



# Global maps of aerosol single scattering albedo using combined CERES-MODIS retrieval

Archana Devi<sup>1</sup>, Sreedharan K Satheesh<sup>1,2,3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Centre for Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences, Indian Institute of Science, Bengaluru, India

<sup>2</sup> Divecha Centre for Climate Change, Indian Institute of Science, Bengaluru, India

<sup>3</sup> DST Centre of Excellence in Climate Change, Indian Institute of Science, Bengaluru, India

*Correspondence to:* Archana Devi (archana.shiva13@gmail.com)

**Abstract.** Single Scattering Albedo (SSA) is a leading contributor to the uncertainty in aerosol radiative impact assessments. Therefore accurate information on aerosol absorption is required on a global scale. In this study, we have applied a multi-satellite algorithm to retrieve SSA using the concept of ‘critical optical depth.’ Global maps of SSA were generated following this approach using spatially and temporally collocated data from Clouds and the Earth’s Radiant Energy System (CERES) and Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) sensors on board Terra and Aqua satellites. The method has been validated using the data from aircraft-based measurements of various field campaigns. The retrieval uncertainty is  $\pm 0.03$  and depends on both the surface albedo and aerosol absorption. Global mean SSA estimated over land and ocean is 0.93 and 0.97, respectively. Seasonal and spatial distribution of SSA over various regions are also presented. The global maps of SSA, thus derived with improved accuracy, provide important input to climate models for assessing the climatic impact of aerosols on regional and global scales.

## 1 Introduction

Atmospheric aerosols play a significant role in the Earth’s radiation budget (IPCC, 2013). The climatic impact of aerosols depends on their absorption and scattering properties, quantified by Single Scattering Albedo (SSA). Even a slight reduction in SSA can change the aerosol radiative forcing from cooling to warming, depending on the underlying surface albedo (Kaufman et al., 2001; Chand et al., 2009). However, the lack of an accurate global aerosol absorption database has led to SSA being the largest contributor to the total uncertainty in aerosol radiative impact assessment (IPCC, 2013).

The high spatio-temporal variability in aerosol properties entails the need for observations on a global scale (Dubovik et al., 2002; Levy et al., 2007; Remer et al., 2008; Hammer et al., 2018). Satellite data, despite its



inherent limitation associated with an inverse problem, can provide the global perspective required in analysing spatio-temporal aerosol characteristics (Torres et al., 2002; Lenoble et al., 2013). However, it is difficult to quantify the absorption over bright surfaces (Kaufman and Joseph, 1982; Ahn et al., 2014; Jethva et al., 2018). Hence, quantifying the aerosol absorption over land regions using satellite-based remote sensing remains a challenge even now (Torres et al., 2013; Jethva and Torres, 2019).

Various studies have ascertained the inadequacy of single-sensor data in the accurate retrieval of aerosol absorption (Kaufman et al., 2001; Zhu et al., 2011). Dawn of the A-Train satellite constellation (Anderson et al., 2005) with spatially and temporally near-collocated observations facilitates multi-satellite retrieval of aerosol absorption (Eswaran et al., 2019; Hsu et al., 2000; Hu et al., 2007, 2009; Jeong and Hsu, 2008; Narasimhan and Satheesh, 2013; Satheesh et al., 2009). However, all these multi-sensor retrievals are in the Ultra Violet (UV) wavelengths, and SSA is extrapolated to visible wavelengths using spectral dependence of assumed particle size distribution. Satheesh and Srinivasan (2005) defined the concept of “critical optical depth” ( $\tau_c$ ) and introduced a method to retrieve SSA in the visible region by combining ground-based and satellite measurements. The method was validated/demonstrated over many locations, including the desert location of Solar Village in Saudi Arabia, using Aerosol Robotic Network (AERONET) data.

In this paper, we have utilized the concept of  $\tau_c$  and further extended the methodology to develop the combined CERES-MODIS retrieval algorithm to derive regional and global maps of aerosol absorption (550 nm) using multi-satellite data. The concept of  $\tau_c$ , which forms the scientific basis for the development of this retrieval algorithm is illustrated in Section 2. The various steps involved in the retrieval algorithm are detailed in the Section 3, data and methodology. Section 4 presents the validation of SSA derived using this approach using aircraft measurements from various field campaigns. The global maps of SSA thus retrieved, its comparison with SSA from Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI), and the seasonal distribution of SSA over many regions are presented in Section 5. Summary and conclusions are provided in Section 6.

## 2 Critical optical depth

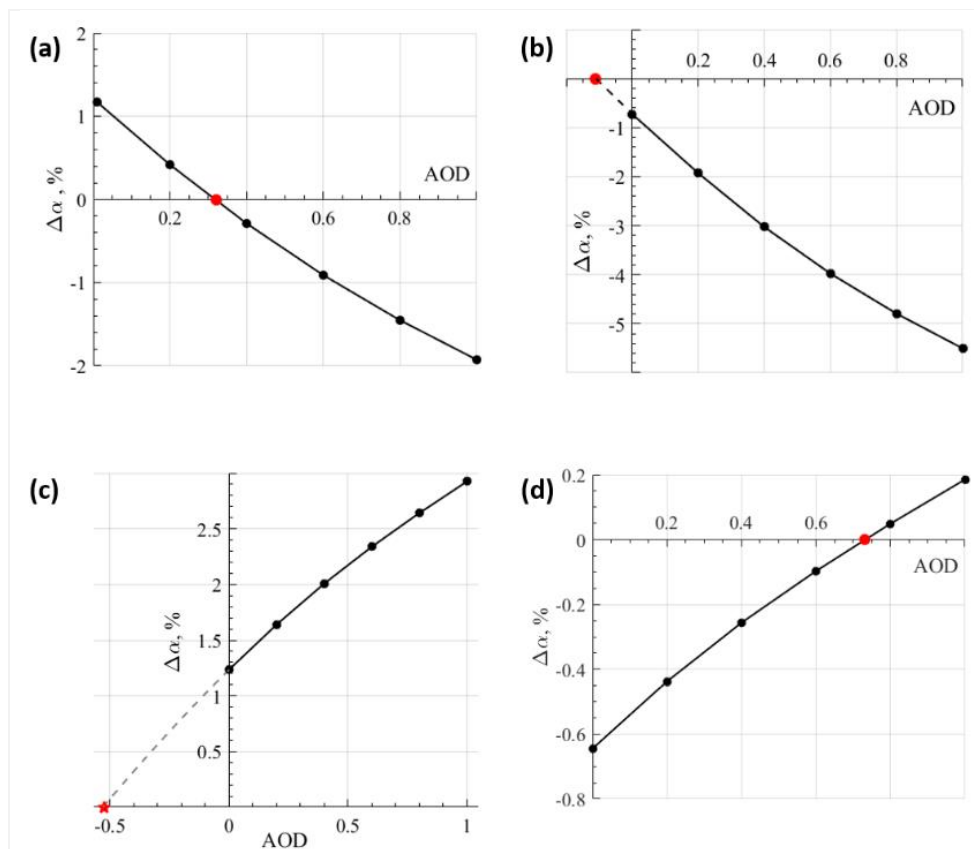
Let  $\Delta\alpha$  be the difference between the top of the atmosphere (TOA) albedo and surface albedo. Then, for a particular location, with a given surface albedo,  $\Delta\alpha$  variations are only due to changes in TOA albedo. The presence of absorbing aerosols over a bright surface decreases the TOA albedo. In contrast, scattering aerosols over a dark surface increase the TOA albedo. Thus, the increase (decrease) in aerosol loading due to scattering



(absorbing) type of aerosols leads to an increase (decrease) in  $\Delta\alpha$ . The rate of change in  $\Delta\alpha$  with aerosol loading is dependent on SSA.

Satheesh and Srinivasan (2005) utilized this concept to retrieve SSA in the case of absorbing aerosols over a bright surface. In a pristine atmosphere (Aerosol Optical Depth = 0) over a bright surface, the  $\Delta\alpha$  is positive for solar zenith angle (SZA) = 0. Here, when absorbing aerosols become dominant,  $\Delta\alpha$  decreases with an increase in aerosol optical depth (AOD) and eventually turns negative. The AOD at which  $\Delta\alpha$  equals zero is defined as  $\tau_c$ . For a given surface albedo,  $\tau_c$  is the AOD at which the scattering and absorbing effects of the aerosol cancel each other. The rate of decrease in  $\Delta\alpha$  with the increase in AOD is higher when SSA is high and consequently lowers the resulting values of  $\tau_c$ . A radiative transfer (RT) model was then used to calculate the SSA that reproduces the same  $\tau_c$ , given

10 atmospheric conditions.



**Figure 1.** RT simulations (black dots) shows deriving  $\tau_c$  (red dot) for different cases of aerosols and surfaces. For pristine conditions (AOD = 0), diurnally-averaged  $\Delta\alpha$  is negative for bright surfaces and positive for dark surfaces.



An increase in aerosol loading by absorbing (scattering) type of aerosol leads to decrease (increase) in TOA albedo. (a) Absorbing aerosols above a dark surface; (b) Absorbing aerosols above a bright surface; (c) Scattering aerosols above a dark surface; (d) Scattering aerosols above a bright surface.

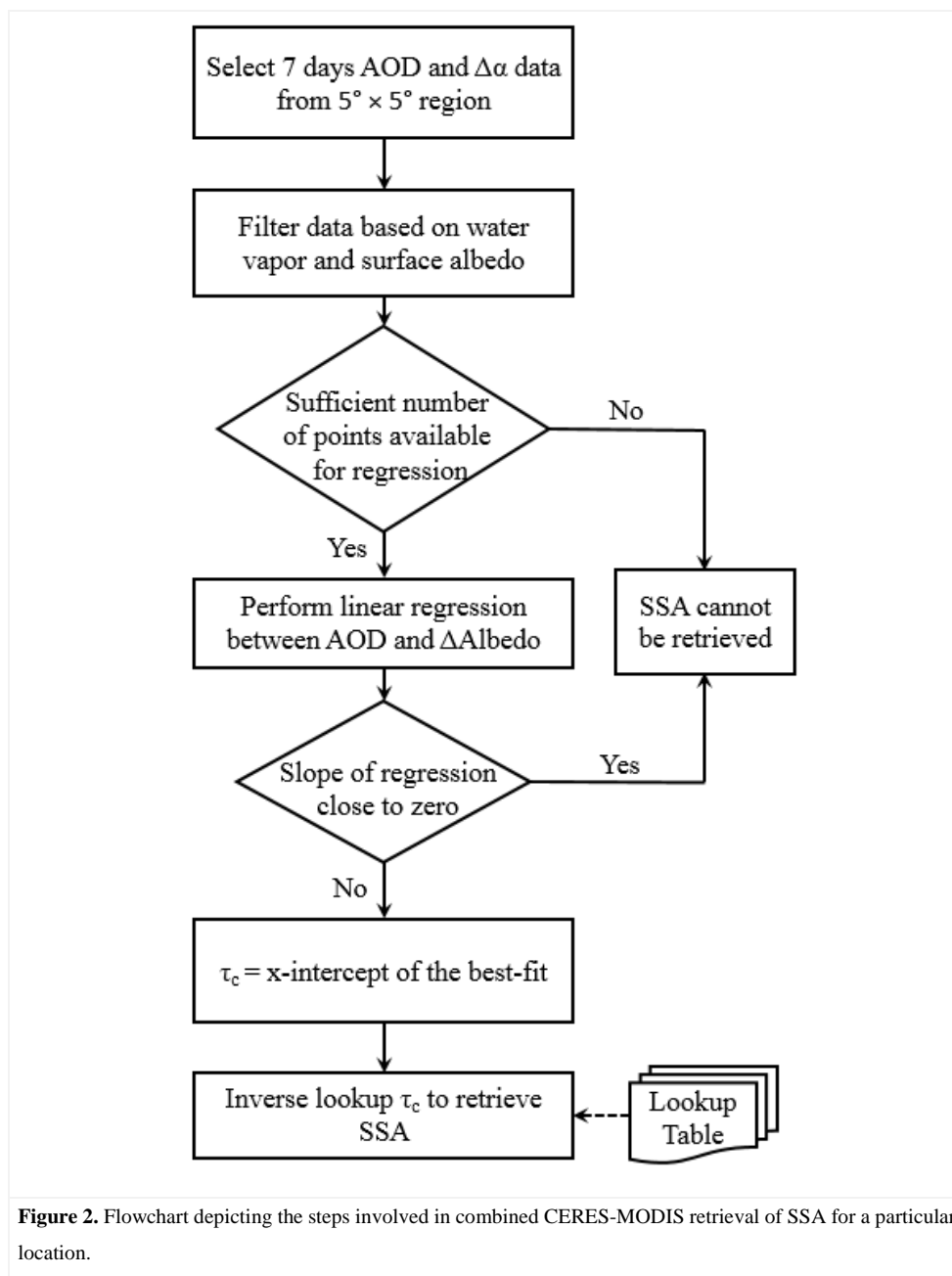
In this paper, the concept of  $\tau_c$  is extended to retrieve SSA for all scenarios of surfaces (dark and bright) and aerosols (absorbing and scattering). For AOD less than 1,  $\Delta\alpha$  is almost linearly dependent on AOD. Then  $\tau_c$  is mathematically the x-intercept when parameterizing the linear relationship.

- 5 Figure 1 shows the estimation of  $\tau_c$  for four different scenarios. Details of these RT simulations are given in Section 3.2. Unlike Satheesh and Srinivasan (2005), where simulations were carried out for  $SZA = 0$ , here the  $\Delta\alpha$  is diurnally averaged. Therefore, it is possible to have negative  $\Delta\alpha$  for  $AOD = 0$  over relatively bright surfaces. It is difficult to retrieve SSA where the slope of regression line is close to zero.

### 3 Data and methodology

- 10 The Combined CERES-MODIS retrieval algorithm consists mainly of two steps: (1) determining  $\tau_c$  using MODIS and CERES data for a location, and (2) estimation of SSA that reproduces the same  $\tau_c$  for the associated atmospheric conditions and surface albedo of that particular location. Figure 2 shows the flowchart illustrating the combined CERES-MODIS retrieval algorithm.

- TOA and surface fluxes, used to determine  $\Delta\alpha$ , are obtained from CERES SYN1deg-day (Edition 4.1) (Wielicki et al., 1996; Rutan et al., 2015). To avoid angular dependence of fluxes, the diurnally averaged flux data product from CERES is used, which is available only at  $1^\circ$  resolution. Hence, other satellite data sets in this study are also used at the same spatial resolution. AOD and total columnar water vapor are obtained from the MODIS Daily Global Product (MxD08\_D3 version 6.1). MODIS retrieves columnar AOD at 550 nm using two different types of algorithms – “Dark Target” (Levy et al., 2007, 2013) and “Deep Blue” (Hsu et al., 2004, 2006; Sayer et al., 2013). Dark target retrieves AOD over both land and ocean, whereas deep blue retrieves only over land. In this study, we have used a combined dark target and deep blue product.
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### 3.1 Determining the critical optical depth

The first step for retrieval is to determine  $\tau_c$  by linear regression analysis between  $\Delta\alpha$  vs. AOD as shown in Fig. 3. The x-intercept of the resultant line of best fit (i.e., the AOD at which  $\Delta\alpha = 0$ ) provides the value of  $\tau_c$ . CERES



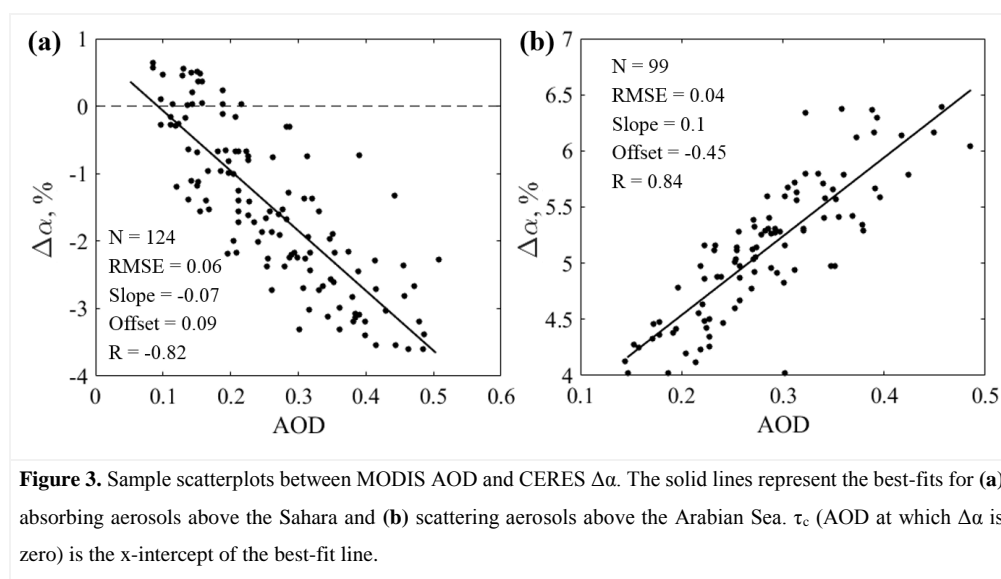
and MODIS daily data are at  $1^\circ$  resolution, and SSA is retrieved for each  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  grid. In order to have adequate number of points for a meaningful regression analysis, it was required to use data over a larger interval (temporal and spatial) - whose extent is large enough to get a statistically significant fit but small enough to ensure insignificant variations in SSA. Thus, to determine  $\tau_c$  for a given pixel, seven days of data from its surrounding

5  $5^\circ \times 5^\circ$  region has been considered. This data is further constrained based on surface albedo and water vapor. Only those pixels in this region having surface albedo within  $\pm 0.025$  and water vapor within  $\pm 0.25$  cm of the given pixel are considered for regression analysis. These constraints ensure that the  $\tau_c$  determined from the best fit is dependent only on SSA and not affected by changes in surface albedo and water vapour. Figure 3a shows an example of regression with a positive correlation coefficient over the Arabian Sea. This can happen over regions

10 of low surface albedo and the dominance of scattering aerosols. Figure 3b is an example of regression analysis with a negative correlation coefficient obtained over Sahara in the presence of dust aerosols.

The above procedure is repeated for all pixels, where data from the surrounding  $5^\circ \times 5^\circ$  region is used to determine  $\tau_c$  for each pixel. For the regression analysis, points which are outside one standard deviation are considered as outliers. Line of best fits with a slope close to zero yields extreme  $\tau_c$  values (very high positive/very low negative).

15 In such cases, we did not attempt a retrieval. Only those  $\tau_c$  values that are statistically significant at 95% confidence level are utilised further for the retrieval of SSA.





The final product of this step is a  $360 \times 180$  matrix that stores  $\tau_c$  value corresponding to each  $1^\circ$  pixel. In these matrices, not all points would have a  $\tau_c$  value owing to the insufficient number of points available for regression, either due to cloud-masking or large variations in surface albedo over the land. At least seven days of data is required to perform a statistically significant fit to compute  $\tau_c$  and retrieve SSA. The next step in the procedure is to estimate SSA from these  $\tau_c$  values using an inverse lookup table (LUT) approach.

### 3.2 Retrieval of SSA

Since the objective of this study is to retrieve SSA globally, look-up-tables (LUTs) were developed to reduce the computation time and avoid repeated RT simulations. The aerosol models from OPAC (Optical Properties of Aerosols and Clouds), developed by Hess et al., (1998), are given as input to SBDART (Santa Barbara DISORT Atmospheric Radiative Transfer) model (Ricchiazzi et al., 1998) to simulate TOA fluxes.

The RT computations were carried out to obtain the diurnally averaged (SZA:  $0^\circ$  to  $84^\circ$ ) TOA and surface fluxes using 16 radiation streams and spectrally integrated over the shortwave region (0.3 to 5  $\mu\text{m}$ ). For a particular case of surface albedo, water vapor, and SSA, AOD is varied from 0 to 1 in steps of 0.2 to generate its corresponding diurnally averaged  $\Delta\alpha$ . Then a linear fit is performed between AOD and simulated  $\Delta\alpha$  to determine  $\tau_c$ . A three-dimensional LUT that stores  $\tau_c$  for different combinations of surface albedo, water vapor, and SSA have been developed. The LUT is indexed by 11 values of surface albedo (0 to 0.5, increments of 0.05), 17 values of water vapour (0 to 8 cm, increments of 0.5 cm) and 10 values of SSA (0.8, 0.83, 0.85, 0.87, 0.9, 0.92, 0.95, 0.97, 0.99, and 1). A total of 89760 RT simulations were performed in the present study.

The next step is to estimate SSA from  $\tau_c$  using the LUT. For a given surface albedo and water vapor of that pixel, we find the SSA associated with its determined  $\tau_c$ . An inverse lookup operation is performed on LUT by linear interpolation between the nearest two indices. SSA is estimated for each available  $\tau_c$  values of a pixel and then averaged to compute the seasonal mean SSA.

### 4 Validation

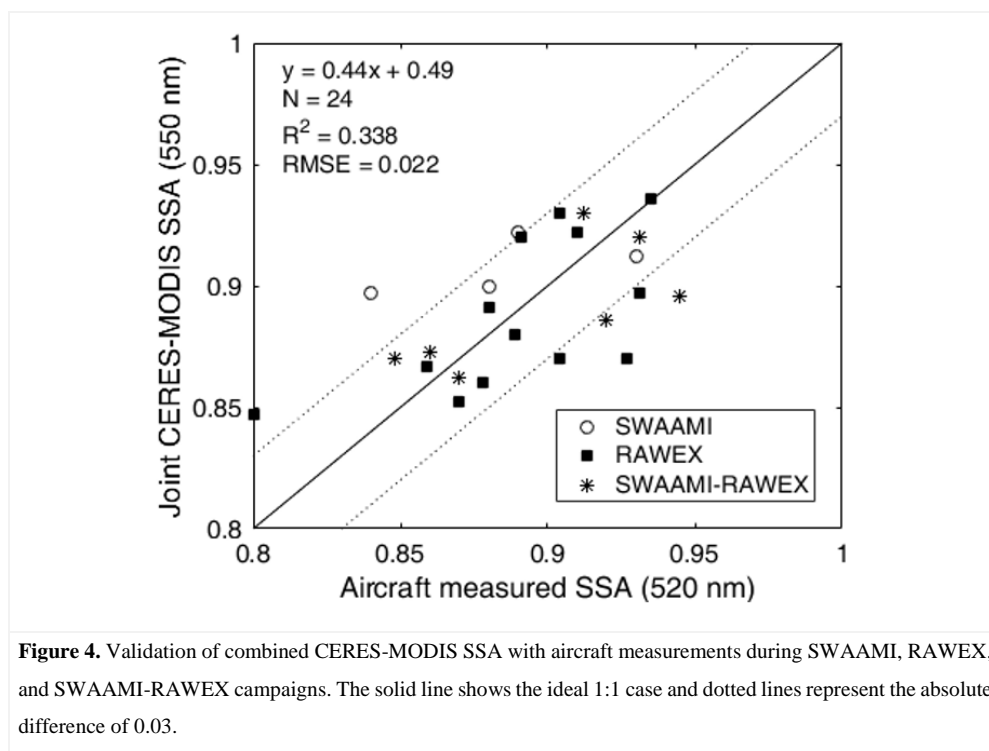
For the validation of SSA values thus retrieved, we have used aircraft-based measurements of SSA from three campaigns: South West Asian Aerosol Monsoon Interactions (SWAAMI), Regional Aerosol Warming Experiment (RAWEX), and SWAAMI-RAWEX, to obtain column-integrated SSA. Available data points over



India and adjoining oceanic regions (Arabian Sea and Bay of Bengal) from these field campaigns were used to validate the retrieved SSA.

Babu et al. (2016), as part of RAWEX (Moorthy et al., 2016), derived SSA at 520 nm from aircraft measurements of scattering and absorption coefficients over the Indo-Gangetic Plain (IGP) and Central India during winter 2012 and spring/pre-monsoon 2013. Manoj et al. (2019) estimated vertical profiles of SSA during the SWAAMI campaign conducted during monsoon (June - July) 2016 over IGP, Arabian Sea, and Bay of Bengal. Vaishya et al. (2018) estimated vertical profiles of SSA (520 nm) using an instrumented aircraft, during SWAAMI-RAWEX campaign (June 2016).

Retrieved SSA, for the same period as the campaign, over a  $2^{\circ} \times 2^{\circ}$  region around the campaign location was utilized for validation. Figure 4 shows the comparison of collocated aircraft measurements and CERES-MODIS retrieved SSA. The ideal 1:1 case (solid line), the absolute difference of 0.03 (dotted lines), and regression coefficients are also provided.



**Figure 4.** Validation of combined CERES-MODIS SSA with aircraft measurements during SWAAMI, RAWEX, and SWAAMI-RAWEX campaigns. The solid line shows the ideal 1:1 case and dotted lines represent the absolute difference of 0.03.





Most of the points were within the absolute difference of 0.03. However, there are few exceptions. SSA values over the Bay of Bengal during SWAAMI campaign were reported as  $0.84 \pm 0.07$  during June-July by Manoj et al. (2019), whereas CERES-MODIS retrieves a higher SSA of  $\sim 0.89$  for the same time period. This large variation could be due to frequent cloud cover during the monsoon season, leading to fewer SSA points retrieved over the ocean and land. SSA estimated over Nagpur in Central India during RAWEX is  $\sim 0.8$ , while CERES-MODIS retrieves  $\sim 0.85$ . This inconsistency is due to the large surface albedo variations (standard deviation  $> 0.05$ ) over Central India, which leads to fewer points available for retrieval. Except for few such cases, most of the other points lie within an absolute difference of 0.03.

For comparison purposes, many previous studies have used ground-level SSA data from AERONET obtained through inversion methods (Zhu et al., 2011; Jethva et al., 2014). Even in this study, only very few points were available for validation due to the limited number of direct measurements of columnar SSA. Despite this limitation, this validation exercise provided confidence to generate global maps of SSA following this method.

## 5 Results and discussion

Panels a, c, e, and g in Fig. 5 show the seasonal-mean global maps of SSA (550 nm) retrieved by the combined CERES-MODIS algorithm for the five years of 2014-2018. For comparison, Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) SSA at 500 nm (OMAERUVd V3) (Torres et al., 2007; Torres et al., 2013; Ahn et al., 2014), the most widely used global SSA dataset, for the corresponding period are shown in panels b, d, f, and h. Data are averaged for different seasons: DJF (December-January-February), MAM (March-April-May), JJA (June-July-August), and SON (September-October-November).

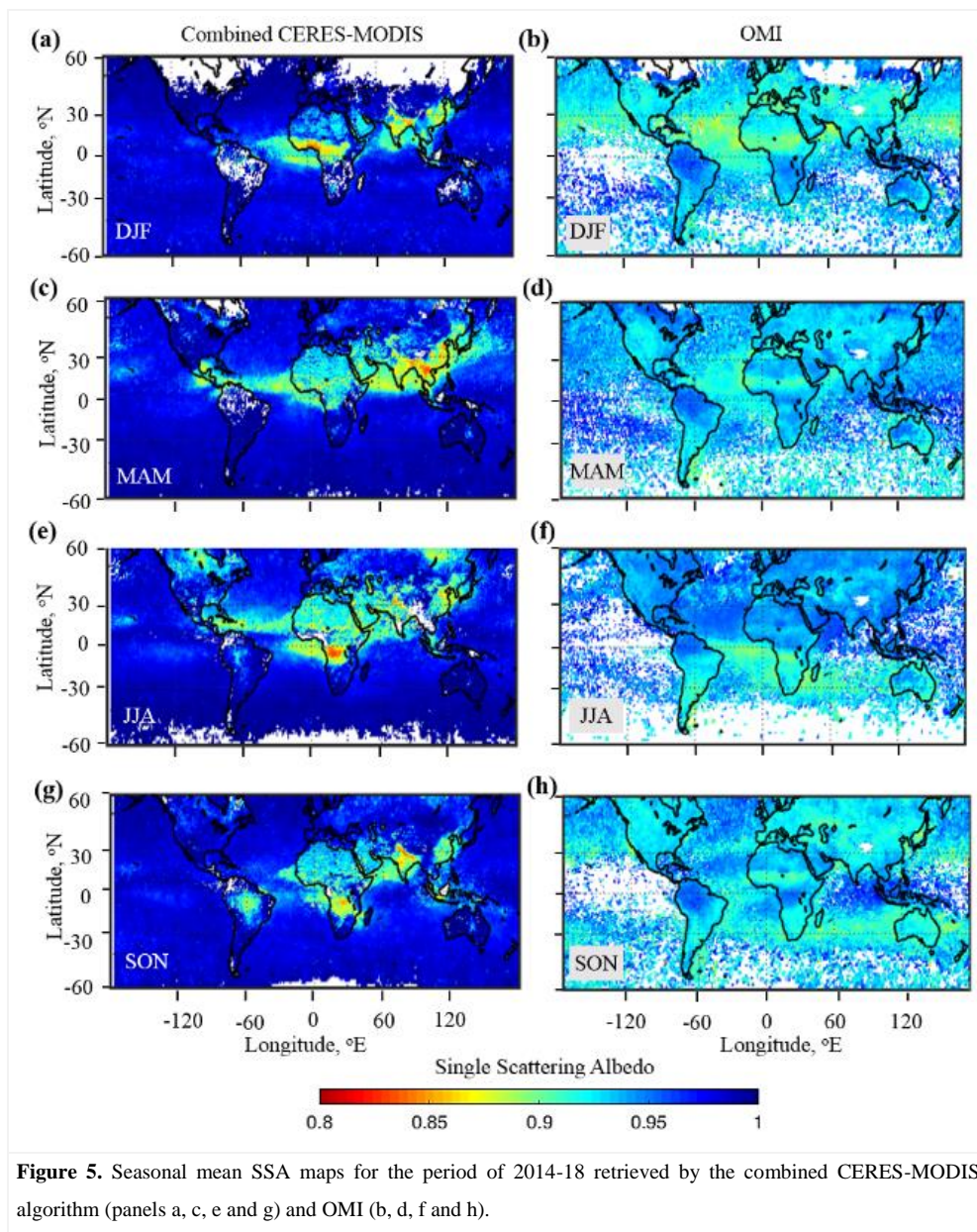
SSA in the visible region (550 nm) is directly retrieved in the CERES-MODIS algorithm, whereas OMI retrieves SSA primarily in the UV regions and extrapolates them to visible (500 nm) using aerosol models. For a generalized qualitative comparison, we can assume that SSA does not vary much for the small 50 nm spectral difference between CERES-MODIS and OMI SSA. (Zhu et al., 2011; Jethva et al., 2014).

From a quick comparison between the CERES-MODIS and OMI SSA maps, the following points can be noted:

- OMI SSA is susceptible to cloud contamination due to its large footprint size of  $13 \times 24 \text{ km}^2$ , leading to fewer points in the retrieved SSA map. In comparison, we can notice that CERES-MODIS SSA has a



better data coverage on a global scale; absence of data is mostly over regions of persistent cloud coverage or due to the unavailability of MODIS AOD.





- The Global Ocean, a relatively dark surface covering more than 70% of the Earth's surface, plays a significant role in determining global aerosol radiative forcing effects. Therefore, the better data coverage over oceans by the CERES-MODIS algorithm provides better input for radiative forcing calculations.
- CERES-MODIS maps capture a wider range of SSA values. Regions with very low SSA can easily be identified as the sources of absorbing aerosols. OMI SSA values are mostly above 0.9 and do not clearly capture the sources and transport of absorbing aerosols.

Global mean SSA retrieved by combined CERES-MODIS over land and ocean is 0.93 and 0.97, respectively (OMI: 0.94 and 0.94). But accurate SSA estimations are also required over regional scales. Hence, seasonal mean SSA values retrieved by the combined CERES-MODIS algorithm are reported here, in table 1, for major regions of interest such as deserts, oceans, biomass-burning forests, and highly polluted industrial areas. Additional details of the regions considered are provided in the supplementary file (Table S1 and Fig. S1). These regions were chosen so as to quantitatively emphasize the ability of CERES-MODIS to better capture the seasonal variations in SSA, where the OMI shows minor variations across seasons.

JJA is marked by a large-scale outbreak of forest fires in the Boreal Forests and South Africa (Justice et al., 1996; Wooster, 2004). While the Canadian boreal forests have mean SSA values of 0.96 in MAM and 0.94 in SON, it reduces to 0.91 during the forest fire season in JJA. Similarly, the Russian boreal forests have higher SSA values (~0.96) during MAM but 0.90 in JJA. The rainforest in Central Africa, being the largest biomass-burning region, shows large variations in SSA from 0.92 in MAM to values as low as 0.8 during JJA. Amazon forest has higher SSA values during MAM (~0.97) and lowest values during its forest fire season in SON (~0.93). These seasonal trends and their associated low SSA values are clearly captured in CERES-MODIS retrieved SSA values. In contrast, OMI fails to show any noticeable trend with values above 0.9 throughout the year.

The North and South Atlantic Oceans are major channels for dust and smoke transport from Africa (Bergstrom et al., 2003). Seasonal trends in SSA retrieved by CERES-MODIS over the Atlantic Ocean are dependent on the biomass burning in Africa, dust-storms in the Sahara, and the wind pattern (Torres et al., 2005). While the SON values are dominated mostly by dust transport from Sahara and have SSA around 0.92, smoke from forest fires over the Atlantic Ocean gives lower SSA (0.89) in JJA. The higher OMI SSA values (~0.95) in the North Atlantic Ocean during JJA could be due to the frequent cloud coverage leading to fewer data points.



Compared to the Atlantic Ocean, the North-eastern Pacific Ocean is a less polluted region, with the CERES-MODIS SSA values mostly above 0.95. However, OMI shows large variations in SSA from 0.99 to 0.92. CERES-MODIS method is most effective when there are large variations in AOD. Hence, higher SSA values may be retrieved over a less polluted oceanic region.

**Table 1.** Seasonal mean SSA over regions of interest from combined CERES-MODIS and OMI (given in brackets). Details of these regions are given in Table S1 and Fig. S1

Region	CERES-MODIS SSA 550 nm (OMI SSA 500 nm)			
	DJF	MAM	JJA	SON
Canadian Boreal Forest	$0.95 \pm 0.02$	$0.96 \pm 0.02$ ( $0.94 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.91 \pm 0.02$ ( $0.94 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.94 \pm 0.02$ ( $0.93 \pm 0.01$ )
Russian Boreal Forest	$0.95 \pm 0.02$	$0.96 \pm 0.02$ ( $0.94 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.90 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.94 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.96 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.93 \pm 0.01$ )
South African Forest	$0.91 \pm 0.02$ ( $0.93 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.92 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.94 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.83 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.93 \pm 0.02$ )	$0.90 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.94 \pm 0.01$ )
Amazon Forest	$0.96 \pm 0.02$ ( $0.95 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.98 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.95 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.97 \pm 0.02$ ( $0.93 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.89 \pm 0.02$ ( $0.94 \pm 0.01$ )
North East Atlantic	$0.96 \pm 0.02$ ( $0.90 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.94 \pm 0.02$ ( $0.92 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.92 \pm 0.02$ ( $0.95 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.93 \pm 0.03$ ( $0.94 \pm 0.01$ )
South East Atlantic	$0.92 \pm 0.02$ ( $0.92 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.94 \pm 0.02$ ( $0.92 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.89 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.91 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.92 \pm 0.02$ ( $0.94 \pm 0.01$ )
Eastern Pacific	$0.97 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.94 \pm 0.02$ )	$0.97 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.95 \pm 0.02$ )	$0.96 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.95 \pm 0.02$ )	$0.97 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.95 \pm 0.02$ )
Sahara	$0.93 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.92 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.93 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.93 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.91 \pm 0.02$ ( $0.94 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.92 \pm 0.02$ ( $0.93 \pm 0.01$ )
Indo Gangetic Plain	$0.88 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.92 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.87 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.92 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.85 \pm 0.02$ ( $0.95 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.83 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.92 \pm 0.01$ )
Eastern China	$0.92 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.92 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.90 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.94 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.87 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.95 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.88 \pm 0.02$ ( $0.93 \pm 0.01$ )
Arabian Sea	$0.92 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.91 \pm 0.02$ )	$0.89 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.93 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.91 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.96 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.89 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.93 \pm 0.02$ )
Bay of Bengal	$0.91 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.92 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.90 \pm 0.01$ ( $0.94 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.91 \pm 0.02$ ( $0.95 \pm 0.01$ )	$0.91 \pm 0.02$ ( $0.94 \pm 0.02$ )

- 5 Over the Sahara, there is a reasonable agreement between OMI and CERES-MODIS SSA values. During JJA, smoke over the Sahara can reduce SSA values to 0.89. In other seasons, both CERES-MODIS and OMI give



similar SSA values around 0.93. This could indicate that both the algorithms retrieve similar SSA over desert regions. These values are comparable with various other measurements and campaigns over the Sahara (Kaufman et al., 2001; Haywood et al. 2001; Deepshikha et al., 2005).

Eastern China is one of the largest polluted industrial regions. CERES-MODIS SSA shows very low values of 0.87, with the lower values observed mainly during JJA. Whereas OMI shows consistent SSA above 0.9 (with a mean value of  $\sim 0.93$ ). Likewise, the Indo-Gangetic plain in India is a densely populated region spotted with several coal-based thermal power plants and seasonal stubble burning. The retrieved SSA values were mostly below 0.89 throughout the year, with values as low as 0.81 during SON. While OMI SSA values are above 0.9.

Thus, the combined CERES-MODIS algorithm better captures the spatial and seasonal trend in aerosol absorption (both sources and transport of aerosols) and provides an improved global SSA database with fewer data gaps.

Overall, the sensitivity of the algorithm depends on the combination of surface albedo, water vapor, and SSA values. Uncertainty is higher for those combinations that give a slope close to zero during the linear regression between CERES  $\Delta\alpha$  and MODIS AOD. The average uncertainty is  $\pm 0.03$ , with maximum sensitivity to changes in surface albedo. The uncertainties are higher for scattering aerosols over bright surfaces and absorbing aerosols above dark surfaces. Sensitivity to water vapor is almost negligible, except in very few cases where the uncertainty is  $\pm 0.008$ . The CERES-MODIS algorithm is most effective over regions with large AOD variations and less surface albedo variations. A detailed analysis of this method's uncertainties is out of the scope of this paper and will be examined in future studies.

## 6. Summary and Conclusions

- Global maps of aerosol absorption have been generated following the concept of “critical optical depth”.
- The retrieved SSA values have been validated by comparing against available aircraft measurements. The validation exercise shows that most of the retrieved SSA values are within  $\pm 0.03$ .
- We show that the combined CERES-MODIS algorithm better captures the spatial and seasonal variations in aerosol absorption and the resultant maps provide an improved global SSA database with fewer data gaps. Global mean SSA was estimated to be 0.93 and 0.97 over land and ocean, respectively
- The uncertainty analysis shows typical uncertainty of  $\pm 0.03$ , with maximum sensitivity to changes in surface albedo. The algorithm is shown to be the most effective over regions with large AOD variations and less surface albedo variations.



- Overall, the combined CERES-MODIS algorithm provides global SSA maps with improved accuracy and better spatial coverage. These global maps provide valuable input for models to make assessment of aerosol-climate impacts on both regional and global scales.

#### Data Availability

- 5 MODIS and CERES data used in this study are available at <https://asdc.larc.nasa.gov/>

#### Author Contributions

SKS conceptualized the method. AD developed the algorithm, carried out the simulations, and analyzed the data. AD wrote the manuscript with revisions from SKS.

#### Competing interests

- 10 The authors declare they have no conflict of interest.

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