

Analysis and quantification of the diversities of aerosol life cycles within AeroCom

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8331

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Abstract

Simulation results of global aerosol models have been assembled in the framework of the AeroCom intercomparison exercise. In this paper, we analyze the life cycles of dust, sea salt, sulfate, black carbon and particulate organic matter as simulated by sixteen global aerosol models. The diversities among the models for the sources and sinks, burdens, particle sizes, water uptakes, and spatial dispersals have been established. These diversities have large consequences for the calculated radiative forcing and the aerosol concentrations at the surface.

The AeroCom all-models-average emissions are dominated by the mass of sea salt (SS), followed by dust (DU), sulfate (SO_4), particulate organic matter (POM), and finally black carbon (BC). Interactive parameterizations of the emissions and contrasting particles sizes of SS and DU lead generally to higher diversities of these species, and for total aerosol. The lower diversity of the emissions of the fine aerosols, BC, POM, and SO_4 , is due to the use of similar emission inventories, and does therefore not necessarily indicate a better understanding of their sources. The diversity of SO_4 -sources is mainly caused by the disagreement on depositional loss of precursor gases and on chemical production. The diversities of the emissions are passed on to the burdens, but the latter are also strongly affected by the model-specific treatments of transport and aerosol processes. The burdens of dry masses decrease from largest to smallest: DU, SS, SO_4 , POM, and BC.

The all-models-average residence time is shortest for SS with about half a day, followed by SO_4 and DU with four days, and POM and BC with six and seven days, respectively. The wet deposition rate is controlled by the solubility and increases from DU, BC, POM to SO_4 and SS. It is the dominant sink for SO_4 , BC, and POM, and contributes about one third to the total removal rate coefficients of SS and DU species. For SS and DU we find high diversities for the removal rate coefficients and deposition pathways. Models do neither agree on the split between wet and dry deposition, nor on that between sedimentation and turbulent dry Deposition. We diagnose an extremely

8333

high diversity for the uptake of ambient water vapor that influences the particle size and thus the sink rate coefficients. Furthermore, we find little agreement among the model results for the partitioning of wet removal into scavenging by convective and stratiform rain.

Large differences exist for aerosol dispersal both in the vertical and in the horizontal direction. In some models, a minimum of total aerosol concentration is simulated at the surface. Aerosol dispersal is most pronounced for SO_4 and BC and lowest for SS. Diversities are higher for meridional than for vertical dispersal, they are similar for a given species and highest for SS and DU. For these two components we do not find a correlation between vertical and meridional aerosol dispersal. In addition the degree of dispersals of SS and DU is not related to their residence times. SO_4 , BC, and POM, however, show increased meridional dispersal in models with larger vertical dispersal, and dispersal is larger for longer simulated residence times.

1 Introduction

Atmospheric aerosols play a key role in many important environmental issues including climate change, stratospheric ozone depletion, smog, acid rain and toxic chemicals. Aerosols are significant components within the global climate system as they absorb and scatter solar and terrestrial radiation. However, the aerosol radiative forcing is not well quantified. Global-scale models that simulate the processes of emission, dispersion, chemical and physical transformations, removal, and radiative properties in the troposphere play a central role in assessing the climate impact of aerosols and their gaseous precursors. The AeroCom initiative was created in 2003 to provide a platform for detailed evaluations of aerosol simulation in global models. Various complex aerosol models have been developed in recent years, but they have not been compared to each other in a consistent way. Even a detailed literature survey can hardly reveal and quantify all differences among existent models. The analysis of current global aerosol simulations based on harmonized diagnostics is the aim of the aerosol model intercompar-

8334

ison initiative AeroCom (<http://nansen.ipsl.jussieu.fr/AEROCOM/data.html>). AeroCom embarks on a multi-angle strategy aiming to evaluate the performance of global aerosol models both with each other, and with current knowledge of aerosol observed properties and processes. Such an analysis leads to understanding of differences so that uncertain components can be identified and the simulated aerosols properties can be improved. This work is a major extension of what was already achieved in Penner et al. (2001); Penner et al. (2002); Kinne et al. (2003). The models cited in these studies have evolved considerably and deserve reevaluation. Within AeroCom the diagnostics have been greatly extended and allow now for the analysis of aerosol life cycles in the different models.

All global aerosol models taking part in this study are carefully constrained by various high-quality observational data sets. These include in-situ measurements of aerosol concentration, size distribution, and chemical composition, lidar measurements of the vertical distribution of the aerosol extinction coefficient, sun photometer measurements of the aerosol optical depth and column size distribution, and satellite measurements of the spatial distribution of the aerosol optical depth. However, observations are not free of uncertainties, and the results from the models differ considerably despite careful validation. We cannot identify a “best model” with respect to all data. Model performances change from parameter to parameter, and from region to region. In addition, the quantities, which are compared to observations, result from many interdependent properties and processes that are internally simulated by the models.

In this paper, the aerosol life cycles as simulated by sixteen global aerosol models are analyzed in order to explain the differences in the simulated aerosol fields. The quantification of model diversities facilitates identifying weak components where research is needed in order to improve our understanding of global atmospheric aerosol. It is not the objective of this work to judge the different ways of modeling the aerosol life cycle. This would necessitate several full sets of sensitivity simulations with strong constraints on all processes except for one, which is under investigation. However, such studies are not feasible in the context of a volunteer based model intercomparison such

8335

as AeroCom, and because of the large differences of the participating models.

The coarse resolution of global models in space and time requires the parameterizations of many aerosol processes. These cannot always be well constrained, because observations on the micro-scale are lacking. Therefore some parameterizations might only be valid in the context of a specific model environment and under certain conditions, and not necessarily reflect the process for which they are intended. Models might produce erroneous results especially under changed conditions such as climate change scenarios. Disagreement among models about individual aerosol processes as quantified in this study helps to identify parameterizations of individual aerosol processes that require improvement.

AeroCom focuses on the five most important aerosol components (dust, sea salt, sulfate, black carbon and particulate organic matter), even if some models include other species. In the remainder of this paper we use the following component abbreviations: DU=mineral dust, SS=sea salt, SO₄=sulfate, BC=black carbon, and POM=particle organic matter, AER=total aerosol. The simulations have been performed with the models in their usual configuration (AeroCom experiment A). The results of comparisons of model results with observational data and those from a second AeroCom experiment with identical aerosol emission fluxes and particle size distributions are discussed in follow-up papers (Guibert et al., 2005¹; Kinne et al., 2005²; Schulz et al., 2005b³;

¹Guibert, S., Schulz, M., Kinne, S., Textor, C., Balkanski, Y., Bauer, S., Berntsen, T., Berglen, T., Boucher, O., Chin, M., Dentener, F., Diehl, T., Feichter, H., Fillmore, D., Ghan, S., Ginoux, P., Gong, S., Grini, A., Hendricks, J., Horowitz, L., Isaksen, I., Iversen, T., Kloster, S., Koch, D., Kirkevåg, A., Kristjansson, J. E., Krol, M., Lauer, A., Lamarque, J. F., Liu, X., Montanaro, V., Myhre, G., Penner, J., Pitari, G., Reddy, S., Seland, Ø., Stier, P., Takemura, T., and Tie, X.: Comparison of lidar data with model results from the aerocom intercomparison project, in preparation, 2005.

²Kinne, S., Schulz, M., Textor, et al: An AeroCom initial assessment – optical properties in aerosol component modules of global models, Atmos. Chem. Phys. Discuss., companion paper, 2005.

³Schulz, M., Kinne, S., Guibert, S., Textor, C., Balkanski, Y., Bauer, S., Berntsen, T., Berglen,

8336

Textor et al., 2005⁴).

In the next section we give an overview of the models participating in AeroCom and the aerosol modules embedded therein. Then we describe our concept of quantifying the diversity (disagreement) of the model components. We compare the simulated aerosol sources and burdens, and the tropospheric residence times in Sects. 4, 5 and 6, respectively. In the following Sect. 7, the comparison focuses on the analysis of the individual removal processes based on the global rate coefficients for sedimentation, dry turbulent and wet deposition. The microphysical properties involved, particle size, composition and uptake of ambient water, are discussed in Sect. 8. Section 9 deals with the spatial distributions and discusses the relationship with the removal rate coefficients. The paper closes with a summary and conclusions.

2 Description of the models

Sixteen global aerosol models are currently taking part in the AeroCom model inter-comparison (see Table 2). The aerosol modules are implemented in global “host-

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⁴Textor, C., Schulz, M., Guibert, S., Kinne, S., Balkanski, Y., Bauer, S., Bernsten, T., Berglen, T., Boucher, O., Chin, M., Dentener, F., Diehl, T., Feichter, H., Fillmore, D., Ghan, S., Ginoux, P., Gong, S., Grini, A., Hendricks, J., Horowitz, L., Isaksen, I., Iversen, T., Kloster, S., Koch, D., Kirkevåg, A., Kristjansson, J. E., Krol, M., Lauer, A., Lamarque, J. F., Liu, X., Montanaro, V., Myhre, G., Penner, J., Pitari, G., Reddy, S., Seland, Ø., Stier, P., Takemura, T., and Tie, X.: Results from the AeroCom experiment B with harmonized emissions: model performances and comparison with ground based and satellite data, *Atmos. Chem. Phys. Discuss.*, in preparation, 2005.

8337

models”, which provide information on the meteorology, the surface conditions, etc. The simulated aerosol fields are the result of the combined and interdependent effects of the internal aerosol processes and of the aerosol transport provided by the global models, which depend on the simulated meteorology. For example, the emissions of DU and SS depend on the wind fields, and the surface properties determine the turbulent dry deposition rate coefficients. The parameterization of the hydrological cycle has a large influence; see Table 8 for references on the cloud microphysical parameterizations employed by the participating models. The local relative humidity governs hygroscopic particle growth, and the abundance of hydrometeors controls aerosol wash-out processes, although some aerosol modules use prescribed liquid water (or ice) content. In addition, the model results are influenced by rather technical aspects like the models’ architectures and resolutions. The AeroCom intercomparison does not intend to investigate the global models. However, as they strongly affect the aerosol life cycles, we briefly introduce their basic properties.

2.1 Global models

The references for the global models can be found in Table 2. They are either chemical transport models (CTMs), or general circulation models (GCMs). CTMs calculate the aerosol distribution off-line based on prescribed meteorological data, which stem either from climate model simulations, or from analyzed weather observation systems. In GCMs, the aerosol transport is predicted on-line depending on the models internal meteorology. The application of nudging techniques to GCMs allows them to closely represent observed weather patterns. About half of the models participating in AeroCom are GCMs (ARQM, DLR, GISS, KYU, LSCE, LOA, MPI_HAM, PNNL, UIO_GCM) and the others are CTMs (GOCART, MATCH, MOZGN, TM5, UIO_CTM, ULAQ, UMI). Twelve of the models use analyzed meteorological observations and simulate specifically the year 2000; while four models use climatological mean data (ARQM, ULAQ, UIO_GCM, DLR). The individual techniques employed to describe advection, convective transport, and turbulent mixing can be found in the literature cited in Table 2. The spatial resolu-

8338

tions of the participating models are highly varying, ranging from $1.1^\circ \times 1.1^\circ$ (51 200 grid points) to $22.5^\circ \times 10^\circ$ (304 grid points) in the horizontal, and from 18 to 40 layers in the vertical (see Table 2).

2.2 Aerosol modules

5 The aerosol masses, compositions and size distributions, and the internal aerosol processes are described within specific aerosol modules that are implemented in the global models, see also Table 2. Atmospheric aerosol consists of a number of size modes that result from different production and loss processes. Several approaches are employed to describe the particle size distributions in numerical models (e.g., Seinfeld and Pandis, 1997a). The simplest cases are the so-called bulk schemes, where the sizes of the aerosol particles are constant, and only the aerosol mass is predicted. In modal schemes, the particle size distribution is represented by mathematical functions, e.g., log-normal functions. The comprehensiveness of this type increases with the number of moments of the mathematical functions (number, mass, and width of the distribution) that are treated as prognostic variables, and with the number of modes. Most modern modal schemes consider two moments, aerosol mass and number concentrations, as prognostic variables, but use a fixed distribution width. In the third type, called bin (or spectral) schemes, the aerosol size distribution is represented by several size intervals. The accuracy, but also the computational costs, increase with the number of bins for which the aerosol mass is predicted.

20 Aerosol particles contain different components depending on their specific sources and their fate within the atmosphere. Field studies indicate both internal (all particles in a size class or mode have the same mixed composition) and external (i.e., each particle class or mode is composed of a single species) mixing. In general, primary particles are externally mixed close to their sources, but become internally mixed through coagulating with other particles or by condensation of gases on their surfaces. In the AeroCom models, the composition is described as external in eight models. In most others, aerosols are considered to be internally mixed within a mode, but externally

8339

mixed with other modes. For example, the fine mode is often described as an external mixture of a soluble and an insoluble mode, but each of these modes is an internal mixture of different chemical species.

5 Furthermore, the aerosol modules describe the sources of aerosols and their removal processes (wet deposition, turbulent dry deposition, and sedimentation). The sources are discussed in Sect. 4, including the specific methods for the treatment of chemical SO_4 -production. The concepts for the sources and removal mechanisms as employed by the AeroCom models are examined in Sects. 4 and 7, respectively. Aerosol microphysical processes (also called aerosol dynamics) are only considered in some models (see Table 2). ARQM, DLR, MPI_HAM, PNNL, and UIO_GCM simulate nucleation, condensation, and coagulation of aerosols. Some consider the formation of SO_4 particles, but most models include only aging (increase of solubility through oxidation) of BC and POM by transferring them from a hydrophobic to hydrophilic class using a fixed rate constant. Water uptake is represented in all models applying various parameterizations of different complexity, ranging from very simple approaches to more complex ones considering hysteresis effects or the activity of multicomponent aerosols (see Table 9). For a discussion of the simulated aerosol water content see Sect. 8.2. Models with interactive sulfur cycle simulate the aqueous phase oxidation of SO_2 that leads to particle growth (see Table 5). Some include additional processing of aerosol particles by clouds (ARQM, MPI_HAM, PNNL, and UIO_GCM). Several others consider the effect of aerosols on clouds (indirect effect) (ARQM, PNNL, and UIO_GCM).

20 Table 1 provides an overview of the aerosol modules. Tables 2 to 8 give the references for the most important parameterizations and data sources employed in the aerosol modules taking part in AeroCom. Within the context of this study, we can neither distinguish the effects of the different approaches to describe the size distribution and mixing of aerosols, nor those of the complexity of individual parameterizations of aerosol processes. We rather focus on the analysis of aerosol fields, removal processes and selected microphysical properties that influence the aerosol life cycles.

3 Methodology

This paper synthesizes the information from sixteen global aerosol models compiled within the AeroCom exercise. We focus on the processes and properties that affect the simulated aerosol life cycles, and quantify the diversities among the models. Global, annual average properties are examined in this paper. These result from the parameterizations describing the aerosol processes under many different conditions and can therefore serve as indicators for the overall effects of the models' internal structure on the simulated aerosol fields. The model outputs were provided on their original grids. Global averages have been obtained with an area weighting. For simplicity we omit in the following notations like "global", "annual", and "annually averaged". Interpolation procedures were applied to obtain averages for sub-grid volumes, e.g. height intervals or horizontal regions. As mentioned above, our results refer to the year 2000, except for the four climatological models. A conversion factor of 1.4 has been used to convert POM from the mass of organic carbon to dry organic mass if not otherwise indicated by the modelers, and POM is always given as dry organic mass. SO₄ is considered as mass of SO₄, except otherwise indicated. AER denotes total dry aerosol mass, i.e., the sum of the five aerosol species included in this study. Total aerosol is examined here because many observations refer to bulk properties, such as mass and volume measurements, or aerosol optical depth.

In the remainder of this paper, we use for simplification the term "anthropogenic" as an abbreviation to summarize SO₄, BC, and POM, although these species also have non-anthropogenic sources. SS and DU are denoted with the expression "natural", according to their main sources.

3.1 The AeroCom data base

Model results were assembled following an output specification protocol, and graphic visualizations of the data are published on the AeroCom web site. Modelers were asked to submit daily and monthly fields from their original model version. Resub-

8341

missions were permitted to correct for obvious model or data-analysis errors. Post-processing including simple calculations to complete the data sets was performed at the Laboratoire des Sciences du Climat et de l'Environnement in France. Detailed information was provided to the modelers on the AeroCom data web interface to communicate errors. Further tables and two-dimensional fields of all the properties discussed in this paper are available on the AeroCom web interface (<http://nansen.ipsl.jussieu.fr/AEROCOM/data.html>) as supplementary material. Readers are referred to this material to obtain further information on the spatial distributions and their role in explaining the differences in the aerosol life cycles.

3.2 Concept of model diversity

A major objective of this paper is to quantify the diversity of the results for the ensemble of global aerosol models taking part in AeroCom. Please note that we employ the term "diversity" to describe the scatter of model results rather than using the term "uncertainty", which indicates a degree of knowledge. The assessment of the uncertainty would, however, necessitate a comprehensive comparison with all kinds of observational data and is out of the scope of this paper.

The quantities investigated include aerosol fields and fluxes, atmospheric residence times, water uptake and particle sizes. These are associated with different units and with variations over several orders of magnitude. In order to enable comparability, the data are normalized with the all-models-average. We express the diversity δ of the model results in terms of the standard deviation σ normalized by the all-models-average (%):

$$\delta = \sigma (\text{results}) / (\text{all models average}) * 100 \quad (\%). \quad (1)$$

The diversities established in this study are valid for the specific AeroCom models considered for their calculations. Data were not always available for all parameters and all models. Please note that the established model diversities can change slightly if new data are added, because the number of models is still quite small for statistical

8342

computations. We have also tested other expressions for the model diversity (e.g., median instead of average, percentiles or the ratio of minimum and maximum results instead of the standard deviation). The absolute values change of course, but the relations among the diversities for different quantities are similar.

5 Diversities can be compared among different aerosol species for a given quantity, in order to identify weak components that need further attention. However, the diversities of the individual species cannot be simply added to obtain that of total aerosol. For the ideal case of a normally distributed sample of independent quantities, the diversity of total aerosol would be obtained from the square root of the sum of squared standard
10 deviations σ of the components, normalized by the all-models-average of AER.

$$\delta_{\text{AER}} = \frac{\sqrt{(\sigma_{\text{DU}})^2 + (\sigma_{\text{SS}})^2 + (\sigma_{\text{BC}})^2 + (\sigma_{\text{POM}})^2 + (\sigma_{\text{SO}_4})^2}}{\text{all models average (AER)}} \quad (2)$$

The diversity of AER is thus always smaller than the sum of the components' diversities. It would be interesting to examine, if the aerosol components are independent, or if there is some tendency among models to simulate more coherent values for AER,
15 so that a compensating effect for the single components can be expected. The comparison of simulated and observed optical depth by Kinne et al. (2005)² shows that models perform fairly well for AER in comparison to data, and that the AER results from the different models are quite coherent. However, the model agreement on the contributions from the individual aerosol components, which cannot be constrained by
20 observations, is much less. In this case, the diversity of AER should be smaller than the theoretical value given in Eq. (2). The results from the relatively small ensemble of the AeroCom models are, however, not ideally normally distributed, because similar parameterizations are used, and the number of contributing models is quite small. Therefore, Eq. (2) cannot be strictly applied and we are reluctant to perform such a
25 statistical analysis. Furthermore, the diversities do not provide any information on the relevance of a quantity for the overall aerosol life cycle. This is due to our definition of

8343

the diversity as the relative standard deviation using the all-models-average of each parameter for normalization. For example, a high diversity of the simulated dry deposition rates is only significant for the residence time if dry deposition represents an important pathway for the removal. As a consequence, the investigation of diversity propagation
5 is neither straight-forward going from the individual species to total aerosol, nor among different properties of a given species, and diversities have to be handled with care.

In the remainder of the paper, we display the diversities in a homogeneous plot type, where we show a specific diagnostic quantity for all aerosol species studied here, see, e.g., Fig. 1b. In this figure type, the individual models are distinguished, but are plotted
10 as relative deviations of the individual model results from the all-models-average in %:

$$\text{data} = \frac{\text{result} - \text{all models average}}{\text{all models average}} * 100 \quad (\%) \quad (3)$$

The all-models-averages appear at an ordinate value of zero, and the diversity is visualized as the vertical distance ($\pm \delta p$) around them. This presentation facilitates the comparison of the diversities for the different species and processes. The numbers for
15 the statistics of the examined quantities are summarized in Table 10. In addition, we illustrate the results in the form of x-y plots, see, e.g., Fig. 1a, where individual models can be identified. For some models, we are not able to show all diagnostics and missing data appear as gaps in the plots. In DLR, the coarse fraction of SS and DU is neglected. SS fluxes are missing for MATCH, UIO_GCM does not provide fluxes for SS and DU, and the removal fluxes are missing for MOZGN. KYU provided some quantities only for the sum of BC and POM. Size resolved data for the burden, and aerosol water mass is not available for several models. For models where one of the species was not available, we exclude AER from the plots and calculations of the diversities. The numbers of the quantities related to the budget are provided on the AeroCom web site.
25 This enables the analysis of specific models and provides a basis for future studies.

8344

4 Sources

The aerosol source strength is believed to be one of the major factors causing the differences in the simulated aerosol fields. The sources of the five aerosol species under consideration for all models are shown in Fig. 1a, and the corresponding diversities in Fig. 1b. The total all-model-average aerosol source amounts to 18 400 Tg/a ($\delta=176\%$) with the diversity given in parentheses. Sources are dominated by SS with 16 300 Tg/a ($\delta=199\%$), followed by DU (1840 Tg/a, $\delta=49\%$), SO_4 (175 Tg/a, $\delta=20\%$), POM (96.6 Tg/a, $\delta=26.1\%$), and finally BC (11.9 Tg/a, $\delta=23\%$).

The highest diversity is found for the DU and SS. Their source fluxes are prescribed in some of the models and interactively calculated by most others as a function of wind speed, and of soil properties in the case of DU. The parameterizations of the sources are referenced in Table 3. We find a fairly good agreement on the spatial distribution of SS source fluxes, because emission occurs only over the sea. A model with strong SS emissions in one region tends to have high emissions in all regions. This can be explained by similar distributions of the wind speeds or their gradients in the models. The larger disagreement of the spatial distributions of the DU sources can thus be mainly attributed to the differences in the soil-properties among the models. DU source fluxes have recently been found to be highly sensitive to the high tail of the wind speed distributions (Timmreck and Schulz, 2004). This explains why the source strengths differ also in models that use the same parameterization (e.g. PNNL, ULAQ, and UMI for dust, and LSCE and MPI_HAM for the sea-air transfer for SS). The high sensitivity to the conditions in the environment also becomes evident when comparing the DU source fluxes of LSCE and LOA. These models are based on the same global model, nudged to the same ECWMF reanalysis data for the meteorology, and use the same parameterization. In both models, the DU source fluxes are based on ECMWF winds in the higher spatial resolution of these data and then interpolated to the model grid, where they are modified according to the models' soil moisture. The difference in the DU fluxes of LSCE and LOA is caused by the specific interpolations to the model

8345

grid, and by slightly different soil moistures resulting from small discrepancies in the nudging constants for the meteorological data leading to different precipitation fields. Furthermore, models disagree on representation of the particle sizes of SS and DU, especially on the choice of the largest particles simulated, see also Table 4. This can cause large differences in the emitted mass. However, high emissions associated with large particles are predominantly of local importance, because these particles have fairly short residence times in the atmosphere. We attribute the very high diversity of SS emissions mainly to differences in the simulated particle size. This is especially the case in ARQM, where the emissions are more than one order of magnitude larger than in the other models.

The emissions of the "anthropogenic" species (BC, POM, and SO_4 , or their precursors) are prescribed using global inventories providing fluxes from different source types, which are referenced in Table 3. We find lower diversities than for the "natural" components (Fig. 1b). This fairly good agreement does not necessarily imply a good knowledge of this process, but could just mean that the emission inventories used are quite coherent. The production of secondary organic aerosol (SOA) from precursor gases is only simulated in MOZGN, where oxidation of alpha-pinene is computed online within the chemical module. Most models include SOA produced from various gaseous precursor substances in the primary POM emissions, but in some models it is completely neglected.

The diversity of the simulated SO_4 sources is the smallest among the aerosol species considered here (Fig. 1b), although gas and aqueous phase chemistry is involved in addition to the diversity of gaseous precursor emissions. The methods for the emissions of sulfur species are referenced in Table 5. We neglect smaller contributions from H_2S and other sulfur species in the AeroCom diagnostics, even if the models take them into account. The chemical production of SO_4 is treated with different complexity: in some models it is online-coupled to atmospheric chemistry, others prescribe the distribution of oxidizing species (OH, O_3 , H_2O_2), or some of it (see Table 5). Figure 2 shows the diversity of the sulfur sources. (Please note that we only consider the

8346

eleven models that provided both chemical production rate coefficients and precursor gas emissions. Data were missing for ARQM, GISS, UMI, MOZGN, KYU. Furthermore, the diversities of the individual processes have to be weighted by their relevance for the total SO₄ source in order to be compared, see also Sect. 3.2. Chemical production is the dominant sulfate source; it contributes on average 97%. Direct SO₄ emissions are afflicted with a high diversity, and in four models they are completely neglected (DLR, KYU, UMI, and ULAQ). The emitted sulfur precursor gases consist on average of 79% SO₂ and 21% DMS. SO₂ stems from emission data sets, whereas the DMS-sources are obtained from various global data sets of its concentration in ocean surface water together with different parameterizations describing the sea-air transfer. This explains the higher diversity of the DMS emissions. The diversity of the sum of the precursor gases is smaller than that of the individual emissions, indicating that stronger emissions of one of the gases are compensated by weaker emissions of the other gas. See Sect. 3.2 for a discussion on compensating effects. 38% of the precursor gases are deposited to the ground. The diversity of this loss process is higher than that of the emissions themselves and of similar size as the diversity of chemical SO₄ production. Depositional loss of precursor gases is therefore a major reason for the diversity of the simulated SO₄ sources. Chemical production takes place in the gas and in the aqueous phase, where the average contribution of the latter is 73%. The diversity of gas phase chemical production is larger than that in the aqueous phase, but the diversity of total chemical production is smaller than those of the two individual pathways. Hence, strong gas phase production could be compensated by weaker aqueous production and vice versa (see also Sect. 3.2).

5 Aerosol burdens

In this section we compare the simulated burdens of the aerosol species in the models. The aerosol burdens and the diversities of the model results are depicted in Figs. 3a and b, the relevant numbers are given in Table 10.

8347

The AER burden is on average 30.6 Tg ($\delta=30\%$) varying from 13.2 Tg to 47 Tg. The burdens of DU and SS are 19.2 Tg ($\delta=4\%$) and 7.5 Tg ($\delta=54\%$), respectively. The AER-burden is dominated by DU followed by SS in all models except for ARQM and MPI.HAM. This is in contrast to the emissions, which are dominated by about one order of magnitude by SS. The diversity of the simulated SS-burdens is much smaller than that of the emissions, mainly because high SS emissions are associated with large SS particles with short residence times, as discussed above. Also for DU, the burden diversity is somewhat smaller than that of the emissions. The burdens of SO₄ and POM are similar with 2.0 Tg ($\delta=25\%$) and 1.7 Tg ($\delta=25\%$), respectively, and in 11 of the 16 models the first is more abundant. The burden of BC amounts to 0.24 Tg ($\delta=42\%$), and is about one order of magnitude lower than those of SO₄ and POM. The ratio of POM to BC is similar in burdens and emissions.

If the burdens were completely controlled by the emissions we would expect them to have the same diversities. The diversities of the burdens are, however, smaller and can thus only be partly explained by that of the emissions. This indicates that aerosol processes in the atmosphere reduce the effect of diverging sources. This is reflected in the differences of the residence times that are discussed in the next section.

6 Residence times

The (tropospheric) residence times reflect the integral of all simulated aerosol properties and processes that affect the burdens, but they are independent of the emissions strengths. Therefore a comparison of the residence times helps to explain the differences in the aerosol fields, which are caused by aerosol processes rather than by contrasting emission strengths. The residence time τ for an aerosol species is defined as:

$$\tau = \frac{\textit{burden}}{\sin ks} \quad (4)$$

8348

The simulated residence times and their diversities are shown in Figs. 4a and b, respectively. The corresponding numbers are given in Table 10.

Sea salt has the shortest τ of about half a day, followed by SO_4 and DU with about four days, and POM and BC with about six and seven days, respectively (see Table 10).
 5 The residence times reflect the aerosol properties as they depend on particle size and solubility, but also the model-specific parameterizations of aerosol processes. In addition they reflect the spatial distributions of aerosols in conjunction with those of relative humidity, precipitation, and surface properties. After being emitted, aerosol particles are dispersed by the atmospheric flows of the respective host models. Transport takes
 10 place both through resolved large-scale advection and by parameterized sub-grid scale convective and boundary layer turbulent mixing. Aerosol particles are removed from the atmosphere through wet scavenging, sedimentation and dry turbulent deposition. The parameterizations employed to describe the removals in the AeroCom models are briefly discussed in the following section. References can be found in the literature
 15 cited in Tables 5 to 7.

7 Removal process analysis

In this section we investigate the individual removal processes and try to understand the differences in residence times both between aerosols of different types and between the various models for a given aerosol type. Specific processes and parameterizations are identified that cause the simulated aerosol residence times and burdens
 20 described above.

In analogy to the differential rate laws of chemical reactions we define the aerosol removal rate as:

$$-\frac{dm}{dt} = \tau^{-1} m = k m, \quad (5)$$

25 where m is the aerosol mass, and t the time. The removal rate coefficient k is the inverse of the residence time τ . It is the sum of the individual removal rate coefficients.

8349

In the remainder of this paper we distinguish between wet and turbulent deposition, and sedimentation as shown in Eq. (6):

$$k = k_{wet}^+ k_{tur}^+ k_{sed}. \quad (6)$$

The removal rate coefficients k_i for the individual processes can be obtained by multiplication of k with the contributions f_i of the individual sinks mass fluxes to the total
 5 sinks:

$$k_i = f_i * k \text{ with } f_i = \frac{massflux_sin k_i}{\sum_j (massflux_sin k_j)}. \quad (7)$$

The use of these removal rate coefficients isolates differences in the simulated individual removal pathways. In addition, removal rate coefficients are independent from
 10 the diversity of the emissions, in contrast to the mass fluxes, which are usually discussed in the context of aerosol life cycles. Wet and dry removal rate coefficients depend on the model-specific descriptions of aerosol properties and processes, in combination with transport and precipitation fields provided by the global models. The parameterizations employed by the AeroCom models for the removal processes are referenced in Tables 5 to 7. The single processes compete at each grid point and each
 15 time step for available aerosols and are independent from each other (neglecting the additional dependencies introduced from operator splitting here, see Sect. 9.1). However, the removal rate coefficients examined in this paper are obtained from globally and annually averaged mass fluxes and burdens that are in turn influenced by all other
 20 sink processes. Thus, the removal rate coefficients shown in Fig. 5 are not completely independent from each other. However, they average over many applications of the individual parameterizations under all kinds of atmospheric conditions, and thus reflect the overall characteristics of the simulated removal processes.

The wet removal rate coefficients generally increase with the solubility from DU, BC,
 25 POM to SO_4 and SS. This is reflected in the models by the interstitial fractions of aerosols that are represented with a variety of methods as briefly described in Table 8. Uptake by rain droplets and transfer to cloud droplets depend also on aerosol size,

8350

though this effect is simulated in few global models. In addition, the wet removal rate coefficients depend on the degree of concurrence of the distributions of precipitation and aerosols. Scavenging by ice is considered only in some models. The liquid water or ice concentration used for scavenging is taken from the global model in several cases, sometimes scaled to cloud-covered fraction of the grid box, or prescribed in others (see Table 8). The dry turbulent deposition rate is a nonlinear function of particle density and size with a minimum in the accumulation mode. Both dry deposition pathways increase with the particle sizes for particles larger than a few tens of microns, but sedimentation becomes increasingly faster than turbulent deposition for larger particles ($>1\ \mu\text{m}$ in diameter) (Ganzeveld, pers. comm., 2005). Turbulent dry deposition describes the removal of aerosols from the lowest atmospheric levels to the ground. Its rate increases with the aerosol concentration close to the surface and is therefore also a result of the dynamics in the global model. It depends on the intensity of turbulence in the boundary layer, and on the surface properties. In some models, turbulent deposition is connected to the boundary layer turbulence scheme (e.g., MPI_HAM), others solve it simultaneously with sedimentation (e.g., TM5). Some models use regionally constant dry turbulent deposition velocities for all species (e.g., LSCE). In contrast to turbulent deposition, sedimentation is controlled by the particles properties, as it depends mainly on particle size, density (and shape). It becomes the dominant dry removal process for coarse particles (diameter larger than a few microns) and is therefore ignored in some models for SO_4 , BC, and POM. It is neglected for all species in PNNL and UIO_GCM. The particle sizes, and thus the dry deposition rates, are influenced by water uptake in humid ambient air leading to particles growth, for a discussion of this process see Sect. 8.2. The dependence on particle size explains why the all-models-average dry deposition rate of SS is more than ten times larger than that of DU, which is in turn about ten times larger than that of the three “anthropogenic” aerosol types. For the removal of “natural” species which are mostly contained in larger particles all three sink processes are important. SS has the highest rate coefficients both for wet and dry deposition, because of its high solubility and large particle size. For the smaller

8351

“anthropogenic” particles wet deposition is the dominant sink.

The diversities of the removal rate coefficients simulated for the individual species are shown in Fig. 6. Models agree least for “natural” species, both on the wet and especially on the dry deposition rate coefficients, which can probably be attributed to the contrasting particle sizes. The highest diversities both for dry and wet deposition are found for the removal rate of AER, transmitted from its components. The results are more coherent for the “anthropogenic” species. As these are predominantly removed by wet deposition, the diversities of the dry deposition rate coefficients are not relevant, and the diversities of their residence times shown in Fig. 4 are mainly due to the scatter in the wet deposition rate.

For the “natural” species, there is no overall agreement among the AeroCom models on whether wet or dry deposition is the dominant removal pathway. Wet deposition contributes on average about one third to the total sinks with fairly high diversities of $\delta=54\%$ for DU and $\delta=65\%$ for SS (see Table 10). This diversity of the dominant deposition pathway reflects the disagreement on both wet and dry removal rate coefficients. The diversity of wet deposition rate coefficients ($0.08\ \text{days}^{-1}$, $\delta=42\%$ for DU and $0.79\ \text{days}^{-1}$, $\delta=75\%$ for SS) can be attributed to differences in the parameterizations of wet deposition. In some models, DU is internally mixed with other aerosols, thus increasing its solubility. We did not however find systematically enhanced wet deposition of DU in these models. Additional diversity is caused by differences among the models in the simulated distributions of aerosols and precipitation.

The diversities of the total dry deposition rate coefficients are much higher ($0.23\ \text{days}^{-1}$, $\delta=84\%$ for DU and $4.3\ \text{days}^{-1}$, $\delta=218\%$ for SS) than for wet deposition. This is probably mainly caused by the large discrepancies of the simulated particle sizes, which then lead to different dry removal rate coefficients (see also the discussion in Sect. 8.1). Furthermore, the models do not agree on the contribution of turbulent deposition and sedimentation for the total dry deposition rate coefficients. Sedimentation contributes on average 46% ($\delta=66\%$) for DU and 59% ($\delta=65\%$) for SS. This finding indicates significant differences in the particle sizes and the parameterizations of these

8352

processes. Contrasting contributions of sedimentation are also found for models with large total dry deposition rate coefficients (e.g., DU in KYU and TM5). This might be caused by the parameterizations of the dry deposition processes themselves. Another reason is connected to the aerosol mass at the surface, and thus to the transport provided by global model, and other source and sink processes. The separation of these factors is not within the scope of this survey, and we only consider the sum the two dry deposition processes in the following.

The high diversity in the contribution of the individual processes to the total removal rate could also be associated with the method of numerically integrating the advection-diffusion-processes equation. This complex equation is solved numerically in order to obtain the aerosol concentration changes with time. In most current numerical models it is assumed that some or all source and removal (and other) processes are independent from each other. This simplification allows for the separate integration of the single processes in time using a so-called operator splitting method (Marchuk, 1975). Operator splitting is widely used in global numerical models in order to save computational costs. However, the results can be influenced by the sequence of calculating the removal processes thus artificially increasing the contribution of those which are calculated first.

The residence times shown in Sect. 6 are a result of the different intensities and interactions of the processes involved. It is illustrative to associate these residence times with the individual removal rate coefficients for the single models examined in this section. In ARQM, dry deposition is always faster than in the other models, and it is the dominant sink for all species (except for SO_4). The short residence times of DU in ARQM, KYU, and TM5 are caused by highly efficient dry deposition while wet deposition is of similar efficiency as in the other models. The models with long DU residence times (GISS, LSCE, and MATCH) have small dry deposition rate coefficients. In GISS, wet deposition is also quite slow, so that this model has the longest life time for DU. PNNL displays the fastest wet deposition rate, but dry deposition is rather slow. (As mentioned above, sedimentation is neglected in PNNL). Therefore, its overall removal

8353

rate is in the range of the other models. Wet deposition is less important for DU in most models apart from LSCE, MPI.HAM, PNNL, and ULAQ. The fast SS-removals in LSCE and in TM5 are caused by relatively large dry deposition rate coefficients. In PNNL, wet deposition is the dominant removal process, it is about three times faster than the all-models-average, and the SS residence time is at the lower end. Wet deposition is also dominant in KYU, MPI.HAM, and ULAQ. However, the wet deposition rate coefficients in these models are well within the range of the other models. Their dry deposition rate coefficients are even slower, and so the SS residence times are rather long.

The “anthropogenic” aerosols are predominantly removed by wet deposition in all models with the exception of BC and POM in ARQM. In this model wet deposition is slowest and dry deposition fastest, thus total removal rate of BC and POM is similar to that in the other models. The contributions of wet deposition to total removal are 79% ($\delta=17\%$), 80% ($\delta=16\%$), and 89% ($\delta=8\%$) for BC, POM, and SO_4 , respectively. The wet deposition rate coefficients are 0.12 day^{-1} ($\delta=31\%$) for BC, 0.14 day^{-1} ($\delta=30\%$) for POM, and 0.23 day^{-1} ($\delta=24\%$) for SO_4 . The diversity for SO_4 is larger than for BC and POM, although the solubility of these two species is probably less well known. It is difficult to differentiate between the effects on the scavenging efficiency from particular parameterizations on the one hand, and from the coincidences of different spatial and temporal distributions of aerosols and precipitation on the other hand. The relationship between the spatial distributions and the removal rate is discussed in Sect. 9.

We expect higher wet deposition rate coefficients for the “anthropogenic” species, which are mainly removed by wet deposition, with increased precipitation rates. This should especially be true if the increase is due a higher rain frequency and not due to heavier single events. The globally and annually averaged precipitation rate (liquid and ice) of the AeroCom-models is between 2.5 and 3.5 mm per day. We find weak positive correlations between the precipitation rates and the contributions of wet deposition to the total removal, decreasing from BC, POM to SO_4 . Weak correlations are also diagnosed between the precipitation rates and the wet deposition rate coefficients for SO_4 , less for POM, but not for BC (not shown). In some models, however, the scavenging

8354

rate is not based on the liquid water content provided by the microphysical scheme of the global model. Instead, a constant liquid water content is used as for example proposed in Giorgi and Chameides (1986). Furthermore, the fractions of the model grid cells that are covered by clouds are treated in various ways. Scavenging in multi-phase clouds and by ice particles is still not well known and thus poorly represented in large-scale aerosol models (e.g., Lohmann and Feichter, 2004). For an overview of the references and parameterizations employed within the AeroCom models for clouds microphysics and aerosol scavenging (see Table 8).

Most models distinguish between in-cloud and below-cloud, and between stratiform (large scale) and convective scavenging, due to the somewhat artificial distinction of cloud types in numerical models. In order to determine the relative importance of the latter two wet deposition pathways we plot in Fig. 7a the contributions of convective wet deposition to total wet depositions for all models for which data are available. The diversity of the results is shown in Fig. 7b. We find similar convective wet deposition efficiencies for aerosols of different type within a given model. However, the AeroCom models do not agree on the rain type which is most efficient in removing aerosols from the atmosphere. In addition, the sequence of the species along which the contribution of convective rain increases is not consistent. For example for SS we find in some models the highest and in others the lowest contributions. The fractions of wet deposition through convective rain range between 10% and 85%. The diversities of the models results are around $\delta=50\%$ for all species, in spite of their different properties. These findings indicate that more detailed research is required on wet deposition pathways in global models. As a first step, more information on the simulation of precipitation, especially the types of rain, is needed to separate the effects of the wet scavenging parameterizations from those of the cloud microphysics provided by the global model.

In this section we explained the different residence times for the single aerosol components by their properties and the rate of their individual removal processes. The diversity among the models for the simulated residence times of a given species could be attributed to differences in the representations of individual removal processes. How-

8355

ever we cannot identify in which way the specific parameterizations employed in the models caused the established diversities. Sensitivity studies in a given model examining the effects of different particle size distributions and of different dry deposition parameterizations are needed. In this study, we examine the effect of the microphysical properties and the spatial distributions of aerosols on the simulated removal rate coefficients.

8 Particle microphysical properties

The removal rate coefficients depend on aerosol microphysical properties. In the first part of this section we investigate the simulated particle sizes, and in the second the uptake of ambient water.

8.1 Sizes

The description of the particle size distributions depends on the type of the scheme (bulk, modal, or spectral, see Sect. 2.2 and Table 2) and on the number of prognostic variables (see Table 4). The attribution of aerosol mass to three size ranges (diameters of $d < 1 \mu\text{m}$, $1 \mu\text{m} < d < 2.5 \mu\text{m}$, and $2.5 \mu\text{m} < d$) compiled within the AeroCom exercise provides for the first time an overview of the actual size distributions of dry particles in different models. For simplification, we focus here on the split of “fine” ($d < 1 \mu\text{m}$) and coarse ($d > 1 \mu\text{m}$) mode particles. The modelers followed the demand in different ways based on their representation of aerosol sizes. For spectral schemes, the bins within the intervals were simply summed up. In this case the results can be somewhat misleading for schemes with only a few size classes, if these are situated close to the interval boundaries. For modal schemes some participants have used the mass median diameter for classification of the size, and others have more accurately integrated over the distribution within the interval boundaries. In addition, the specific contributions of the accumulation, Aitken and nucleation modes to the fine fraction are not resolved

8356

within the AeroCom diagnostics. Furthermore, the results do not document the differences regarding the largest simulated particle sizes, which is especially important for “natural” aerosol as mentioned in Sect. 4. Despite these reservations the analysis of AeroCom data gives for the first time a general view of the diversity of particle sizes in current aerosol modules. In Fig. 8a, we show the mass fractions of particles in the fine mode, and Fig. 8b shows the corresponding model diversities, the numbers are given in Table 10. We concentrate on mass fractions rather than on total burdens in order to remove the effects of contrasting burdens.

The models agree quite well on the mass fractions of “anthropogenic” particles in the fine mode. BC and POM are up to 97% contained in this size range with very low diversities of $\delta=6\%$ each. The all-models-average for SO_4 in the fine fraction is 95% ($\delta=6\%$). DLR simulates a mass fraction of about 20% of the SO_4 larger than the fine mode since the log-normally distributed accumulation mode in this model contains a significant fraction of particles slightly larger than $1\ \mu\text{m}$. The fairly large particle size for SO_4 found in ULAQ is due to a model artifact. The all-models-average mass fractions for SS, DU and AER in the fine mode are 15% ($\delta=118\%$), 21% ($\delta=114\%$) and 29% ($\delta=55\%$), respectively. In general, the “natural” components and total aerosol are larger than $1\ \mu\text{m}$, but with very high diversities. Models agree better on the fine mass fractions of total aerosol than on those of the “natural” aerosols, by which AER is dominated in mass. This is because in several models a larger fine fraction of one of the “natural” species is compensated by a smaller fine fraction of the other, leading to the smaller diversity of total aerosol (see also Sect. 3.2). Another reason is the additional mass contributing to AER from the more homogeneous size distributions of “anthropogenic” aerosols. The diversity of the fine mass fractions of “natural” aerosols can be associated with specific models: LOA simulates the highest mass fraction of AER in the fine mode (>70%), because of its fine DU. In ARQM, PNNL, and GISS almost 40% of AER is contained in the fine mode. In the first two this is caused by the small size of DU and in the latter by SS. The differences in the simulated aerosol sizes have important implications for the calculated aerosol radiative forcing, which we

8357

do not explore in this paper. The AeroCom data reveal a considerable contribution of “natural” aerosols to the fine fraction, ranging from mass fractions of 10% in MPI_HAM to 77% in GISS. Note that this finding indicates that the fine aerosol mode is not purely composed of SO_4 , BC, and POM.

We would expect that the simulated SS particle sizes are larger in those models where we find large SS burdens, because these larger particles contribute strongly to the burden but are less relevant for radiative aerosol properties, which are validated against observations. When we compare the mass fractions of SS larger than $2.5\ \mu\text{m}$ in diameter with the SS burdens, we do not find a positive correlation. These data do however not resolve the contributions of super-sized SS particles. We conclude that the diversity in the SS burdens is not associated with differences in the simulated particle sizes.

The divergence of the size distributions of “natural” species among the models is partly caused by the sizes of the emitted particles, and partly by the simulated removal processes. We cannot differentiate between these two reasons based on the information available from the AeroCom datasets, because a large fine mass fraction in the burden can either be the reason for slow dry removal rate coefficients (calculated here from the burdens and the fluxes), or – in contrast – be the result of a fast dry removal rate for large particles. It would be more suitable to investigate the sizes of emitted particles rather than those of the burdens when examining the relationship between dry removal rate and particle size. More detailed information about the emitted particle sizes are needed than those summarized in Table 4. In addition, the AeroCom experiment B with unified emissions gives us the opportunity to examine the aerosol processes without the effects from contrasting particle sizes.

When we compare the dry deposition rate coefficients with the mass fractions in the fine mode we do not find a clear correlation. (There is also no such correlation for the super-coarse particles fractions with diameters $d>2.5\ \mu\text{m}$.) This can be due to the concerns about the particle size data in AeroCom discussed above, but also due to the fact that the investigated sizes refer to dry particles. The simulated removal rate

8358

coefficients are actually controlled by ambient particles that grow in the presence of water vapor. Aerosol water uptake is discussed in the next section.

8.2 Water uptake

Aerosol particles absorb water depending on their hygroscopicity and the relative humidity in the local environment. Various parameterizations of different complexity are used to describe water uptake by aerosol particles in the ambient atmosphere, for an overview see Table 9. Differences between models are for the first time diagnosed here. The burdens of aerosol water, dry and ambient aerosol are plotted in Fig. 9a. Figure 9b shows the composition of ambient aerosol. The corresponding numbers and the diversities of the model results are given in Table 10.

The agreement on the burdens of ambient aerosol is much less than for the dry aerosol shown in Fig. 3. The all-models-average aerosol water mass (Fig. 9a) is 9480 Tg with a diversity of $\delta=330\%$, which is mainly caused by the very large water uptake in ARQM. If we exclude this model, all-models-average aerosol water mass is 35 Tg with a diversity of $\delta=81\%$. Aerosol water contributes an average mass fraction (Fig. 9b) of 54% ($\delta=47\%$) to the ambient aerosol composition ranging from 9% in MOZGN to more than 99.9% in ARQM. Excluding ARQM we obtain a water fraction of 48% ($\delta=42\%$). (The agreement on the water mass fraction is greater than for the burden, because the high value of ARQM is limited to 100%.)

Water uptake depends on the aerosol composition. Note, that contrasting compositions of the dry aerosol particles are simulated. Therefore, two aerosol models would not obtain the same water uptake, even if they used the same relative humidity and parameterization for hygroscopic growth. Water uptake is most effective for SS containing particles, which is the most hygroscopic aerosol component. Thus, we find an increase of the aerosol water mass (fraction) with increasing SS mass (fraction) in the model results (not shown). If aerosol water was mainly associated with large, very short-lived SS particles, the high diversity would not be of relevance, e.g., for aerosol radiative forcing. In Sect. 8.1 we show, however, that an all-models-average of $\sim 15\%$

8359

of the SS burden contains particles in the fine mode leading to significant hygroscopic growth of these particles. More information on how the models attribute water to the individual aerosol components would be of interest for a follow up study.

Water uptake also depends on the local relative humidity. There are large differences in the simulated grid cell average values provided by the global models; the optical-depth weighted relative humidity provided by the host models varies from 55% to 77%. A comparison between this relative humidity and aerosol water mass suggests no correlation between the two quantities (not shown). However, several models use a local, sub-grid scale relative humidity instead of the grid box mean. The various methods to obtain the local relative humidity represent additional sources for the model diversity (see Table 9).

The rate coefficients of aerosol removal are influenced by hygroscopic growth, because the added water modifies the particles' sizes and densities. The diameter of ambient particles with the all-models-average water fraction of about 50% is about 30% larger than that of the dry particles, assuming for simplicity the same density for dry aerosol and water. The simulated removal rate coefficients are controlled by these expanded ambient particles. The AeroCom diagnostics do not permit clear association of aerosol water with specific parts of the particle size spectrum in order to investigate the relationship between the ambient particle sizes and the removal rate coefficients.

Aerosol water uptake affects the radiative properties of particles as the effective refractive index and the size, both depending on water, determine optical properties of the aerosol. The high diversity in water uptake demonstrated here is thus highly critical for the comparability of the simulation of aerosols climate effects. In addition, the chemical reactivity depends on the available water in the aerosol particle.

9 Spatial aerosol distributions

The differences in residence times and dry or wet removal rate coefficients between the models can be better understood by extending the analysis of the burdens to the spa-

8360

tial aerosol distributions. The relatively short residence times of aerosol particles result in large spatial gradients, both vertically and horizontally, in the troposphere. In the remainder of the text we use the term model “dispersivity” to qualitatively characterize the degree of vertical and horizontal aerosol dispersal in a given model, as compared to the other AeroCom models. As discussed above for the life cycles, the model dispersivity is controlled by the interaction of various removal and transport processes including sub-grid scale mixing. Identical model dispersivities could result from identically simulated transport and internal aerosol processes among models. However, they could also result from different, but mutually compensating transport and aerosol processes. The separation of their effects requires independent information about transport and is therefore beyond the scope of this paper. In the following, we firstly present the zonally mean vertical aerosol concentration; next we focus on the vertical dispersivity. Finally we discuss the meridional dispersivity, i.e., long-range transport versus the poles.

9.1 Zonal mean vertical aerosol concentrations

In Fig. 10 we show the zonally averaged vertical concentration of AER for all AeroCom models (except for DLR, in which the coarse fractions of DU and SS are neglected). The differences in the spatial model resolution (see Table 2), ranging from 304 to 51 200 grid points in the horizontal, and from 18 to 40 grid points in the vertical, are evident. The AER concentrations show two maxima in all models: the one in the northern hemisphere results mostly from DU, while the one in the Southern Hemisphere is caused by SS emissions in the “roaring forties” of the South Pacific. However, there are remarkable discrepancies: in some models the aerosol is quite dispersed both in the vertical and in the horizontal direction, in others it is confined to the source regions. The model dispersivity is not linked to the model resolution; compare for example MPI_HAM and MOZGN, or UMI and GOCART that have almost the same resolution. The latter two models also use the same meteorological data, but they still have very contrasting dispersivities, especially regarding the transport towards the poles.

Several models show a minimum of the aerosol concentration in the lowest model

8361

layer. This minimum is not easily visible in Fig. 10 for all models concerned, because the lowest layers are sometimes very shallow. Such a minimum is probably not real for the total aerosol concentration, and it is not seen in observational data. Aerosols sometimes show a layered vertical stratification. However, the minima are not located directly at the surface but at higher altitudes (e.g., Bahreini et al., 2003; Kline et al., 2004; Guibert et al., 2005¹; Meloni et al., 2005). We propose two hypotheses to explain this feature. Firstly, the different parameterizations of turbulent dry deposition and their temporal and vertical integrations might play a role in causing this minimum. The dry deposition process is only acting in the lowest level in most models (see Table 7 and Sect. 7). In reality though, the characteristic size of turbulent eddies can be larger than the height of this level. Therefore, the simulated dry deposition might be overestimated at the surface and underestimated above. The second reason for the surface minimum could be operator splitting (see Sect. 7). We presume that the surface minimum concentration can especially be found in those models in which the diagnostic output is obtained just after calculating the aerosol removal processes. We cannot test our hypotheses with the information available, and the causes for the minimum in surface concentration seen in the AeroCom model results need further attention. This is particularly important, as the simulated aerosol concentrations at the surface are compared to observational data for model validation purposes.

The AER distributions shown in Fig. 10 are dominated by the masses of DU and SS. In the following we investigate the spatial distributions of the individual species, first focusing on the vertical dispersivity.

9.2 Vertical dispersivity

Wet scavenging becomes increasingly less significant when aerosols reach altitudes where the clouds show decreased precipitation efficiency [see also Lohmann et al., 1999]. Especially small particles, for which sedimentation is not significant, can in that case have rather extended residence times. We choose for diagnostic purposes a characteristic height of 5km and discuss the mass fractions above this height as an

8362

indicator for the vertical dispersivity, see Fig. 11. Additional layers of different depth (0–1, 1–2.5, 2.5–5 km) are discussed in the text.

The ranges of vertical dispersivity, i.e., the differences for each model between the species with the largest and the smallest mass fractions above 5 km, respectively, are indicated by the gray shadings in Fig. 11a. These ranges, which indicate the degree of similarity of the vertical dispersivity among the species within a given model, differ among the models. The all-models-average range is 25% ($\delta=37\%$), varying from 10% in KYU to 45% in PNNL. In general, KYU, MATCH, MPI_HAM, and TM5 show characteristically lower vertical dispersivities for all species than LOA, LSCE, MOZGN, and UIO_GCM. LSCE and LOA are based on the same global model, the French GCM (LMDzT) (see Table 2). Therefore, their deviations of the vertical dispersivities can be attributed to differences in the parameterizations of aerosol processes. The highest diversities of vertical dispersivities among model results are found for SS, followed by DU, POM, BC, and SO₄, see Fig. 11b.

Vertical dispersivity is weaker for the “natural” species. The mass fractions of SS and DU above 5 km are 9% ($\delta=92\%$), and 14% ($\delta=51\%$), respectively. The SS masses decrease most with height, with largest gradients in MATCH, MPI_HAM, PNNL, and UMI, where more than 90% of the SS mass are within the planetary boundary layer (PBL) below an altitude of 2.5 km. SS reaches greater heights in LOA, LSCE, UIO_GCM, and especially in MOZGN, where 25% of SS are above 5 km. 14% ($\delta=47\%$) of AER occur above 5 km height. The AER composition close to the surface below 1 km is dominated by SS in eight models and by DU in seven models. In this layer, the SS contribution to the AER composition varies from about 20% to 80%, and DU contributes between 15% and 70%. All models have a DU maximum in the upper PBL from 1 to 2.5 km, where DU is the dominant species in all models (mass fractions from 50% to 80%), except for ARQM and MPI_HAM, where SS is still dominant. Although the aerosol particle ascent in the atmosphere depends on its size, we do not find a correlation between the sizes and the mass fractions of DU or SS above 5 km for the ensemble of AeroCom models (not shown). It might nevertheless exist, but is probably not evident in information on

8363

the size distribution as we have argued in Sect. 8.1.

The vertical distributions of BC and POM are similar in most models; larger differences are found in TM5, GOCART, and LOA. The two species are well dispersed in the vertical with the maximum situated in the upper PBL between 1 and 2.5 km in all models. The all-models-average mass fractions above 5 km are 22% ($\delta=48\%$) and 21% ($\delta=52\%$) for BC and POM, respectively. In eight models, the vertical dispersivity is stronger for BC than for POM, in six models the situation is reversed, and in two models similar. There are several reasons for the differences of the simulated vertical distributions of BC and POM within a given model. The formation of secondary POM from organic precursor gases within the atmosphere, if included in the model, increases the amount of POM at greater heights. At the same time, the greater solubility of this species leads to an increased wet scavenging rate, thus reducing high-altitude-POM. Finally, divergent spatial distributions of the two species resulting from transport influence their deposition rate coefficients, which in turn affect the spatial distributions. Weaker vertical dispersivity of BC than of POM could explain the faster wet deposition rate coefficients of this species in three models (LOA, LSCE, MATCH). However, not all models with weaker vertical dispersivity for BC show faster wet removal rate coefficients for this species.

SO₄ is present at the highest altitudes of all species (exceptions: TM5 and especially KYU). The all-models-average SO₄ mass fraction above 5 km is 33% ($\delta=36\%$). The main SO₄ burden is situated in the upper PBL between 1-2.5 km in nine models, in the lower free troposphere between 2.5 and 5 km in three models, in the upper free troposphere between 5 and 10 km in one model, and above 10 km in the tropopause region in three models. In KYU, SO₄ is the aerosol species which is most confined to lower levels, and only ~5% can be found above 5 km. In general, the SO₄-contribution to the AER composition becomes increasingly important with height due to the removal of DU and SS, and due to chemical SO₄-production at greater altitudes within the atmosphere. In several models, SO₄ dominates the aerosol composition above 10 km, and injection into the stratosphere is probable. Its vertical distribution depends on the

8364

distributions of the emissions, on the chemical production, on the distribution of clouds and precipitation, on the parameterization of the wet deposition process, and on transport provided by the global model. An extensive analysis of sulfur cycle simulations in large scale atmospheric models was performed in the COSAM exercise (Barrie et al., 2001; Lohmann et al., 2001; Roelofs et al., 2001). The authors concluded that the uncertainty in predicting the global SO₄ distribution is related to vertical mixing of emitted sulfur species from the planetary boundary layer into the free troposphere. In addition, they suggested that cloud physics and cloud distributions play a major role as they influence cloud-related processes, i.e., the aqueous oxidation of SO₂ and wet deposition. Our results confirm the sensitivity of the sulfur cycle to the vertical distribution, which in turn acts on the efficiency of both the aqueous phase production and the removal rate coefficients. In addition, chemical production of SO₄ at high altitudes explains why its mass fractions at higher altitudes are higher than those of DU, although these components have similar atmospheric residence times. Note that the model diversity of the wet deposition rate coefficients for SO₄ is slightly higher than for BC and POM (Fig. 6). In contrast to SO₄, BC and POM stay at lower heights, where wet deposition is more efficient. Therefore, the diversity of the mass fractions above 5km altitude for SO₄, although the smallest for the “anthropogenic” species, has great influence on the wet deposition rate coefficients.

We would expect slower removal rate coefficients in models where vertical dispersivity is stronger. We do find such a correlation for the “anthropogenic” aerosols, where wet deposition is the dominant removal, but not for SS and DU, which are two thirds removed through dry deposition. Turbulent dry deposition rate increases with increasing concentrations in the lower atmosphere, but we do not diagnose a relationship between turbulent deposition rate coefficients and vertical dispersivity for the ensemble of AeroCom models, although such a relationship might exist within individual models.

Note that the vertical aerosol dispersivity is also strongly influenced by the intensity of the vertical mixing, which lifts the aerosol to greater heights, at that location of the emission. In addition, the vertical dispersivity depends on the height of emission.

8365

This is an issue for volcanic, industrial and also for wildfire emissions. These have sources that are often situated above the planetary boundary layer, leading to elevated residence times. Another sensitive, but not well-constrained process is the representation of aerosol scavenging by ice at low temperatures in the higher atmosphere (e.g., Hendricks et al., 2004; Henning et al., 2004) (see also Table 8).

9.3 Meridional long-range transport

A similar diagnostic as for the vertical dispersivity can be performed for the horizontal distribution of aerosol. The mass fractions in polar regions can serve as an indicator for the horizontal dispersivity, i.e., for meridional long-range transport, because polar regions are far from the aerosol sources. We show the mass fractions of aerosols south of 80°S and north of 80°N, and the corresponding diversities of the model results in Fig. 12.

The all-models-averages of the mass fractions at the poles in relation to total aerosol are 2.4% ($\delta=91\%$) for AER, 6% ($\delta=55\%$) for SO₄, 4.2% ($\delta=71\%$) for BC, 3.3% ($\delta=140\%$) for SS, 3.3% ($\delta=77\%$) for POM, and 1.5% ($\delta=102\%$) for DU, respectively. We obtain very high diversities, especially for the “natural” species. In twelve of the 16 models the highest mass fractions at the poles are found for SO₄, in three models long-range transport is most efficient for BC, and in one for SS. In twelve models the lowest mass fractions are found for DU, in two for POM, in two for SS. The all-models-average composition of aerosol particles in polar regions is dominated by SS with 32% of the total mass, followed by 31% DU, 26% SO₄, 9% POM, and finally 2.1% BC. We also find little agreement on the ranges of meridional dispersivity in the different models indicated by the gray shadings in Fig. 12, ranging from 1.4% in MATCH to 14% in GISS. The models with characteristically low vertical dispersivity (KYU, MATCH, MPI_HAM, TM5) also show fairly weak meridional long-range transport, apart from TM5, where meridional transport is weak, but vertical dispersivity is not. Models with characteristically stronger vertical dispersivity (LOA, LSCE, MOZGN, and UIO_GCM) are not systematically linked with stronger meridional long-range transport. Instead, the latter

8366

is more effective in GISS and GOCART than in the other models.

The transport of SS towards polar regions is not very significant in most models, although its most important source regions are in the southern Pacific. This can be attributed to its short residence time. Somewhat higher fractions can however be found in GOCART, MOZGN, and especially in GISS. Long-range transport is most significant for small particles, which have longer residence times. Therefore, the mass fractions in polar regions depend on the contribution of the fine fraction to the total SS mass, and thus on the emitted SS size distribution. This explains the large amount of SS in polar regions found in the GISS model, where the fine mode contributes almost 70% of its total mass, see Fig. 8a. This figure does not however explain the high SS mass fractions in polar regions for the three other models mentioned above, which do not have exceptional contributions of fine mode particles. This can be caused by the quality of our information on the particle sizes (see the discussions in Sect. 8.1) and by the lack of information on the size of the expanded, ambient particles, which are subject to the simulated transport and deposition processes (see Sect. 8.2). Water uptake is particularly weak in MOZGN, see Fig. 9, leading to smaller particles with longer residence times. This could explain the elevated long-range SS-transport towards the poles in this model.

When we compare meridional long-range transport and vertical dispersivity of DU we do not diagnose a correlation (not shown). Hence, we suggest that long-range transport takes place at different heights in the models. The travel distances between the simulated DU sources and polar regions are similar in all models, and we would thus assume more important long-range transports for longer simulated DU residence times. We do not however find such a relationship (not shown) and conclude that the velocities of meridional DU transport differ among the AeroCom models. For “anthropogenic” aerosols we find, however, moderately increased efficiencies of meridional long-range transport in models with slower removal rate coefficients. The (wet) removal rate coefficients of “anthropogenic” aerosols are correlated with the vertical dispersivity, as shown above. Consequently, we also find a positive correlation of vertical dis-

8367

persivity with the efficiency of meridional long-range transport for the “anthropogenic” aerosols (not shown). We suppose that long-range transport is efficient for fine particles once they have reached the upper free troposphere, where they have extended residence times. This effect stands out of the differences in simulated meridional transport provided by the global models.

10 Summary and conclusions

In this paper, we investigated the parameters and processes that govern the simulated aerosol life cycles in sixteen global aerosol models. The diversities among the models’ results have been quantified. Aerosol life cycles are influenced by many processes that are highly related. The meteorology of the global model governs horizontal and vertical aerosol transport and provides the relative humidity that influences hygroscopic particle growth. In addition, it controls, together with the parameterizations of cloud microphysics the spatial distribution and the strength of precipitation, which in turn affect the aerosol wet deposition efficiency. The conditions in the surface layer and the surface properties control turbulent dry deposition of aerosols. Furthermore, the aerosol distribution is influenced by the processes and parameters described in the aerosol modules themselves. Based on the present AeroCom data set it was not possible to differentiate whether the transport provided by the global model controls the removal rate coefficients, or if instead contrasting removal processes result in the observed aerosol dispersal. The separation of internal aerosol from transport processes would require the investigation of an inert tracer (e.g., Denning, 1999). The main conclusions from the AeroCom model intercomparison are shortly listed below (see also Table 10).

The AeroCom-models-average results for the properties involved in the life cycle are the following:

- emissions are dominated in mass by SS, followed by DU, SO₄, POM, and BC,
- burdens from greatest to least are: DU, SS, SO₄, POM, BC,

8368

- residence times from greatest to least are: BC, POM, DU, SO₄, SS,
- rate coefficients for wet deposition increase with the solubility from DU, BC, POM to SO₄ and SS,
- rate coefficients for dry deposition are generally correspond with the particle size and are larger for the SS and DU,
- SO₄, BC, and POM are predominantly removed by wet deposition,
- DU and SS are removed by about two thirds by dry deposition (high model diversity),
- BC, POM, and SO₄ are mainly contained in particles smaller than 1 μm in diameter,
- BC, POM, and especially SO₄ reach greater heights than the other components.

The established diversities are highest for:

- emissions, particle sizes, deposition pathways and rate coefficients, and residence times of SS, DU, AER,
- aerosol composition and water content due to hygroscopic growth in ambient air,
- ambient (wet) aerosol mass
- vertical dispersivity, mass in the free troposphere,
- long-range transport towards the poles,
- the split between convective and stratiform wet deposition.

8369

The high diversity of the emissions of SS and DU is due to the differences in the parameterizations of their source fluxes and the particle sizes. In addition, the meteorology, the methods employed for nudging and data interpolation, and the model resolutions also play important roles. The high diversity of the deposition pathways and removal rate coefficients of SS and DU are probably related to the disagreement on the particle sizes, and possibly also to the application of operator splitting techniques, i.e. the sequential solution of the process equations in numerical models.

The established emission diversities are generally lower for SO₄, BC, and POM, because similar data sets are employed to prescribe their emissions in time and space, and the diversities reflect therefore mainly the differences of these data sets. The diversity of the SO₄ sources is mainly caused by different amounts of losses of sulfur-containing precursor gases and by different chemical production rates in the models.

The wet deposition rate coefficients depend on the effects on the scavenging efficiency from the particular parameterizations. These include the calculation of the available water, and the treatment of scavenging by ice, which differ greatly among the models. In addition, the wet deposition rate depends on the temporal and spatial coincidences of aerosols and precipitation.

Aerosol dispersal of a given aerosol component should be more favorable in those models where it has a longer residence time. For SO₄, BC, and POM, we find slightly enhanced dispersals in models with the longer residence times, and a positive correlation between the vertical dispersivity and meridional long-range transport. Once fine aerosols have reached the upper free troposphere, wet scavenging shows a reduced efficiency, and thus meridional long-range transport is more pronounced. However, we do not find such a relationship for SS and DU, nor do we find a systemic correlation between their dispersivities and dry particle sizes within the ensemble of AeroCom models. We suggest that the simulated meridional long-range transport of these species takes place at different heights and at different velocities. The degree of aerosol dispersal is not linked to the model resolution, although it covers a wide range from 304 to 51 200 grid points in the horizontal and 18 to 40 layers in the vertical direction, respec-

8370

tively. The diversity of vertical dispersal is smaller than that of meridional dispersal, but they are of similar size for a given species. We therefore conclude that model diversity is propagated from vertical dispersivity to meridional long-range transport.

5 In some models, a minimum of the aerosol concentration is simulated in the lowest model layer. As potential reasons for this minimum we propose the parameteriza-
tion of turbulent dry deposition and the use of operator splitting methods to solve the
advection-diffusion-processes equation. Further research is needed to clarify the rea-
sons for the simulated minimum of aerosol concentrations at the surface, especially,
because they are compared to observational data for model validation.

10 Sixteen global aerosol models took part in the comparison. The global models are
of different architecture, resolution, and include various parameterizations for the sub-
grid scale processes, some are climatological models. Implemented into these models
are aerosol modules of very different complexity. In this study we did not examine the
effects of the different model architectures and types. Instead we focused on the inves-
15 tigation of globally and annually averaged quantities to identify disagreements in the
simulated aerosol life cycles. The averaging procedure might smooth out divergences
resulting from different model formulations. We did not investigate any time depen-
dent quantities, like the amplitude or variability of the simulated annual cycles. We feel
however, that such studies make more sense in the context of a model comparison
20 to observations, which will be discussed in follow-up papers. The data collected in
the framework of AeroCom offer many possibilities to examine specific processes, and
several surveys are under way. These include a comparison of simulated optical prop-
erties with ground based and satellite data (Kinne et al., 2005²; Schulz et al., 2005b³),
a comparison of simulated vertical profiles with LIDAR data (Guibert et al., 2005¹),
25 aerosol light absorption, and more.

Model intercomparisons have often been criticized for creating peer pressure among
the participating groups to convert to all-models-average quantities, but not to enhance
the scientific knowledge of the investigated system. The establishment of the Aero-
Com initiative has enhanced interactions within the aerosol scientific community. The

8371

publication of the simulation results on the internet has led to the identification of weak
components and has provoked the improvement of specific process parameterizations.
In addition, model errors could be identified and removed (and this is not trivial). The
diversities established here indicate that aerosol processes in the atmosphere are still
5 not completely understood. Models might give erroneous results under different ambi-
ent conditions in climate change scenarios. A process analysis as carried out in this
study helps to understand the effects of model-specific parameterizations on macro-
scopic aerosol features, which can be validated with observations and within climate
simulations. Several processes and parameters with high diversities are particularly
10 relevant for aerosol radiative forcing calculations:

- masses of aerosol in the radiatively active fine mode
- dry aerosol composition
- aerosol water content
- vertical aerosol dispersal.

15 These deserve further attention to reduce the uncertainty of the climatic impact at-
tributed to aerosol.

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8372

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8373

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8374

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8391

Table 1. Abbreviations used in the tables.

Abbreviation	Signification
acm	accumulation mode
act	activated
aitm	aitken mode
anthrop	anthropogenic
bioburn	biomass burning
cf	cloud free
coag	coagulation
coam	coarse mode
coeff	coefficient
cond	condensation
conv	convective
dyn	dynamics
emi	emission
ext	external
fix	prescribed
fraction	value in cloud free fraction of grid box
hetero	heterogeneous
homo	homogeneous
insol	insoluble
int	internal
interstit	interstitial
mean	mean grid box value
mix	mixture
modal M	modal scheme, mass mixing ratio as prognostic variable
modal MN	modal scheme, mass mixing ratio and number conc. as prognostic variables
nucl	nucleation
nuclm	nucleation
NVOC	non-volatile organic carbons
prod	production
prog	prognostic
scav	scavenging
sigma-p	hybrid-sigma p
sol	soluble
strat	stratiform
supcoam	super coarse mode
thermodyn	thermodynamics

8392

Table 2. Description of the host-models and general classification of aerosol modules.

Model Name	Global model	Horizont. Resolution (x y) (lon lat)	Vertical Resolution (# of levels) (type)	References for global model	Type of scheme	number of bins or modes	aerosol mixing	Aerosol dynamics*	References for aerosol module
ARQM	GCM Canadian GCMIII	128x64 2.81°x2.81°	32 sigma-p	Zhang and McFarlane, 1995b	bin	12 all internally mixed	int	nucl. cond. coag. thermodyn. cloud processing	Zhang et al., 2001; Gong et al., 2003
DLR	GCM ECHAM4	96x48 3.75°x3.75°	19 sigma	Roeckner et al., 1996	modal MN	2 nucl+accm	int	nucl. cond. coag. thermodyn. aging BC POM	Ackermann et al., 1998
GISS	GCM modelE	46x72 5°x4°	20 sigma	Schmidt, 2005 ⁵⁾	bin	13 2 SS, 4 DU, 1 BC, 1 POM, 1 SO _x , 4 DU/SO _x	ext	aging BC POM, hetero DU-SO _x	Koch et al., 1998; Koch, 2001; Bauer and Koch, 2005 ²⁾ ; Gakur et al., 2005 ³⁾ ; Koch and Hansen, 2005; Koch et al., 2005 ⁴⁾ ; Miller et al., 2005 ⁶⁾
GOCART	CTM GOCART 3.15b	144x91 2.5°x2.0°	30 sigma	Atlas and Lucchesi, 2000	modal M	17 8 DU, 4 SS, 2 BC, 2 POM, 1 SO _x	ext	aging BC POM	Chin et al., 2000; Ginoux et al., 2001; Chin et al., 2002
KYU	GCM CCSRNIES/FRCGC GCM / SPRINTARS 5.7b	320x160 1.1°x1.1°	20 sigma	Numaguti et al., 1995; Hasumi and Emori, 2004	bin, modal M for aerosol dyn	17 bins 10 DU, 4 SS, 1 BC, 1 BCPOM, 1 SO _x (5 modes for aerosol dyn)	ext partly int for BC/ POM	none	Takemura et al., 2000; Takemura et al., 2002; Takemura et al., 2005
LSCE	GCM LMDzT 3.3	96x72 3.75°x2.5°	19 sigma	Sadoumy and Laval, 1994; Hourdin and Armengaud, 1999	modal MN	5 accm: sol+insol, coam: sol+insol, supcoam sol	ext mix of int modes ³⁾	aging BC POM	Claquin et al., 1998; Guelle et al., 1998a; Guelle et al., 1998b; Smith and Harrison, 1998; Claquin et al., 1999; Guelle et al., 2000; Balkanski et al., 2003; Bauer et al., 2004; Schultz et al., 2005a
LOA	GCM LMDzT 3.3	96x72 3.75°x2.5°	19 sigma	Sadoumy and Laval, 1994; Hourdin and Armengaud, 1999	bin	16 2 DU, 11 SS, 1 BC (sol+insol), 1 POM (sol+insol), 1 SO _x	ext	aging BC POM	Boucher and Anderson, 1995; Boucher et al., 2002; Reddy and Boucher, 2004; Gubert et al., 2005
MATCH	CTM MATCH v 4.2	192x94 1.9°x1.9°	28 sigma-p	Zhang and McFarlane, 1995a; Rasch et al., 1997; Rasch and Kristjansson, 1998	bin	8 4 DU, 1 SS, 1 BC, 1 POM, 1 SO _x	ext	aging BC POM	Barth et al., 2000; Rasch et al., 2000; Rasch et al., 2001
MPI HAM	GCM ECHAM5	192x96 1.8°x1.8°	31 sigma-p	Roeckner et al., 2003; Roeckner et al., 2004; Stier et al., 2004	modal MN	7	ext mix of int modes	nucl. cond. coag. thermodyn	Stier et al., 2004

8393

Table 2. Continued.

MOZGN	CTM MOZART v2.5	192x96 1.9°x1.9°	28 sigma-p	Brasseur et al., 1998; Tie et al., 2001; Horowitz et al., 2003; Tie et al., 2005	bin	12 1 SO _x , 1 POM, 1 BC, 5 DU, 4 SS	ext	aging BC POM	Tie et al., 2001; Tie et al., 2005
PNL	GCM MIRAAGE 2 / derived from NCAR CAM2.0	144x91 2.5°x2.0°	24 sigma-p	Kiehl and Gent, 2004	modal MN	8 atm accm coam DU+SO _x , coam SS+SO _x , inter+ext each	ext mix of int modes	nucl. cond. coag. thermodyn. cloud processing	Easter et al., 2004
TMS	CTM TMS	global 60x45 6°x4° Europe+North America: 1°x1°	25 sigma-p	Krol et al., 2005	modal MN	8 3 SS, 2 DU, 1 SOA-POM, 1 BC, 1 SO _x -NO _x	ext	aging BC	Metzger et al., 2002a, 2002b
UIO_CTM	CTM OsloCTM2	128x64 2.81°x2.81°	40 sigma	Berglen et al., 2004	bin	25 8 DU, 8 SS, 4 BC, 4 POM, 1 SO _x	ext except bioburn	aging BC POM	Griini et al., 2002b; Myhre et al., 2003; Berglen et al., 2004; Bentsen et al., 2004 ¹⁰⁾ ; Griini et al., 2005
UIO_GCM	GCM CCM3.2	128x64 2.81°x2.81°	18 sigma-p	Hack, 1994; Kiehl et al., 1998	modal, MMN bin for aerosol dyn	12 modes aerosol dyn: 43 bins from 8 int modes, DU+SS fix	4 ext 8 int: mixed from 4 prog + 8 fix	nucl. cond. coag. thermodyn. cloud processing	Iversen and Seland, 2002; Kirkevåg and Iversen, 2002; Kirkevåg et al., 2005
ULAQ	CTM ULAQ	16x19 22.5°x10°	26 log-p	Pitari et al., 2002	bin	41 7 DU, 9 SS, 5 BC, 5 POM, 15 SO _x	ext	aging BC + POM	Koch, 2001, SO _x microphysics Pitari et al., 1993; Pitari et al., 2002
UMI	CTM IMPACT	144x91 2.5°x2°	30 sigma-p	Schubert, 1993; Rotman et al., 2004	bin	13 3 SO _x , 1 POM, 1 BC, 4 DU, 4 SS	Ext	none	Liu and Penner, 2002

*) Aerosol dynamics refers to microphysical processes apart from those concerning the sulfur cycle, which is referenced in table 4.

**) KYU describes the size distributions differently for transport and aerosol dynamics. 16 bins (10 DU, 4 SS, 1 BCPOM, 1 SO_x) are considered for transport. For the aerosol dynamics, a modal approach is employed (one mode per species, sigma fix).

***) ext mix of int modes: Several internally mixed modes, which do not have the same composition and are therefore externally mixed.

****) UIO_GCM describes the size distributions differently for transport and aerosol dynamics. 12 modes are considered for transport, 4 of them have prescribed size distributions, are transported and not mixed with the other modes (external). The next 4 modes are also transported and only the shape of the distribution is constant (sigma fix). For the aerosol dynamics, these latter 4 modes are internally mixed with 8 prescribed modes, and fitted to 43 bins.

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Table 2. Continued.

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8395

Table 3. References for the sources employed for the simulations analyzed in this study.

Model	BC	POM	SOA	DUST	Sea Salt	direct SO ₄	SO ₂	DMS	other S species
ARQM	Cooke et al., 1999; Lavoue et al., 2000; Liousse et al., 1996	Cooke et al., 1999; Lavoue et al., 2000; Liousse et al., 1996	included in POM, terpene from Liousse et al., 1996	interactively Marticorena and Bergametti, 1995	interactively Gong, 2003	monthly anthrop SO ₄ GIEA level2	monthly anthrop SO ₂ GIEA level2	ocean data: Kettle et al., 1999, sea-air transfer: Wanninkhof, 1992	land H ₂ S: Benkovitz and Schwartz, 1997
DLR	fossil fuel combustion + bioburn: Cooke and Wilson, 1996	fossil fuel combustion + bioburn: Liousse et al., 1996	included in POM, terpene from Liousse et al., 1996 + natural terpene from plants: Guenther et al., 1995	precalculated monthly means, Ginoux et al., 2001	interactively Monahan et al., 1986	none	annual fossil fuel combustion: Benkovitz et al., 1994, bioburn/Hao et al., 1990, non-eruptive volcanoes: Spiro et al., 1992, up-scaled to 6.7TgS/a	ocean data: Kettle et al., 1999, air-sea transfer: Liss and Merlivat, 1986	none
GISS	industrial: Bond et al., 2004, bioburn: Cooke and Wilson, 1996	industrial: Bond et al., 2004, bioburn: Cooke and Wilson, 1996	included in POM, terpene from Guenther et al., 1995 10% emi rate	interactively Cakmur et al., 2005; Miller et al., 2005	interactively Monahan et al., 1986	2.5% of SO ₂	Dentener et al., 2005 except for biomass & aircraft: Koch et al., 1999	ocean data: Kettle et al., 1999, air-sea transfer: Nightingale et al., 2000	none
GO CART	Cooke et al., 1999; Duncan et al., 2003; Van der Werf et al., 2003	Cooke et al., 1999; Duncan et al., 2003; Van der Werf et al., 2003	Guenther et al., 1995	interactively Ginoux et al., 2001; Chin et al., 2004	interactively Monahan et al., 1986; Gong et al., 1997; 2003	3% of anthrop SO ₂	anthrop: seasonal, bioburn: monthly, Nakicenovic et al., 2000, Streets et al., 2003, non-eruptive volcanoes: Andres and Kasgnoc, 1998	ocean data: Kettle and Andreae, 2000, sea-air transfer: Liss and Merlivat, 1986	MSA from DMS
KYU	Nozawa and Kurokawa, 2005 ¹²⁾ based on FAO, GEIA, HYDE	Nozawa and Kurokawa, 2005 ¹²⁾ based on FAO, GEIA, HYDE	included in POM, terpene + NVOC from GEIA database of, then adjusted to SOA emi using a factor in Griffin et al., 1999	interactively Gillette, 1978; Takemura et al., 2000	interactively Erickson et al., 1986; Takemura et al., 2000	none	anthrop: annual: Nozawa and Kurokawa, 2005 ¹²⁾ based on A.S.L. Associates, HYDE, non-eruptive volcanoes: Andres and Kasgnoc, 1998, monthly bioburn Spiro et al., 1992	interactively Bates et al., 1987; Takemura et al., 2000	none
LSCE	Generoso et al., 2003	Generoso et al., 2003	Liousse et al., 1996	interactively Claquin et al., 1999; Balkanski et al., 2003,	interactively fitted to Monahan et al., 1986; Smith and Harrison, 1998; Schulz et al., 2004	5% of anthrop SO ₂	monthly EDGAR 3.2 1995 except for shipping: Corbett et al., 1999; Mueller, 1992; Hao and Liu, 1994	ocean data: Kettle and Andreae, 2000, sea-air transfer: Nightingale et al., 2000	H ₂ S: 3% of anthrop fossil fuel SO ₂ , MSA from DMS

8396

Table 3. Continued.

LOA	Reddy et al., 2005	Reddy and Boucher, 2004	included in POM, terpene from Reddy and Boucher, 2004	interactively Clauquin et al., 1999; Balkanski et al., 2003	interactively Monahan et al., 1986; Reddy et al., 2005	5% of anthrop SO ₂	monthly EDGAR3.2 except for shipping: Corbett et al., 1999 and bioburn: Pham et al., 1995	ocean data: Kettle and Andreae, 2000, sea-air transfer Nightingale et al., 2000	H ₂ S: 3% of anthrop fossil fuel SO ₂ , no direct emi DMSO, MSA
MATCH	Liousse et al., 1996	Liousse et al., 1996	Liousse et al., 1996	Ginoux et al., 2001; Zender et al., 2003	NA	Benkovitz et al., 1996	Benkovitz et al., 1996	Benkovitz et al., 1996	Benkovitz et al., 1996
MPI HAM	Dentener et al., 2005 ¹¹⁾	Dentener et al., 2005 ¹¹⁾	included in POM Dentener et al., 2005 ¹¹⁾	interactively Tegen et al., 2002	interactively fitted to Monahan et al., 1986; Smith and Harrison, 1998; Schultz et al., 2004	Dentener et al., 2005 ¹¹⁾	anthrop EDGAR 1995 as Dentener et al., 2005 ¹¹⁾	ocean data : Kettle and Andreae, 2000, sea-air transfer: Nightingale et al., 2000	none
MOZGN	fossil fuel: Cooke et al., 1999, bioburn: Mueller, 1992; Hao and Liu, 1994 emi ratios from Andreae and Merlet, 2001, biofuel: EDGARv2.0, Olivier et al., 1996	fossil fuel: Cooke et al., 1999, bioburn: Mueller, 1992; Hao and Liu, 1994 emi ratios Andreae and Merlet, 2001, biofuel: EDGARv2.0, Olivier et al., 1996	from oxidation of alpha-pinene with OH, O ₃ , NO ₃ , toluene with OH, and higher alkanes with OH: online coupled to chemistry: Tie et al., 2005	interactively Ginoux et al., 2001, threshold velocity for wind erosion: Ginoux et al., 2004	interactively Tie et al., 2005	2% of anthrop SO ₂	monthly mean bioburn: Mueller, 1992; Hao and Liu, 1994; Emi ratios from Andreae and Merlet, 2001, biofuel: EDGARv2.0, Olivier et al., 1996	monthly mean GEIA Benkovitz et al., 1996	none
PNNL	fossil fuel from Cooke et al., 1999, bioburn from Cooke and Wilson, 1996, boreal/temperate wildfires from Lavoue et al., 2000; Olivier, 2002	fossil fuel + bioburn Chuang et al., 2002, boreal/temperate wildfires Lavoue et al., 2000	included in POM, terpene from Guenther et al., 1995 10% emi rate	precalculated monthly mean IPCC 1999, Ginoux et al., 2001	interactively Gong, 2002 adjusted at small sizes	3% of anthrop SO ₂	anthrop: monthly EDGAR 3.2 1995, Olivier, 2002 with h/l/o vertical factors from seasonal GEIA 1985 Sulfur v1B inventory, Benkovitz et al., 1996, volcanic: Barrie et al., 2001	ocean data: Kettle et al., 1999 sea-air transfer: Nightingale et al., 2000, online winds	MSA from DMS
TM5	Dentener et al., 2005 ¹¹⁾	Dentener et al., 2005 ¹¹⁾	included in POM Dentener et al., 2005 ¹¹⁾	precalculated Dentener et al., 2005 ¹¹⁾	precalculated Dentener et al., 2005 ¹¹⁾ with ECMWF sea ice correction	2.5% of anthrop SO ₂	anthrop EDGAR 1995 as Dentener et al., 2005 ¹¹⁾	ocean data: Kettle et al., 1999, sea-air transfer: Liss and Merlivat, 1986	MSA from DMS added to SO ₂

8397

Table 3. Continued.

UIO_CTM	fossil fuel: Cooke et al., 1999, bioburn: Cooke and Wilson, 1996	Liousse et al., 1996	included in POM, terpene from Liousse et al., 1996	interactively Gini et al., 2005	interactively Gini et al., 2002a	3% of anthrop SO ₂	1996 anthrop Berglen et al., 2004, GEIA 1985 scaled to fossil fuel use, Europe: EMEP, ships: Endresen, 2003, non-eruptive volcanoes: Spiro et al., 1992, up-scaled to 8 Tg/s/a	ocean data: Kettle and Andreae, 2000, sea-air transfer: Nightingale et al., 2000	H ₂ S: Spiro et al., 1992
UIO_GCM	IPCC-TAR 2000	IPCC-TAR 2000	none	prescribed Kirkevåg et al., 2005	prescribed (parameterized from wind speed) Kirkevåg et al., 2005	2% of SO ₂	annual anthrop emis + non-eruptive volcanoes IPCC-TAR 2000	66% of IPCC-TAR 2000 (DMS->MSA is not considered)	none
ULAQ	IPCC-TAR 2000	IPCC-TAR 2000	included in POM from terpenes Liousse et al., 1996	precalculated monthly means, IPCC-TAR 2000	precalculated monthly means, IPCC-TAR 2000	2.5 % of SO ₂	annual anthrop non-eruptive volcanoes IPCC-TAR 2000	monthly means, IPCC-TAR 2000	OCS (500 ppbv) MSA from DMS
UMI	fossil fuel + biomass BC: Penner et al., 1993; Liousse et al., 1996	natural: 9% of terpene emi from Guenther et al., 1995, fossil fuel + biomass: Penner et al., 1993; Liousse et al., 1996	9% of natural POM	precalculated 6 hours Ginoux et al., 2001	precalculated monthly Gong et al., 1997	none	monthly fossil fuel + non-eruptive volcanoes IPCC-TAR 2000	Pre-calculated, monthly, ocean data Kettle et al., 1999, sea-air transfer: Nightingale et al., 2000	none

11) Dentener, F., Kinne, S., Bonds, T., Boucher, O., Cofala, J., Generoso, S., Ginoux, P., Gong, S., Hoelzemann, J., Ito, A., Marelli, L., Putaud, J.-P., Textor, C., Schulz, M., van der Werf, G., and Cofala, J.: Emissions of primary aerosol and precursor gases in the years 2000 and 1750: prescribed data-sets for AeroCom, in preparation for MPI reports, 2005.

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8398

Table 4. Sizes of the emitted particles in μm .

	BC	POM	DUST	Sea Salt	SO _x
ARQM	0.1	0.1	0.01 – 40.96	0.01 – 40.96	0.25
DLR	fossil fuel combustion: 0.08 (75% wt%), 0.75 (25% wt%), bioburn: 0.02 (0.01 wt%), 0.37 (99.99 wt%)	fossil fuel combustion: 0.02 (2% wt%), 0.38 (98% wt%), bioburn: 0.02 (0.01 wt%), 0.37 (99.99 wt%)	0.53	0.27 (0.2 wt%), 1.88 (99.8 wt %)	none
GISS	0.2	0.6	0.92, 2.94, 5.88, 11.76	0.8, 10.0	0.6, and internally mixed with dust
GOCART	0.078	0.174	0.28, 0.48, 0.90, 0.16, 2.8, 4.8, 9.0, 16.0, 0.28- 1.6 treated as one size (1.46) for transport	0.52, 2.38, 4.86, 15.0	0.312
KYU	0.236	0.20	0.25, 0.40, 0.66, 1.04, 11.64, 2.54, 4.04, 6.40, 10.12, 16.04	0.36, 1.12, 33.56, 11.24	0.139
LSCE	0.14	0.34	2.5	0.568 - 0.542, 4.5 - 4.3 Schulz et al., 2005a	0.3 for direct emi and chemical prod
LOA	0.1	0.3	21	0.5 <d< 338 (80% RH)	0.3
MATCH	0.1	0.14	tri-modal 0.832, 4.82, 19.38	NA	0.28
MPI_HAM	fossil fuel/ biofuel: 0.069 wildfire: 0.172	fossil fuel/ biofuel: 0.069 wildfire: 0.172 biogenic: 0.069	coam 3.5, accm 0.74 Tegen et al., 2002	0.568 - 0.542, 4.5 - 4.3 Schulz et al., 2005a	shp, industrial, powerplant: 50 % accm 0.172, 50 % coam 1.64 other primary: 50 % alm 0.069, 50 % accm 0.1725
MOZGN	0.1	0.27	0.78, 2.8, 4.8, 9, 16	0.6, 2, 6.5, 15	0.42
PNL	0.19, 0.025	0.19, 0.025	2.81, 0.31	8.45, 0.56	0.19, 0.025
TMS	0.287	0.287	1.8, 5	0.21, 1.3, 7.2	0.287
UIO_CTM	fossil fuel: 0.10 bioburn: 0.195, 0.852 (except for optics)	fossil fuel: 0.423 bioburn: 0.195, 0.852 (except for optics)	4.82	0.03 < d < 25	0.423
UIO_GCM	0.1	0.1	0.3, 3.78, 5.07	0.27, 1.88, 15.75	0.1 direct emi, homo nucl, chemical prod added to DU, SS, SO ₄ in accm
ULAQ	0.08, 0.02 - 0.32 (5 bins) normalized size distribution Pusechel et al., 1992	0.28, 0.04 - 0.64 (5 bins) normalized size distribution as for SO _x	2.56, 0.64 - 10.2 (5 bins)	2.56, 0.64 - 20.5 (6 bins)	0.28, 0.0008 - 20.5 (15 bins)
UMI	fossil fuel: 0.1452 Radke et al., 1988, bioburn: 0.137 Anderson et al., 1996	fossil fuel: 0.1452 Radke et al., 1988, bioburn: 0.137 Anderson et al., 1996	0.402, 1.8, 3.488, 8.274	0.362, 1.602, 3.136, 5.916	0.0568, 0.222, 1.529 gas phase prod.: all bins aqueous prod.: 2nd bin

8399

Table 5. Sulfur chemistry.

Sulfur chemistry	Reference for sulfur cycle	online-coupled to chemistry	source of prescribed oxidants	sulfate nucleation
ARQM	von Salzen and Schlunzen, 1999; Gong et al., 2003	/	OH, O ₃ , and H ₂ O ₂ from MOZART Brasseur et al., 1998; Hauglustaine et al., 1998	Kulmala et al., 1998
DLR	Feichter et al., 1996	/	OH, O ₃ , NO ₂ Roelofs and Lelieveld, 1995 H ₂ O ₂ from Dentener and Crutzen, 1993	homo: Vehkamäki et al., 2002 hetero: added to accm
GISS	Bauer and Koch, 2005; Koch et al., 2005	/	Bell et al., 2005	homo: none hetero: Fuchs and Sutugin, 1970
GOCART	Chin et al., 2000	/	OH, NO ₃ , and H ₂ O ₂ from IMAGES Mueller and Brasseur, 1995	homo: none hetero: added to accm
KYU	Takemura et al., 2000	/	OH, O ₃ , and H ₂ O ₂ from CHASER Sudo et al., 2002	none
LSCE	Boucher et al., 2002	INCA Hauglustaine et al., 2004	/	homo: none hetero: added to accm
LOA	Boucher et al., 2002	H ₂ O ₂ prog	Pham et al., 1995 with diurnal and monthly variations	homo: none hetero: added to accm SO _x
MATCH	Barth et al., 2000	/	OH, H ₂ O ₂ , and O ₃ from MOZART Horowitz et al., 2003	homo: none hetero: added to accm
MPI_HAM	Feichter et al., 1996	/	OH, H ₂ O ₂ , NO ₂ , and O ₃ from MOZART Horowitz et al., 2003	homo: Vehkamäki et al., 2002 hetero: Fuchs, 1959
MOZGN	Tie et al., 2005	MOZART Horowitz et al., 2003	/	homo: none hetero: added to accm
PNL	Easter et al., 2004 except MSA treated as SO _x	MIRAGE Easter et al., 2004	/	hetero: Fuchs and Sutugin, 1970 homo: Harrington and Kreidenweis, 1998
TMS	Metzger et al., 2002b	TM3 Houweling et al., 1998; Jeuken et al., 2001	/	homo: none hetero: added to accm
UIO_CTM	Berglen et al., 2004	Berntsen and Isaksen, 1997; Berglen et al., 2004	/	homo: none hetero: added to accm bin
UIO_GCM	Iversen and Seländ, 2002	/	Berntsen and Isaksen, 1997	homo: 5% of gas production hetero: added internally mixed modes Iversen and Seländ, 2002; Kirkevåg and Iversen, 2002
ULAQ	Feichter et al., 1996	OH, H ₂ O ₂ , O ₃ , NO ₃ from ULAQ-CTM (Pitari et al., 2002)	/	homo and hetero Pitari et al., 2002
UMI	Penner et al., 2002	H ₂ O ₂ predicted from HOx chemistry and H ₂ O ₂ photolysis	OH, HOx and O ₃ from GRANTOUR Penner et al., 1994	homo: none hetero: added to the 2 nd bin

8400

Table 6. Sedimentation.

	components	reference
ARQM	all	Gong et al., 2003
DLR	all	Binkowski and Shankar, 1995
GISS	all	Koch et al., 2005
GOCART	all	Fuchs, 1964
KYU	all	Takemura et al., 2000
LSCE	all	Schulz et al., 1998
LOA	DU, SS	Reddy et al., 2005
MATCH	DU	Zender et al., 2003
MPI HAM	all	Stier et al., 2004
MOZGN	DU, SS	Seinfeld and Pandis, 1997
PNNL	none	/
TM5	DU, SS	similar to Schulz et al., 1998
UIO_CTM	DU, SS	Grini et al., 2002a; Grini et al., 2005
UIO_GCM	none	/
ULAQ	all	Pitari et al., 2002
UMI	all	Seinfeld and Pandis, 1997

8401

Table 7. Turbulent dry deposition.

	Approach	reference
ARQM	resistance	Zhang et al., 2001
DLR	resistance	Binkowski and Shankar, 1995; Ganzeveld and Lelieveld, 1995
GISS	resistance	Chin et al., 1996; Koch et al., 2005; Schmidt, 2005
GOCART	resistance	Wesely, 1989,
KYU	resistance	Takemura et al., 2000
LSCE	constant velocities	
LOA	constant velocities	Boucher et al., 2002; Reddy et al., 2005
MATCH	constant velocities	Rasch et al., 2000
MPI HAM	resistance	Ganzeveld et al., 1998; Stier et al., 2004
MOZGN	constant velocities	Horowitz et al., 2003; Tie et al., 2005
PNNL	resistance	Zhang et al., 2001
TM5	resistance	Ganzeveld et al., 1998
UIO_CTM	resistance for DU, SS constant for BC, POM, SO ₄	Seinfeld and Pandis, 1997
UIO_GCM	resistance	Barth et al., 2000
ULAQ	constant velocities	Lohmann et al., 1999
UMI	resistance	Zhang et al., 2001

8402

Table 8. Wet scavenging.

	stratiform clouds	convective clouds	in-cloud scavenging	below-cloud scavenging	scavenging by ice	interstitial fraction of components
AROM	Lohmann et al., 1999	Zhang and McFarlane, 1995b	Giorgi and Chameides, 1986	strat: Slinn, 1984 conv: von Salzen and Schluenzen, 1999	depending on T	all: 0 internally mixed
DLR	Lohmann et al., 1999; Lohmann, 2002; Lohmann and Kärcher, 2002	Tiedtke, 1989 modified after Brinkop and Sausen, 1997	strat&conv: nucl: impact scav by Brownian motion, accm: activation Henning et al., 2002, dust in accm: fix	strat: Berge, 1993 conv: none	strat: nuclm: none, accm: 5 wt% conv: none	prog scav coeff except for DU in accm: 0.9
GISS	Del Genio et al., 1996; Schmidt, 2005	Del Genio and Yao, 1993; Del Genio et al., 2005; Schmidt, 2005	Koch et al., 1999; Koch et al., 2005	Koch et al., 1999	strat: 5% liquid conv: as liquid	strat: fresh industrial: BC:1, POM:1.1, biomass: POM: 0.2, BC 0.4, SS: 0, SO ₂ : 0, conv: 1/2 way between solubility and 1.
GOCART	offline GEOS-DAS version 3	offline GEOS-DAS version3	Balkanski et al., 1993 Giorgi and Chameides, 1986	Balkanski et al., 1993 Giorgi and Chameides, 1986	as liquid	BC=0.6,POM: 0.6, SO ₂ : 0.6, SS: 0.6 DU: 0.8
KYU	Le Treut and Li, 1991	Arakawa and Schubert, 1974	Takemura et al., 2000	Takemura et al., 2000	as liquid	BC: 1, OC: 0.6, carbonaceous: 0.6, SO ₂ : 0.5, SS: 0.7, DU: 0.95
LSCE	Le Treut and Li, 1991	Tiedtke, 1989, contributes to total condensed water	Balkanski et al., 1993	Liu et al., 2001	as liquid	BC: 0.4, POM: 0.4 SO ₂ : 0.3, SS: 0, DU: 0.5
LOA	Le Treut and Li, 1991	Tiedtke, 1989, contributes to total condensed water but not to cloud fraction	Boucher et al., 2002; Reddy et al., 2005	Boucher et al., 2002; Reddy et al., 2005	as liquid (in cloud-scav only)	all: 0.3
MATCH	Rasch and Kristjansson, 1998	Zhang and McFarlane, 1995b	Rasch et al., 2000	Rasch et al., 2000	as liquid	BC: 0.8, POM: 0.8, SO ₂ : 0.8; DU: Zender et al., 2003
MPI HAM	Lohmann and Roeckner, 1996; Tompkins, 2002	Tiedtke, 1989 with modification for penetrative convection according to Nordeng, 1994	Stier et al., 2004	Stier et al., 2004	Stier et al., 2004	Stier et al., 2004
MOZGN	Rasch and Kristjansson, 1998	Hack, 1994; Zhang and McFarlane, 1995b	Giorgi and Chameides, 1985	Brasseur et al., 1998	as liquid	BC: 0.8, POM: 0.8, SO ₂ : 0.8, SS: 0.8, HNO ₃ : 1, DU: Zender et al., 2003
PNNL	Rasch and Kristjansson, 1998; Zhang, 2003	Hack, 1994; Zhang and McFarlane, 1995b	strat: activation scav based on mass and number fraction activated Abdul-Razzak, 1998 with Gaussian spectrum of updrafts Ghan et al., 1997, conv: convective updraft velocity used	Impaction and interception Slinn, 1984	as liquid	interstitial + activated number + mass for each mode predicted (and transported separately)

8403

Table 8. Continued.

TMS	offline from ECMWF	offline from ECMWF Tiedtke, 1989	strat: Jeuken et al., 2001 conv: coupled to updraft mass flux and conv. precip.	strat: Dana and Hales, 1976 conv: coupled to updraft mass flux and conv. precip.	as liquid*0.2	strat: all: 0.3 conv: all: 0.0
UIO_CTM	offline from Integrated Forecast System (IFS) ECMWF	mass entrainment / detrainment in "elevator" Tiedtke, 1989; Berglen et al., 2004	soluble: proportional to fraction of clouds which rains out, partly soluble: also scaled according to Henry's law	DU, SS: None BC, POM, SO ₂ : Berge, 1993	as liquid except for SO ₂ .	all: 0
UIO_GCM	Rasch and Kristjansson, 1998	Zhang and McFarlane, 1995b	Iversen and Seland, 2002	Iversen and Seland, 2002	none	BC, POM: 0.5 SO ₂ : 1 fine particles 0.4 gaseous prod 0.2 aqueous prod strat 0 aqueous prod conv Iversen and Seland, 2002 (DU, SS: prescribed)
ULAQ	offline from climatology Rossow et al., 1987	convective mass fluxes from ECHAM4.L39 Grewe et al., 2001	first order loss as in Mueller and Brasseur, 1995; BC-OC scav coeff=2.1 cm ⁻¹ Liousse et al., 1996; scav coeffs for SO ₂ , DU, SS scaled with factors 2, 0.3, 1, respectively.	first order loss as in Mueller and Brasseur, 1995; BC-OC scav coeff=2.1 cm ⁻¹ Liousse et al., 1996; scav coeffs for SO ₂ , DU, SS scaled with factors 2, 0.3, 1, respectively.	as liquid	all: 0
UMI	Hack, 1998	fraction: from Xu and Krueger, 1991, contributes to total condensed water	Giorgi and Chameides, 1986 conv: convective updrafts as in Rasch et al., 1997	Balkanski et al., 1993	as liquid	BC: 0.6, POM: 0.6, SO ₂ : 0, SS: 0, DU: 0

*) The interstitial fraction indicates the mass fraction of aerosol which is **not** scavenged. Insoluble BC and POM (before aging) have interstitial fractions of 1, except for ULAQ, where they are 0.6.

8404

Table 9. Hygroscopic growth.

	Reference	RH *	RH max ** [%]
ARQM	Hänel, 1976	mean	100
DLR	aerosol liquid water content calculated by EQSAM (SO ₄ /NH ₃ /NO ₃ /H ₂ O system, Metzger et al., 2002a; Metzger et al., 2002b, assuming thermodyn equilibrium	mean	99.8
GISS	Schmidt, 2005 based on Tang et al., 1981; Tang and Munkelwitz, 1991; Tang and Munkelwitz, 1994; Tang, 1996	mean	99.9 (different value for radiation)
GOCART	d'Almeida, 1991 for BC, Koepke et al., 1997 for the other components	mean	none
KYU	SO ₄ : Tang and Munkelwitz, 1994, carbonaceous: Hobbs et al., 1997, SS: 30% water, DU: hydrophobic	mean	none
LSCE	parameterization adjusted to Gerber, 1991	mean	
LOA	SO ₄ : Tang and Munkelwitz, 1994, SS: Tang et al., 1997, soluble POM as SO ₄	fraction	95
MATCH	POM, SO ₄ : Hess et al., 1998, Tang and Munkelwitz, 1994	mean	99.9
MPI HAM	Vignati et al., 2004	complex, fraction	complex
MOZGN	SO ₄ : Tang and Munkelwitz, 1994, SS: Tang et al., 1997, POM: Ming and Russell, 2001	mean	95
PNNL	Kohler theory Pruppacher and Klett, 1997; Ghan, 2001 for internal mixture of soluble, insoluble component. Volume mean hygroscopicity. Deliquescence depends on RH and aerosol water from previous timestep.	mean	100
TM5	SS: Gerber, 1991, SO ₄ /NO ₃ : Metzger et al., 2002b	fraction	complex
UIO_CTM	Fitzgerald, 1975	mean	99.5
UIO_GCM	Kirkevåg and Iversen, 2002	mean	98
ULAQ	as in Kinne et al., 2003	daily averaged, climatological RH (usually < 90%)	90
UMI	Gerber, 1991 for SO ₄ , SS, and POM	mean	95

*) Relative humidity used for hygroscopic aerosol growth: grid box mean value (mean) or scaled to cloud-free fraction of grid box (fraction).

**) Relative humidity threshold to distinguish between wet aerosols and cloud droplets.

8405

Table 10. Statistics of the investigated parameters (The mass of SO₄ is given in Tg(SO₄)).

Parameter	unit	DUST				SS				SO ₄			
		#	mean	median	Stdev [%]	#	mean	median	Stdev [%]	#	mean	median	Stdev [%]
emission	Tg/a	14	1840.00	1640.00	48.80	12	16600.00	6280.00	199.00	15	175.00	162.00	20.40
burden	Tg/a	15	19.20	20.50	40.10	15	7.53	6.40	54.00	16	2.00	1.98	25.20
fine mass fraction	%	13	20.80	10.80	114.00	13	14.60	8.72	118.00	14	94.80	96.80	6.26
mass fraction > 5km	%	15	14.10	14.10	50.80	15	8.64	6.93	91.60	16	32.90	35.90	35.40
mass fraction in pol. regions	%	15	1.54	1.00	102.00	15	3.32	1.88	140.00	16	5.91	5.60	55.10
residence time	days	14	4.15	4.04	43.30	12	0.48	0.41	58.00	15	4.11	4.13	18.90
total removal rate	1/day	14	0.31	0.25	62.70	12	5.05	2.49	188.00	15	0.25	0.24	21.20
wet removal rate	1/day	14	0.08	0.09	41.90	12	0.79	0.68	76.00	15	0.23	0.23	24.30
dry removal rate	1/day	14	0.23	0.16	84.10	12	4.26	1.40	218.00	15	0.03	0.03	55.40
(wet removal)/(total removal)	%	14	33.00	31.70	54.30	12	30.50	30.30	65.40	15	88.60	88.90	7.69
sed/(dry dep)	%	10	46.20	40.90	66.20	9	58.90	59.50	65.00	12	7.33	0.00	202.00
(conv.wet dep)/(wet dep)	%	8	44.50	46.40	51.20	8	34.10	29.60	53.30	9	39.70	35.20	53.60

8406

Table 10. Continued.

Parameter	unit	BC				POM				AER			
		#	mean	median	Stdev [%]	#	mean	median	Stdev [%]	#	mean	median	Stdev [%]
emission	Tg/a	16	11.90	11.30	22.60	16	96.60	96.00	26.10	12	18800.00	9040.00	176.00
burden	Tg/a	16	0.24	0.21	42.00	16	1.67	1.76	25.00	15	30.60	29.30	29.50
fine mass fraction	%	14	97.30	99.70	6.01	14	97.00	99.20	6.24	13	28.80	21.10	54.50
mass fraction > 5km	%	16	21.70	18.30	48.30	16	20.90	18.30	52.30	15	14.40	13.50	47.40
mass fraction in pol. regions	%	16	4.18	4.16	70.70	16	3.27	3.56	76.40	15	2.44	2.00	90.50
residence time	days	16	7.12	6.54	33.30	16	6.46	6.16	25.30	12	1.42	1.27	65.30
total removal rate	1/day	16	0.15	0.15	20.80	16	0.16	0.16	22.30	12	2.32	0.79	226.00
wet removal rate	1/day	14	0.12	0.13	30.80	14	0.14	0.14	29.90	12	0.30	0.24	65.50
dry removal rate	1/day	14	0.03	0.04	55.10	14	0.03	0.03	56.60	12	2.02	0.46	252.00
(wet removal)/(total removal)	%	14	78.60	79.50	16.70	14	79.90	78.90	15.90	12	31.10	32.60	57.40
sed/(dry dep)	%	11	0.47	0.00	251.00	11	0.61	0.00	198.00	9	55.90	62.50	60.60
(conv.wet dep)/(wet dep)	%	9	46.30	44.60	51.60	8	51.60	54.50	48.20	6	34.10	34.80	48.60
aerosol water mass	Tg									11	9480.00	25.80	330.00
aerosol water mass fraction	%									10	53.50	49.60	46.90

8407

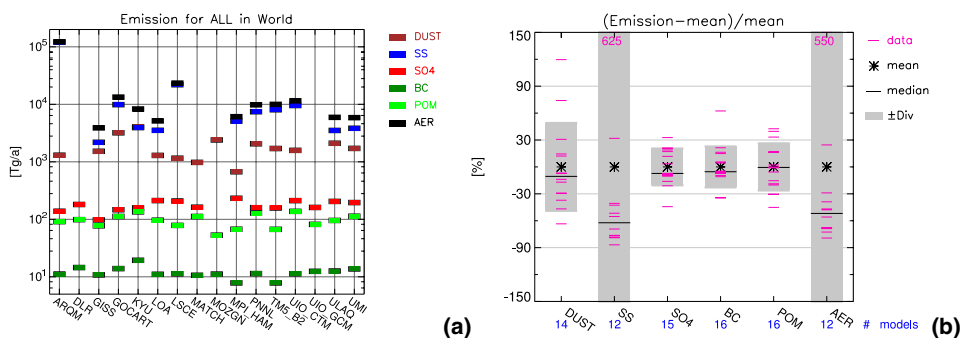


Fig. 1. (a) Emissions [Tg/a] in all models for DU, SS, SO₄, BC, POM, and AER. For SO₄, we show the sum of direct emission and chemical production. (b) Diversity plot for emissions, for further explanations on this plot type see Sect. 3. The diversities are indicated by gray boxes. The individual models' deviations from the all-models-averages are plotted as pink lines (data), or as numbers if they are outside the scale of the plot. The all-models-averages are indicated by a black star and the medians by a black line. The numbers of models included in the calculation of this statistics are shown in blue below the x-axis. The diversities for SS and AER are outside the scale of this plot and amount to 199% and 176%, respectively. The numbers for the statistics are given in Table 9.

8408

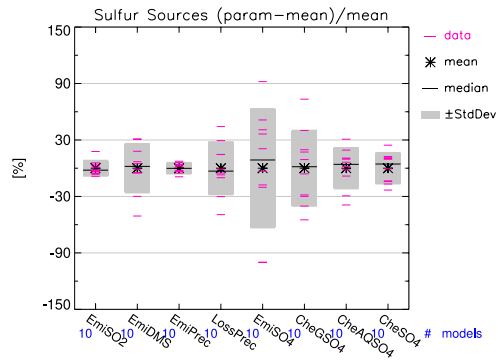


Fig. 2. Diversity plot of the sources of sulfur species. From left to right: SO₂ emissions, DMS emissions, sum of precursor (SO₂ and DMS) emissions, sum of precursor loss by deposition, direct SO₄ emissions, chemical production of SO₄ in the gas and in the aqueous phase, total chemical production, and the sum of all sources. For explanations of the plot, please refer to the caption of Fig. 1b.

8409

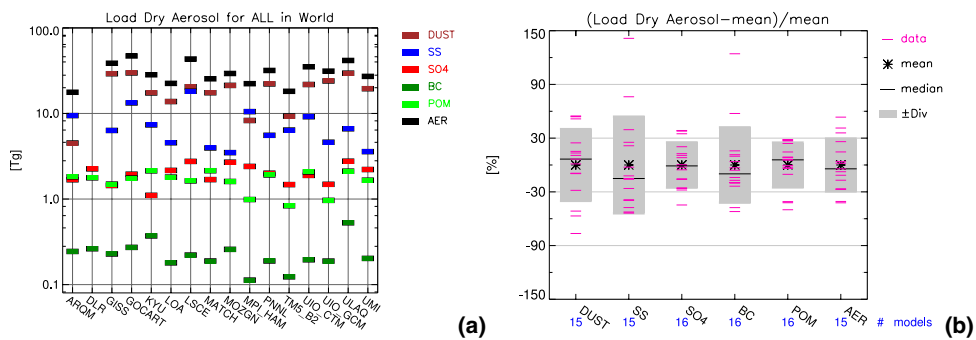


Fig. 3. (a) The global, annual average aerosol burden [Tg] of the five aerosol species is given for all models. **(b)** Diversity plot for burdens, for explanations of the plot please refer to the caption of Fig. 1b.

8410

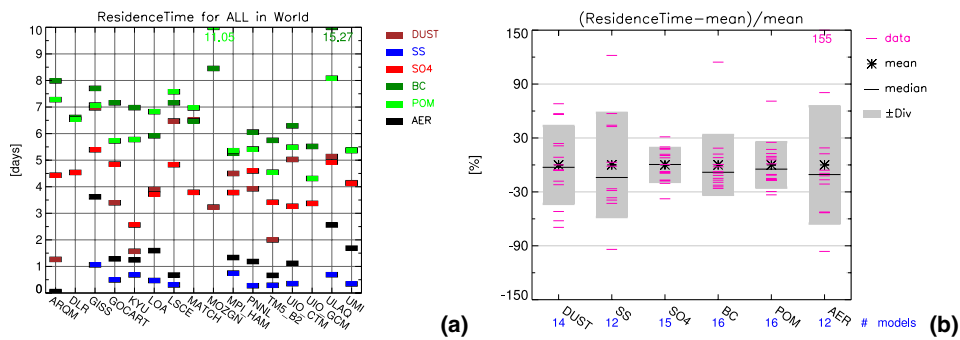


Fig. 4. (a) Tropospheric residence times in [days] in the AeroCom models for the species under consideration. **(b)** Diversity plot for residence times, for explanations of the plot please refer to the caption of Fig. 1b.

8411

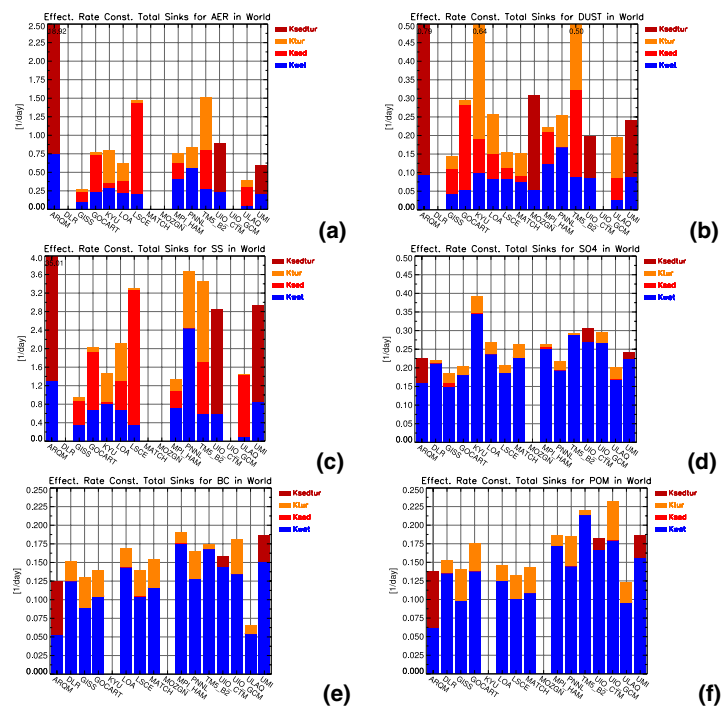


Fig. 5. Effective sink rate coefficients (annually and globally averaged) for the AeroCom models and for the aerosol species under consideration. The color code is given in the legend: Kwet refers to the wet deposition rate. If possible we show the individual dry sink rate coefficients (Ktur: turbulent deposition, and Ksed: sedimentation), otherwise the sum of the two processes (KsedTur) is plotted. Please note that the ordinates have different scales.

8412

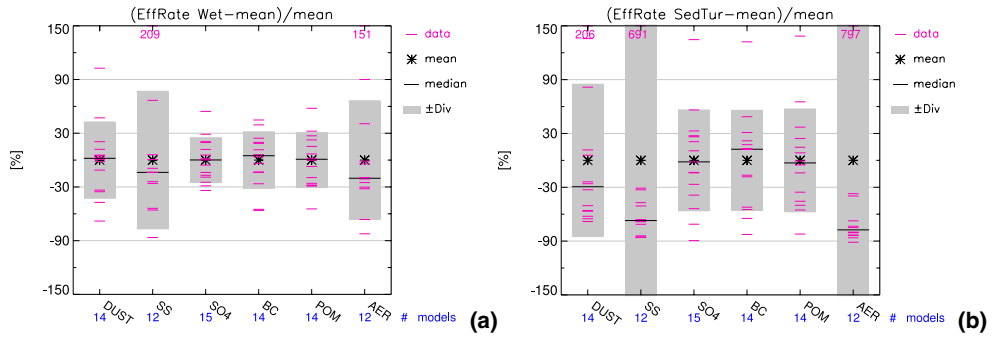


Fig. 6. Diversities plots of the globally and annually averaged effective sink rates coefficients for wet deposition **(a)** and dry deposition **(b)**. For explanations please refer to the caption of Fig. 1b. (The diversity of the dry deposition rates for SS amounts to 218% and that for AER to 176%.

8413

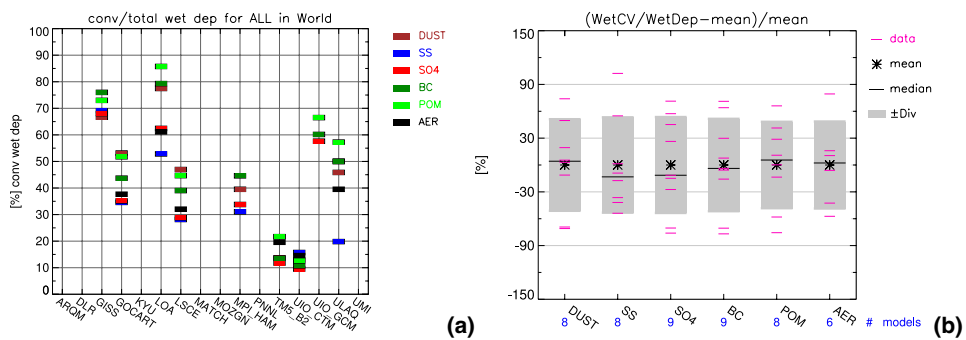


Fig. 7. (a) Mass fractions of global annual convective in relation to total wet deposition (convective + stratiform). **(b)** Diversity plot for mass fractions of global annual convective in relation to total wet deposition. For explanations please refer to the caption of Fig. 1b.

8414

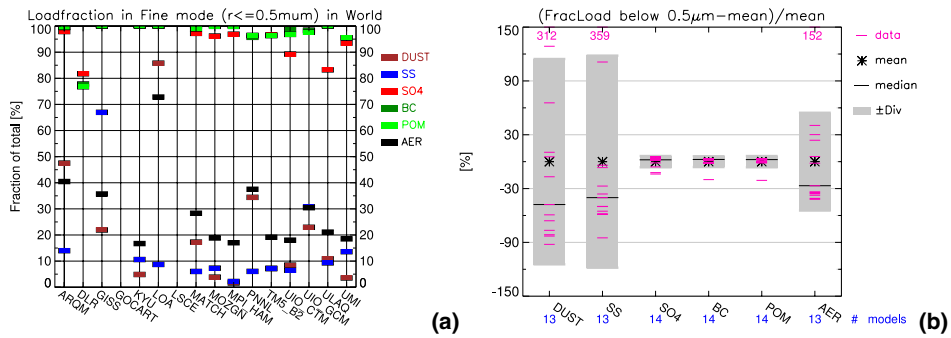


Fig. 8. (a) Mass fraction [%] in the fine mode (diameter μm) for DU, SS, SO_4 , BC, POM, and AER. **(b)** Diversity plot for size fractions, for explanations please refer to the caption of Fig. 1b. (Please note, that there are less models than for most other parameters.)

8415

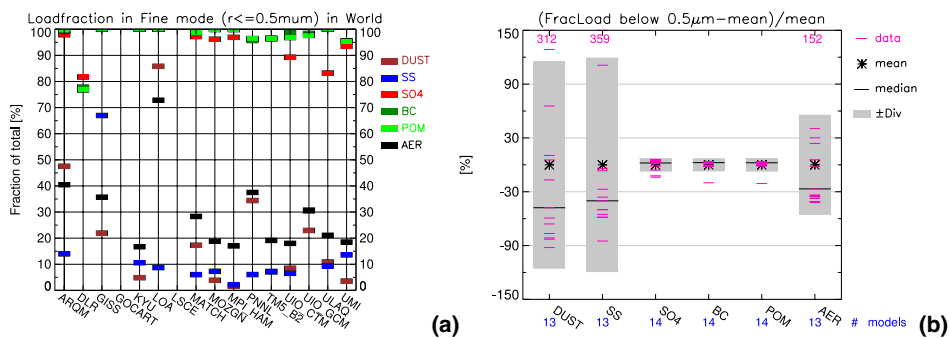


Fig. 9. (a) Global, annual average masses of dry aerosol (DryAER) and of aerosol water (H_2O), and ambient aerosol (AmbAER=DryAER+ H_2O) in [Tg] for all models. **(b)** Global, annual average composition of ambient aerosol in component mass fractions in relation to total ambient mass [%].

8416

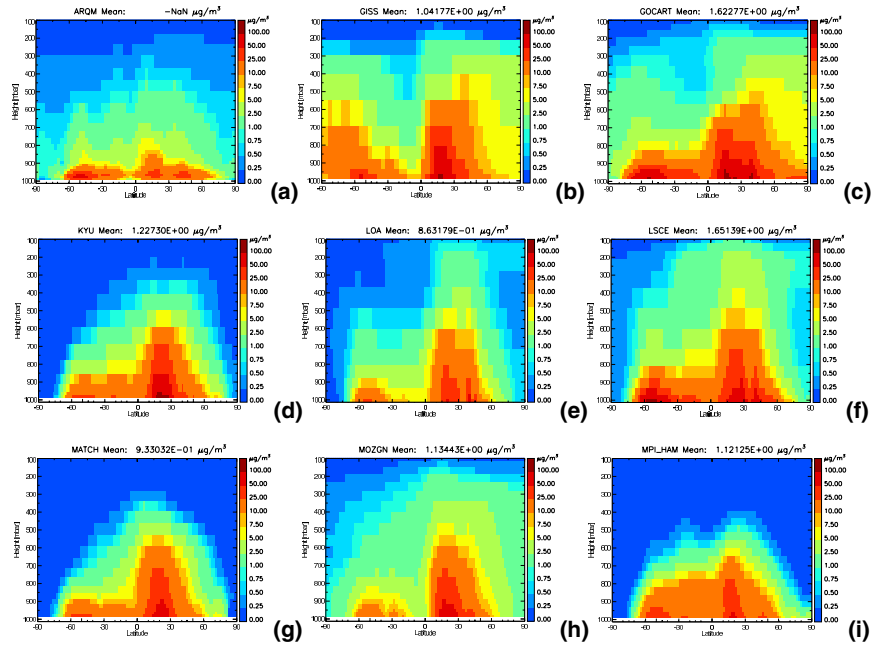


Fig. 10. Zonally and annually averaged concentration of total aerosol in [$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$] (DLR is not shown because of its disregard of the coarse fractions of SS and DU.) Please note, we use a non-linear color scale. The white shading of lowest layer above ground in some models indicates that no data have been available in this layer.

8417

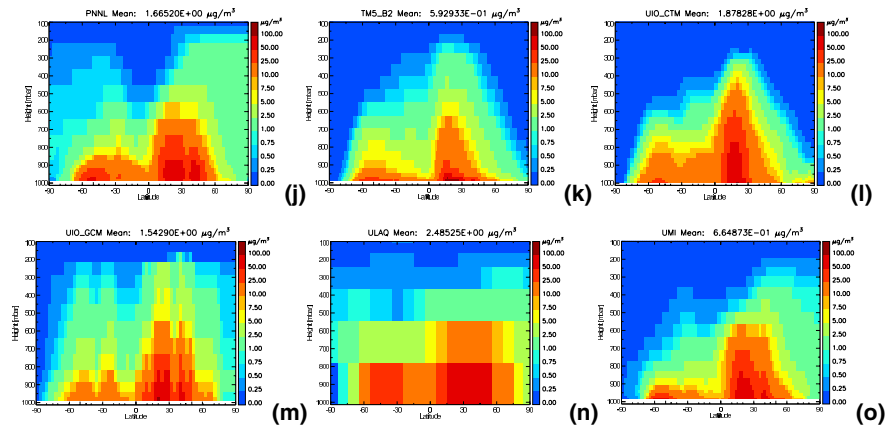


Fig. 10. Continued.

8418

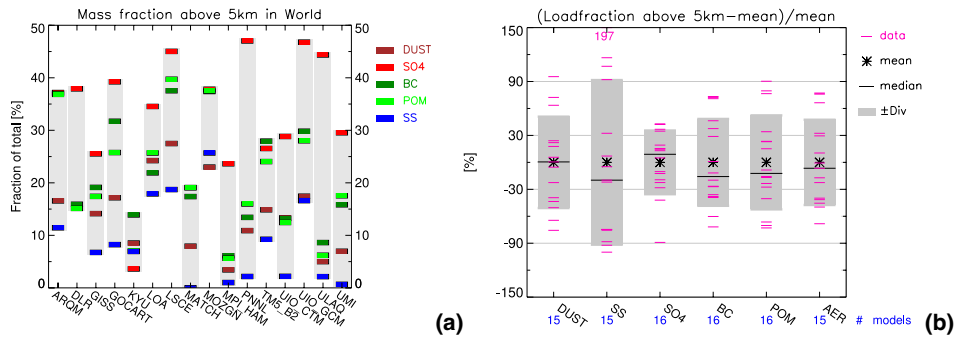


Fig. 11. (a) Global, annual average mass fractions in [%] of total mass above 5 km altitude for the AeroCom models. The gray shadings frame the range for each model. **(b)** Diversity plot of the annual average aerosol mass fractions above 5 km altitude, for explanations please refer to the caption of Fig. 1b.

8419

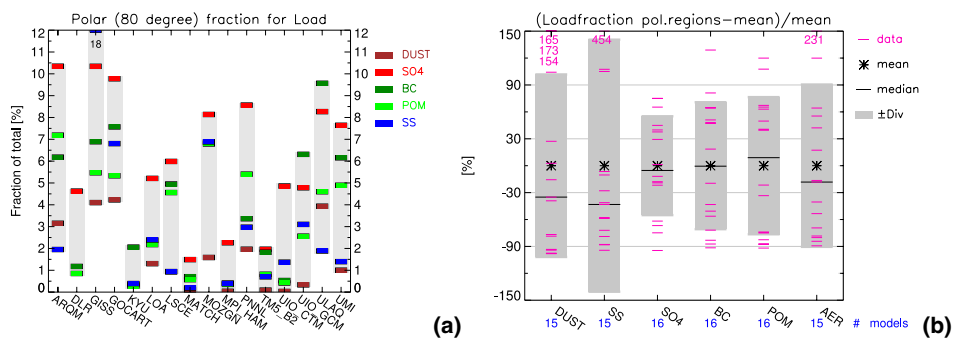


Fig. 12. (a) Global, annual average mass fractions in [%] of total mass in polar regions (south of 80°S and north of 80°N) for all AeroCom models. The gray shadings frame the range for each model. **(b)** Diversity plot of the annual average aerosol mass fractions in polar regions. For explanations please refer to the caption of Fig. 1b.

8420