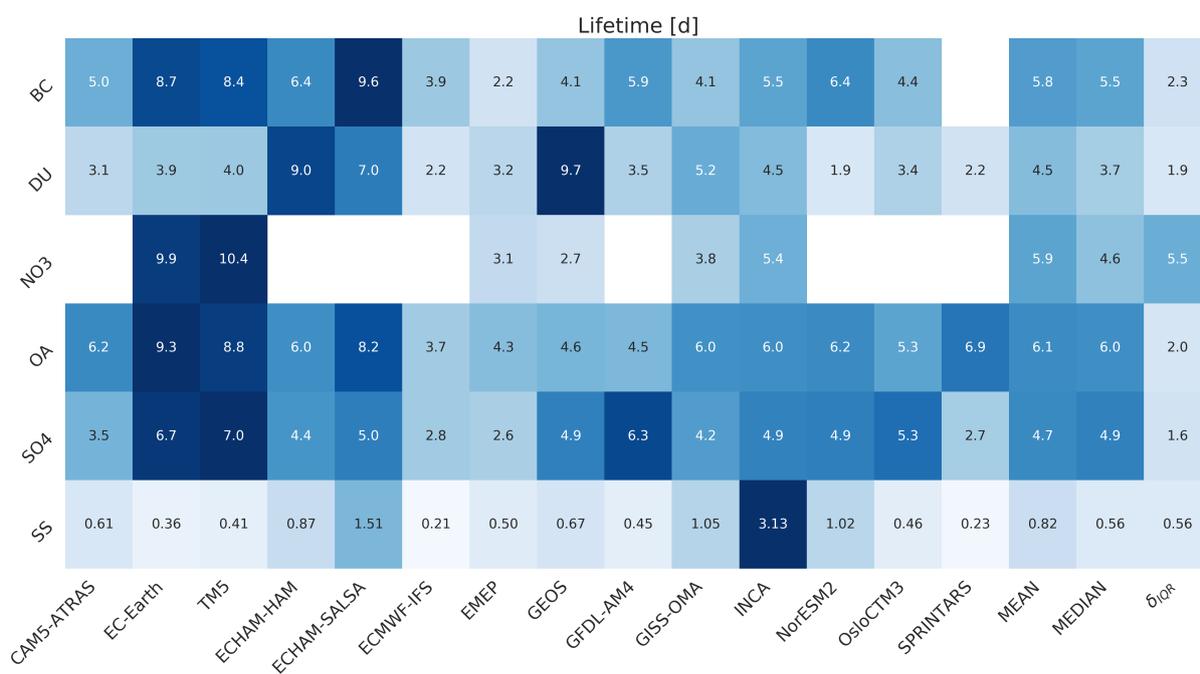
**Figure 1.** Yearly averages of AODs from AERONET and merged satellite data-set (top panel), fine and coarse AOD from AERONET (2nd panel), AE from AERONET and AATSR (3rd panel) as well as surface in-situ observations of scattering and absorption coefficients.



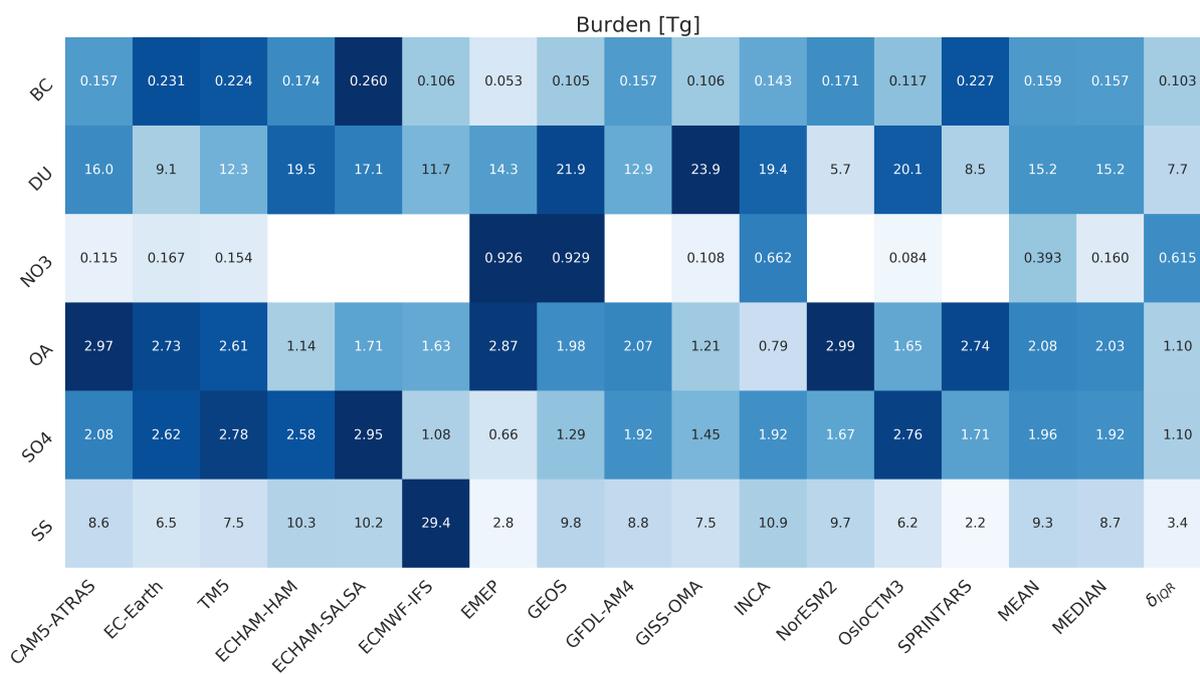
**Figure 2.** NMBs from satellite evaluation against AERONET for different variables. Also plotted are the corresponding correlation coefficients in green colors. Note that fine and coarse AOD from MODIS terra is not further used in this study.



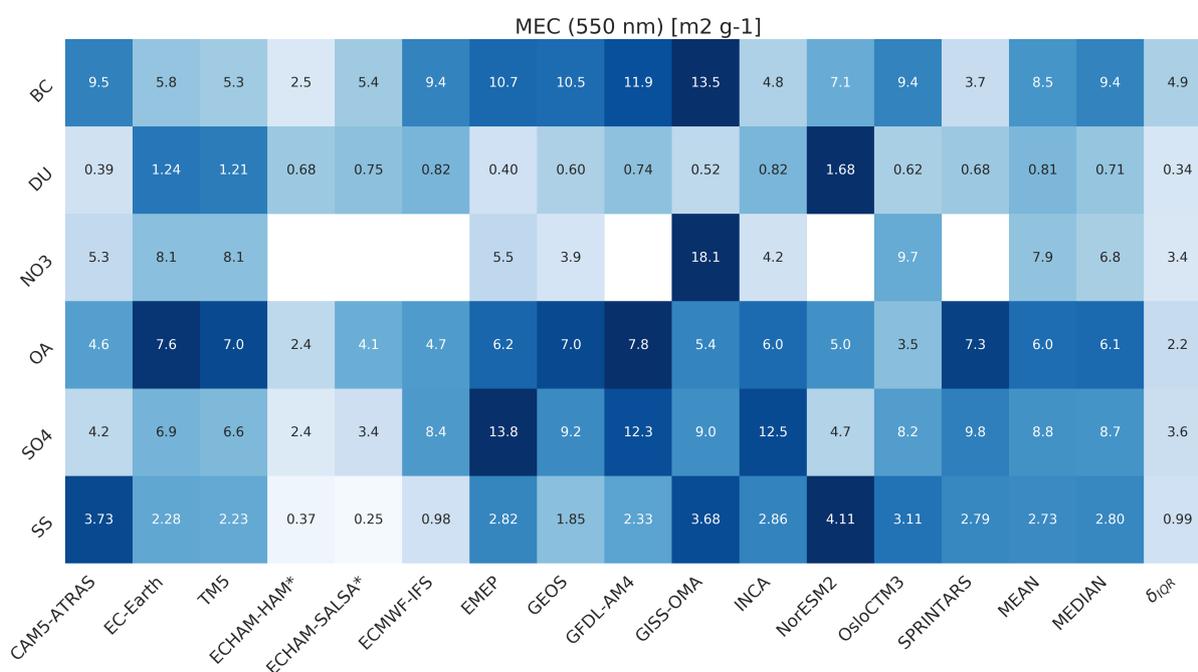
**Figure 3.** Global emissions of major aerosol species and precursors. Units are full molecular weight and for OA, the total organic weight is used. Note that only major species are included and that other potentially provided species (e.g. NO<sub>x</sub> or NH<sub>3</sub>, VOCs) are not shown. The rightmost columns show mean, median and spread of the results from the individual models, the latter being computed as the half difference between 1st and 3rd quantiles. Colors are scaled to min and max row-wise in order to highlight differences between the models.



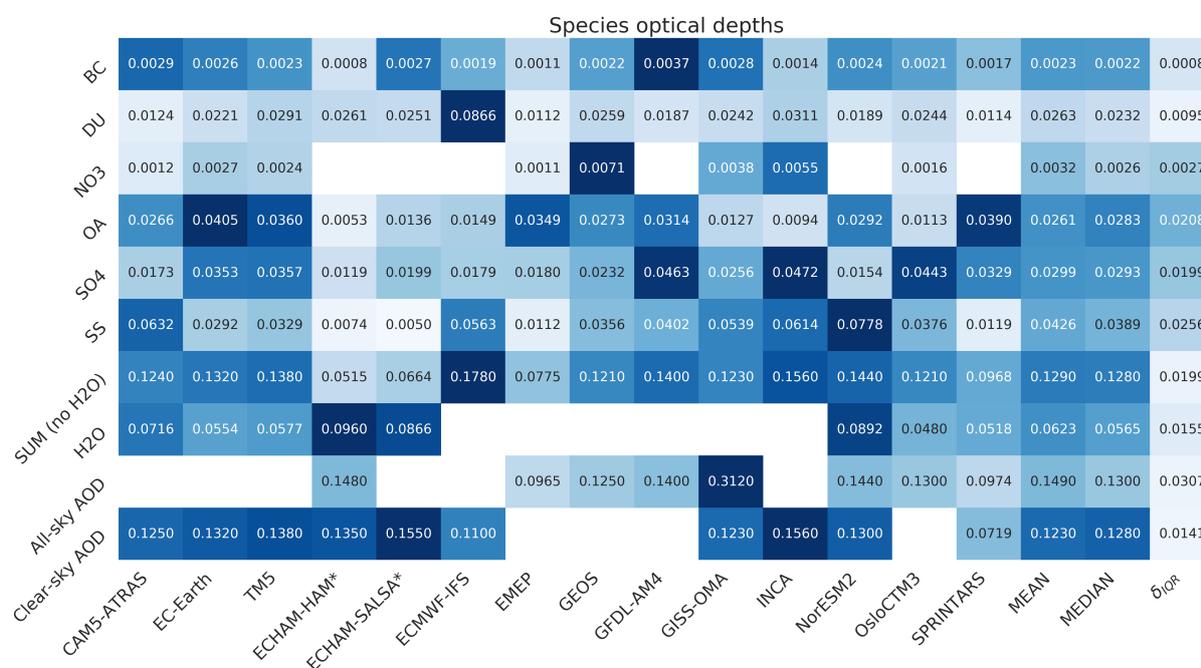
**Figure 4.** Global lifetimes in days for all major aerosol species, computed from burdens (Fig. 5) and total deposition (wet + dry). A more detailed description of this plot type is provided in Fig. 3.



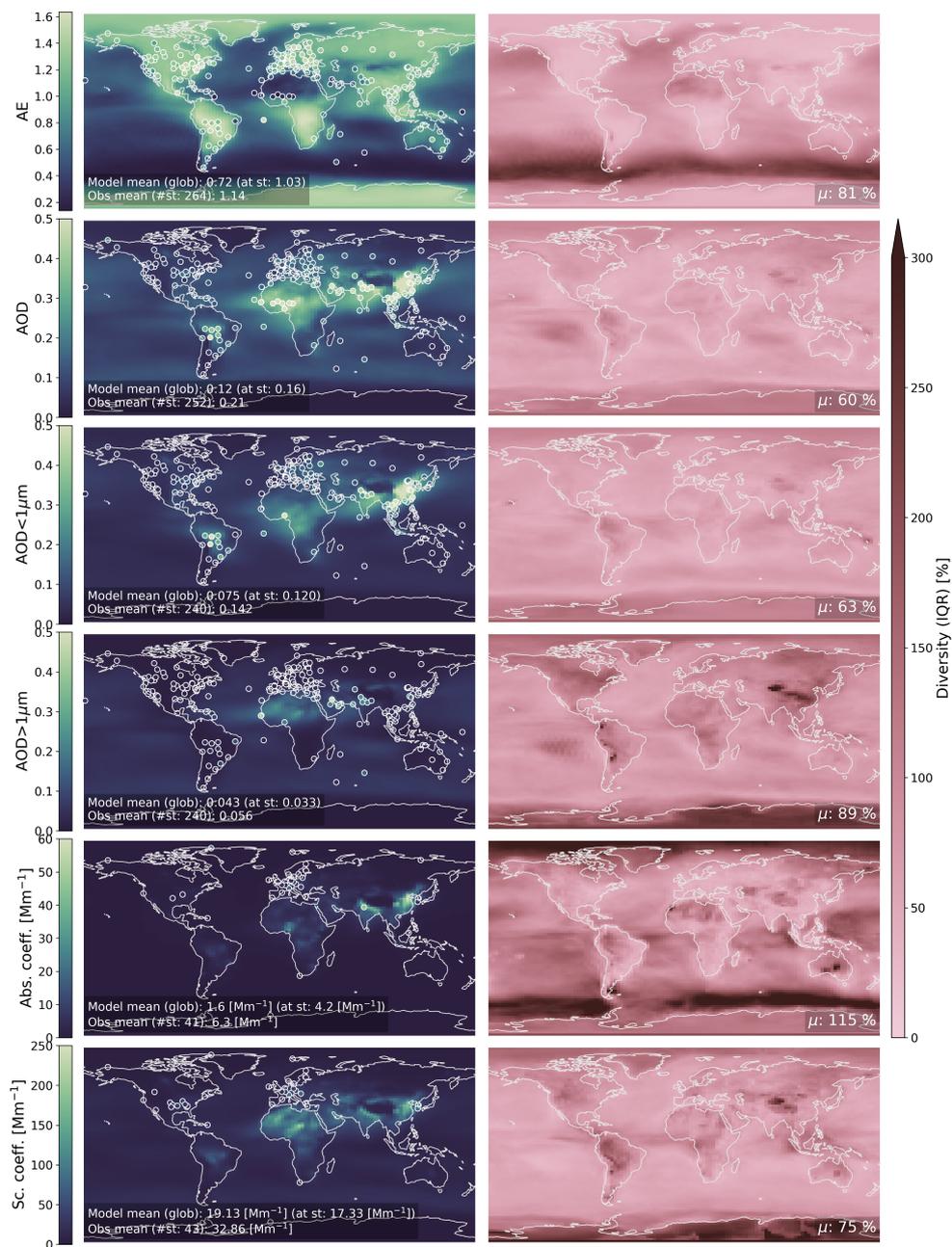
**Figure 5.** Global annual burdens of major aerosol species in units of Tg. A more detailed description of this plot type is provided in Fig. 3.



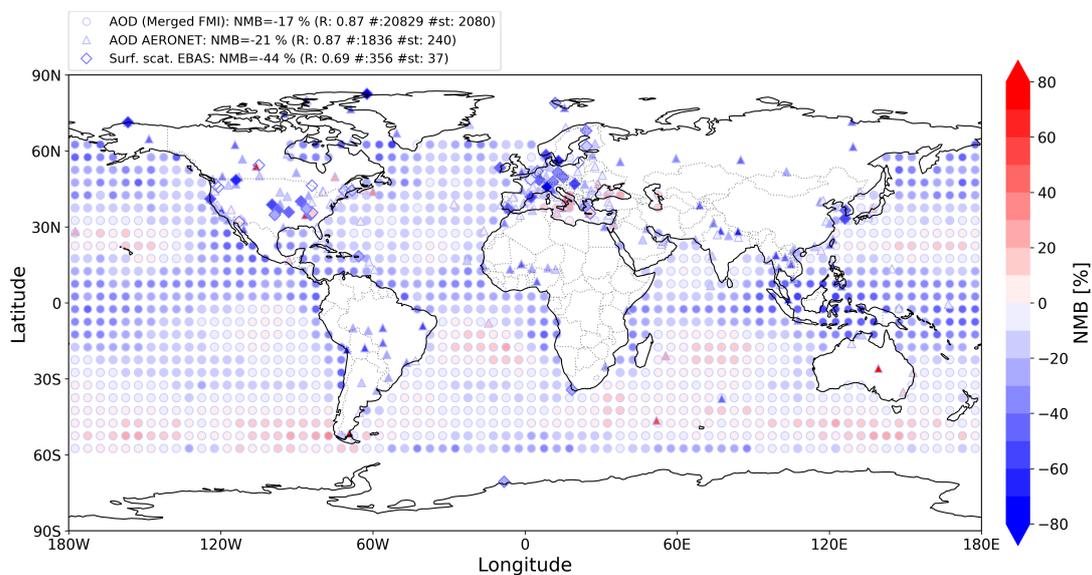
**Figure 6.** Globally averaged columnar MECs of models for all major aerosol species. The MEC for each species  $i$  is computed from  $OD_i/LOAD_i$  (Figs. 5, 7). Note that the two ECHAM models reported the  $OD_i$  fields at dry conditions (indicated with a star, Fig. 7) and thus, show comparatively small MECs for the hydrophilic species. Therefore, they were excluded for the computation of mean, median and diversity shown in the rightmost columns. Hence, A more detailed description of this plot type is provided in Fig. 3.



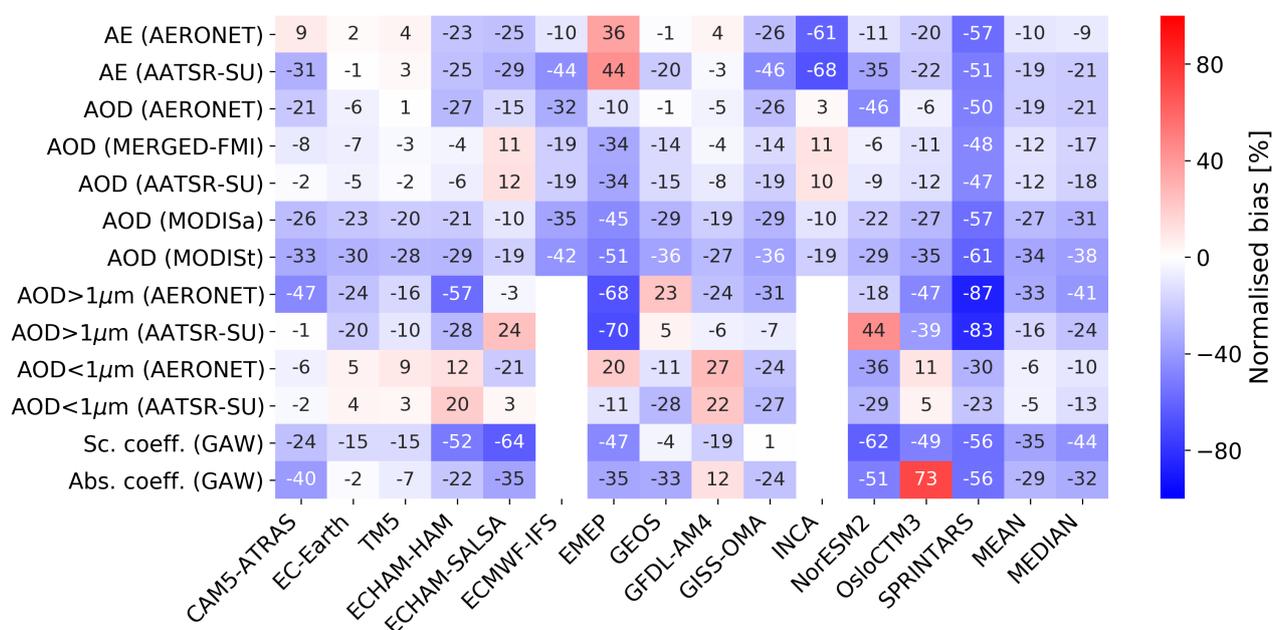
**Figure 7.** ODs from individual species as well as the sum and, dependent on availability clear-sky and all-sky AOD. Please note that for OsloCTM3 an additional OD of 0.0086 due to biomass burning was reported (combination of OA and BC) which is not included here. Like in Fig. 6, the two ECHAM models were excluded for the computation of mean, median and diversity, since dry speciated ODs were reported. A more detailed description of this plot type is provided in Fig. 3.



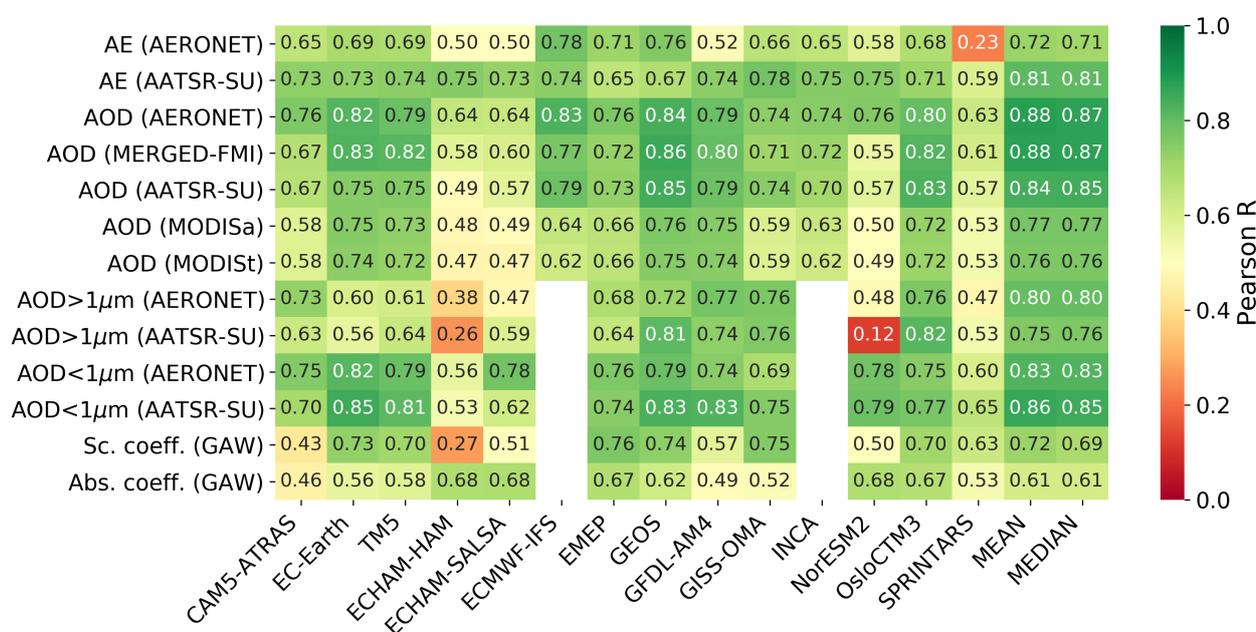
**Figure 8.** Left: maps showing yearly averages of relevant variables from the ensemble model as well as mean values from corresponding ground-based network used (circles). Also shown are the yearly mean values from model (both global and at obs. stations) as well as the observation mean from all stations. Right: diversity fields of ensemble mean calculated using standard deviation of the individual results normalised by the mean (Textor et al. (2006))



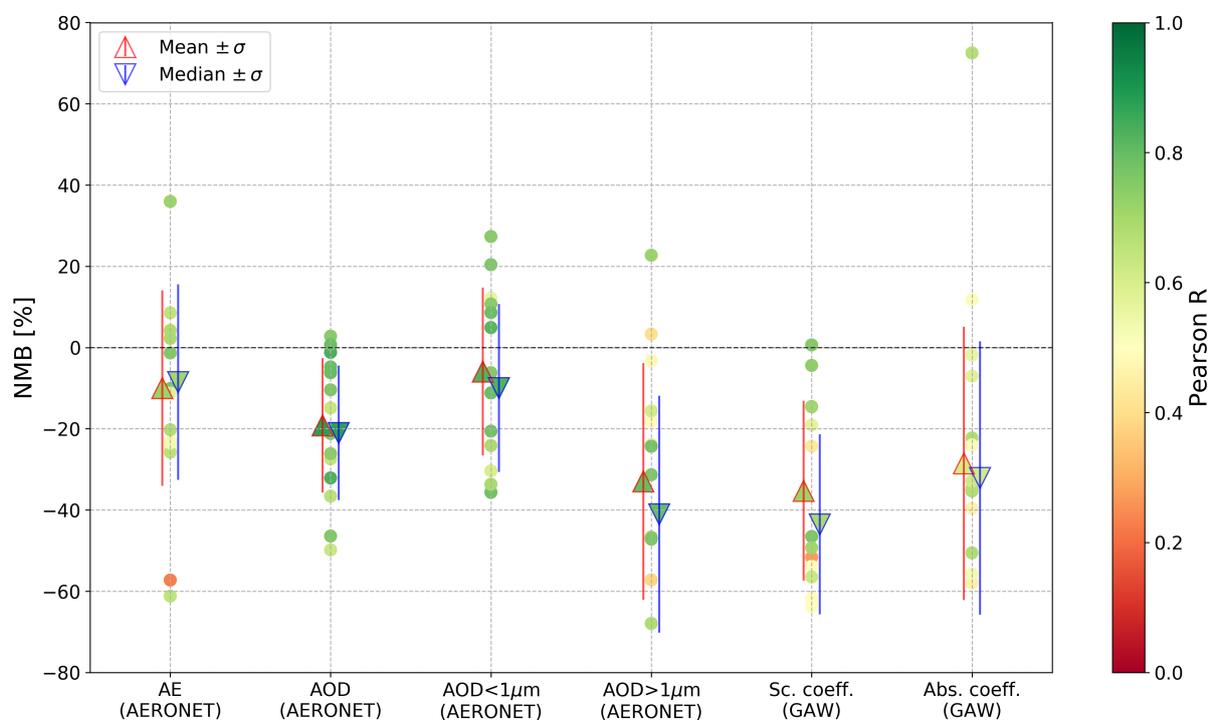
**Figure 9.** Figure showing NMB in percent of the ensemble median AOD against the merged satellite AOD data-set (circles, only ocean locations are displayed) and AERONET (triangles) as well as surface scattering coefficient against the in-situ sites (diamond). The edge colors of the markers correspond to the respective global average NMB, which is also indicated in the legend as well as Pearson correlation coefficient and total number of monthly data points and number of stations respective grid points for the Merged FMI product.



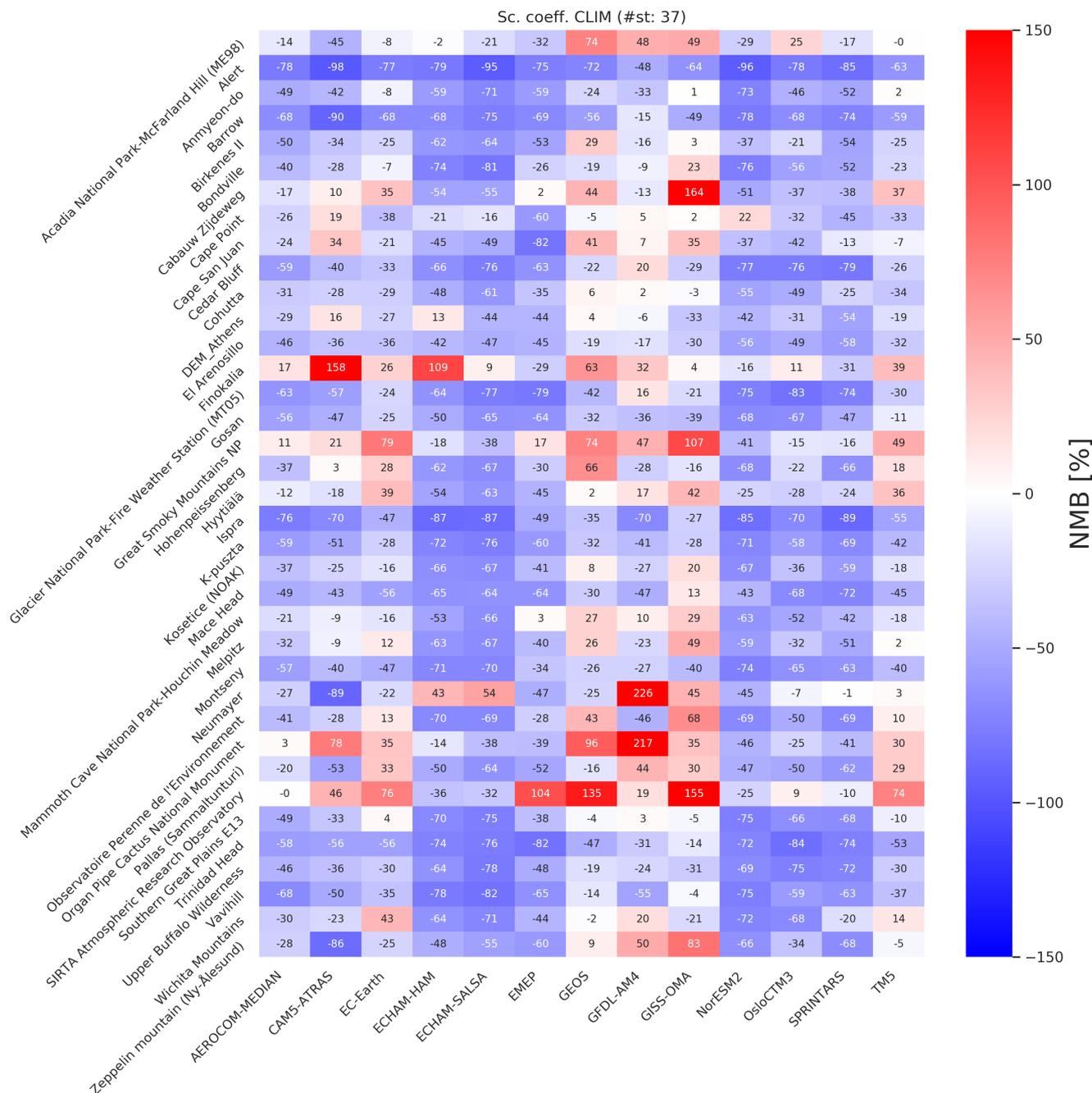
**Figure 10.** Normalised mean bias (NMB) computed from the monthly collocated data for each model (columns) and observation / variable combination (rows). For the  $5^\circ \times 5^\circ$  satellite products, area weights were applied to compute the average bias. Please note that the biases do not represent global averages but the site / sampling locations of each data-set with more weight given to regions with higher spatial density (see e.g. Fig. 1). Please also note potential offsets in the absolute biases arising from uncertainties in the observation retrievals, particularly for the satellite products (Sect. 2.5 and Fig. 2).



**Figure 11.** Pearson correlation coefficients (R) computed from the monthly collocated data for each model (columns) and observation / variable combination (rows). For the  $5^\circ \times 5^\circ$  satellite products, area weights were applied to the monthly values. Please note further remarks on representativity in Fig. 10.

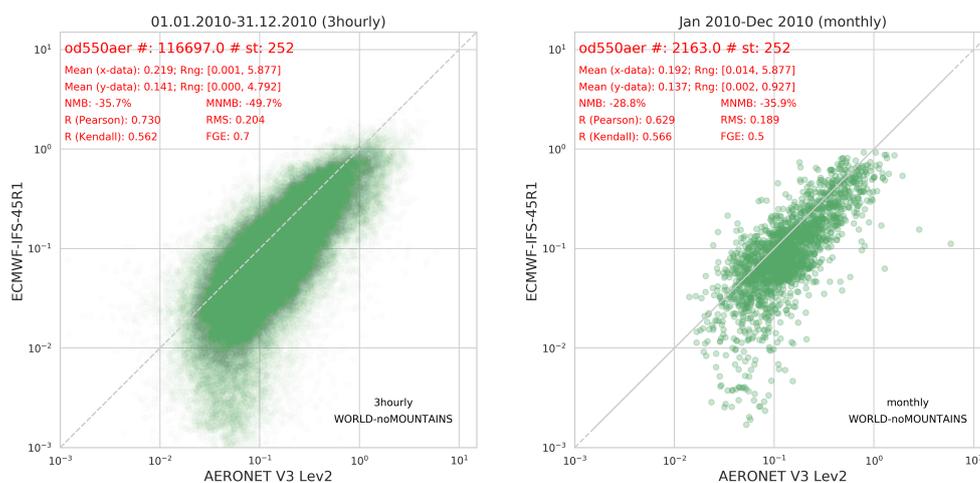


**Figure 12.** Overall results of optical properties evaluation for all models and the AeroCom ensemble model. NMB Biases of all variables for AeroCom median (blue triangles) and mean (red triangles) as well as those from individual models (circles). Pearson correlation coefficients are plotted in red-yellow-green colors (same as in Fig. 11). Also included is the standard deviation of NMBs from the models for each variable (red and blue error bars).

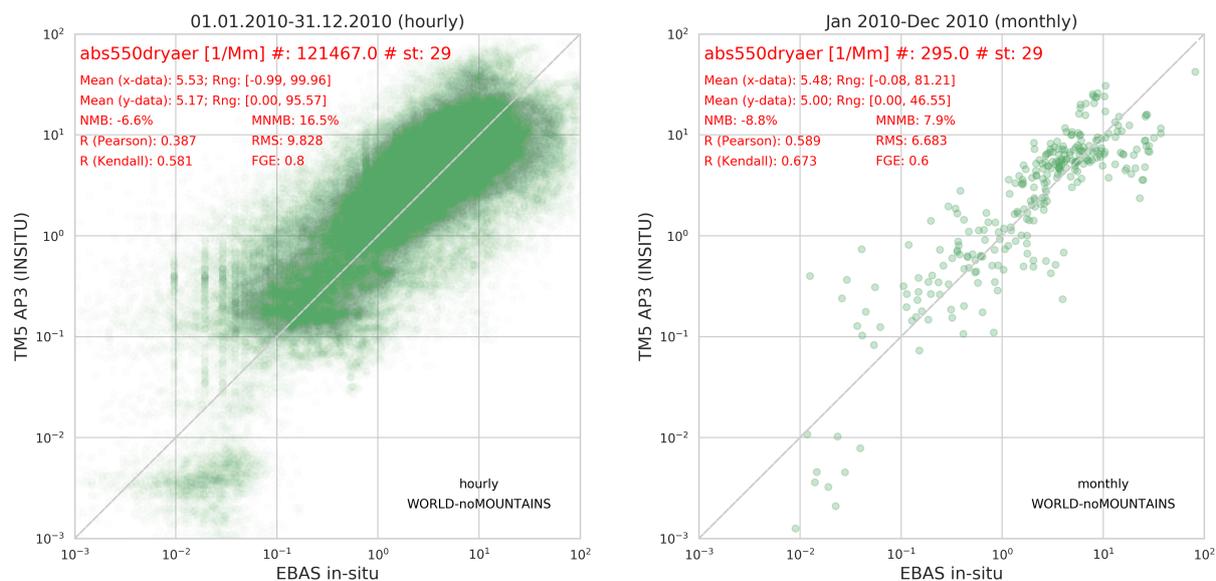


**Figure A1.** Model biases of surface dry scattering at all GAW in-situ sites that had sufficient temporal coverage to compute monthly climatology.

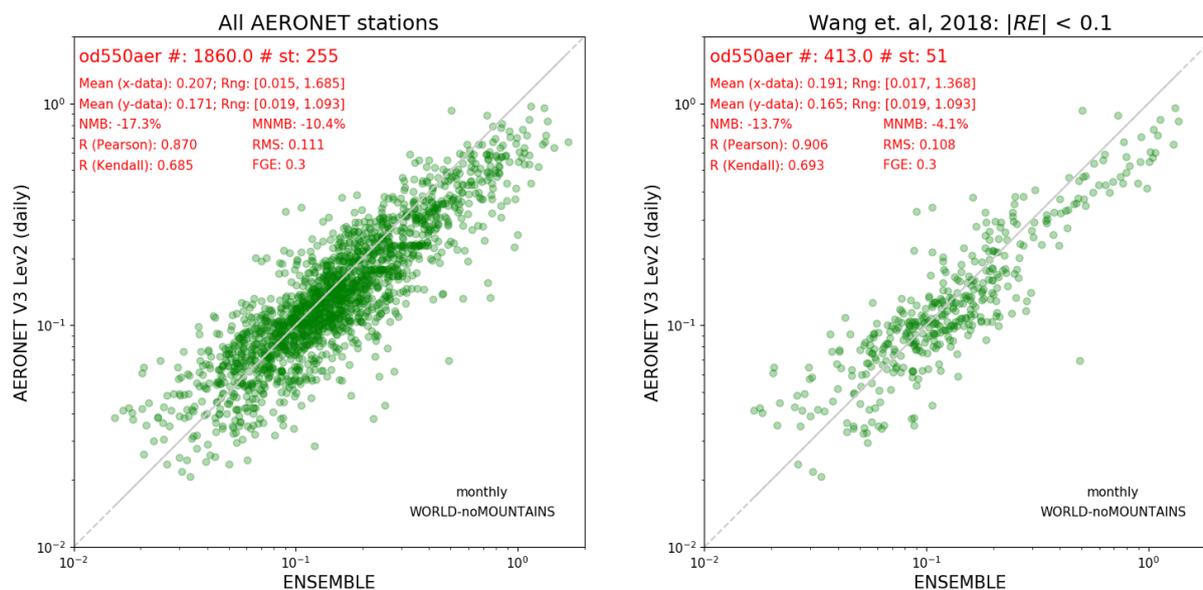




**Figure A3.** Scatter plot showing results of 3-hourly (left) vs. monthly (right) colocation of AOD from ECMWF-IFS model against AERONET all points data. Also included are statistical results.



**Figure A4.** Scatter plot showing results of hourly (left) vs. monthly (right) colocation of in-situ surface absorption from TM5 model (from AeroCom INSITU experiment, i.e. different version than the one used in this study) evaluated at GAW stations. Also included are statistical results.



**Figure A5.** Scatter plot showing collocation results of the ENSEMBLE model AOD evaluated at all available AERONET stations (left) and evaluated only at stations with small spatial representativity errors, selected based on the results from Wang et al. (2018)