1	A Multi-Model Assessment for the 2006 and 2010 Simulations under the Air
2	Quality Model Evaluation International Initiative (AQMEII) Phase 2 over
3	North America: Part II. Evaluation of Column Variable Predictions Using
4	Satellite Data
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29 Abstract

Within the context of the Air Quality Model Evaluation International Initiative Phase 2 30 (AOMEII2) project, this part II paper performs a multi-model assessment of major column 31 abundances of gases, radiation, aerosol, and cloud variables for 2006 and 2010 simulations with 32 three online-coupled air quality models over the North America using available satellite data. It 33 also provides the first comparative assessment of the capabilities of the current generation of 34 online-coupled models in simulating column variables. Despite the use of different model 35 configurations and meteorological initial and boundary conditions, most simulations show 36 comparable model performance for many variables. The evaluation results show an excellent 37 agreement between all simulations and satellite-derived radiation variables including downward 38 surface solar radiation, longwave radiation, and top-of-atmospheric outgoing longwave radiation, 39 as well as precipitable water vapor with domain-average normalized mean biases (NMBs) of 40 typically less than 5% and correlation coefficient (R) typically more than 0.9. Most simulations 41 perform well for column-integrated abundance of CO with domain-average NMBs of -9.4% to -42 2.2% in 2006 and -12.1% to 4.6% in 2010 and from reasonably well to fair for column NO₂, 43 HCHO, and SO₂, with domain-average NMBs of -37.7% to 2.1%, -27.3% to 59.2%, and 16.1% 44 to 114.2% in 2006, respectively, and, 12.9% to 102.1%, -25.0% to 87.6%, -65.2% to 7.4% in 45 2010, respectively. R values are high for CO and NO₂ typically between 0.85 and 0.9 (i.e., R² of 46 0.7-0.8). Tropospheric ozone residuals are overpredicted by all simulations due to overestimates 47 48 of ozone profiles from boundary conditions. Model performance for cloud-related variables is mixed and generally worse compared to gases and radiation variables. Cloud fraction (CF) is 49 well reproduced by most simulations. Other aerosol/cloud related variables such as aerosol 50 51 optical depth (AOD), cloud optical thickness, cloud liquid water path, cloud condensation nuclei,

52	and cloud droplet number concentration (CDNC) are moderately to largely underpredicted by
53	most simulations, due to underpredictions of aerosol loadings and also indicating high
54	uncertainties associated with the current model treatments of aerosol-cloud interactions and the
55	need for further model development. Negative correlations are found for AOD for most
56	simulations due to large negative biases over the western part of the domain. Inter-model
57	discrepancies also exist for a few variables such as column abundances of HCHO and SO ₂ and
58	CDNC due likely to different chemical mechanisms, biogenic emissions, and treatments of
59	aerosol indirect effects. Most simulations can also capture the inter-annual trend observed by
60	satellites between 2006 and 2010 for several variables such as column abundance of NO ₂ , AOD,
61	CF, and CDNC. Results shown in this work provide the important benchmark for future online-
62	couple air quality model development.
63	Keywords: Satellite data, online-coupled model, model evaluation, WRF/Chem, WRF-CMAQ,
64	GEM-MACH, AQMEII
65	
66	Highlights:
67 68 69 70 71	 Multi-model evaluation for column variables against satellite data performed for NA Radiation budgets and major column gases are either well or reasonably well predicted Large underpredictions for AOD, COT, LWP, CCN, and CDNC from most simulations High uncertainties associated with parameterizations of aerosol indirect effects
72	1. Introduction
73	Evaluation of air quality models (AQMs) is a key practice in advancing the scientific
74	understanding of various physical/chemical processes treated in the models, since it can help to
75	validate the formulations and parameterizations of major atmospheric processes introduced by

model development and demonstrate their impact on capabilities of models in reproducing the

77 atmospheric observations. The evaluation of AOMs, especially on a regional scale, has conventionally focused on comparing model predictions with either ground-level measurements 78 or to a lesser extent airborne in-situ data or ground-based remote sensing profiles. Not until 79 recently, with the launches of many satellites by the U.S. National Aeronautics and Space 80 Administration (NASA), the U.S. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), 81 the European Space Agency (ESA), the Canadian Space Agency (CSA), and the Japan 82 Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA) that can measure atmospheric constituents, radiation 83 budgets, and cloud/aerosol properties, did the atmospheric science community start to realize the 84 85 potential and feasibility of utilizing such data to evaluate regional-scale air quality models (Vijayaraghavan et al., 2008). With the development of more satellite instruments/sensors, more 86 satellite data are now available with a global coverage and a large number of atmospheric 87 constituents simulated by air quality models can be constrained. 88

Most current satellites commonly used for measuring atmospheric composition and 89 aerosol/cloud properties are low polar-orbiting sun-synchronous satellites, which typically orbit 90 at an altitude of 700-800 km and view the equator (or the low-mid latitudes) on the Earth at the 91 same local time every day (Martin, 2008). Many sensors carried onboard those satellites 92 passively detect the emitted or scattered radiation from atmospheric gases or aerosols. The 93 detected radiances are then converted to geophysical quantities of interests through complex 94 retrieval processes. Compared to other measurements, there are two major advantages for using 95 96 satellite retrieval data for air quality applications: large synoptic spatial coverage and vertically integrated measures of atmospheric components aloft (Engel-Cox et al., 2004; Vijayaraghavan et 97 al., 2008). Recently, an increasing number of air quality studies have utilized satellite data in 98 99 many ways, e.g., identifying forest wildfires or dust storm events (Bian et al., 2007; Song et al.,

100 2008; Magi et al., 2009), tracing the long-range transport of air pollutants (Heald et al., 2003; Hodzic et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2009; Huang et al., 2013), deriving boundary/initial conditions 101 (BCs/ICs) for regional air quality models (Tang et al., 2009), monitoring air quality in rural or 102 remote regions where no ground-level network (Engel-Cox et al., 2004), conducting inverse 103 modeling to estimate emission of precursors (Kopacz et al., 2009; Streets et al., 2013) or 104 performing data assimilation to constrain/improve the model performance (Sandu and Chai, 105 2011; Miyazaki et al., 2012; Saide et al., 2013), and evaluating performance of regional and 106 global AQMs (Kondragunta et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2009, 2012a, b; Knote et al., 2011; Wang 107 108 et al., 2012).

Significant progress has been achieved in the past decade in the development of online-109 coupled meteorology and chemistry/air quality modeling (Zhang, 2008; Baklanov et al., 2014). 110 One of the key issues addressed by online-coupled models is to investigate the complex climate-111 chemistry-aerosol-cloud-radiation feedback processes, which are closely related with column 112 abundance of atmospheric constituents such as ozone (O_3) and fine particular matter (PM_{2.5}) as 113 well as aerosol/cloud properties such as aerosol optical depth (AOD) and cloud optical thickness 114 (COT) in the troposphere. Accurately reproducing those column abundances and aerosol/cloud 115 116 variables in the atmosphere is thus important in estimating the aerosol direct and indirect effects as well as interactions between meteorology/climate and air quality for online-couple models. 117 The satellite retrieval products provide valuable and unique information for validation of the 118 119 capabilities of models in representing column abundances and aerosol/cloud variables.

In Part I paper, a multi-model simulation intercomparison of O₃ and PM_{2.5} formation
 indicators are conducted and a few key indicators are also evaluated using available surface and
 satellite observations (Campbell et al., 2014). In this Part II paper, a number of satellite

123 retrievals of column abundances of gases (e.g., carbon monoxide (CO) and nitrogen oxide (NO₂)), radiation budgets (e.g., downward surface solar radiation (SWDN) and outgoing top-of-124 atmosphere (TOA) longwave radiation (OLR)), and aerosol-cloud associated properties (e.g., 125 AOD and COT) are used to evaluate results from three online-couple models from six research 126 groups as part of the collaborative Air Quality Model Evaluation International Initiative Phase 2 127 (AQMEII2) project (Alapaty et al., 2012). AQMEII2 is targeted at evaluating the most advanced 128 online-coupled AQMs with representation of climate-chemistry-aerosol-cloud-radiation 129 interactions and examining their status in simulating these complex interactions. In the context 130 131 of AQMEII2, the objectives of this Part II are twofold. First, to perform an operational evaluation of the column abundances of major gases and radiation/aerosol/cloud variables 132 simulated by the participating models using satellite retrievals over the North America (NA) 133 domain which covers the continental U.S., southern Canada, and northern Mexico for the years 134 2006 and 2010. Second, to examine the current status and capability of those state-of-the-135 science fully coupled AQMs in predicting those variables. This study provides the first 136 comparative assessment of the capabilities of the current generation of online-coupled models in 137 simulating column variables. 138

139 2. Model Description and Evaluation Protocols

140 **2.1. Model Description**

Six research teams apply three state-of-the-science online-coupled models over the NA
domain which covers southern Canada, continental U.S., and northern Mexico during AQMEII
2. These models include the Weather Research Forecasting model (WRF) with chemistry
(WRF/Chem) version 3.4.1 (Grell et al., 2005), the WRF coupled with the Community

145 Multiscale Air Quality model system version 5.0.1 (WRF-CMAQ) (Wong et al., 2012), and the

Global Environmental Multi-scale-Modelling Air quality and Chemistry model version 1.5.1 146 (GEM-MACH) (Moran et al., 2010). Model/simulation configurations are summarized in Table 147 1 of Campbell et al. (2014). Four out of six research groups apply WRF/Chem with different 148 model configurations. They are North Carolina State University, U.S., Technical University of 149 Madrid, Spain, National Center for Atmospheric Research, U.S., and University of Murcia, 150 Spain (the simulations from those groups are referred to as NCSU, UPM, NCAR, and UMU, 151 respectively). The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) uses WRF-CMAQ and 152 Environment Canada (EC) uses GEM-MACH (their simulations are referred to as EPA and EC, 153 154 respectively). In addition to slightly different domain sizes, large differences exist in the horizontal/vertical resolution, the physical and chemical modules, and natural emissions selected 155 by each group. Among the six groups, NCSU, EPA, and EC conduct the full year simulations 156 for both 2006 and 2010. UPM performs a simulation for 2006 only and UMU and NCAR 157 perform a simulation for 2010 only. All WRF-based models use the Lambert Conformal 158 projection while GEM-MACH uses a rotated polar projection. All groups simulate the 159 secondary organic aerosol (SOA) formation except for UPM. All groups include aqueous-phase 160 (AQ) chemistry and NCSU, EPA, and NCAR have included AQ chemistry for both convective 161 162 and resolved clouds. Most groups treat online dust emissions except for UPM and EC. Aerosol indirect effects are considered by all the simulations except for EPA. 163

Despite different model configurations, all six simulations use the same set of anthropogenic emissions and chemical ICs/BCs, in order to minimize the differences caused by different chemical inputs. The anthropogenic emissions are comprised of data from the U.S., Canada, and Mexico. For the U.S. emissions, the 2008 National Emission Inventory (NEI) (version 2, released April 10, 2012) is used as the basis for both the 2006 and 2010 model ready

169 emission datasets (Pouliot et. al. 2014). The 2008-based modeling platform provides all the SMOKE inputs and datasets for processing with SMOKE (Pouliot et. al. 2014). These files 170 contain the chemical speciation files, the temporal allocation, and spatial allocation used for 171 emission processing with SMOKE. Year specific (2006 and 2010) updates for different sectors 172 (i.e., on/off road transport, wildfires and prescribed fires, and Continuous Emission Monitoring 173 (CEM)-equipped point sources) are used. Canadian emissions are derived from the Canadian 174 National Pollutant Release Inventory and Air Pollutant Emissions Inventory for the year 2006. 175 These included updated spatial allocations for Canadian mobile emissions for the emissions of 176 NH₃, as well as other updates (Im et al., 2014a). Mexican emissions are based on a 1999 177 inventory and projected to year 2008 (Im et al., 2014a). Four groups use the Model of Emissions 178 of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN) version 2 that is embedded in WRF/Chem and 179 two groups use different versions of the Biogenic Emissions Inventory System (BEIS), which 180 may lead to large differences of isoprene emissions as indicated by Im et al. (2014a). The 181 chemical ICs/BCs are provided by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts 182 (ECMWF) Integrated Forecast system (IFS)- Model for Ozone And Related Tracers (MOZART) 183 model in the context of the Monitoring Atmospheric Composition and Climate (MACC) project 184 185 for major gaseous and aerosol species with a 3-hr temporal resolution and 1.125° spatial resolution (Inness et al., 2013). These ICs/BCs are remapped based on different chemical 186 187 speciation and aerosol size representations of the individual models.

188 2.2. Satellite Data Description

Table A1 in the supplementary material summarizes satellite data used in this study.
These include tropospheric CO column abundances from the Measurements of Pollution in the
Troposphere (MOPITT), tropospheric NO₂, formaldehyde (HCHO), and sulfur dioxide (SO₂)

192	abundances from the Scanning Imaging Absorption Spectrometer for Atmospheric Chartography
193	(SCIMACHY), the tropospheric O ₃ residuals (TORs) derived from the Ozone Monitoring
194	Instrument (OMI)/ Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS), SWDN and downward surface longwave
195	radiation (LWDN) from the Cloud's and the Earth's Radiant Energy System (CERES), OLR from
196	the Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR), and AOD, COT, cloud fraction
197	(CF), cloud condensation nuclei (CCN), and precipitable water vapor (PWV) from the Moderate
198	Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS). Cloud droplet number concentration (CDNC)
199	and cloud liquid water path (LWP) derived by Bennartz (2007) based on MODIS retrievals are
200	also used. A brief description of those datasets is provided in the supplementary material.
201	In this study, all satellite data used are level-3 monthly average (except for CDNC, which
202	is daily average) retrieval data from public resources with various resolutions (see Table A1)
203	except for CDNC and LWP, which are derived based on MODIS data (Bennartz, 2007). All the
204	level-3 data have been well validated and quality assured by the satellite data retrieval teams
205	using independent aircraft and/or sonde data (Martin, 2008). The satellite data with different
206	resolutions are mapped to the Lambert conformal projection used in all simulations using the bi-
207	linear interpolation of the NCAR command language (http://www.ncl.ucar.edu/). The
208	uncertainties associated with individual data/retrieval algorithms may help explain some
209	differences between simulations and satellite-derived products and will be further discussed in
210	Sections 3 and 4.

211 **2.3. Evaluation Protocols**

An operational performance evaluation is conducted in terms of the spatial distribution and domainwide performance statistics following the evaluation protocol from Zhang et al. (2006, 2009). The metrics used in this analysis include the normalized mean bias (NMB), the

215 normalized mean error (NME), the correlation coefficient (R) and the coefficient of determination (R^2) , and the normalized standard deviation (NSD) (see Supplementary for 216 associated formulas). Not all simulations predict or output all variables and only the available 217 variables are used for the intercomparison (see Tables 1 and 2 for variable availability). The 218 model outputs for all gas column abundances except for TORs and for all aerosol/cloud variables 219 except for CDNC are vertically integrated up to the tropopause which is assumed to be 100 hPa 220 (the exact choice has little influence on those variables) following Zhang et al. (2009) to generate 221 the tropospheric amounts in order to match the satellite data. For TORs, since they are very 222 223 sensitive to the choice of tropopause, the monthly average tropopause pressure provided by the NCEP reanalysis database (similar NCEP data was used for OMI/MLS retrievals) is used to 224 calculate TORs from simulations. For CDNC, it is processed as within low level warm clouds 225 (corresponding to pressure levels of 950-850 hPa) as suggested by Bennartz (2007). All the gas 226 column abundances and AOD are further processed to include the values only under cloud-free 227 conditions. As discussed in Section 5, no averaging kernels are applied for the processing of 228 model data. All model outputs are also averaged at the same satellite crossing time in order to 229 facilitate the comparison. Since the domain size of individual simulation is different, all 230 simulation results have been re-gridded into the domain of NCSU as a common domain to ensure 231 a fair intercomparison. All the results are analyzed as annual average for all variables for 2006 232 and 2010. In addition, the model performance from multiple models is examined using Taylor 233 234 diagrams (Taylor, 2001) to provide a concise statistical summary with respect to the correlation, biases, and variances (as indicated by NSD). 235

236 **3. Model Evaluation for 2006**

237 **3.1. Column Mass Abundance**

238	Figure 1 compares the spatial distribution of tropospheric column abundances for CO,
239	NO ₂ , HCHO, SO ₂ , and TOR between satellite observations and four simulations for 2006. The
240	corresponding performance statistics are given in Table 1. For CO, both MOPITT observation
241	and simulations show high CO abundances over the continental source regions (e.g., the eastern
242	U.S., the Atlantic coast of the U.S., and California) and the trans-Pacific transport inflow regions
243	(e.g., the Pacific Northwest Ocean) and low CO columns over elevated terrain (e.g., Rocky
244	Mountains). All simulations underpredict CO columns with NMBs ranging from -9.4% (EPA)
245	to -2.2% (EC) with systematic underpredictins despite the biases are typically small and within
246	the retrieval uncertainties. As reported by Heald et al. (2003), regional emissions in particular
247	biomass burning emissions, are expected to be the main contributor to elevated CO
248	concentrations, thus determining the CO columns. Since all simulations use the same emission
249	inventory, the systematic underpredictions by all simulations might therefore be caused by
250	possible uncertainties (such as missing fire emissions) in CO emissions. Other possible
251	contributing factors may include uncertainties associated with BCs from MACC and retrieval
252	methods used for MOPITT data. For example, Heald et al. (2003) indicated that potential biases
253	in the vertical profile of CO at higher altitudes from their global model (which are very sensitive
254	to BCs) could be an important source for model biases against MOPITT observations. Emmons
255	et al. (2009) also reported the possible positive biases for MOPITT CO retrievals over the
256	continents as compared to oceans. The higher CO columns predicted by EC should be due to a
257	much finer vertical resolution within the lower to free troposphere where column CO abundances
258	are the highest (i.e., 24 layers vs. 16-17 layers for other models), which can better capture the
259	elevated CO.

260 The spatial distribution of NO₂ columns is generally well reproduced by all four simulations and many hot spots of NO₂ columns observed by SCIAMACHY are captured in the 261 Northeastern U.S., Midwest, Texas, and California, which correlate well with high NO_x emission 262 source areas (e.g., industrialized and urban areas). The domainwide statistics show mixed 263 performance for different simulations in terms of magnitude, with NMBs of -37.7% (EC), -264 14.7% (UMP), 2.1% (EPA), and 14.1% (NCSU), respectively. The discrepancies between 265 simulations and satellite retrievals can be attributed to a few likely reasons. First, a previous 266 study by Choi et al. (2011) suggested that NO_x emissions from the NEI 2005 have large 267 268 uncertainties and may be overestimated in the southern U.S. Pouliot et al. (2014) showed that 2006 domainwide NO_x emissions are fairly similar between the NEI 2005 based AQMEII Phase 269 1 model inputs and the NEI 2008 based AQMEII Phase 2 model inputs, but also showed 270 significant shifts in emission estimates for some source sectors such as mobile sources. The 271 relative large biases for NO₂ columns by all simulations may be an indication that further work is 272 needed to evaluate emission inputs. Second, since all the simulations use the same set of NO_x 273 emissions, the mixed performance (i.e., overprediction vs. underprediction) also could be caused 274 by different reaction rates used for NO₂ associated reactions simulated by different gas-phase 275 276 mechanisms. Third, as reported by Martin (2008), tropospheric NO₂ and SO₂ concentrations are dominant in the planetary boundary layer (PBL) due to intensive surface sources and short 277 lifetimes. As a result, both column NO₂ and SO₂ abundances in PBL can contribute to more than 278 279 two-thirds of tropospheric NO₂ and SO₂ columns over polluted regions. Therefore, differences in PBL mixing processes simulated by the meteorological models may play an important role. An 280 examination of PBL heights (PBLHs) (figures not shown) show that EC predicts the largest 281 282 PBLH followed by EPA, UPM, and NCSU, although PBLHs between UPM and NCSU are very

283 close, due to the same Yonsei University PBL scheme. The pattern of PBLH can help to explain the predicted NO₂ columns from NCSU, EPA, and EC (i.e., the largest NO₂ columns from 284 NCSU followed by EPA and EC). UPM predicting the smallest NO₂ despite with the lowest 285 PBLH might be due to other reasons such as gas-phase mechanisms. Fourth, there might be 286 missing processes such as the plume-in-grid in current model treatments, which was found to 287 help improvements of column NO₂ performance by previous studies (Vijayaraghavan et al., 288 2009). Finally, there are uncertainties associated with satellite retrievals. Boersma et al. (2004) 289 and some other studies (e.g., Martin et al., 2003; van Noije et al., 2006) showed that different 290 NO₂ column retrieval approaches may lead to $\pm 5 \times 10^{14}$ -1 $\times 10^{15}$ molecules cm⁻² for additive error 291 $(\pm 35\% - 60\%$ relative error) over polluted areas. The algorithms used to convert the measured 292 irradiances to column values are in part dependent on air-quality models, which are used to 293 calculate air mass factors used in the retrieval process. Recent work of McLinden et al. (2014) 294 found air mass factors generated using higher resolution model and surface data allows 295 significant local gradients to be resolved, increasing the retrieval estimated maximum vertical 296 column densities of NO₂ by a factor of 2. 297

Both SCIAMACHY observations and four simulations show high HCHO abundances 298 over the southeastern U.S., California, and coastal areas of Mexico (except EC which does not 299 include the coastal areas of Mexico), where biogenic and biomass burning emissions are high. 300 The correlation is moderate for all simulations with values of R ranging from 0.69 to 0.79 (i.e., 301 R^2 of 0.48 to 0.62), suggesting that all simulations reproduce the spatial distribution relatively 302 well. The discrepancies in magnitude between simulations and observations, however, are 303 relatively large except for EPA, with NMBs of -27.3% (UPM), -24.5% (NCSU), -11.5% (EPA), 304 305 and 59.2% (EC), respectively. The much larger HCHO columns predicted by EC could be due

306 to a few reasons. First, the photolysis rates of HCHO predicted by EC might be low due to much higher predicted cloud water (Figure 3) leading to the lower destruction of HCHO. Second, 307 among all gas mechanisms in this study, ADOM-II simulates only isoprene without species 308 terpene/monoterpene from biogenic sources. All the terpene/monoterpene emissions are mapped 309 into a lumped species ethane. Instead of generating longer chain aldehydes and ketones, the 310 terpene/monoterpene masses from biogenic emissions in ADOM-II goes into HCHO upon 311 oxidation. This treatment leads to much higher HCHO formation compared to mechanisms that 312 explicitly represent terpene/monoterpene. Finally, as reported by Carlton and Baker (2011), 313 BEIS v3.14 tended to generate a factor of 1.5 higher HCHO emissions compared to MEGAN v2, 314 which may partially contribute the higher HCHO columns predicted by both EPA and EC 315 compared to NCSU and UPM. Due to the fact that the bulk of the NO₂ and HCHO columns are 316 317 within the lower PBL over polluted regions and are closely related to NO_x and VOC emission sources, the ratio of column HCHO/NO₂ has been proposed as a robust indicator (Martin et al., 318 2004) for surface photochemistry (especially NO_x- or VOC- limited O₃ chemistry) and has been 319 further examined by the Part I paper (Campbell et al., 2014). 320 All four simulations moderately or significantly overpredict SO₂ columns (NMBs ranging 321 from 16.1% to 114.2%) with moderate spatial correlation (values of \mathbb{R}^2 ranging from 0.34-0.41). 322

323 Similar to NO_x, high SO₂ levels are predicted by all simulations over source regions and are

324 correlated with observations. The larger differences between simulations and observations for

325 SO₂ columns compared to other gases could be largely due to the larger uncertainties associated

with SO₂ retrievals. As reported by McLinden et al. (2014), SO₂ retrievals using higher

327 resolution profiles and surface data can increase maximum vertical columns of SO₂ by a factor of

328 1.4. The higher SO₂ predicted by EC is due to a lower oxidation rate of SO₂ by OH radicals (i.e.,

 $8.3 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ in ADOM-II vs. } 8.8-9.5 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ in CBMZ and}$ CB05 under ambient temperature and pressure) (Lurmann et al., 1986) and by aqueous chemistry $(Makar et al., 2014). \text{ NCSU predicts the lowest SO}_2 \text{ columns due to the inclusion of both}$ $heterogeneous chemistry of SO_2 \text{ on aerosol particles and in convective clouds. Both treatments}$ $convert a large amount of SO_2 \text{ from gas-phase into particulate sulfate. However, convective}$ $cloud chemistry is also simulated by EPA \text{ which gives higher overpredictions of SO}_2 \text{ columns}$ $than NCSU, suggesting the important role of SO_2 heterogeneous chemistry.$

Due to an erroneous mapping of O₃ profile from 50 hPa to 100 hPa in the simulation conducted by EPA which leads to unrealistic high TORs, only TOR plots from the other three simulations are shown in Figure 1 and Table 1 for 2006. All three simulations show systematic overpredictions of TORs compared to OMI/MLS with NMBs of 19.9% (EC), 29.9% (UPM), and 38.0 (NCSU), respectively, which are mainly caused by the O₃ profiles provided by MACC. The general better TOR performance from EC is associated with higher vertical resolution that can represent the tropopause provided by NCEP reanalysis data better.

Figure 2a shows the Taylor diagram for the column abundances of the five gases from 343 simulations in 2006, which can help assess the general skill of the models. Due to the large 344 345 amplitude of SO₂ variations, all markers for SO₂ are displayed as outlier points outside the plot area. Most simulations underpredict the amplitude of variability (with the NSD less than 1) of 346 column abundance of most gases. R values range between 0.8 and 0.9 (R² between 0.64 and 347 348 (0.81) for most species, indicating the ability of all models in reproducing the spatial pattern of column abundances. The large amplitude of SO₂ variability indicates potential issues associated 349 with aqueous chemistry of all models and high uncertainties with satellite retrievals. The large 350 351 variability for HCHO from EC may be associated several reasons as discussed earlier, in

particular its use of ethene as a surrogate for monoterpenes (Makar et al., 2014). Overall, the

353 performance for CO columns is the best by all models, followed by NO₂, HCHO, TOR, and SO₂.

354 **3.2. Aerosol and Cloud Variables**

Figure 3 shows the spatial distribution of selected aerosol/cloud related variables (i.e., 355 AOD, CF, LWP, and PWV) between satellite observations and predictions by different 356 simulations for 2006. Figure A1 shows COT, CCN, and CDNC. LWP and CCN from 357 observations are only available over the ocean. The domainwide statistics are summarized in 358 Table 1. All simulations exhibit a systematic and large underprediction of AOD over the western 359 360 U.S. and the spatial distributions are also quite different compared to MODIS AOD. The most noticeable differences are in western U.S. and northern Mexico, where simulations fail to capture 361 the high level of MODIS AODs (up to 0.45) and are lower by factors of 3-4 than MODIS 362 observations. The AOD underpredictions off the west coast are the least pronounced for UPM. 363 Since this area is located close to the domain boundaries and AOD can be affected by the trans-364 Pacific transport of Asian air pollutants and dust storms, the differences in model performance 365 suggest that different approaches used to map the aerosol boundary conditions from MACC to 366 the regional models contribute to the model biases in AOD predictions, in particular when the 367 representation of aerosol size bins used in MACC differs from that used in the regional model. 368 Contrasting to western U.S., all simulations better estimate the MODIS AOD over eastern U.S., 369 where anthropogenic aerosol loadings are high. The domainwide NMBs are -56.7% (EC), -370 35.8% (NCSU), -34.9% (EPA), and -3.8% (UPM), respectively. The model biases well exceed 371 the uncertainties associated with MODIS retrievals (see Table A1) and several possible reasons 372 may help explain the discrepancies between MODIS observations and simulations over the 373 374 western part of domain. First, simulated AOD depends strongly on PM_{2.5} mass concentration

375	predictions. The inaccurate prediction of PM _{2.5} loadings, particularly from the dust emissions,
376	may lead to the underprediction of AODs over the arid areas. Two out of four simulations (i.e.,
377	UPM and EC) lack of dust emissions and the other two (i.e., NCSU and EPA) may simply
378	underpredict dust emissions. Second, higher uncertainties exist for MODIS AOD over the
379	deserts of western U.S. and northern Mexico. A recent work by Drury et al. (2008) found that
380	high positive biases of MODIS AOD exist over the above desert areas caused by some errors in
381	the surface reflectance estimates from the MODIS retrieval algorithms. Using their improved
382	AOD retrievals, they produced much lower AOD.
383	All simulations for which cloud fractions were submitted reproduce the spatial
384	distribution of MODIS CF well with high values (>0.7) over the oceans, southeastern Canada,
385	and northeastern U.S and low values (<0.4) over the mountainous areas of western U.S. and
386	Mexico. All three simulations can also reproduce the magnitude of MODIS CF well with NMBs
387	of -2.8% (NCSU), -2.4% (EPA), and 0.5% (UPM). All three simulations capture the high values
388	(>75 g cm ⁻²) and general distribution of LWP off the Atlantic coasts and Pacific Northwest, but
389	the magnitude is less than the satellite retrieval. The predicted pattern for LWP is correlated
390	with CF. All simulations underpredict LWP with NMBs of -34.7% (EPA), -28% (NCSU) and -
391	22.6% (UPM), which is mainly caused by the limitations in the cloud parameterizations of
392	WRF/Chem for NCSU and UPM such as the inaccurate contribution of convective clouds to
393	LWP (Zhang et al., 2012) and aerosol-cloud interaction treatments such as uncertainties
394	associated with the Abdul-Razzak and Ghan (2002) scheme (AG) and the missing aerosol
395	indirect effects in WRF-CMAQ for EPA. All three simulations show good agreement of PWV
396	with MODIS retrievals in terms of both spatial distribution and magnitude. Consistent spatial
397	gradients of PWV are shown between simulations and observations, with high values in low

latitude/altitude regions and low values in high latitude/altitude regions. The domainwide NMBs
are -1.4% (NCSU), -0.2% (UPM), and 1.3% (EPA), respectively. The general pattern of PWV
does not closely correlate with aerosol loadings and cloud covers (as demonstrated by AOD, CF,
and LWP). This is due to the fact that on the regional scale PWV is largely a function of
synoptic-scale meteorology rather than aerosols/cloud processes (Ten Hoeve et al., 2011).

As shown in Figure A1, COT is largely underpredicted by NCSU due to the missing 403 COTs contributed by rain, snow, and graupel from WRF/Chem (Zhang et al., 2012). Another 404 reason may be due to the underprdiction of LWP, which is ultimately determined by 405 406 underprediction of aerosol loading and uncertainties in the cloud schemes and aerosol-cloud interaction parameterizations as mentioned earlier. Both NCSU and UPM underpredict CCN, in 407 particular along the Atlantic coasts. Due to the fact that CCN is highly related to the amount of 408 aerosols available for activation, the model underpredictions of CCN likely are caused by an 409 underprediction of aerosol loadings and potential inaccurate representation of land-ocean 410 interactions, which transport too little aerosols to marine areas. The result contrasts with the 411 study by Zhang et al. (2012), in which too high CCN was predicted off the Atlantic coasts due to 412 too strong transport of continental polluted air. Zhang et al. (2012) predicted much higher wind 413 speeds compared to this study (Yhaya et al., 2014). Compared to CCN, the performance for 414 CDNC is better for NCSU and UPM. All three simulations underpredict MODIS CDNC, with 415 the lowest values (domainwide average of \sim 39 cm⁻³ for EC vs. \sim 93-121 cm⁻³ for NCSU and 416 UPM) and a different spatial pattern by EC. MODIS, NCSU, and UPM all show high CDNC 417 over the midwest, eastern U.S., and Atlantic Ocean. Since CDNC has substantial impacts on 418 other predicted cloud properties such as COT and LWP, the results shown here are consistent 419 420 with the underprediction of other variables. Besides the limitations associated with cloud

schemes, the uncertainties related to the aerosol activation scheme (i.e., AG scheme) for both
WRF/Chem and GEM-MACH simulations may be another contributor to the underprediction of
CDNC. Several studies (e.g., Ghan et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2012; Gantt et al., 2014) showed
that an aerosol activation parameterization based on Fountoukis and Nenes (2005) and its recent
updates can give higher CDNC due to a higher activation fraction of aerosols, which should be
considered in future model development to improve the model performance of CDNC, COT, and
LWP.

428 **3.3. Radiation Variables**

429 Figure 4 shows the spatial distribution of radiation variables (i.e., SWDN, LWDN, and OLR) between satellite observations and 2006 simulations. All simulations reproduce the spatial 430 distributions well for all three radiation variables with values decreasing with increasing latitude, 431 which is driven by the strength of solar radiation. For SWDN, high values are also displayed at 432 higher elevations due to less scattering of incoming solar radiation by atmospheric components. 433 For LWDN, the high values at lower latitudes and low values over the Rocky Mountains 434 correlate very well (with $R^2 > 0.96$, see Table 1) with high and low cloud coverage over those 435 areas (see CF plots in Figure 3). The pattern of OLR is different from LWDN because of the 436 larger impact of high level clouds on OLR. Overall, SWDN is slightly overpredicted by all 437 simulations with NMBs of 0.4% (UPM), 2.6% (EC), 4.3% (NCSU), and 5.4% (EPA). LWDN 438 and OLR are slightly underpredicted except for OLR of EPA with NMBs of -1.9% and -1.3% 439 (NCSU), -0.3% and -2.2% (UPM), and -1.6% and 0.4% (EPA). It should be noted that the 440 simulated aerosol/cloud properties play an important role in affecting the performance of 441 radiation through aerosol direct and indirect effects. The overpredictions of SWDN and 442 443 underpredictions of LWDN and OLR can be mainly attributed to underpredictions of AOD (due

to less scattering of solar radiation leading to higher SWDN), CF, COT, and LWP (due to less
clouds that lead to less emissions of longwave radiation and less trapping of outgoing longwave
radiation).

Figure 2b shows the Taylor diagram for selected radiation/aerosol/cloud related variables 447 from four simulations in 2006. There are some outliers including the AOD from two simulations 448 (i.e., NCSU and EPA) due to negative correlation and LWP from EC due to a large NSD. All 449 simulations show a good agreement for SWDN, LWDN, ORL, and PWV. Simulations generally 450 overestimate the amplitude of variability for SWDN (except NCSU), LWDN, and CF and 451 underestimate it for most of other variables. Correlation is excellent for SWDN, LWDN, OLR, 452 and PWV (typically > 0.9) and good for CF and LWP (typically between 0.6 and 0.9), which is 453 consistent with Figures 1 and 3-4. The negative correlation for AOD is mainly caused by the 454 large overpredictions over western U.S. and slightly underprediction over eastern U.S. Overall, 455 the results show the high uncertainties in simulating many cloud related variables and further 456 model improvement for the related physical/chemical treatments (e.g., aerosol activation scheme 457 and aqueous-phase chemistry scheme) is warranted. 458

459 4. Model Evaluation for 2010 and Its Comparison with 2006

460 **4.1. Column Mass Abundance**

Figure 5 shows the spatial distribution of tropospheric column abundances for CO, NO₂,
HCHO, SO₂, and TOR between satellite observations and four 2010 simulations. The
corresponding performance statistics are given in Table 2. Similar to 2006, all simulations can
capture the spatial distribution of MOPITT CO columns well (e.g., they match the high and low
abundances areas well). Most simulations underpredict CO columns with NMBs of -12.1%
(EPA), -10.0% (NCAR), and -9.4% (NCSU) except for EC which has an NMB of 4.6%. The

467	potential reasons for the model biases have been discussed in Section 3.1. Compared to 2006,
468	MOPITT CO columns are higher over the Pacific Northwest and southern Canada in 2010,
469	indicating stronger trans-Pacific transport of Asian air pollutants in 2010, which is not well
470	captured by most simulations except for EC. This finding suggests the importance of higher
471	vertical resolution in free troposphere in simulating long lifetime species such as CO. Similar to
472	2006, the locations of hot spots associated with high NO _x emissions are well reproduced by all
473	2010 simulations. However, all simulations moderately or largely overpredict the NO _x
474	abundances with NMBs of 12.9% (EPA), 31.8% (NCSU), 91.6% (EC), and 102.1% (NCAR).
475	The domain-average reduction of SCIAMACHY NO ₂ columns from 2006 to 2010 is ~18%,
476	which agrees well with the reported NO _x emission reduction of 22% between 2006 and 2010 in
477	EPA's NEI (Stoeckenius et al., 2014). Such a reduction is also reflected in the changes of
478	simulated NO ₂ columns for NCSU and EPA, by ~6% and ~10%, respectively. For HCHO, both
479	SCIAMACHY and all four simulations show high column abundances over regions with high
480	biogenic and biomass burning emissions in 2010, which is similar to 2006. HCHO columns are
481	underpredicted by NCSU and EPA with NMBs of -25.0% and -10.9%, while they are
482	overpredicted by NCAR and EC with NMBs of 14.2% and 87.6%. The inter-model variability is
483	likely caused by the differences in both biogenic emissions and gas-phase mechanisms. As
484	discussed in Section 3.1, although BEIS used by EC and EPA predict higher HCHO emissions,
485	NCAR predicts an order of magnitude higher isoprene emissions (i.e., 7.2 kton-C km ⁻² year ⁻¹ vs.
486	0.02-0.58 kton-C km ⁻² year ⁻¹) than other simulations (Im et al., 2014a), which lead to the
487	overprediction of HCHO. For EC, both higher HCHO emissions and larger formation of HCHO
488	through ADOM-II (see Section 3.1) result in the large overprediction of HCHO. Two major
489	factors determine the annual changes of HCHO columns from SCIAMACHY observations

490	between 2010 and 2006. One factor is the change of meteorology. 2010 is considered as a
491	general warmer year compared to 2006. Yahya et al. (2014b) found that the annual average
492	surface temperature over the Clean Air Status and Trends Network (CASTNET) network
493	increased from 11.7°C in 2006 to 15.9°C in 2010. The increase of temperature will increase the
494	biogenic emissions thus leading to more HCHO. The other factor is the change of anthropogenic
495	emissions. Stoeckenius et al. (2014) reported an overall reduction of anthropogenic VOC
496	emissions from 2006 to 2010 that can lead to less HCHO. The two factors may compensate each
497	other and thus create the interesting pattern for SCIAMACHY HCHO as shown in Figures 1 and
498	5, i.e., larger maximum HCHO over southeastern U.S. but lower domainwide mean values in
499	2010. Among the three simulations with both 2006 and 2010 results, only EPA reproduces this
500	pattern. For SO ₂ , three simulations (i.e., NCSU, NCAR, and EPA) present very similar SO ₂
501	columns in terms of both magnitude and spatial distribution while EC presents much higher SO_2
502	columns. All simulations miss some major hot spots over the western part of domain and oceans
503	observed by SCIAMACHY, possibly due to missing source of SO ₂ emissions (e.g., ship
504	emissions) or uncertainties in retrievals. Most simulations underpredict SO ₂ with NMBs of -
505	65.2% (NCSU), -65.6% (NCAR), and -60.2% (EPA) except for EC that overpredicts it with an
506	NMB of 7.4%. NCSU predicts the lowest SO ₂ columns again in 2010 due to treatments of both
507	SO ₂ heterogeneous chemistry and convective cloud AQ chemistry as discussed in Section 3.1.
508	The increasing trend shown in SCIAMACHY SO ₂ columns between 2010 and 2006 contradicts
509	with the reported SO ₂ emissions reduction by ~40% from 2006 to 2010 by Stoeckenius et al.
510	(2014) and suggests that further investigation of satellite retrievals is needed, considering a
511	rigorous enforcement of SO ₂ emission control programs in North America (Pouliot et al., 2014).
512	All three simulations show overpredictions of TORs NMBs of 13.5% (EC), 19.3 (NCSU), and

513 43.7% (NCAR), respectively, which are due to uncertainties associated with O₃ profiles provided by MACC and emphasize the needs for carefully dealing with O₃ profiles in future studies. The 514 spatial pattern from NCAR is different with both other simulations and OMI/MLS is due to the 515 coarser vertical resolution especially between 350-200 hPa, where it cannot resolve the 516

tropopause from NCEP data well. 517

Figure 6a shows the Taylor diagram for four gases from four simulations in 2010. Unlike 518 2006, the amplitude of SO₂ variability in 2010 is reduced due to much higher SO₂ columns from 519 observations, despite lower correlations (~0.2-0.3 in 2010 vs. 0.5-0.6 in 2006) caused by much 520 lower simulated SO₂ over western U.S. and oceans. Generally, the performance for CO is still 521 the best in 2010 among all gases followed by HCHO, NO₂, TOR, and SO₂. A generally poorer 522 performance is found for all species compared to 2006, particularly for NO₂ with two 523 524 simulations becoming outliers and for HCHO with one simulation becoming an outlier.

525

4.2. Aerosol and Cloud Variables

Figure 7 shows the spatial distribution of selected aerosol/cloud related variables (i.e., 526 AOD, CF, and PWV) between satellite observations and five 2010 simulations. Figure A2 shows 527 the remaining variables (i.e., COT, CCN, CDNC). The domainwide statistics are summarized in 528 Table 2. All simulations demonstrate a similar systematic underprediction of AOD over western 529 U.S. shown in the 2006 simulations. NCSU and EPA slightly overpredict AOD and EC slightly 530 underpredicts it over eastern U.S. NCAR shows a factor of two overprediction due to large 531 532 overpredictions of dust contributions to PM_{2.5} (Im et al., 2014b). The domainwide NMBs are -59.5% (EC), -36.1% (EPA), -29.5% (NCSU), and 42.3% (NCAR), respectively. MODIS AOD 533 retrievals show a general decreasing trend from 2006 to 2010, especially over eastern U.S., likely 534 535 associated with the reduction of anthropogenic emissions of aerosols and precursors. NCSU,

536	EPA, and EC reproduce this decreasing trend. The spatial distribution of MODIS CF is
537	generally captured by all simulations. NCSU, EPA, and NCAR also reproduce the magnitude
538	well with NMBs of 0.2%, -5.7%, and -9.1%, respectively, while UMU largely underpredict CF
539	with NMBs of -33.2%. The trend for MODIS CF between 2006 and 2010 is not very apparent
540	with slightly more domain average CF observed in 2010 and both NCSU and EPA reproduce the
541	trend. Similar agreements with MODIS PWV retrievals in terms of both spatial distribution and
542	magnitude are presented in 2010 compared to 2006. The domainwide NMBs are -3.2%
543	(NCAR), -1.3% (UMU), -1.1% (NCSU), and 2.3% (EPA). As shown in Figure A2 NCSU shows
544	similar large underpredictions for COT in 2010 due likely to the same reasons discussed in
545	Section 3.2. MODIS COT shows a decreasing trend from 2006 to 2010 (i.e., domainwide
546	average of 16.0 vs. 15.2; ~5% reduction), which is to a lesser extent captured by NCSU (i.e.,
547	5.26 vs 5.15; ~2% reduction). Similar to 2006, NCSU largely underpredicts CCN in 2010 with
548	an NMB of -68.6%. Despite the large underpredictions in both years, NCSU reproduces the
549	decreasing trend of MODIS CCN from 2006 to 2010 (i.e., with domain averages of 0.34×10^9
550	cm ⁻² and 0.28 \times 10 ⁹ cm ⁻² in 2006 and 2010 for MODIS vs. 0.13 \times 10 ⁹ cm ⁻² and 0.09 \times 10 ⁹ cm ⁻²
551	for NCSU). Both NCSU and EC also underpredict CDNC for 2010 with NMBs of -37.0% and -
552	66.2%, respectively, and NCSU also reproduces the decrease of CDNC observed by MODIS in
553	2010 compared to 2006. In general, although relatively large biases still exist for most of the
554	predicted aerosol/cloud variables in 2010, most simulations can capture the inter-annual changes
555	of those variables between 2010 and 2006.

556 **4.3. Radiation Variables**

557 Figure 8 shows the spatial distribution of radiation variables (i.e., SWDN, LWDN, and 558 OLR) between satellite observations and 2010 simulations. The model performance for all 559 radiation variables from all simulations is generally good in terms of both spatial distribution and magnitude. SWDN is overpredicted by all simulation with NMBs of 1.8% (EC), 2.7% (NCSU), 560 3.3% (EPA), 14.4% (NCAR), and 18.7% (UMU). LWDN and OLR are underpredicted except 561 for OLR of UMU with NMBs of -0.9% and -0.8% (NCSU), -5.0% and -0.1% (NCAR), -4.1% 562 and 3.9% (UMU), and -1.1% and -0.9% (EPA). Since NCSU, NCAR, and UMU all use the 563 same WRF/Chem model and similar radiation schemes (i.e., either RRTMG or RRTM), the 564 relatively larger overprediction of SWDN by NCAR and UMU should be due to the lower 565 predicted CF comparing to other simulations. The satellite observations show a decrease for 566 567 SWDN and LWDN and an increase for OLR between 2010 and 2006, which is consistent with the increase of CF. Both NCSU and EPA can reproduce the trend of SWDN but show the 568 opposite trend for LWDN and OLR, possibly due to either uncertainties associated with aerosol 569 570 indirect effect treatments in WRF/Chem or the missing indirect effects of aerosols in WRF-CMAQ. 571

Figure 6b shows the Taylor diagram for selected aerosol/radiation/cloud variables from
five simulations in 2010. AOD are still outlier points due to their negative correlation.
Compared to 2006, the overall performance for SWDN, LWDN, and OLR are slightly better.
The performance for PWV is slightly worse. The performance for CF and CDNC is generally
comparable. Overall, the performance for radiation variables is still the best in 2010, followed
by PWV, CF, CDNC, and AOD.

578 **5.** Conclusions

In this study, a comparative evaluation is performed for simulations of 2006 and 2010
over the NA domain using three state-of-the-science online-coupled models (i.e., WRF/Chem,
WRF-CMAQ, and GEM-MACH). A number of variables evaluated include column-integrated

- 582 gas abundances (i.e., tropospheric CO, NO₂, HCHO, SO₂, and TOR), aerosol and cloud
- properties (i.e., AOD, COT, CF, CCN, CDNC, LWP, and PWV), and radiation budgets (i.e.,
- 584 SWDN, LWDN, and OLR) against available satellite retrieval data (i.e., MOPITT,
- 585 SCIAMACHY, MODIS, CERES, and AVHRR).

The comparison results show that all simulations can reproduce the MOPITT CO 586 columns well with low biases and high correlations for both years. Larger discrepancies exist for 587 NO₂, HCHO, SO₂ column abundances and TOR possibly due to several reasons including 588 uncertainties in emissions for NO₂ and HCHO and simulated PBL mixing processes, missing 589 model treatments such as plume-in-grid processes, uncertainties associated with BC/profiles for 590 O₃, and uncertainties associated with satellite retrievals algorithms themselves. Inter-model 591 variability is also more apparent for abundances of NO₂, HCHO, and SO₂ than CO due to several 592 possible reasons such as different oxidation rates caused by different gas-phase mechanisms and 593 different treatments of aerosol chemistry (e.g., AQ chemistry and heterogeneous chemistry). For 594 example, the lowest SO₂ columns simulated by NCSU in both 2006 and 2010 are mainly due to 595 the inclusion of both heterogeneous chemistry of SO₂ on aerosol particles and convective cloud 596 chemistry in their model. NCSU, EPA, and EC simulations are performed for both years, which 597 598 enable a comparison for the simulated inter-annual trend from 2006 to 2010 with that of satellite observations. Both NCSU and EPA are able to reproduce the reduction of SCIAMACHY NO₂ 599 columns in 2010 caused by decreasing emissions compared to 2006. Among the three 2010 600 601 simulations, only EC captures the high MOPITT columns caused by the stronger trans-Pacific transport of Asian air pollutants in 2010 than 2006 and only EPA captures the trend of 602 SCIAMACHY HCHO columns caused by the increase of biogenic emissions and decrease of 603 604 anthropogenic emissions. SCIAMACHY shows an increasing trend of SO₂ column abundances

from 2006 to 2010, which is inconsistent with reported reductions of SO₂ emissions and the resultant decreases in simulated SO₂ column abundances. Such an inconsistency is more likely caused by uncertainties in the satellite data retrieval algorithms than uncertainties in the SO₂ emissions used in all model simulations, given a rigorous enforcement of SO₂ emission control programs in North America.

Most simulations tend to underpredict most aerosol/cloud related variables due to 610 underpredictions of aerosol loadings, inaccurate treatments associated with aerosol-cloud 611 interactions, and uncertainties of satellite data. For example, all simulations significantly 612 613 underpredict AOD over the western part of the domain, but this could be the result of either underestimation of dust aerosols or positive biases associated with MODIS retrievals. All 614 simulations also tend to significantly underpredict COT, CCN, and CDNC with NMBs generally 615 between -70% to -30% due to the underprediction of aerosol loadings, uncertainties associated 616 with cloud schemes, and potential underpredictions of aerosol activations. However, most 617 simulations perform better in reproducing PWV, due to the fact that it is more dependent on the 618 synoptic-scale meteorology and less dependent on aerosol loadings and cloud covers in the 619 current model treatments. The investigation of inter-annual trend for the above variables shows 620 that most simulations can reproduce the decreasing trend from 2010 to 2006 for variables AOD, 621 PWV, COT, CCN, and CDNC. 622

For radiation variables, all simulations show good agreement with satellite data with NMBs of mostly less than 5%. This indicates good performance of aerosol radiation schemes despite uncertainties still existing in the current model treatments of aerosol/cloud-radiation feedbacks. The feedbacks of aerosols/clouds on radiation are reflected in the general overprediction of SWDN and underprediction of LWDN and OLR, with the former due likely to

628 the underpredictions of aerosol loadings (e.g., AOD) and the latter due likely to the

629 underpredictions of the magnitudes of cloud properties (e.g., COT, CF, LWP, and CDNC).

630 NCSU, EPA, and EC can reproduce the inter-annual trend of SWDN observed by satellite.

Trends in LWDN and OLR are not reproduced by EPA and NCSU possibly due to missing (i.e.,

EPA) or inaccurate (i.e., NCSU) aerosol indirect effect treatments in the model (LWDN and

633 OLR were not stored in the EC simulations).

While the results in this study provide valuable information on model evaluation against 634 satellite retrievals, this work is subject to several limitations in dealing with the simulation data 635 processing that should be addressed in the future. First, all satellite data used in the work are 636 level 3 data and are subject to higher uncertainties without applying the averaging kernels (AK, 637 which is only available for level 2 data) for column abundances of gases. Therefore, the a priori 638 profiles used by MOPITT, SCIAMACHY, and OMI/MLS retrievals may further contribute to 639 the uncertainties for the comparison (applying AK in the processing of model data would have 640 limited the impacts of the a priori profiles). However, a recent study by Zhang et al. (2010) 641 found that applying AK from the MOPITT retrievals may introduce more noises from the a 642 priori and thus this caveat should be noted for processing column CO. Another study of Schaub 643 644 et al. (2006) compared ground-based measured NO₂ columns with and without applying the AK from the Global Ozone Monitoring Experiment (GOME) (which uses the similar retrieval 645 methods as SCIMACHY) and found that both methods showed a good agreement with GOME 646 647 retrievals under the clear sky conditions. Second, the processing of the model results used 100 hPa as a fixed cut-off for the tropopause which may further introduce uncertainties and a more 648 accurate approach should be applied in the future. Third, AOD from different simulations are 649 650 currently calculated by different methods assuming different preset complex refractive indexes

within individual models. A more consistent way such as using the same offline AOD
calculation script but prognostic aerosol outputs from different models should be considered in
the future study to allow for a more consistent comparison. Finally, some speculation analyses
shown earlier in this study can only be validated through sensitivity simulations. Those
simulations are out of the scope of this work and should be addressed in future studies.

Nevertheless, this study provides the first comparative assessment of the capabilities of 656 the current generation of regional online-coupled models in simulating tropospheric columns of 657 major atmospheric components and atmospheric radiation budgets, as well as cloud and aerosol 658 659 properties. The analyses highlight the strength and deficiencies of current model treatments in simulating chemistry-aerosol-cloud-radiation interactions, in particular, aerosol indirect effects, 660 in current generation of the online-coupled models. The study also identifies several key areas of 661 662 further investigation and potential model improvements, such as using higher vertical resolution to better represent column abundances and using more advanced aerosol activation 663 parameterization for aerosol-cloud interactions, thus providing the benchmark for future online-664 couple air quality model development and improvement, as well as re-assessment. 665

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- 907

Species*	Satellite		NCSU			UPM			EPA			EC	
		NMB	NME	R	NMB	NME	R	NMB	NME	R	NMB	NME	R
		(%)	(%)		(%)	(%)		(%)	(%)		(%)	(%)	
СО	MOPITT	-9.3	9.7	0.90	-7.7	8.4	0.88	-9.4	9.9	0.83	-2.2	5.3	0.85
NO2	SCIAMACHY	14.1	33.6	0.90	-14.7	33.2	0.93	2.1	34.9	0.86	-37.7	45.2	0.89
HCHO	SCIAMACHY	-24.5	29.0	0.77	-27.3	30.7	0.78	-11.5	30.6	0.51	59.2	59.8	0.71
SO2	SCIAMACHY	16.1	76.5	0.59	26.2	82.3	0.62	42.1	91.0	0.59	114.2	144.7	0.64
TOR	OMI/MLS	38.0	38.0	0.47	29.9	29.9	0.56				19.9	19.9	0.87
OLR	NOAA/CDC	-1.3	2.4	0.93	-2.2	3.3	0.86	0.4	1.5	0.97			
LWDN	CERES	-1.9	2.5	0.99	-0.3	2.1	0.98	-1.6	2.0	0.99			
SWDN	CERES	4.3	7.2	0.93	0.4	7.0	0.86	5.4	6.1	0.97	2.6	6.0	0.96
AOD	MODIS	-35.8	46.1	-0.02	-3.8	31.5	0.08	-34.9	39.4	-0.04	-56.7	56.7	0.08
COT	MODIS	-64.1	64.1	0.68							195.5	197.0	0.70
CF	MODIS	-2.8	10.4	0.81	0.5	11.6	0.76	-2.4	8.7	0.90			
CCN	MODIS	-64.0	64.0	0.52	-48.5	48.9	0.56						
CDNC	MODIS	-33.6	47.7	0.18	-16.1	44.7	0.12				-76.3	76.5	0.39
LWP	MODIS	-28.0	29.9	0.67	-22.6	29.8	0.57	-34.7	44.7	0.41	222.2	230.4	0.88
PWV	MODIS	-1.4	8.7	0.97	-0.2	8.5	0.97	1.3	8.7	0.98			

Table 1. Statistics summary for all models in 2006

910

*CO, NO₂, HCHO, SO₂, and TOR are all tropospheric abundance with units of 10¹⁸ molecules cm⁻², 10¹⁵ molecules c

Table 2. Statistics summary for all models in 2010

Species*	Satellite		NCSU			NCAR			UMU			EPA			EC		
		NMB	NME	R	NMB	NME	R	NMB	NME	R	NMB	NME	R	NMB	NME	R	
		(%)	(%)		(%)	(%)		(%)	(%)		(%)	(%)		(%)	(%)		
CO	MOPITT	-9.4	9.6	0.93	-10.0	10.2	0.93				-12.1	12.4	0.82	4.6	5.6	0.89	
NO2	SCIAMACHY	31.8	42.4	0.89	102.1	105.0	0.89				12.9	38.7	0.81	91.6	101.9	0.76	
HCHO	SCIAMACHY	-25.0	33.8	0.69	14.2	32.2	0.69				-10.9	34.0	0.53	87.6	88.3	0.67	
SO2	SCIAMACHY	-65.2	71.4	0.31	-65.6	71.5	0.30				-60.2	68.7	0.32	7.4	85.6	0.20	
TOR	OMI/MLS	19.3	19.4	0.64	43.7	43.7	-0.20							13.5	14.4	0.78	
OLR	NOAA/CDC	-0.8	1.9	0.95	-0.1	2.4	0.91	3.9	4.0	0.97	-0.9	1.6	0.97				
LWDN	CERES	-0.9	2.0	0.98	-5.0	5.0	0.99	-4.1	4.2	0.99	-1.1	2.0	0.98				
SWDN	CERES	2.7	6.8	0.91	14.4	15.0	0.89	18.7	18.7	0.93	3.3	5.6	0.95	1.8	5.8	0.96	
AOD	MODIS	-29.5	42.7	-0.09	42.3	67.5	-0.17				-36.1	43.1	-0.18	-59.5	59.7	-0.08	
COT	MODIS	-63.2	63.2	0.60										213.4	214.7	0.54	
CF	MODIS	0.2	9.0	0.87	-9.1	13.1	0.74	-33.2	33.2	0.78	-5.7	10.7	0.90				
CCN	MODIS	-68.6	68.7	0.49													
CDNC	MODIS	-37.0	47.5	0.26										-66.2	67.3	0.36	
PWV	MODIS	-1.1	10.1	0.96	-3.2	11.7	0.96	-1.3	11.1	0.96	2.3	10.8	0.96				

*CO, NO₂, HCHO, SO₂, and TOR are all tropospheric abundance with units of 10^{18} molecules cm⁻², 10.8 0.96 -2.3 10.8 0.96 -2.3 -2.5

-- Simulation results either not available or have issues.

920 List of Figures 921 Figure 1. Spatial distribution of tropospheric column gas abundances (from top to bottom: 922 column CO, column NO₂, column HCHO, column SO₂ and TOR) between satellite 923 observation and different models for year 2006 (blank color denotes to missing values; 924 due the erroneous mapping of O₃ profile, TOR from EPA is not shown). 925 Figure 2. Taylor diagram with NSD (desire value is 1), R (desired value is 1), and NMB (desire 926 value is 0) for selected (a) column gas species and (b) radiation/aerosol/cloud variables 927 928 among 4 simulations for year 2006. Note that the point marked REF on the X-axis represents the observed field and all markers on the plot area represent the simulation 929 results. The distance between the markers and the REF point is a measure of model 930 performance, with smaller distances indicating better model performance. The closer 931 932 the markers are to the X-axis, the better the model is able to reproduce the observed spatial pattern. The closer the marker is to the isoline crossing REF (i.e., the NSD is 933 equal to 1), the better the model is able to reproduce the amplitude of variations in the 934 satellite data. The hemispherical lines centered over "REF" on the horizontal axis 935 represent the combined desired level of NSD and correlation values (the closer the 936 937 markers to the inner hemispherical lines, the better overall model performance in terms of both magnitude and correlation). The size of the markers is proportional to the 938 magnitude of an NMB, with smaller markers indicating smaller NMBs (regular triangle 939 representing positive bias and inverse triangle representing negative biases). 940 Figure 3. Spatial distribution of aerosol/cloud related variables (from top to bottom: AOD, CF, 941 LWP, and PWV) between satellite observation and different models for year 2006 942 (blank color denotes to missing values; CF/PWV from model EC and CF from model 943 EPA are not available; scale for LWP of EC is different). 944 Figure 4. Spatial distribution of radiation (from top to bottom: SWDN, LWDN, and OLR) 945

between satellite observation and different models for year 2006 (blank color denotes tomissing values; LWDN and OLR from model EC are not available).

948	Figure 5.	Spatial distribution of tropospheric column gas abundances (from top to bottom:
949		column CO, column NO2, column HCHO, column SO2, and TOR) between satellite
950		observation and different models for year 2010 (blank color denotes to missing values;
951		due the erroneous mapping of O ₃ profile, TOR from EPA is not shown).
952	Figure 6.	Taylor diagram with NSD (desire value is 1), R (desired value is 1), and NMB (desire
953		value is 0) for (a) selected column gas species and (b) radiation/aerosol/cloud variables
954		among 5 simulations for year 2010. See Figure 2 caption for the meanings of
955		coordinates and markers in the Taylor diagram.
956	Figure 7.	Spatial distribution of aerosol/cloud related variables (from top to bottom: AOD, CF,
957		and PWV) between satellite observation and different models for year 2010 (blank
958		color denotes to missing values; CF/PWV from model EC and CF from model EPA are
959		not available).
960	Figure 8.	Spatial distribution of radiation (from top to bottom: SWDN, LWDN, and OLR)
961		between satellite observation and different models for year 2010 (blank color denotes to
962		missing values; LWDN and OLR from model EC are not available).



Figure 1. Spatial distribution of tropospheric column gas abundances (from top to bottom: column CO, column NO_2 , column HCHO, column SO_2 and TOR) between satellite observation and different models for year 2006 (blank color denotes to missing values; due the erroneous mapping of O_3 profile, TOR from EPA is not shown).



Figure 2. Taylor diagram with NSD (desire value is 1), R (desired value is 1), and NMB (desire value is 0) for selected (a) column gas species and (b) radiation/aerosol/cloud variables among 4 simulations for year 2006. Note that the point marked REF on the X-axis represents the observed field and all markers on the plot area represent the simulation results. The distance between the markers and the REF point is a measure of model performance, with smaller distances indicating better model performance. The closer the markers are to the X-axis, the better the model is able to reproduce the observed spatial pattern. The closer the marker is to the isoline crossing REF (i.e., the NSD is equal to 1), the better the model is able to reproduce the amplitude of variations in the satellite data. The hemispherical lines centered over "REF" on the horizontal axis represent the combined desired level of NSD and correlation values (the closer the markers to the inner hemispherical lines, the better overall model performance in terms of both magnitude and correlation). The size of the markers is proportional to the magnitude of an NMB, with smaller markers indicating smaller NMBs (regular triangle representing positive bias and inverse triangle representing negative biases).



Figure 3. Spatial distribution of aerosol/cloud related variables (from top to bottom: AOD, CF, LWP, and PWV) between satellite observation and different models for year 2006 (blank color denotes to missing values; CF/PWV from model EC and CF from model EPA are not available; scale for LWP of EC is different).



Figure 4. Spatial distribution of radiation (from top to bottom: SWDN, LWDN, and OLR) between satellite observation and different models for year 2006 (blank color denotes to missing values; LWDN and OLR from model EC are not available).



Figure 5. Spatial distribution of tropospheric column gas abundances (from top to bottom: column CO, column NO₂, column HCHO, column SO₂, and TOR) between satellite observation and different models for year 2010 (blank color denotes to missing values; due the erroneous mapping of O_3 profile, TOR from EPA is not shown).



Figure 6. Taylor diagram with NSD (desire value is 1), R (desired value is 1), and NMB (desire value is 0) for (a) selected column gas species and (b) radiation/aerosol/cloud variables among 5 simulations for year 2010. See Figure 2 caption for the meanings of coordinates and markers in the Taylor diagram.



Figure 7. Spatial distribution of aerosol/cloud related variables (from top to bottom: AOD, CF, and PWV) between satellite observation and different models for year 2010 (blank color denotes to missing values; CF/PWV from model EC and CF from model EPA are not available).



Figure 8. Spatial distribution of radiation (from top to bottom: SWDN, LWDN, and OLR) between satellite observation and different models for year 2010 (blank color denotes to missing values; LWDN and OLR from model EC are not available).

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

A Multi-Model Assessment for the 2006 and 2010 Simulations under the Air Quality Model Evaluation

International Initiative (AQMEII) Phase 2 over North America: Part II. Evaluation of Column Variable

Predictions Using Satellite Data

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Sensors/Satellite Description

The MOPITT instrument aboard the NASA's Terra satellite allows retrievals of tropospheric column CO with a horizontal resolution of 22×22 km² at nadir by detecting the infrared radiation emissions in the 4.7 µm band of CO. The retrieval of MOPITT CO has a target accuracy and precision of 10% (Emmons et al., 2009). The SCIAMACHY instrument aboard the ESA's Environmental satellite (ENVISAT) allows retrievals of a few species including tropospheric column NO₂, HCHO, and SO₂ with a typical horizontal resolution of 30×60 km² and as low as 30×30 km² by measuring the backscattered solar radiation with the spectrum bands over 214-1750 nm, 2.0 µm, and 2.3 µm. Compared with an older instrument Global Ozone Monitoring Experiment (GOME) which also detects column NO₂ and HCHO, SCIAMACHY has much higher resolution and thus provide better resolved variability of retrievals. The retrievals from SCIAMACHY have varying uncertainties for different species and are typically higher for SO₂ and HCHO as compared to NO₂ as shown in Table A1. The OMI instrument aboard the NASA's Aura satellite measures the backscattering of solar radiation over the spectrum 270-500 nm with a spatial resolution of 13×24 km². The TORs are retrieved with a residual technique that uses both total column O₃ from OMI and stratospheric column O₃ from the Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS). The general uncertainties associated with TOR from OMI/MLS are 4-5 Dobson Units (DUs). The OMI instrument aboard the NASA's Aura satellite measures the backscattering of solar radiation over the spectrum 270-500 nm with a spatial resolution of $13 \times$ 24 km². The CERES instrument aboard the NASA's Terra satellite is designed to measure the shortwave and longwave radiation fluxes from the TOA to the Earth's surface. Each CERES instrument is a radiometer which has three channels: a shortwave channel to measure scattered sunlight in the 0.3-5 µm region, a channel in the 8-12 µm regions to measure thermal radiation emissions from the Earth, and a total channel to measure the entire spectrum of Earth's outgoing radiation (Wielicki et al., 1996). The CERES sensor has a high resolution of 20×20 km² at nadir and relatively low uncertainties for both SWDN (1%) and LWDN (0.5%). The AVHRR sensor on NOAA-18 satellite has five channels sensing in the visible, near-infrared, and thermal infrared spectrum with high resolution up to 1.1×4.4 km² and has been used to retrieve the TOA OLR. The MODIS instrument also aboard the NASA's Terra satellite provides unprecedented information about aerosol and cloud properties at a very high spatial resolution of 10×10 km² at nadir (which may reach 1-5 km for some cloud products; Martin, 2008). MODIS has 36 spectral channels (compared to 4-8 for most other sensors), ranging from 0.41 to 15 µm, which bestow MODIS the unique ability to retrieve AOD with much higher accuracy. The MODIS sensor is designed to systematically retrieve aerosol/cloud properties over both land and ocean on a daily basis. The typical AOD retrieval from MODIS is at 550 nm interpolated from two other independent retrievals at 470 and 660 nm. The uncertainties for various products associated with MODIS are also summarized in Table A1.

Statistical Equations

$$NMB = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (M_{i} - O_{i})}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} O_{i}} \times 100$$

$$NME = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} |M_{i} - O_{i}|}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} O_{i}} \times 100$$

$$R = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (M_{i} - \overline{M})(O_{i} - \overline{O})}{\left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{N} (M_{i} - \overline{M})^{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (O_{i} - \overline{O})^{2} \right\}^{1/2}}$$

$$NSD = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (M_{i} - \overline{M})^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (O_{i} - \overline{O})^{2}}$$

Table A1. Summary of satellite data used in the model evaluation.

Variables ^a	Sensors/Satellites ^b	Spatial/Temporal Resolutions/Equator Crossing Time for Raw Measurements	Level-3 Data Spatial Resolution	Time Resolution for Evaluation	Data Uncertainties	References
СО	MOPITT/Terra	$22 \times 22 \text{ km}^2$ /once per day/10:30 am	1°×1°	Monthly	±10%	Emmons et al. (2009)
NO ₂	SCIAMACHY/ENVISAT	As low as $30 \times 30 \text{ km}^2$ /once per day/10:00 am	$0.25^{\circ} imes 0.25^{\circ}$	Monthly	5×10^{14} -1 $\times 10^{15}$ molecules cm ⁻² (or 35%-60%) over highly-polluted areas	Boersma et al. (2004)
НСНО	SCIAMACHY/ENVISAT	As low as $30 \times 30 \text{ km}^2/\text{once}$ per day/10:00 am	$0.25^{\circ} imes 0.25^{\circ}$	Monthly	0.5 - 2.0×10^{15} molecules cm ⁻²	De Smedt et al. (2008)
SO ₂	SCIAMACHY/ENVISAT	As low as $30 \times 30 \text{ km}^2/\text{once}$ per day/10:00 am	$0.25^{\circ} imes 0.25^{\circ}$	Monthly	$3-7 \times 10^{15}$ molecules cm ⁻² (40-80%) over the U.S.	Lee et al. (2009)
TOR	OMI-MLS/Aura	13 × 24 km ² /once per day/1:45 pm	1° × 1.25°	Monthly	±4-5 DUs	Ziemke et al. (2006)
SWDN	CERES/Terra	$20 \times 20 \text{ km}^2$ /once per day/10:30 am	$1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$	Monthly	1%	Wielicki et al. (1996)
LWDN	CERES/Terra	$20 \times 20 \text{ km}^2$ /once per day/10:30 am	$1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$	Monthly	0.5%	Wielicki et al. (1996)
OLR	AVHRR/NOAA-18	$1.1 \times 4.4 \text{ km}^2$ /once per day/2:00 pm	$2.5^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$	Monthly	N/A	Liebmann and Smith (1996)
AOD	MODIS/Terra	$22 \times 22 \text{ km}^2$ /once per day/10:30 am	$1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$	Monthly	$\pm 0.05 \pm 0.15r$ over land and $\pm 0.03 \pm 0.05r$ over ocean	Remer et al. (2005)

СОТ	MODIS/Terra	$22 \times 22 \text{ km}^2/\text{once per}$ day/10:30 am	1° × 1°	Monthly	8% (random error); 13% (mean error)	Remer et al. (2005)
CF	MODIS/Terra	1-5 km/once per day/10:30 am	$1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$	Monthly	10% (random error)	Remer et al. (2005)
CCN	MODIS/Terra	1-5 km/once per day/10:30 am	$1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$	Monthly	N/A	Remer et al. (2005)
CDNC	MODIS/Terra	1-5 km/once per day/10:30 am	1° × 1°	Daily	$<$ 10% when CF $>$ 0.8 and LWP $>$ 25 $gm^{\text{-}2}$ over NA	Bennartz (2007)
LWP	MODIS/Terra	1-5 km/once per day/10:30 am	$1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$	Monthly	15-25 gm ⁻² (random error)	Bennartz (2007)
PWV	MODIS/Terra	1-5 km/once per day/10:30 am	1°×1°	Monthly	5-10%	Gao and Kaufman (2003); Remer et al. (2005)

^aTOR: tropospheric ozone residuals; SWDN: downward surface solar radiation; LWDN: downward surface longwave radiation; OLR: TOA outgoing longwave radiation; AOD: aerosol optical depth; COT: cloud optical thickness; CF: cloud fraction; CCN: cloud condensation nuclei; CDNC: cloud droplet number concentration; LWP: cloud liquid water path; PWV: precipitable water vapor.

^bMOPITT: Measurements of Pollution in the Troposphere; SCIAMACHY: Scanning Imaging Absorption Spectrometer for Atmospheric Chartography; ENVISAT: Environmental Satellite; OMI: Ozone Monitoring Instrument; MLS: Microwave Limb Sounder; CERES: Cloud's and the Earth's Radiant Energy System; AVHRR: Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer; MODIS: Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer.



Figure A1. Spatial distribution of aerosol/cloud related variables (from top to bottom: COT, CCN, and CDNC) between satellite observation and different models for year 2006 (blank color denotes to missing values; only the available variables from limited simulations are displayed; scale for COT of EC is different).



Figure A2. Spatial distribution of aerosol/cloud related variables (from top to bottom: COT, CCN, and CDNC) between satellite observations and different models for year 2010 (blank color denotes to missing values; only the available variables from limited simulations are displayed; scale for COT of EC is different).