

1 **The GFDL Global Atmospheric Chemistry-Climate Model AM4.1: Model**
2 **Description and Simulation Characteristics**

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18 **Key Points:**

- 19 • A new atmospheric chemistry-climate model (AM4.1) has been developed for the
20 Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory (GFDL) 4th-generation suite.
- 21 • AM4.1 includes an advanced dynamical core and physical parameterizations, with
22 enhanced vertical resolution and revised aerosol and chemistry interactions.
- 23 • The AM4.1 model exhibits substantially enhanced fidelity compared to previous-
24 generation GFDL atmospheric models.

25 **Abstract**

26 We describe the baseline model configuration and simulation characteristics of GFDL's
27 Atmosphere Model version 4.1 (AM4.1), which builds on developments at GFDL over 2013–
28 2018 for coupled carbon-chemistry-climate simulation as part of the sixth phase of the Coupled
29 Model Intercomparison Project. In contrast with GFDL's AM4.0 development effort, which
30 focused on physical and aerosol interactions and which is used as the atmospheric component of
31 CM4.0, AM4.1 focuses on comprehensiveness of Earth system interactions. Key features of this
32 model include doubled horizontal resolution of the atmosphere (~200 km to ~100 km) with
33 revised dynamics and physics from GFDL's previous-generation AM3 atmospheric chemistry-
34 climate model. AM4.1 features improved representation of atmospheric chemical composition,
35 including aerosol and aerosol precursor emissions, key land-atmosphere interactions,
36 comprehensive land-atmosphere-ocean cycling of dust and iron, and interactive ocean-
37 atmosphere cycling of reactive nitrogen. AM4.1 provides vast improvements in fidelity over
38 AM3, captures most of AM4.0's baseline simulations characteristics and notably improves on
39 AM4.0 in the representation of aerosols over the Southern Ocean, India, and China—even with
40 its interactive chemistry representation—and in its manifestation of sudden stratospheric
41 warmings in the coldest months. Distributions of reactive nitrogen and sulfur species, carbon
42 monoxide, and ozone are all substantially improved over AM3. Fidelity concerns include
43 degradation of upper atmosphere equatorial winds and of aerosols in some regions.

44 **Plain Language Summary**

45 GFDL has developed a coupled chemistry-climate Atmospheric Model (AM4.1) as part of its 4th-
46 generation coupled model development activities. AM4.1 includes comprehensive chemistry for
47 representing ozone and aerosols, and has been developed for use in chemistry and air quality
48 applications, including advanced land-atmosphere-ocean coupling. With fidelity near to that of
49 AM4.0, AM4.1 features vastly improved representation of climate mean patterns and variability
50 from previous GFDL atmospheric chemistry-climate models.

51 **1. Introduction**

52 Atmospheric chemistry and composition are intrinsically coupled to the Earth's climate system.
53 The pivotal role of chemistry-climate interactions in regulating climate has been recognized for
54 over 30 years (Ramanathan et al., 1987). Advances in fundamental knowledge of atmospheric
55 chemistry and availability of long-term measurements, combined with advances in computing,
56 have provided an opportunity to enhance the comprehensiveness of our representation of

57 atmospheric chemistry-climate interactions. For the fifth phase of the Coupled Model
58 Intercomparison Project (CMIP5), GFDL contributed its first coupled chemistry-climate model,
59 CM3 (Donner et al., 2011), which allowed us to represent interactive aerosols and ozone, rather
60 than prescribing concentrations from offline models (e.g., Horowitz et al., 2003). Much has been
61 learned in the preceding years as to the strengths and weaknesses of CM3 chemistry, including
62 the critical role of prognostic aerosol interactions (e.g., Naik et al., 2013a; Levy et al., 2013). As
63 such, interactive aerosols were included in all of GFDL's 4th-generation atmospheric model
64 development efforts, targeted for the sixth phase of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project
65 (CMIP6). The high computational cost of interactive atmospheric chemistry, however, was
66 avoided in GFDL's recent CM4.0 development (Held et al., 2019) by prescribing ozone and
67 other oxidants. A full interactive chemistry representation, along with a comprehensive carbon
68 cycle, was reserved in this generation of GFDL models for Earth System Model development in
69 ESM4.1 (Dunne et al., submitted). Thus, CM4 included a focus on ocean resolution, while
70 ESM4.1 focused on a comprehensive representation of the Earth system.

71 The overall goal of AM4.1 development was to merge a suite of mostly parallel sets of updates
72 and innovations into GFDL's 4th-generation atmospheric model. These updates include a revised
73 chemical mechanism from AM3 to AM4.1 to take advantage of new laboratory kinetic data (e.g.,
74 Sander et al., 2011; Mao et al., 2013b; as implemented by Li et al., 2016), in particular for
75 photooxidation of biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs). Analysis of deficiencies in
76 AM3 chemistry has pointed out improper treatment of nitrate aerosols and gas-aerosol
77 interactions and biases in wet and dry deposition. We also wanted to leverage successful follow-
78 on development efforts from AM3 targeted to implement reduced nitrogen cycling (Paulot et al.,
79 2016, 2017b) and improved representation of the seasonal cycle in sulfate (Paulot et al., 2017a).

80 Finally, we wanted to provide the ability for the atmospheric model to handle a more diverse
81 suite of land-atmosphere and ocean-atmosphere linkages for comprehensive Earth system
82 representation of not only heat and hydrology but also CO₂, dust, reactive nitrogen, and organic
83 carbon.

84 The focus of the present study is to document the atmosphere physics and chemistry developed
85 for AM4.1, as distinguished from the physical climate–focused AM4.0 (Zhao et al., 2018ab), for
86 standalone atmospheric applications. A more comprehensive discussion of coupled atmosphere-
87 ocean-land Earth system interactions in ESM4.1 is provided by Dunne et al. (submitted). We
88 focus our analysis on evaluating the AMIP configuration of AM4.1 used for CMIP6, and
89 document differences in results between AM4.1 and other GFDL CMIP models, including
90 AM4.0 (CMIP6) and AM3 (CMIP5). In the case of comparisons with AM3, the differences in
91 results reflect updates to both the model configuration and the emissions (as discussed in Section
92 2.4).

93 **2. Model description**

94 A general schematic of AM4.1 forcing, dynamics, physics, aerosol, and chemistry interactions is
95 provided in Figure 1. The following sections discuss the formulations for these components in
96 reference to their AM4.0 (Zhao et al., 2018ab) counterparts.

97 **2.1 Physical model formulation**

98 The physical formulation of AM4.1 is similar to that of AM4.0, but the model top has been
99 raised from 100 Pa (~45 km) to 1 Pa (~80 km), and the number of vertical levels has been
100 increased from 33 to 49, similar to the 48-level structure of AM3. This enhanced vertical extent
101 and resolution allows AM4.1 to represent stratospheric dynamics and chemistry, and

102 stratosphere-troposphere coupling. The time step used in the dynamical core for gravity wave
103 and the Lagrangian dynamics is reduced from 150 s in AM4.0 to 130 s in AM4.1 for increased
104 numerical stability.

105 Like AM4.0, AM4.1 includes 5 tracers for water (specific humidity, liquid water, ice water,
106 cloud amount, and liquid droplet number concentration), and uses the same large-scale and
107 convective cloud parameterizations as in AM4.0. Cloud parameterizations in AM4.1 were re-
108 tuned slightly compared to AM4.0 in order to improve agreement with observed top-of-
109 atmosphere shortwave and longwave radiative fluxes, in response to initially excessive reflection
110 from convective clouds over sub-Saharan Africa, North Indian Ocean, and the western tropical
111 Pacific. In particular, the scale factor applied to the fall speed of ice clouds ($c1$ in Zhao et al.,
112 2018b) was reduced from 0.90 in AM4.0 to 0.85 in AM4.1 to increase ice water path and
113 decrease outgoing longwave radiation. The cloud erosion timescale (τ_{eros}) in convectively active
114 regions is decreased slightly from 6.9 hours to 5.6 hours to increase the absorbed shortwave
115 radiation. The cloud erosion timescale under other conditions is unchanged from AM4.0.

116 As described by Zhao et al. (2018b), non-orographic gravity wave drag in AM4.0/AM4.1 is
117 parameterized following Alexander and Dunkerton (1999), but the parameters used in AM4.1 are
118 modified from those in AM4.0 to improve stratospheric circulation. In AM4.1, the magnitudes of
119 the non-orographic gravity wave flux above 350 hPa for the tropics, northern extratropics, and
120 southern extratropics (St , Sn , and Ss) are set to 0.004, 0.005, and 0.0035 $m^2 s^{-2}$, respectively.

121 Land hydrology and ecosystem dynamics are represented in AM4.1 by the GFDL Land Model
122 version 4.1 (LM4.1; Shevliakova et al., submitted), replacing the LM4.0 model used in AM4.0

123 (Zhao et al., 2018b). LM4.1 includes advanced vegetation and canopy competition, fire, land use
124 representation, and dynamic atmospheric dust coupling.

125 2.2 Atmospheric chemistry and aerosol scheme

126 AM4.1 includes interactive tropospheric and stratospheric gas-phase and aerosol chemistry. The
127 bulk aerosol scheme, including 18 transported aerosol tracers (see Supplementary material, Table
128 S1), is similar to that in AM4.0 (Zhao et al., 2018b), with the following updates: (1) ammonium
129 and nitrate aerosols are treated explicitly, with the sulfate–nitrate–ammonia thermodynamic
130 equilibrium simulated using ISORROPIA (Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007), as described by Paulot
131 et al. (2016); (2) oxidation of sulfur dioxide and dimethyl sulfide to produce sulfate aerosol is
132 driven by the gas-phase oxidant concentrations (OH , H_2O_2 , and O_3) and cloud pH simulated by
133 the online chemistry scheme (Paulot et al., 2016), and (3) the rate of aging of black and organic
134 carbon aerosols from hydrophobic to hydrophilic forms varies with calculated concentrations of
135 hydroxyl radical (OH), as described by Liu et al. (2011).

136 Unlike AM4.0, the AM4.1 model has an online representation of gas-phase tropospheric and
137 stratospheric chemistry. The combined tropospheric and stratospheric chemistry scheme includes
138 18 prognostic (transported) aerosol tracers, 59 prognostic gas phase, 6 prognostic ideal tracers,
139 and 41 diagnostic (non-transported) chemical tracers (Table S2), with 43 photolysis reactions,
140 190 gas-phase kinetic reactions, and 15 heterogeneous reactions (Table S3). The tropospheric
141 chemistry includes reactions of the $\text{NO}_x\text{-HO}_x\text{-O}_x\text{-CO-CH}_4$ system and oxidation schemes for
142 other non-methane volatile organic compounds. The stratospheric chemistry accounts for the
143 major ozone loss cycles (O_x , HO_x , NO_x , ClO_x , and BrO_x) and heterogeneous reactions on liquid
144 and solid stratospheric aerosols as in Austin et al. (2013). The base chemical mechanism is

145 updated from that in AM3 (Naik et al., 2013a), using gas-phase and heterogeneous chemistry
146 updates from Mao et al. (2013ab), similar to the configuration described by Schnell et al. (2018).
147 We include heterogeneous reactions of HO₂, NO₂, N₂O₅, and NO₃ on the surfaces of all
148 simulated aerosol types, with specified gamma values (given in Table S3). Note in particular that
149 $\gamma(\text{HO}_2)$ is reduced from the value of 1 recommended by Mao et al. (2013a) to 0.2. We also
150 include the heterogeneous oxidation of SO₂ on aerosols following Zheng et al. (2015). The
151 heterogeneous chemistry included in AM4.1 has a much stronger effect on oxidant levels than
152 that in AM3, which used $\gamma(\text{N}_2\text{O}_5)=0.1$, $\gamma(\text{NO}_3)=0.1$, $\gamma(\text{NH}_3)=0.05$, $\gamma(\text{HO}_2)=0$, and $\gamma(\text{NO}_2)=0$,
153 applied only to sulfate aerosols. The chemical system is solved using an implicit Euler backward
154 method with Newton-Raphson iteration, as in Horowitz et al. (2003). Photolysis rates are
155 calculated interactively using the FAST-JX version 7.1 code, as described by Li et al. (2016),
156 accounting for the radiative effects of simulated aerosols and clouds.

157 Dry deposition velocities for all aerosols are calculated interactively using a wind-driven
158 resistance method (Gallagher et al., 2002), accounting for the effect of whitecaps over the ocean
159 (Williams, 1982). The treatment of wet deposition accounts for slower removal by frozen
160 precipitation due to the Bergeron process in mixed-phase clouds (Liu et al., 2011). Dry and wet
161 deposition for gases are as described by Paulot et al. (2016).

162 Optical properties of aerosols are precalculated, as in AM4.0, using Mie theory assuming
163 sphericity. The extinction efficiency, single scattering albedo, and asymmetry parameter are
164 tabulated as a function of wavelength, aerosol type, aerosol size (for dust and sea salt), and
165 relative humidity. Sulfate is assumed to be internally mixed with black carbon for the calculation
166 of optical properties. Unlike AM4.0, radiative effects of nitrate aerosol are included in AM4.1
167 (as in Paulot et al., 2017b).

168 2.3 AMIP (1980–2014) simulation configuration

169 We conduct AMIP simulations with AM4.1 over the period 1979–2014 using observed gridded
170 sea surface temperature (SST) and sea-ice concentration boundary conditions from the
171 reconstructions of Taylor et al. (2000). Historical reconstructions of monthly solar spectral
172 irradiances are from Matthes et al. (2017). For radiation calculations, global monthly mean
173 concentrations of greenhouse gases (GHGs), including nitrous oxide (N_2O), and ozone depleting
174 substances (ODSs, including CFC-11, CFC-12, CFC-113, and HCFC-22) are specified from
175 Meinshausen et al. (2017). Global mean mixing ratios of methane (CH_4) and N_2O are specified at
176 the surface as lower boundary conditions for chemistry. Carbon dioxide (CO_2) mixing ratio is
177 restored to observed global-mean values with a one-year timescale. The simulated global-mean
178 CO_2 and CH_4 concentrations are used for radiation calculations.

179 2.4 Emissions

180 Annually varying time series of monthly anthropogenic and biomass burning emissions of ozone
181 precursors and aerosols (and their precursors) are from the Community Emissions Data System
182 (CEDS; Hoesly et al., 2018) and the data set of van Marle et al. (2017), respectively, developed
183 in support of CMIP6. Wildfire emissions are distributed vertically between the surface and 6 km,
184 with location- and biome-dependent vertical profiles, as recommended by Dentener et al. (2006),
185 similar to the treatment in AM3 (Donner et al., 2011; Naik et al., 2013a). Natural emissions of
186 NO_x , CO, non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOC), hydrogen (H_2), and ammonia
187 (NH_3) are generally the same as those considered by Naik et al. (2013a), namely from the
188 Precursors of Ozone and their Effects in the Troposphere (POET) inventory for present day
189 (corresponding to year 2000) (Granier et al., 2005). Emissions of NH_3 from sea bird colonies, not

190 accounted for in AM3, are included in AM4.1 following Riddick et al. (2012). The treatment of
191 marine ammonia emissions is also revised as described below.

192 Biogenic emissions of isoprene and monoterpenes are calculated online using the Parameterized
193 Canopy Environment Emission Activity (PCEEA algorithm; Guenther et al., 2006) in the Model
194 of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN v2.1; Guenther et al., 2012) as a
195 function of simulated air temperature and shortwave radiative fluxes, implemented as described
196 by Rasmussen et al (2012). Leaf area indices for 17 plant functional types are based on AVHRR
197 and MODIS data and are mapped to five vegetation types (Emmons et al. 2010). These
198 vegetation types and leaf area indices are independent of those simulated by the LM4.1 dynamic
199 vegetation model, due to a lack of coupling between the dynamic vegetation properties simulated
200 by LM4.1 and the atmospheric emissions module. We do not apply the soil moisture or CO₂
201 responses from Guenther et al. (2012). Future model development plans include coupling
202 biogenic emissions to LM4.1. Sea salt emissions are based on the parameterization of Monahan
203 (1986) as in CM3 (Donner et al., 2011), but are modulated by sea surface temperature following
204 Jaeglé et al. (2011). Ocean ammonia emissions are calculated following Paulot et al. (2015),
205 using the simulated seawater concentration of NH₄⁺ in ESM4.1. Other marine emissions,
206 including primary organic aerosols (POA) and dimethyl sulfide (DMS), are calculated similarly
207 to in CM3. DMS emissions are calculated using an empirical formula as a function of a
208 prescribed monthly climatology of DMS concentration in sea water (Lana et al., 2011) and
209 calculated wind speed at 10 m, as described by Chin et al. (2002). Thus, oceanic emissions of
210 POA, DMS, ammonia, and sea salt are dependent on the simulated meteorology in the model.

211 Emission totals for year 2014 are shown in Table 1. Time series of annual global emissions in
212 AM4.1 (using CMIP6 inventories) are shown for select species in Figure 2, and compared with
213 corresponding totals in AM3 (using CMIP5 inventories).

214 Sources of secondary organic aerosols (SOA) include an anthropogenic source from oxidation of
215 the simulated C₄H₁₀ hydrocarbon tracer by hydroxyl radical (with a 10% per-carbon yield) and a
216 biogenic pseudo-emission assuming a 10% per-carbon yield from emissions of BVOCs,
217 including isoprene and monoterpenes, from vegetation. This yield is in the range of values
218 suggested by recent studies using more detailed schemes for SOA production (e.g., Bates and
219 Jacob, 2019; Pai et al., 2020). In year 2014, the sources of SOA are 83.84 Tg a⁻¹ from BVOCs
220 and 3.49 Tg a⁻¹ from anthropogenic hydrocarbon oxidation.

221 Lightning NO_x emissions are calculated interactively as a function of subgrid convection in
222 AM4.1, as diagnosed by the double plume convection scheme described by Zhao et al. (2018b).
223 The lightning NO_x source is calculated as a function of convective cloud-top height, following
224 the parameterization of Price et al. (1997), and is injected with the vertical distribution of
225 Pickering et al. (1998), as in AM3 (Naik et al., 2013a). The global total production of NO_x by
226 lightning is 3.59 Tg N for year 2014.

227 Dust emissions are calculated dynamically online in the land component, LM4.1, as a function of
228 wind speed, topography, vegetation cover, snow cover, soil moisture, and land type, as described
229 by Evans et al. (2016) and Shevliakova et al. (submitted).

230 As in AM3, direct injection of SO₂ from volcanic eruptions and emissions of carbonyl sulfide
231 (COS) are not considered in AM4.1. Instead, we specify time series of stratospheric aerosol
232 optical properties, accounting for not only the volcanic contribution to stratospheric aerosol

233 abundance but also other natural and anthropogenic contributions. Tropospheric emissions of
234 SO₂ from continuously degassing and explosive volcanoes are treated in the same way as in
235 AM3 (Donner et al., 2011), with a climatological total of 3.59 Tg S a⁻¹.

236 **3. Results: Physical climate simulation (AMIP, 1980–2014)**

237 *Surface air temperature*

238 Comparison of surface air temperature over land with observations from CRU TS (Figure 3)
239 illustrates the substantial decrease in overall root mean square error (RMSE) achieved in AM4.1
240 (RMSE = 1.92°C) from the previous generation full-chemistry AM3 (RMSE = 2.18°C) and
241 similar, if slightly degraded, pattern to AM4.0 (RMSE = 1.85°C). The most notable difference
242 from AM3 to AM4.0 and AM4.1 is an improvement in boreal warm biases and South American
243 cold biases.

244 *Precipitation*

245 Comparison of precipitation with observations from GPCP v2.3 (Figure 4) also illustrates the
246 substantial decrease in overall RMSE achieved in AM4.1 (RMSE = 0.83 mm d⁻¹) from the
247 previous generation full-chemistry AM3 (RMSE = 1.02 mm d⁻¹) and a similar pattern to AM4.0
248 (RMSE = 0.85 mm d⁻¹). The most notable difference from AM3 to AM4.0 and AM4.1 is an
249 improvement in Amazon dry biases, and in wet biases over Australia and the Indian Ocean.

250 *Circulation*

251 Comparison of zonal mean zonal winds with the ERA40 reanalysis (Figure 5) illustrates a
252 substantial decrease in overall RMSE in AM4.1 (RMSE = 1.32 m s⁻¹) from the previous
253 generation high-top full-chemistry AM3 (RMSE = 1.75 m s⁻¹). The AM4.1 RMSE is greater than

254 that in the low-top AM4.0 ($\text{RMSE} = 1.00 \text{ m s}^{-1}$), owing to a westerly wind bias in the equatorial
255 stratosphere, and a weak, equatorward-shifted Arctic stratospheric jet in AM4.1. The
256 representation of the stratospheric wintertime westerly polar jet associated with the Antarctic
257 vortex is significantly improved in AM4.1 (not shown) compared with AM3 (Donner et al.,
258 2011), in which the westerlies were excessively strong (leading to a too-cold Antarctic vortex).
259 We plan to work towards further improving the stratospheric circulation in future versions of
260 AM4.1 through improvement in our representation of parameterized gravity wave drag.
261 Tropospheric circulation patterns in AM4.1 are very similar to those in AM4.0.

262 *Stratospheric variability*

263 Comparison of statistics for sudden stratospheric warmings with the ERA40 reanalysis (Figure 6)
264 illustrates an improvement in AM4.1 with respect to capturing events in the coldest months
265 (December–January), which were largely missed in AM4.0 (Zhao et al., 2018a), even though
266 AM4.0 already performs quite well among low-top atmospheric models (Charlton-Perez et al.,
267 2013). In the surrounding months (November, February), AM4.1 overestimates warming events,
268 whereas AM4.0 matches the reanalysis data fairly well.

269 *Radiation fluxes*

270 Comparison of top-of-atmosphere (TOA) net radiation with CERES EBAF observations (Figure
271 7) further illustrates the substantial decrease in overall root mean square error (RMSE) achieved
272 in AM4.1 ($\text{RMSE} = 7.2 \text{ W m}^{-2}$) from the previous generation full-chemistry AM3 ($\text{RMSE} = 8.6$
273 W m^{-2}) and similar, if slightly degraded, pattern to AM4.0 ($\text{RMSE} = 6.8 \text{ W m}^{-2}$). The most
274 notable difference from AM3 to AM4.0 and AM4.1 is associated with an improvement in areas
275 of tropical convection along the intercontinental convergence zone (ITCZ) that had previously

276 been too absorbing and increased absorption in northern boreal regions that had been previously
277 too reflective, as discussed by *Zhao et al.* (2018a). The most notable differences between AM4.0
278 and AM4.1 are associated with a decrease in the global TOA from a nearly unbiased AM3 (0.02
279 W m^{-2}) to a slight negative bias in AM4.0 (-0.14 W m^{-2}) and substantial low bias in AM4.1 (-
280 0.80 W m^{-2}). This increase in bias is due in part to increased albedo of northern boreal regions
281 associated with snow masking depth in LM4.1, as discussed by Shevliakova et al. (submitted),
282 and also in part to differences over Antarctic associated with the prescribed albedo of snow on
283 glaciers that was modified late in the development cycle of ESM4.1 to address Southern Ocean
284 dynamics, as discussed by Dunne et al. (submitted).

285 *Lightning flash frequency*

286 Figure S1 shows the lightning flash frequency retrieved from the spaceborne Optical Transient
287 Detector (OTD) and Lightning Imaging Sensor (LIS) (Cecil et al., 2014), compared with
288 simulated values from AM3 and AM4.1. In both AM3 and AM4.1, lightning flash frequency is
289 parameterized as a function of convective cloud top height, following Price et al. (1997), but the
290 two models use different parameterizations of cumulus convection (Zhao et al., 2018b). While
291 the overall correlation between model and observations is lower in AM4.1 than AM3, there are
292 some notable areas of improvement in the representation of flash frequency, including a
293 reduction of the high biases present in AM3 over the Amazon and the maritime continent,
294 improving agreement with observations.

295 **4. Results: Simulation of atmospheric composition**

296 4.1 Ozone

297 In this section, we evaluate model simulations of ozone, including surface ozone concentrations
298 relevant for air quality and column ozone abundances relevant for climate.

299 *Surface ozone*

300 We focus on the seasonal mean of the maximum daily 8-hour average (MDA8) surface ozone over
301 the period 2005–2014, when observations are available from densely clustered monitoring sites
302 across northern mid-latitude populated regions (Figure 8 for MAM, Figure 9 for JJA).
303 Observations were obtained from the Tropospheric Ozone Assessment Report (TOAR) Database
304 for 2005–2014 (Schultz et al., 2017) and a monitoring network operated since 2013 by China's
305 Ministry of Environmental Protection (CNMEP, <http://106.37.208.233:20035/>). Observations are
306 averaged onto the same $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid as AM4.1. We compare simulated ozone from the AM4.1 AMIP
307 simulation with that from the AM3 AMIP simulation.

308 Surface MDA8 ozone in AM3 is biased high by 12 ppb on average during MAM (Figure 8b) and
309 by up to 20 ppb over the eastern U.S. during summer (Figure 9b), as documented in previous
310 studies (Lin et al., 2012a; Lin et al., 2012b; Fiore et al., 2014; Rieder et al., 2015; Lin et al., 2017).
311 AM4.1 shows substantially reduced biases in mean ozone for both spring and summer over the
312 eastern U.S. and Europe (Figures 8c and 9c). This dramatic improvement in the simulation of
313 surface ozone concentrations results from a combination of updates to the chemical mechanism
314 from AM3 to AM4.1, including updates to the isoprene oxidation scheme and the representation
315 of heterogeneous reactions (Mao et al., 2013b), and the change from CMIP5 emissions in AM3 to
316 CMIP6 emissions in AM4.1 (Section 2.3). The shallow surface layer of the model (30 m thick)
317 may also have an impact on the comparison with surface sites. Zhao et al. (2018a) found a

318 significant improvement in diagnosed 2-m temperatures associated with this shallower surface
319 layer.

320 To further explore the causes of the differences in surface ozone abundances between AM3 and
321 AM4.1, we conduct two additional simulations—an AM4.1 simulation with nudged meteorology
322 and an additional AM4.1 nudged simulation with AM3-like chemistry (AM4.1_AM3Chem; Lin
323 et al., 2019). The two experiments use the same CMIP6 emissions and have nearly identical
324 meteorology (as a result of the nudging), allowing us to isolate the influence of changes in
325 chemistry alone. Seasonal-mean MDA8 ozone from these simulations are plotted in
326 Supplementary Figures S2–S5.

327 Similar to the results from AM3 (Figures 8b and 9b), surface MDA8 ozone in AM4.1_AM3Chem
328 is biased high by 11 ppb on average during spring (Figure S2b) and by up to 20 ppb over the
329 eastern U.S. during summer (Figure S3b). Switching the chemistry scheme from AM3 to AM4
330 leads to substantial reductions in mean ozone biases for both spring and summer over the eastern
331 U.S. and Europe (Figures S2c and S3c), but the model underestimates springtime MDA8 ozone
332 over central eastern China by 20 ppb (Figure S2c versus CNMEP observations in Figure S2a).

333 Observations show more severe springtime ozone pollution over central eastern China and Mexico
334 than in the U.S. and Europe. This regional contrast is not simulated in either of our experiments.
335 Particularly, the enhanced heterogeneous chemistry in AM4 (Section 2.2; Mao et al., 2013ab)
336 likely leads to excessive heterogeneous loss of HO_x and NO_x radicals over eastern China and
337 Mexico, where aerosol loadings are high during the spring season. For summer over the
338 southeastern U.S., where high mean-state ozone biases are found in many current-generation
339 CTMs and CCMs (Fiore et al., 2009; Young et al., 2018), the AM4.1 experiment shows remarkable

340 agreement with observations. However, on the basis of analysis conducted for an intensive field
341 campaign, Travis et al. (2016) suggested that the common model biases in simulating summertime
342 ozone over the southeastern U.S. may reflect a combination of excessive NO_x emissions (too high
343 by 50%) and the deep model surface layer that cannot resolve near-surface ozone gradients. A
344 balanced view is needed to interpret the reduced ozone biases in the AM4.1 experiment.

345 Our results suggest the complexity of various sources, sinks, transport, and chemistry in
346 influencing the simulation of surface ozone. In the future, process-based assessments, not only for
347 means but also for variability and extreme events, are needed to fully evaluate how the choices of
348 different emission datasets, chemistry, and deposition schemes affect simulations of surface ozone
349 and related tracers.

350 *Tropospheric ozone column*

351 We compare climatological annual mean tropospheric ozone columns simulated by AM3 (mean
352 over 2000–2008) and AM4.1 (2005–2014) with those derived from the OMI-MLS (Ziemke et
353 al., 2019) (Figure 10). In the analysis shown here, AM3’s native ozone output on model levels is
354 used to calculate tropospheric ozone column using the WMO tropopause definition, while for
355 AM4.1, the tropospheric ozone column (tropoz) is diagnosed at every time step, by applying the
356 WMO tropopause definition using model simulated temperature. The global mean tropospheric
357 ozone column simulated by AM3 and AM4.1 are 35 DU and 31 DU, respectively, compared to
358 the OMI/MLS value of 30 DU. While AM3 showed consistent high biases globally except over
359 the Antarctic, AM4.1 shows an interhemispheric pattern in the biases with high values in the
360 Northern Hemisphere mid-latitudes and over continents and low values in the Southern
361 Hemisphere extra-tropics. This pattern is consistent with global chemistry-climate models

evaluated against the OMI/MLS climatology by Young et al. (2013) for a slightly different time period. An interesting feature in AM4.1 is the strong positive bias over Oceania, possibly related to the different biomass burning emissions applied in the two models. AM3 exhibited an average high bias of 21.7%, which has been reduced to 7.3% in AM4.1; accordingly the RMSE has been reduced considerably, from 7.1 DU in AM3 to 4.6 DU in AM4.1.

367 *Total Ozone Column*

Figure 11 shows the evaluation of modeled time series of total column ozone against two datasets for 1980–2015, namely Multi-Satellite Merged Total Column NASA and NOAA product from Frith et al. (2013; SBUV; open triangles) and version 3.4 of the National Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research - Bodeker Scientific (NIWA-BS; closed circles) total column ozone database. AM3 results are plotted for 1980–2008 period, while AM4.1 results are for 1980–2014. The comparison is shown for the annual average globally, in the tropics, and in southern and northern midlatitudes, and for March in the Arctic and October in the Antarctic. Globally (Figure 11a), absolute values of total column ozone for AM3 were biased high compared to both datasets, whereas AM4.1, on the other hand, is biased low. Both models generally capture the trend in total column ozone, although the evaluation of AM3 is truncated at 2008. As suggested by the greater correlation coefficients for AM4.1 compared with AM3, AM4.1 is able to better capture the observed interannual variability and trends of global mean total column ozone. In the tropics (Figure 11b), total ozone column values remain lower than observed in AM4.1, as opposed to higher in AM3. Consistent with observations, both the models simulate negligible trends in total column ozone in the tropics, however AM4.1 exhibits greater skill in capturing the observed evolution of total column ozone. In the northern mid-latitudes (Figure 11c), AM4.1 differs more from observations than AM3 does, although with fairly similar

385 skill in simulating the observed time evolution of total column ozone. The comparison is
386 opposite for the southern mid-latitudes (Figure 11d), where AM4.1 is much closer to observed
387 values than AM3 with similar correlations. In the Arctic in March (Figure 11e), AM4.1
388 reproduces the observed total ozone column values slightly better than AM3, however both have
389 fairly low skill in reproducing the observed evolution. In the Antarctic in October (Figure 11f),
390 AM4.1 exhibits greater skill in simulating ozone depletion compared to AM3 both in terms of
391 trends and absolute values. This improvement likely results from the improved dynamical
392 representation of the Antarctic polar vortex in AM4.1 (Section 3). Overall, AM4.1 compares
393 slightly better against observations of total column ozone than AM3.

394 4.2 Carbon monoxide

395 The simulated tropospheric CO columns are evaluated against CO retrievals from the MOPITT
396 (Measurements of Pollution in The Troposphere) instrument in Figure 12. We use the MOPITT
397 V8 Joint (NIR+TIR) retrievals (Deeter et al., 2019) during 2001–2014, which are available from
398 the NASA Earthdata archive (<https://earthdata.nasa.gov>). The model is interpolated to the
399 gridded monthly MOPITT observations and the averaging kernel for each grid is applied to the
400 simulated monthly mean CO profiles.

401 The tropospheric CO columns are in general higher in AM4.1 than AM3, in better agreement
402 with MOPITT retrievals in terms of magnitudes (RMSE reduced from $(2.6\text{--}2.7)\times 10^{17}\text{ cm}^{-2}$ to
403 $(1.6\text{--}1.8)\times 10^{17}\text{ cm}^{-2}$) and spatial distribution (r^2 increased from 0.7–0.9 to 0.8–0.9). Compared to
404 AM3, AM4.1 reduces the underestimations in column CO in the Northern Hemisphere, but
405 overestimates column CO in the Southern Hemisphere, especially during summer. This is in part
406 due to lower OH levels in AM4.1 than AM3.

407 To evaluate surface CO, we use measurements from a globally distributed network of air
408 sampling sites maintained by the Global Monitoring Laboratory (GML) of the National Oceanic
409 and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) (Pétron et al., 2019; data available at
410 ftp://aftp.cmdl.noaa.gov/data/trace_gases/co/flask/). Surface CO observations during 1988–2014
411 are used to evaluate model performance (Figure 13).

412 AM4.1 simulates higher surface CO concentrations than AM3 over the Southern Hemisphere,
413 and slightly overestimates surface CO concentrations by < 5 ppb when compared to surface
414 observations. Over the Northern Hemisphere, AM4.1 largely reduces the negative biases that
415 occurred in AM3, with a mean bias of ± 20 ppb over most GMD sites. This is consistent with the
416 comparisons to the MOPITT retrievals shown above. In addition, compared to AM3, AM4.1
417 better captures the seasonal cycles (with correlation coefficient $R > 0.5$) at most sites and better
418 captures the latitudinal gradient as well ($R = 1.0$ versus $R = 0.9$).

419 Comparisons of surface CO concentrations over pristine sites show significant improvement in
420 AM4.1 over AM3 across latitudes from South to North. In the Southern Hemisphere, such as at
421 South Pole (SPO), Ushuaia (USH), and Easter Island (EIC) sites, the underestimation of surface
422 CO concentrations by AM3 are reduced in AM4.1. In the Northern Hemisphere, such as at
423 Mauna Loa (MLO), Barrow (BRW), and Alert (ALT) sites, both surface concentrations and
424 monthly variations are improved significantly in AM4.1 compared to AM3. These improvements
425 are mainly associated with improved chemistry in AM4.1.

426 4.3 Aerosols

427 We first evaluate concentrations of aerosols in surface air. Figure 14 (top panels) compare
428 simulated concentrations of sulfate and nitrate aerosols from AM4.1 with observations over the

United States from the IMPROVE network. The model successfully captures the wide range of observed sulfate aerosol concentrations. While nitrate concentrations are well correlated with observations ($R=0.74$), simulated concentrations are generally too high (normalized mean bias (NMB) = +80%). This bias is larger than in Paulot et al. (2016), where nitrate aerosols are assumed to deposit rapidly like nitric acid. Simulated concentrations of sulfate and nitrate in precipitation are compared with observations from the NADP network in the lower panels of Figure 14. The rainwater abundances of sulfate and nitrate are well correlated with observations, but with a low bias for sulfate (NMB = -19%) and a high bias for nitrate (NMB = +35%).

Figure 15 compares simulated concentrations of sulfate, dust, and sea salt aerosols from AM3, AM4.0, and AM4.1 with observations from the University of Miami network (Savoie and Prospero, 1977). The model successfully captures the wide range of observed sulfate aerosol concentrations. For sulfate, the RMS error versus observations is reduced in AM4.1 ($0.20 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) from AM3 and AM4.0 (both $0.22 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), and the correlation is improved ($r = 0.93$ in AM4.1, $r = 0.89$ in AM3 and AM4.0). The agreement between simulated and observed dust improves from AM3 to AM4.0, but then degrades in AM4.1, reflecting the shift from prescribed to interactive source regions for dust in LM4.1 (Shevliakova et al., submitted). The RMS error for simulated sea salt is reduced significantly in AM4.1 ($0.35 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) compared with AM3 ($0.47 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and AM4.0 ($0.49 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), as a result of updates to the emissions and deposition parameterizations in AM4.1.

We next evaluate the simulated AOD against measurements from the AERONET sunphotometer network (Holben et al., 1998) in Figure 16. Here we use the quality assured and cloud screened level 2 version 2 AOD data (Smirnov et al., 2000). For comparison, we also show the results from AM4.0 (middle) and AM3 (bottom). Both AM4.0 and AM4.1 exhibit higher correlation

452 (0.89 and 0.9) and lower RMS (0.07 and 0.08) with AERONET observations than AM3 (0.81
453 and 0.09, respectively). In particular, the large positive biases in the tropics and equatorial
454 regions are reduced, which reflects the more efficient removal of aerosol by convective
455 precipitation (Paulot et al., 2016). AM4.1 exhibits a greater positive bias than AM4.0 over the
456 Midwest United States, associated with higher dust loading and nitrate aerosol (not included in
457 AM3 and AM4.0).

458 Figures 17 and S6 and compare the simulated regional monthly mean AOD simulated by AM3,
459 AM4.0, and AM4.1 with observations from the MODIS (Levy et al., 2007) and MISR (Kahn et
460 al., 2009) instruments. AM4.0 and AM4.1 have reduced the seasonal contrast between winter
461 and summer months, in better agreement with observational constraints. The spring maximum
462 over East Asia and the North Pacific is also better captured with AM4.0 and AM4.1. The AM3
463 high bias over the Caribbean Sea and maritime continent are reduced consistent with the
464 comparison against AERONET.

465 These improvements primarily reflect changes in the treatment of aerosol removal, including
466 reduced removal by frozen precipitation formed by the Bergeron process and more efficient
467 scavenging by convective precipitation (Paulot et al., 2016). AM4.1 exhibits greater bias over
468 Asia than AM4.0, which primarily reflects higher optical depth from dust and ammonium nitrate.
469 Uncertainties in Asian SO₂ and NH₃ emissions (Zhang et al., 2009) and aerosol hygroscopic
470 growth may also contribute to the AM4.1 high bias over this region (Paulot et al., 2018).

471 4.4 Hydroxyl Radical (OH) and Methane Lifetime

472 Here, we evaluate the climatological mean hydroxyl (OH) radical simulated by AM4.1, as OH is
473 the primary atmospheric oxidant determining the abundance and lifetime of several short-lived

474 climate forcers, including methane. The simulation of OH depends on the chemical mechanism,
475 particularly the representation of isoprene photooxidation (Archibald et al., 2010; Bates and
476 Jacob, 2019). Differences in emissions, meteorology, and photochemical mechanisms across
477 models also lead to differences in OH (Murray et al., submitted 2019; Wild et al., 2020).
478 Climatological mean (1980–2014) global airmass-weighted tropospheric OH simulated by
479 AM4.1 is 10.4×10^5 molecules cm⁻³, about 18% lower than that simulated by AM3, but is within
480 the range of values reported for ACCMIP models for the 2000s (Naik et al., 2013b).
481 Consequently, the mean whole-atmosphere chemical lifetime of methane (calculated as the
482 global methane burden divided by global total loss) in AM4.1 is 8.5 years; lifetime against loss
483 by reaction with tropospheric OH is 9.7 years, which is 13% greater than the AM3 value of 8.6
484 years (1981–2000), but still lower than the observationally derived estimate of 11.2 ± 1.3 years
485 (Prather et al., 2012). Figure 18 shows the comparison of tropospheric OH distribution for 12
486 regions simulated by AM4.1 with estimates from AM3, ACCMIP ensemble mean, and the
487 climatology of Spivakovskiy et al. (2000). AM4.1 simulates reduced OH levels compared to
488 AM3 throughout the troposphere, possibly because of differences in emissions and chemical
489 mechanisms between the two model versions. In particular, the lower lightning NO_x in AM4.1
490 versus AM3 acts to lower OH because of the strong sensitivity of OH to lightning NO_x emissions
491 (Murray et al., 2013). Relative to the Spivakovskiy et al. climatology, AM4.1 exhibits a reduced
492 high bias compared with AM3, but has too low OH, particularly in the tropical upper
493 troposphere.

494 **5. Sensitivities to Greenhouse Gases, Aerosols, and SST Perturbations**

495 Table 2 shows the net radiative flux perturbations that result from historical changes in
496 anthropogenic forcing agents, and from idealized changes in CO₂ and SST. Comparison of these

497 radiative metrics between AM3, AM4.0 and AM4.1 indicates that effective radiative forcings
498 (ERF) from pre-industrial to present-day changes in greenhouse gases and aerosols are nearly
499 identical between AM4.0 and AM4.1. However, the ERF from quadrupling CO₂ is significantly
500 lower in AM4.1, mostly because of the inclusion of interactive ozone (colder stratospheric
501 temperatures reduce the rate of ozone chemical loss), but also partially resulting from increased
502 dust emissions from LM4.1 (related to increased fires under elevated-CO₂ conditions). The Cess
503 feedback, the change in net radiative flux resulting from an increase of SSTs by 2K, is
504 significantly more negative in ESM4.1 (corresponding to a weaker Cess sensitivity), likely
505 resulting from increased emissions of salt, dust, and BVOCs with increasing temperatures in
506 ESM4.1. While comparison with previous-generation models is complicated by changes in the
507 AMIP configuration since the AM3 model simulations were conducted (in particular, updating
508 the “present-day” conditions from representing 1990 conditions to 2014 conditions), some
509 assessment of these differences can be made using AM4.0 simulations conducted for 1990
510 conditions (as in Zhao et al., 2018a). The most important differences between AM3 and AM4.0
511 are a decrease in the magnitude of the negative aerosol ERF from AM3 to AM4.0, an increase in
512 the 4xCO₂ ERF consistent with an update to the treatment of CO₂ radiative bands (Zhao et al.,
513 2018b), and a strengthening of the negative Cess feedback. The decrease in the magnitude of the
514 aerosol ERF from AM3 to AM4.0 has been attributed by Zhao et al. (2018b) to a decrease in the
515 strength of the aerosol indirect effect, resulting from the increase in horizontal resolution and
516 improvements to the representations of aerosol convective wet deposition (Paulot et al., 2016)
517 and aerosol activation.

518 **6. Summary**

519 AM4.1 includes considerable advances in resolution and physics as in AM4.0 (Zhao et al,
520 2018ab) as well as a comprehensively revised suite of chemistry parameterizations to improve
521 consistency in treatment across species and with advances in the underlying science over the last
522 decade. AM4.1 is able to maintain the fidelity of AM4.0 while substantially increasing in
523 comprehensiveness and associated climate-chemistry interactions and feedbacks. This
524 development effort has also led to considerable improvement in model fidelity compared to
525 GFDL's previous-generation coupled chemistry-climate model (AM3) with respect to observed
526 atmospheric composition for aerosol, CO, ozone, as well as climate phenomena such as sudden
527 stratospheric warmings.

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539 and wet deposition of aerosols. Data is provided at <https://doi.org/10.22033/ESGF/CMIP6.1407>.
540 Model code is provided at <https://data1.gfdl.noaa.gov/nomads/forms/esm4/>. The input data is
541 provided at <ftp://data1.gfdl.noaa.gov/users/ESM4/ESM4Documentation/GFDL->
542 ESM4/inputData/ESM4_rundir.tar.gz

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- 800

801 **Figure captions**

802 **Figure 1.** Schematic description of forcing, dynamics, physics, aerosol, and chemistry
803 interactions in AM4.1. Terms depicted in gray (left) are prescribed as inputs to the model, while
804 chemical processes included in the orange box are calculated interactively within the
805 atmospheric model. The light blue box (top) includes physical processes calculated in AM4.1.
806 The green box (bottom left) represents the land component (LM4.1), which is coupled to AM4.1.
807 The dark blue box (bottom right) includes specified ocean surface boundary conditions.

808 **Figure 2.** Global annual totals (in Tg a^{-1} , using mass as indicated on y-axis label) for
809 anthropogenic (fossil fuel + biomass burning + ship + aircraft) emissions of NO, CO, SO_2 , NH_3 ,
810 BC, and primary OM in AM3 (CMIP5 emissions) and AM4.1 (CMIP6 emissions) AMIP
811 simulations.

812 **Figure 3.** Annual mean surface air temperatures ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) in AM4.1 AMIP simulation (1980-2014)
813 and CRU-TS-3.22 observations (1979-2013). Differences between simulated and observed
814 surface air temperatures in AM4.1, AM4.0, and AM3 AMIP simulations.

815 **Figure 4.** Annual mean precipitation (mm day^{-1}) for 1980-2014 in AM4.1 AMIP simulation and
816 GPCP v2.3 observations. Differences between simulated and observed precipitation in AM4.1,
817 AM4.0, and AM3 AMIP simulations.

818 **Figure 5.** Annual mean zonal mean zonal wind (m s^{-1}) in AM4.1 AMIP simulation (1980-2014)
819 and ERA40 reanalysis (1981-2000). Differences between simulated and observed zonal winds in
820 AM4.1, AM4.0, and AM3 AMIP simulations.

821 **Figure 6.** Monthly and annual (ANN) stratospheric sudden warming (SSW) frequency for 1870–
822 2014 from AM4.0 and AM4.1, and 1957–2002 from ERA40. SSW is defined as in Charlton and
823 Polvani (2007). Error bars indicate the 95% confidence interval (the statistical test of the SSW
824 frequency is calculated as in Charlton et al., 2007).

825 **Figure 7.** Annual mean net radiation flux at top of atmosphere (W m^{-2}) in AM4.1 AMIP
826 simulation (1980-2014) and CERES EBAF v2.8 observations (2000-2015). Differences between
827 simulated and observed net radiation flux in AM4.1, AM4.0, and AM3 AMIP simulations.

828 **Figure 8.** MAM mean surface MDA8 ozone mixing ratios (ppbv) for 2000-2008 from: (a) TOAR
829 observations regressed to the same $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ grid as AM4.1, (b) AM3 AMIP simulation, (c) AM4.1
830 AMIP simulation. Here, mn is the mean and rmsd is the root-mean-square deviation between
831 observations and simulations.

832 **Figure 9.** Same as Figure 8, but for JJA.

833 **Figure 10.** Climatological mean tropospheric ozone column in AM3 (upper left; Dobson Units,
834 DU), AM4.1 (lower left; DU), and the % bias compared to the OMI/MLS satellite estimate of the
835 Tropospheric Ozone Column (Ziemke et al., 2019) for AM3 (upper right; %) and AM4.1 (lower
836 right; %). RMSE is provided in DU.

837 **Figure 11.** Comparison of time series of total ozone column (DU) for the annual mean (a) global
838 mean (90°S-90°N), (b) tropics (25°S-25°N), (c) northern mid-latitudes (35°N-60°N), (d)
839 southern mid-latitudes (35°S-35°N), and for the (e) March mean in the Arctic (60°N-90°N) and
840 (f) October mean in the Antarctic (60°S-90°S) from AM3 (red) and AM4.1 (blue) against NASA
841 and NOAA observations from the multi-satellite merged ozone total column [Frith et al., 2013]
842 (SBUV; open triangles) and version 3.4 of the NIWA-BS total column ozone database [Bodeker
843 et al., 2005] (NIWA; closed circles). The numbers in each panel indicate linear correlation
844 coefficient (R) for model against each of the measurement datasets (top for NIWA and bottom
845 for SBUV).

846 **Figure 12.** Absolute difference in tropospheric CO column between AM3 and MOPITT (left
847 panel) and AM4.1 and MOPITT (right panel) for winter (December-January-February, DJF, top)
848 and summer (June-July-August, JJA, bottom).

849 **Figure 13.** Comparison of surface CO mixing ratios (ppbv) from AM4.1 (red) and AM3 (blue)
850 against NOAA Global Monitoring Division (GMD) flask observations (Pétron et al., 2019, for
851 1988-2014). Left panels show model bias (top) and correlation coefficient (bottom) versus
852 observations, plotted by station latitude. Right panels show monthly time series comparisons at
853 selection stations. The root mean square error (RMSE) and correlation coefficient (R) are
854 indicated on plots.

855 **Figure 14.** Comparison of AM4.1 (2000-2014) against IMPROVE (a,b) and NADP (c,d)
856 observations of concentrations in surface air (top) and in precipitation (bottom) of sulfate (left)
857 and nitrate (right).

858 **Figure 15.** Comparison of simulated (AM3, 1979-2008; AM4.0, 1980-2014; and AM4.1, 1980-
859 2014) and observed (University of Miami) annual mean surface concentrations ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) of (first
860 row) sulfate, (second row) dust, and (third row) sea salt sodium at 28 locations and (bottom) their
861 ratios (simulated/observed) at each location (for AM4.1 only). Shaded contours indicate
862 simulated surface concentrations (top colorbar) and symbols indicate the ratio of
863 simulated/observed concentrations (bottom colorbar, symbol points upwards if ratio greater than
864 one, downwards if less than one).

865 **Figure 16.** Comparison of simulated aerosol optical depths (550 nm) with AERONET
866 observations over the 2000-2014 period for (top) AM4.1, (middle) AM4.0, and (bottom) AM3
867 AMIP simulation. Dashed lines in left panels denote slopes of 0.5 and 2. Color in right panels

868 shows the percentage difference between model and AERONET (i.e., $100\% \times [\text{model} -$
869 AERONET]/AERONET).

870 **Figure 17.** Monthly climatology (2003–2014) of aerosol optical depth simulated by AM3
871 (purple line), AM4.0 (green line) and AM4.1 (orange line) and measured by MODIS (TERRA:
872 star, AQUA: cross) and MISR (filled circles) satellite instruments. Each panel represents a
873 spatial average over the corresponding region on the background map. The numbers in each box
874 show the correlation coefficients (left) and normalized root mean square error (right) compared
875 to MODIS-TERRA (purple: AM3, green: AM4.0, orange: AM4.1).

876 **Figure 18.** Climatological (1980-2014) annual mean airmass-weighted tropospheric OH
877 concentration averaged globally (top-most row) and regionally for individual atmospheric
878 subdomains from AM4.1 (black) compared with those from AM3 (1980-2008, red), ACCMIP
879 ensemble mean (orange), and climatological mean values from Spivakovsky et al. (2000)
880 (purple). Values for AM4.1 and AM3 also show +/- standard deviation about the mean.

881 **Tables**882 **Table 1.** Annual total emissions for year 2014 in AM4.1.

Species	Units	anthro	biomass burning	biogenic / natural	ocean	animals	soil	ship	aircraft	Total
ACET	TgC/yr	1.47	0.98	15.09	0	0	0	0	0	17.53
BC	TgC/yr	7.83	1.77	0	0	0	0	0.17	0	9.76
C2H4	TgC/yr	4.88	3.82	0	0	0	0	0.14	0	8.83
C2H5OH	TgC/yr	2.40	0.07	4.82	0	0	0	0	0	7.29
C2H6	TgC/yr	5.22	2.71	0.80	0.78	0	0	0.17	0	9.67
C3H6	TgC/yr	9.50	5.85	0.85	1.29	0	0	0.16	0	17.66
C3H8	TgC/yr	5.05	0.53	1.63	1.05	0	0	0.49	0	8.76
C4H10	TgC/yr	52.93	2.34	0	0	0	0	1.10	0	56.38
C10H16	TgC/yr	0	1.24	57.37	0	0	0	0	0	58.61
CH2O	TgC/yr	1.00	1.94	0	0	0	0	0	0	2.94
CH3OH	TgC/yr	0.30	3.24	85.61	0	0	0	0	0	89.14
CO	Tg/yr	612.40	356.68	159.24	19.80	0	0	0.69	0.57	1149.37
DMS	Tg/yr	0	0	0	42.72	0	0	0	0	42.72
DUST	Tg/yr	0	0	0	0	0	2507.67	0	0	2507.67
H2	Tg/yr	24.50	9.01	0	2.98	0	2.98	0.03	0	39.48
ISOP	Tg/yr	0.00	0.57	499.78	0	0	0	0.00	0	500.36
NH3	Tg/yr	60.82	4.30	0	3.89	0.15	2.95	0.02	0	72.13
NO	TgN/yr	35.52	6.23	3.29	0	0	3.59	6.89	0.93	56.45
OM	Tg/yr	31.26	26.81	0	16.21	0	0	0.20	0	74.48
SSALT	Tg/yr	0	0	0	6254.24	0	0	0	0	6254.24
SO2	TgS/yr	51.26	1.14	3.59	0	0	0	4.44	0.14	60.56

883

884 **Table 2.** Effective radiative forcings and feedbacks (in W m^{-2}) to greenhouse gases, aerosols,
 885 anthropogenic forcings, land use, quadrupling CO₂, and SST perturbations. The AM3 (1990) and
 886 AM4.0 (1990) experiments are identical to those described by Zhao et al. (2018a). The AM4.0
 887 (2014) and AM4.1 (2014) experiments use 30-year climatological simulations, i.e., the piClim
 888 experiments from the Radiative Forcing Model Intercomparison Project (RFMIP; Pincus et al.,
 889 2016).

	AM3 (1990)	AM4.0 (1990)	AM4.0 (2014)	AM4.1 (2014)
GHG ERF	2.63	2.61	3.14	3.22
Aerosol ERF	-1.69	-0.96	-0.73	-0.70
Anthro ERF	N/A	N/A	2.33	2.37
LU ERF	N/A	N/A	-0.33	-0.28
4xCO ₂ ERF	7.19	N/A	8.23	7.72
Cess feedback (SST +2K)	-2.86	-3.59	-3.64	-4.14

890

Inputs

Forcing

Solar Radiation, Volcanic
Aerosols, N_2O , Ozone
Depleting Substances

Concentrations of CO_2 , N_2O , CH_4 , Ozone Depleting Substances

Precursor Emissions (anthropogenic, fire, natural, ships and aircraft)

GFDL-ESM4

Atmospheric Dynamics and Physics

Radiation, Convection (includes wet deposition of atmospheric tracers), Clouds, Vertical diffusion, and Gravity waves

Atmospheric Chemistry 86 km

Stratosphere

O_3 , HO_y , NO_y , Cl_y , Br_y , and Polar Clouds

Troposphere

Gases (O_3 , CO , CH_4 , NO_x , VOCs, SO_2 , DMS)
Aerosols (sulfate, carbonaceous, mineral dust, nitrate, sea-salt, secondary organics)

Online Emissions
 LNO_x , DMS, BVOC,
Sea-salt

Aerosol-
Cloud
Interactions

Dry
Deposition
0 km

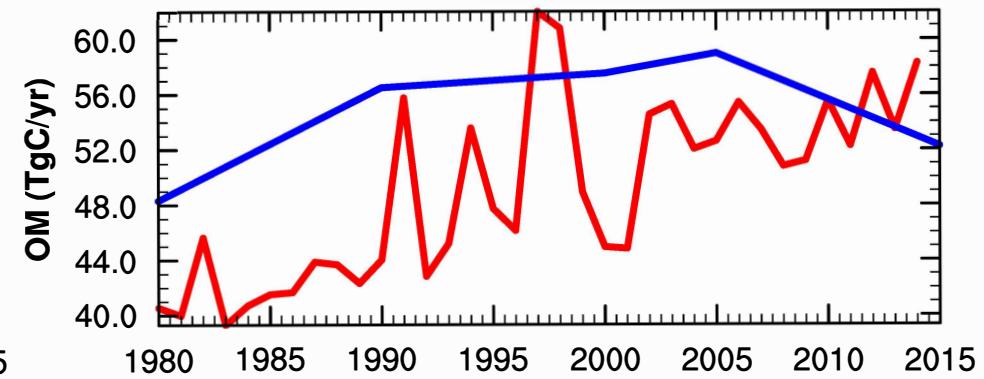
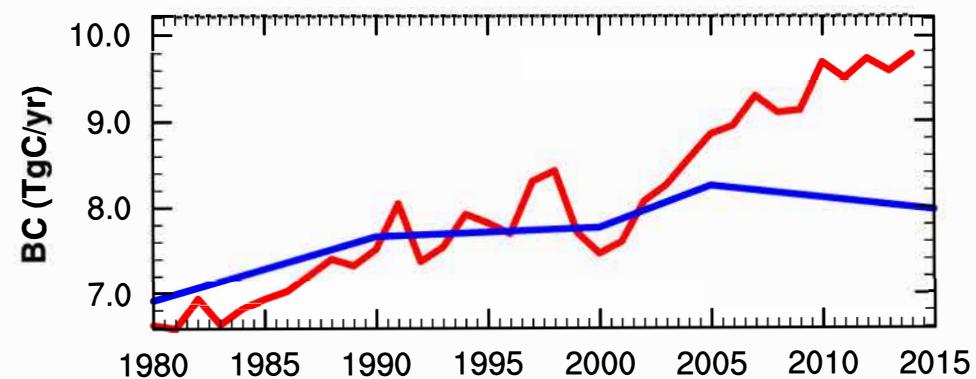
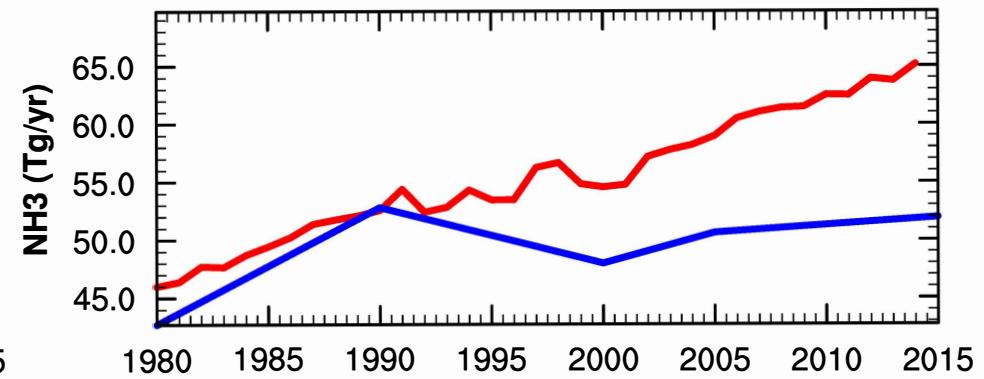
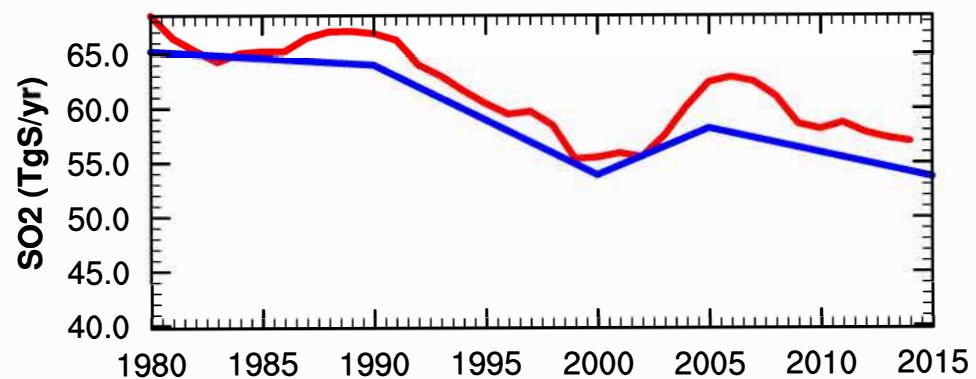
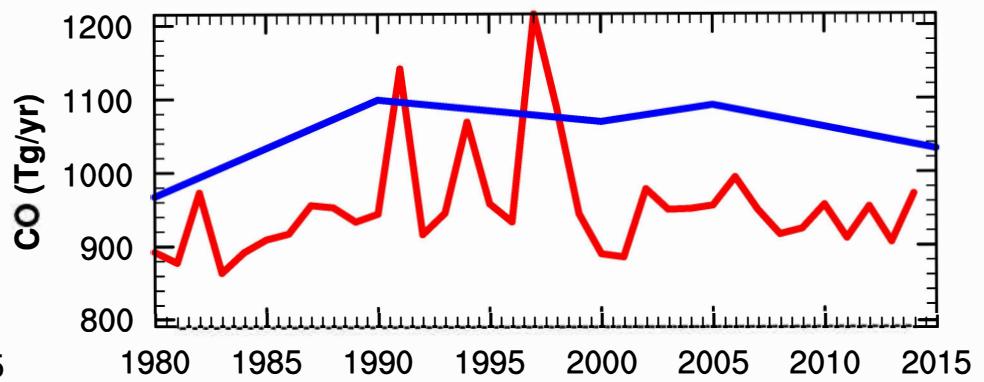
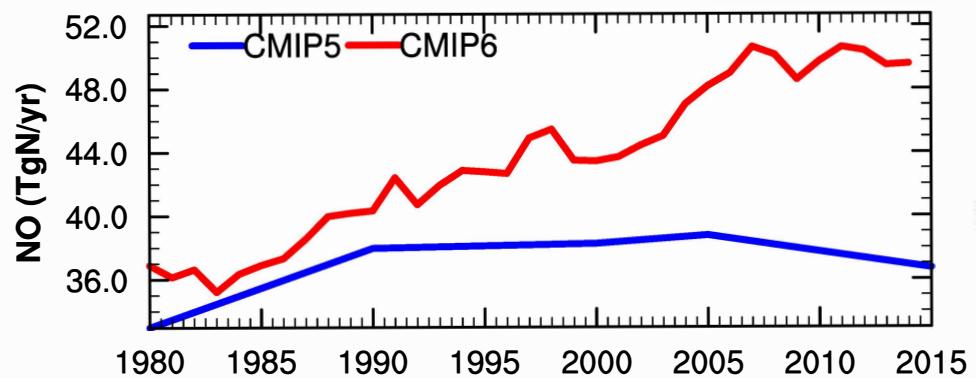
Dust

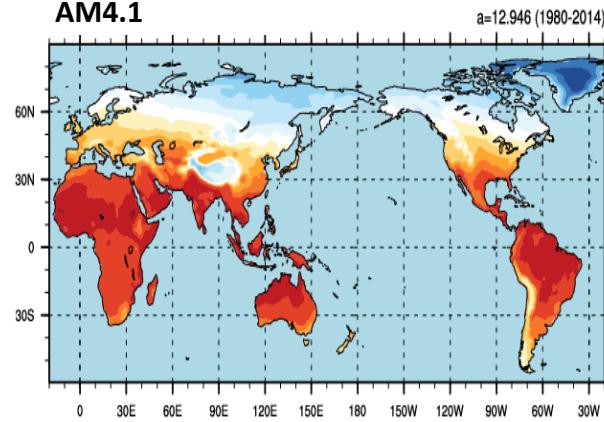
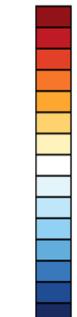
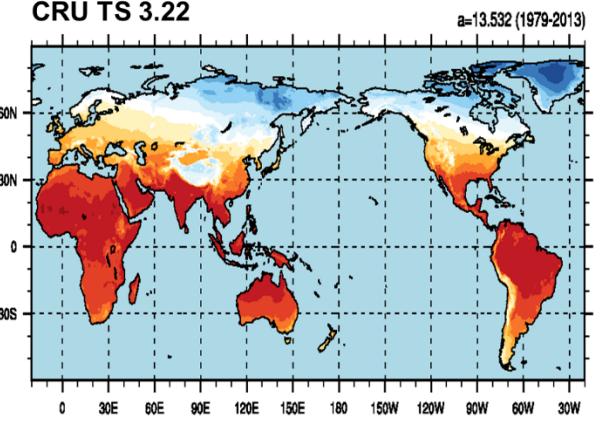
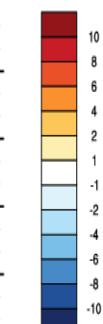
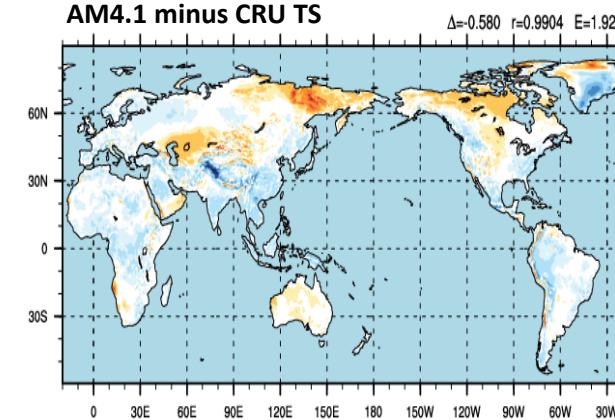
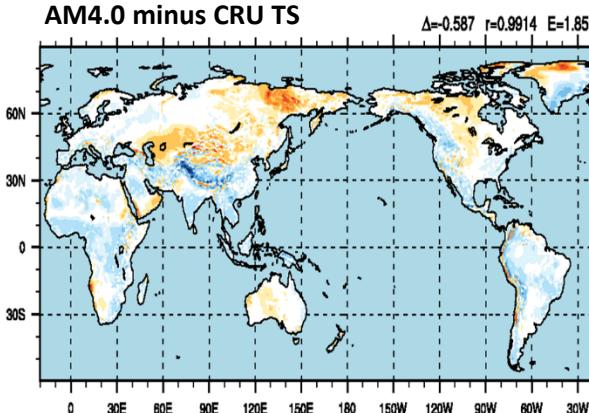
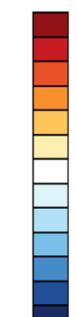
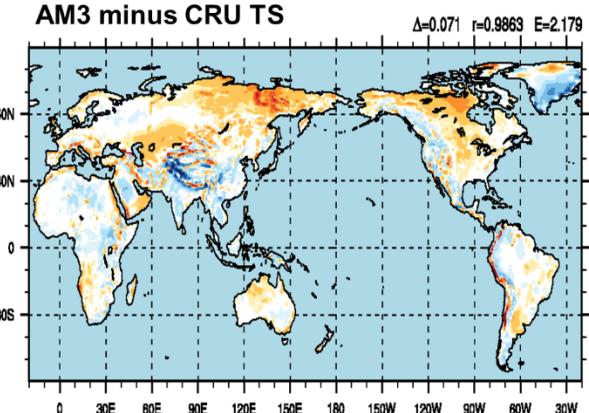
CO_2

Land Model (LM4.1) with Perfect Plasticity Approximation

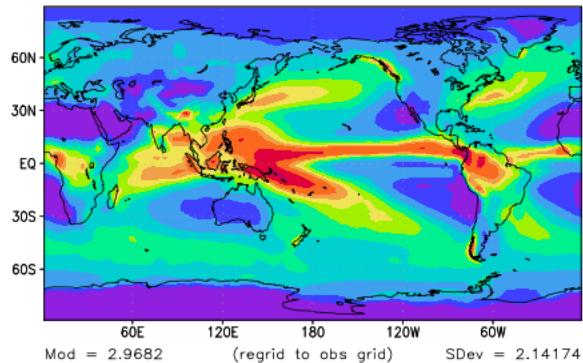
(soil physics, canopy physics, vegetation dynamics, disturbance and land use)

Observed Sea-surface
Temperature and Sea Ice
ESM4 Simulated Ammonium

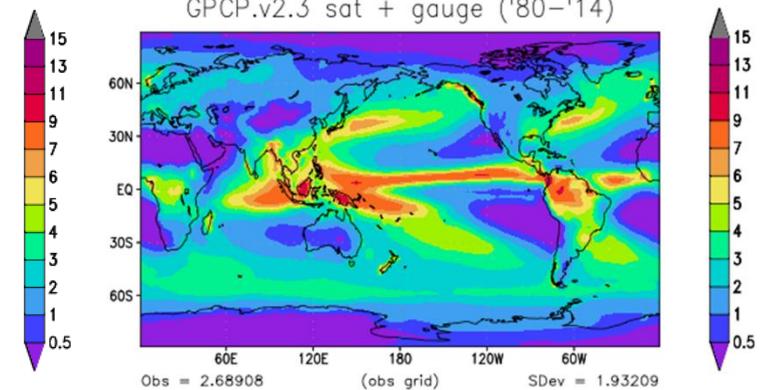


AM4.1**CRU TS 3.22****AM4.1 minus CRU TS****AM4.0 minus CRU TS****AM3 minus CRU TS**

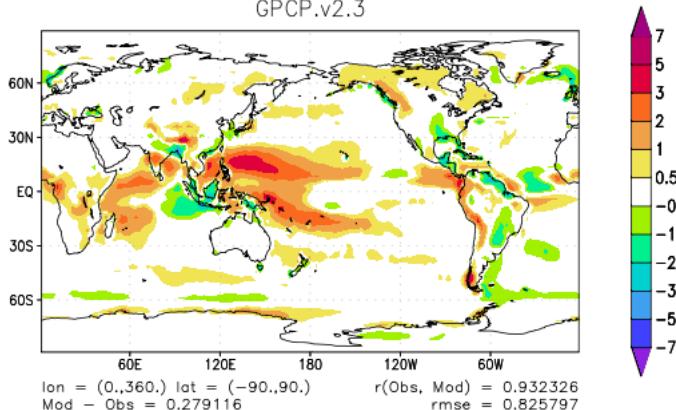
ESM4_amip_D1 (1980–2014)



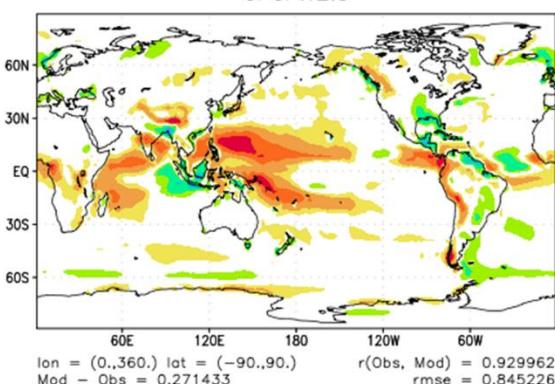
GPCP.v2.3 sat + gauge ('80–'14)



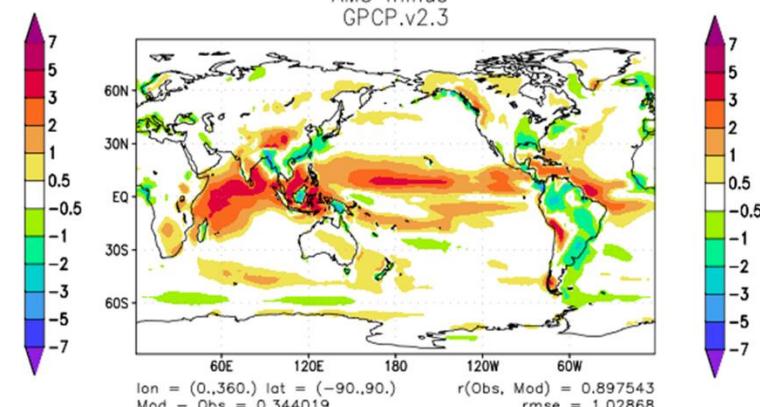
ESM4_amip_D1 minus
GPCP.v2.3

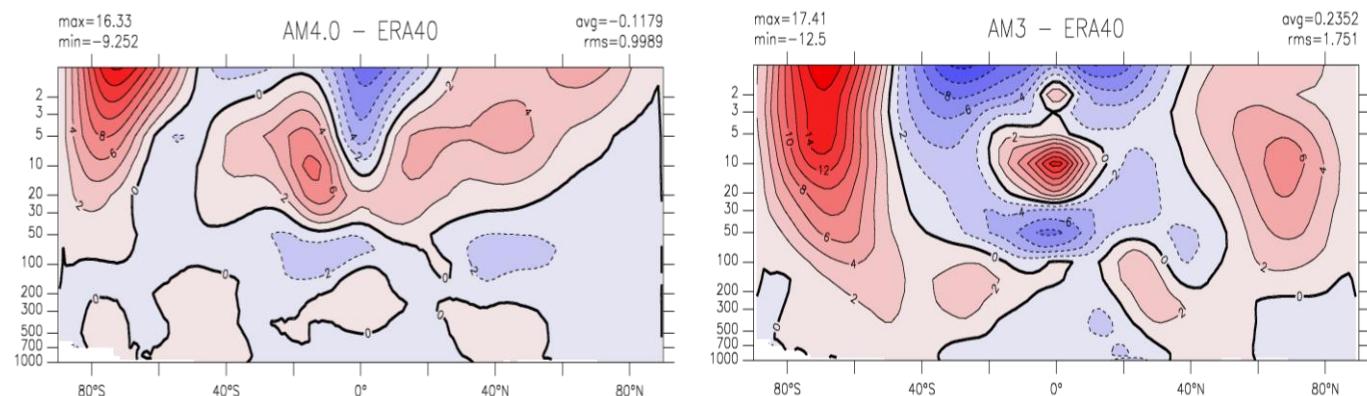
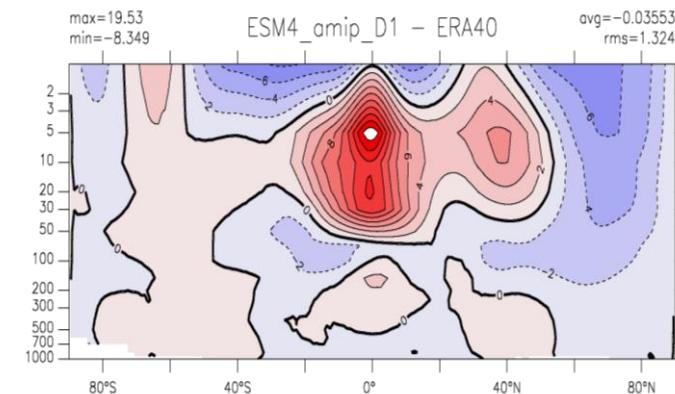
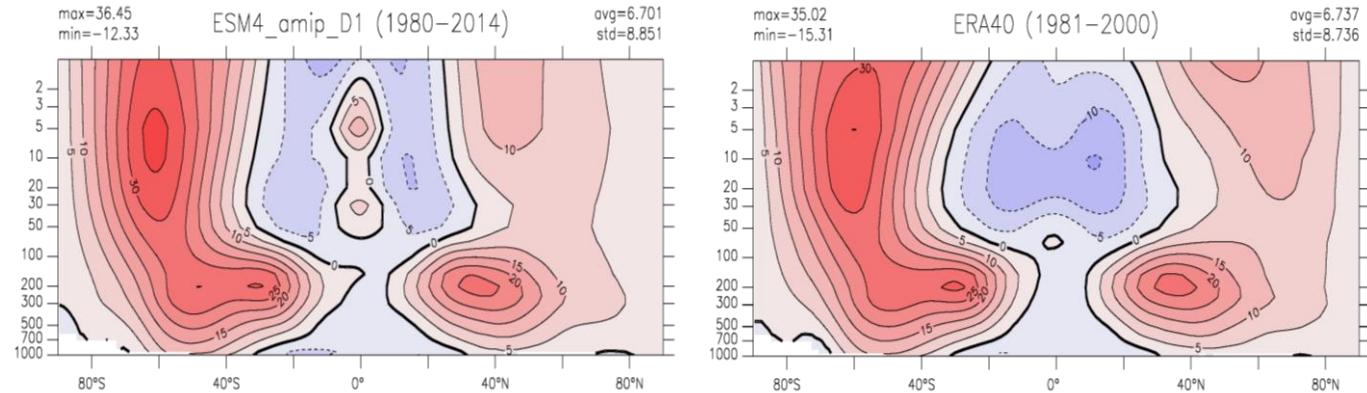


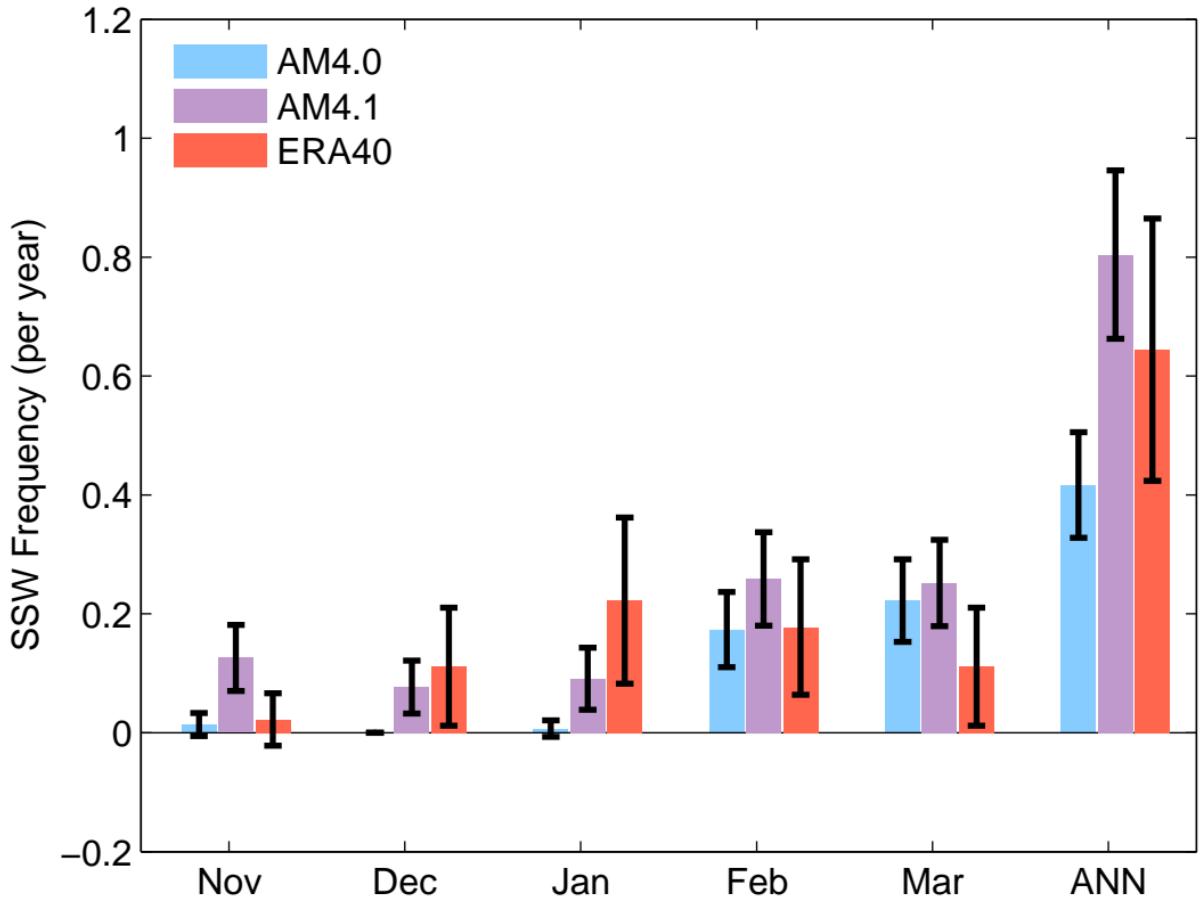
AM4.0 minus
GPCP.v2.3



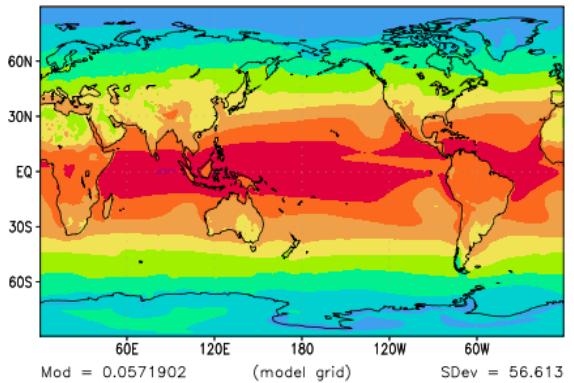
AM3 minus
GPCP.v2.3



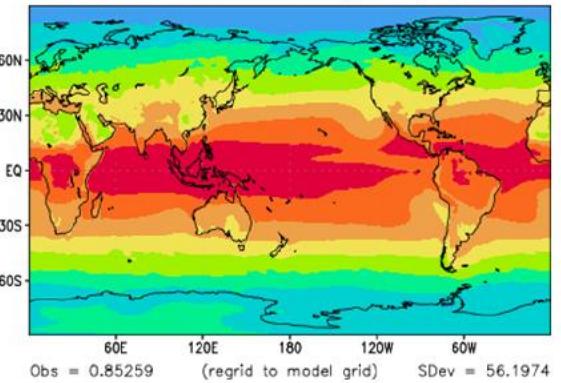




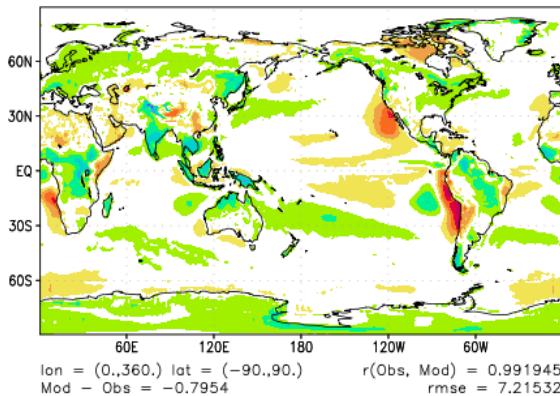
ESM4_amip_D1 (1980–2014)



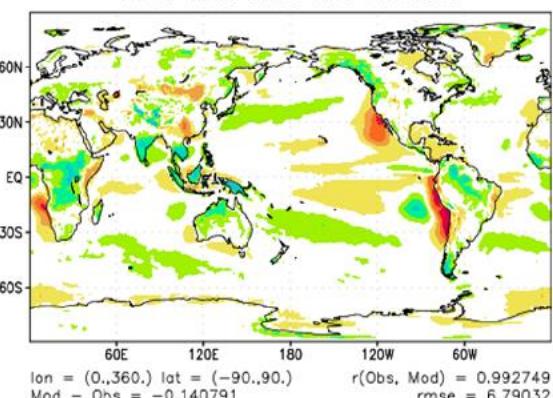
CERES EBAF TOA Ed2.8 (3/00–2/15)



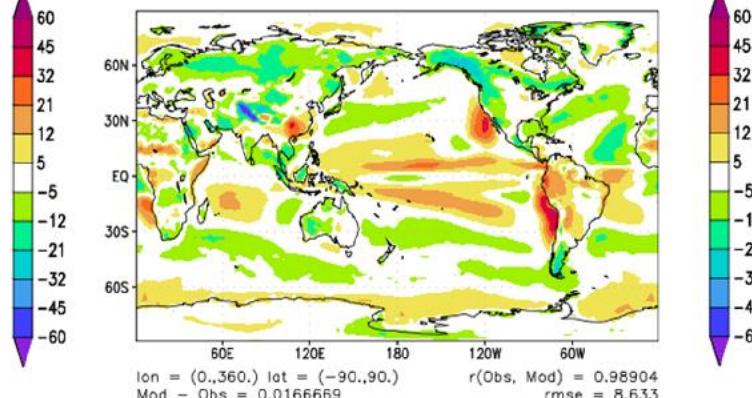
ESM4_amip_D1 minus CERES EBAF TOA Ed2.8

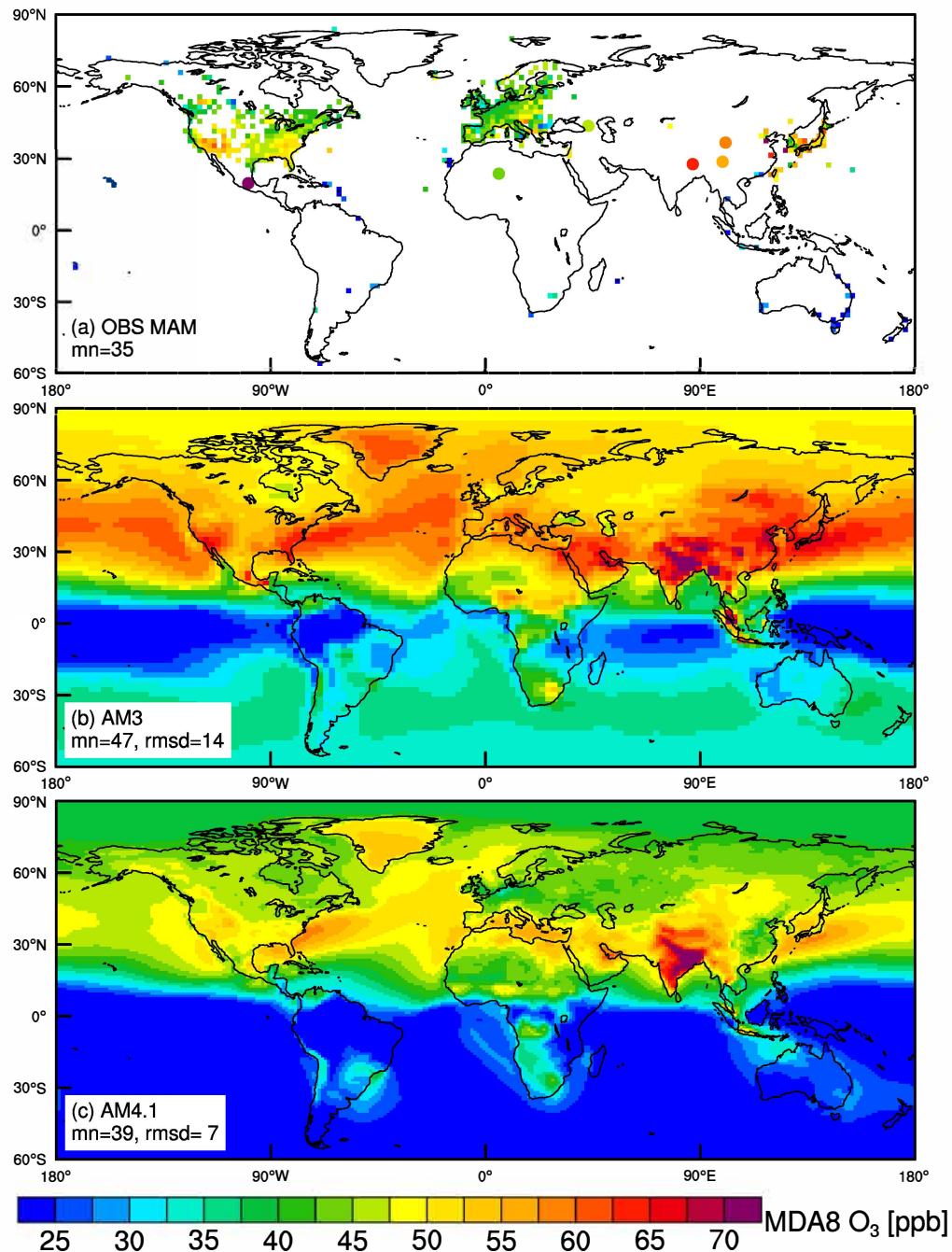


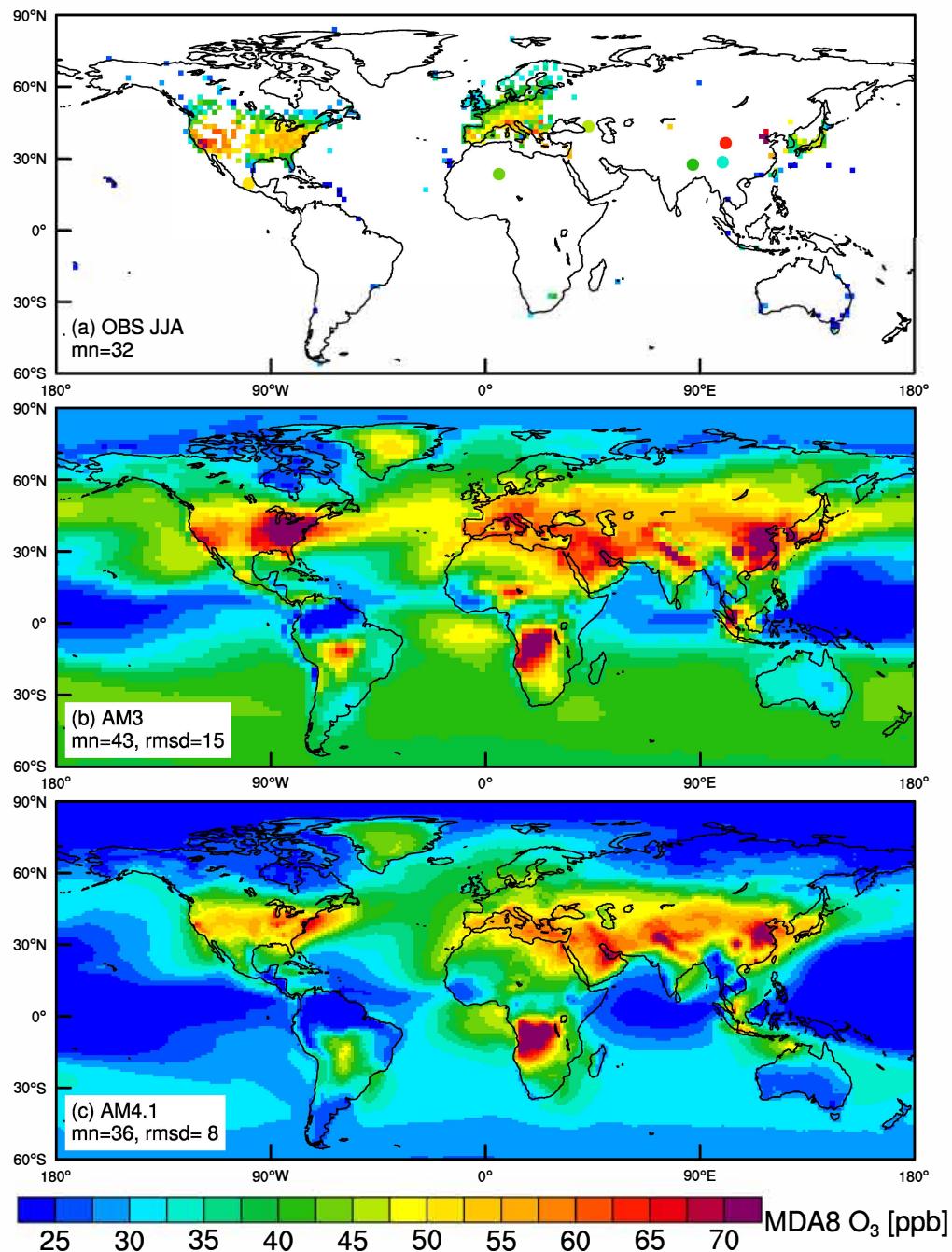
AM4.0 minus CERES EBAF TOA Ed2.8



AM3 minus CERES EBAF TOA Ed2.8



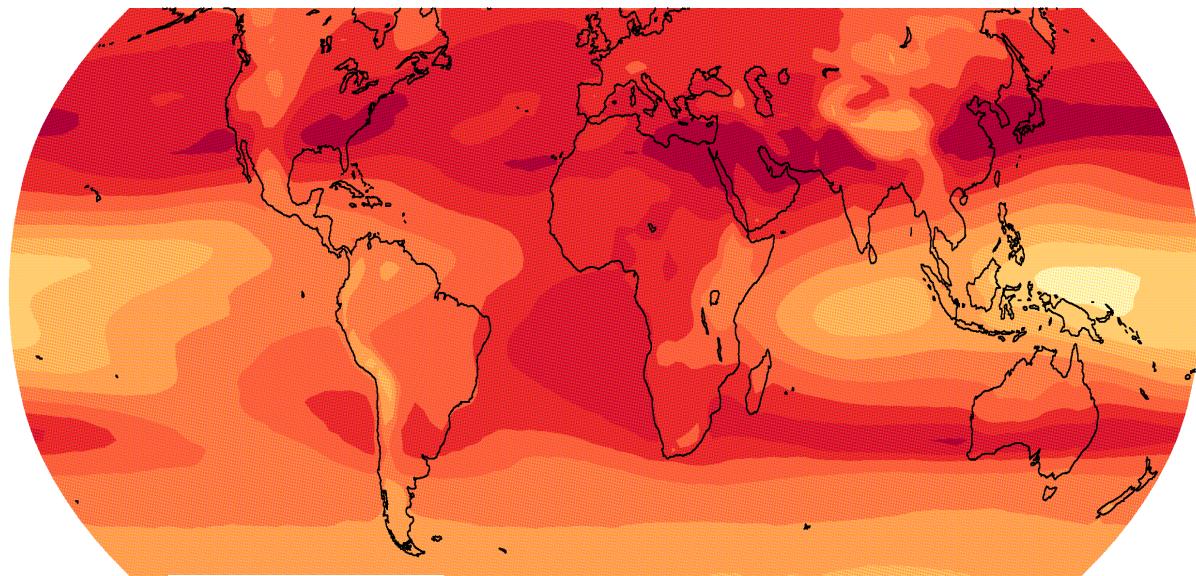




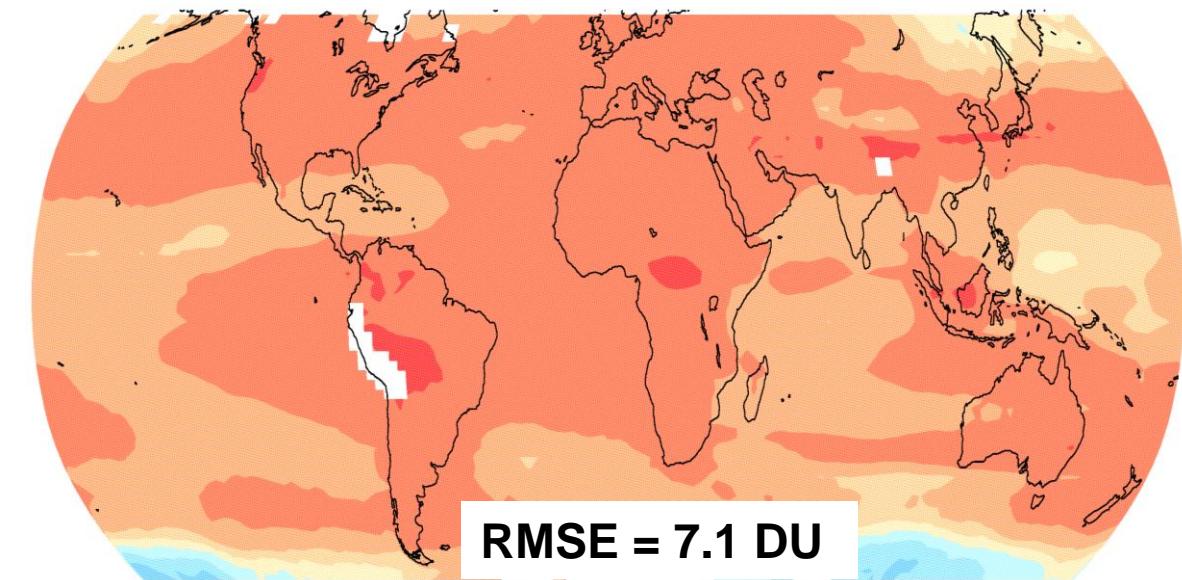
2000-2008

AM3

DU



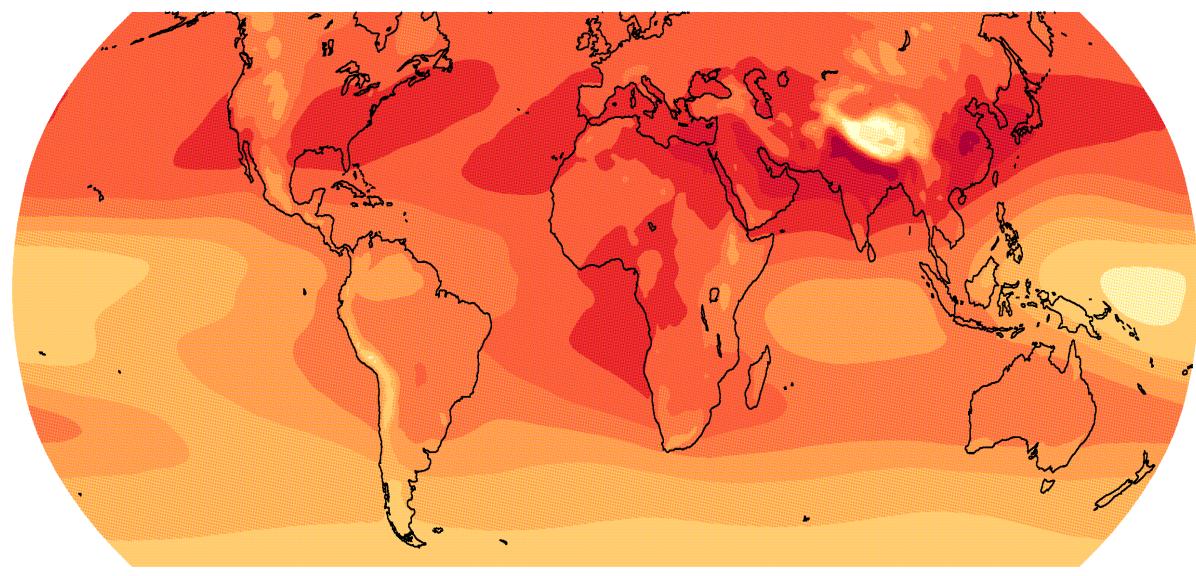
% Bias = AM3 – OMI/MLS



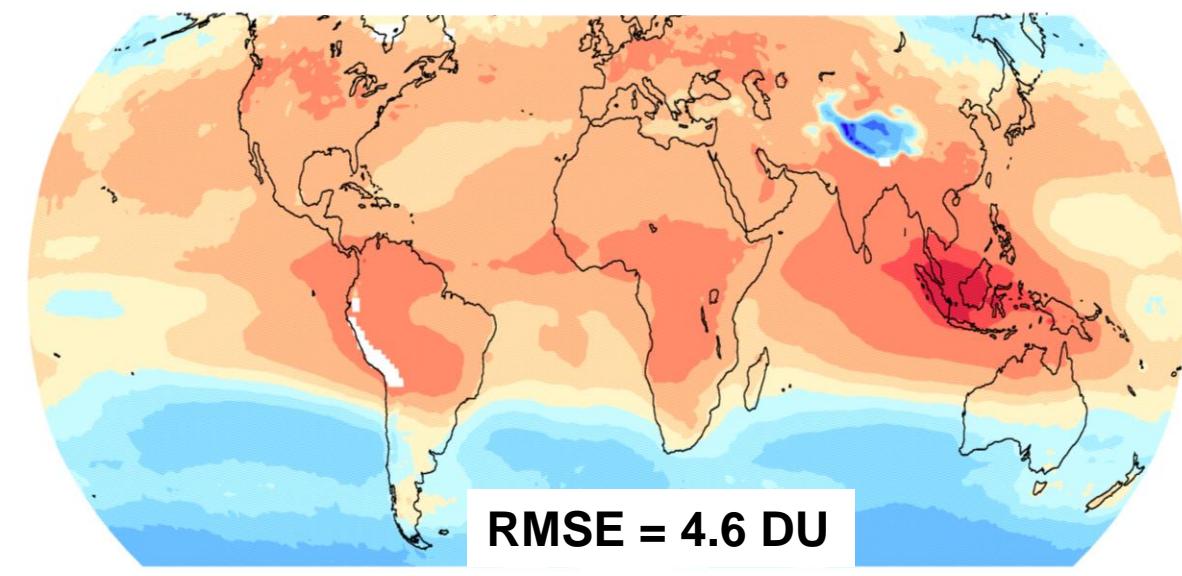
2005-2014

AM4.1

DU



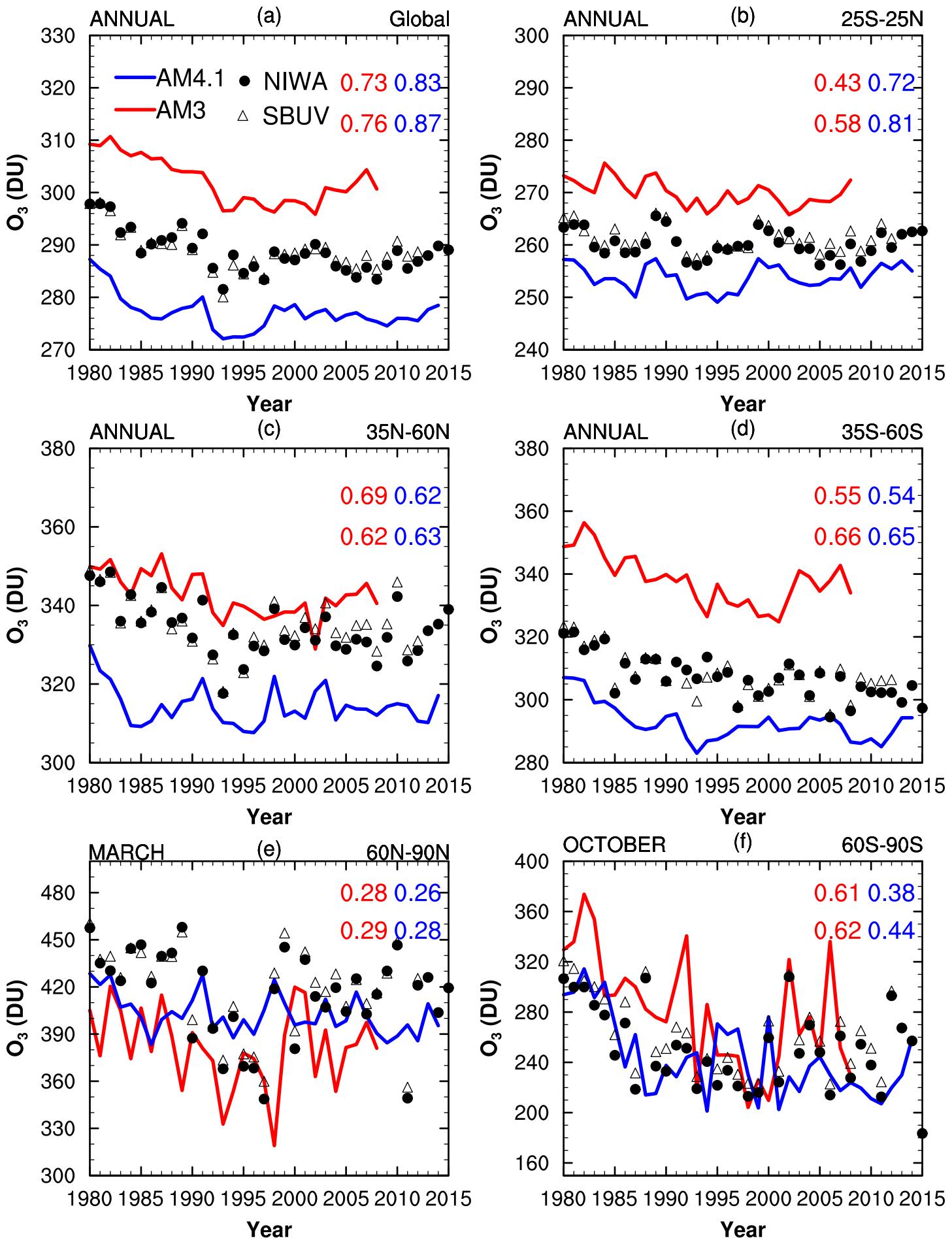
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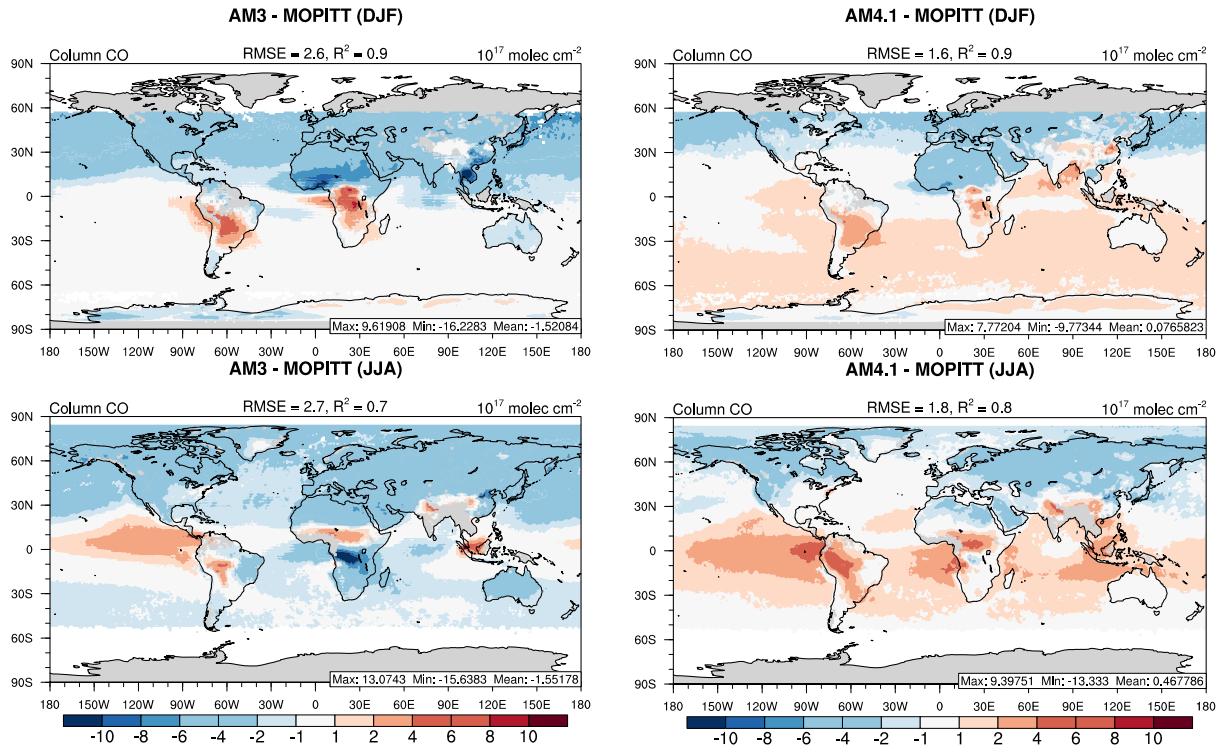


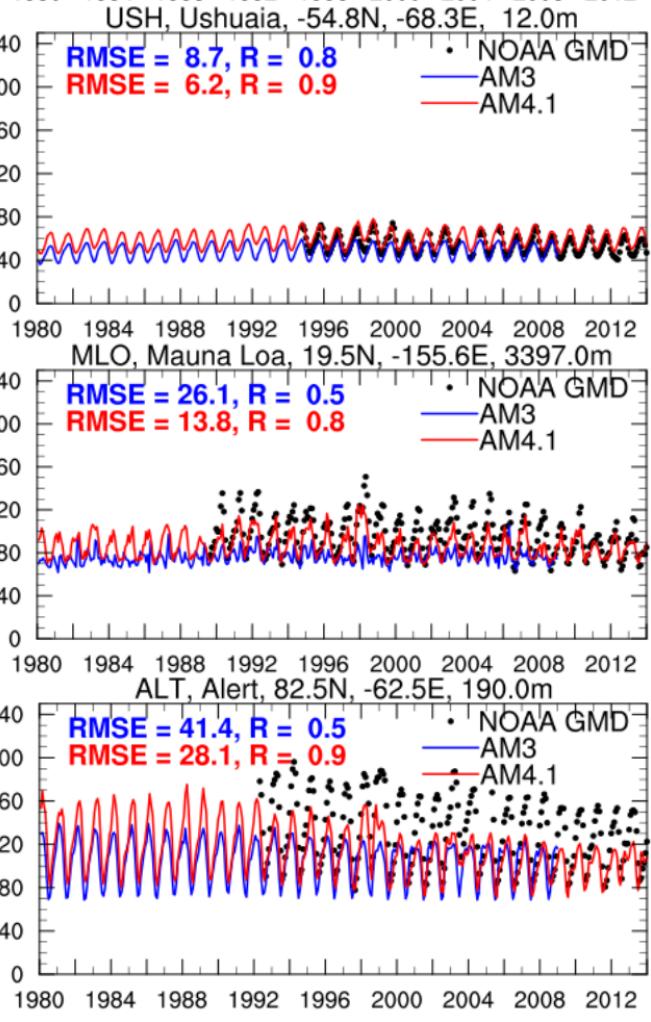
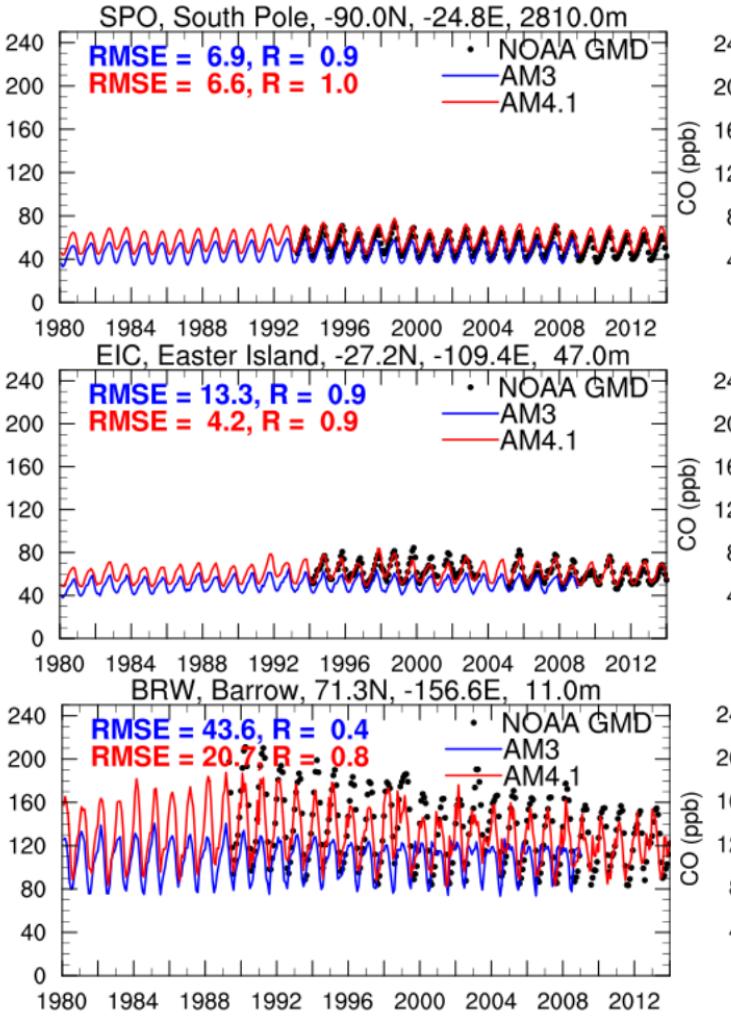
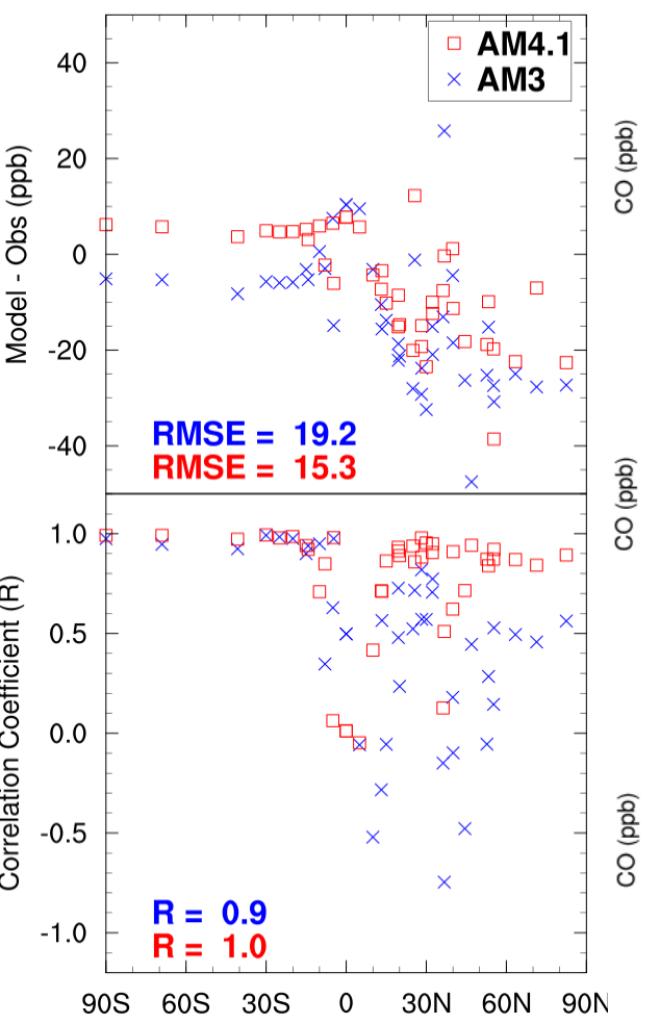
10 18 26 34 42

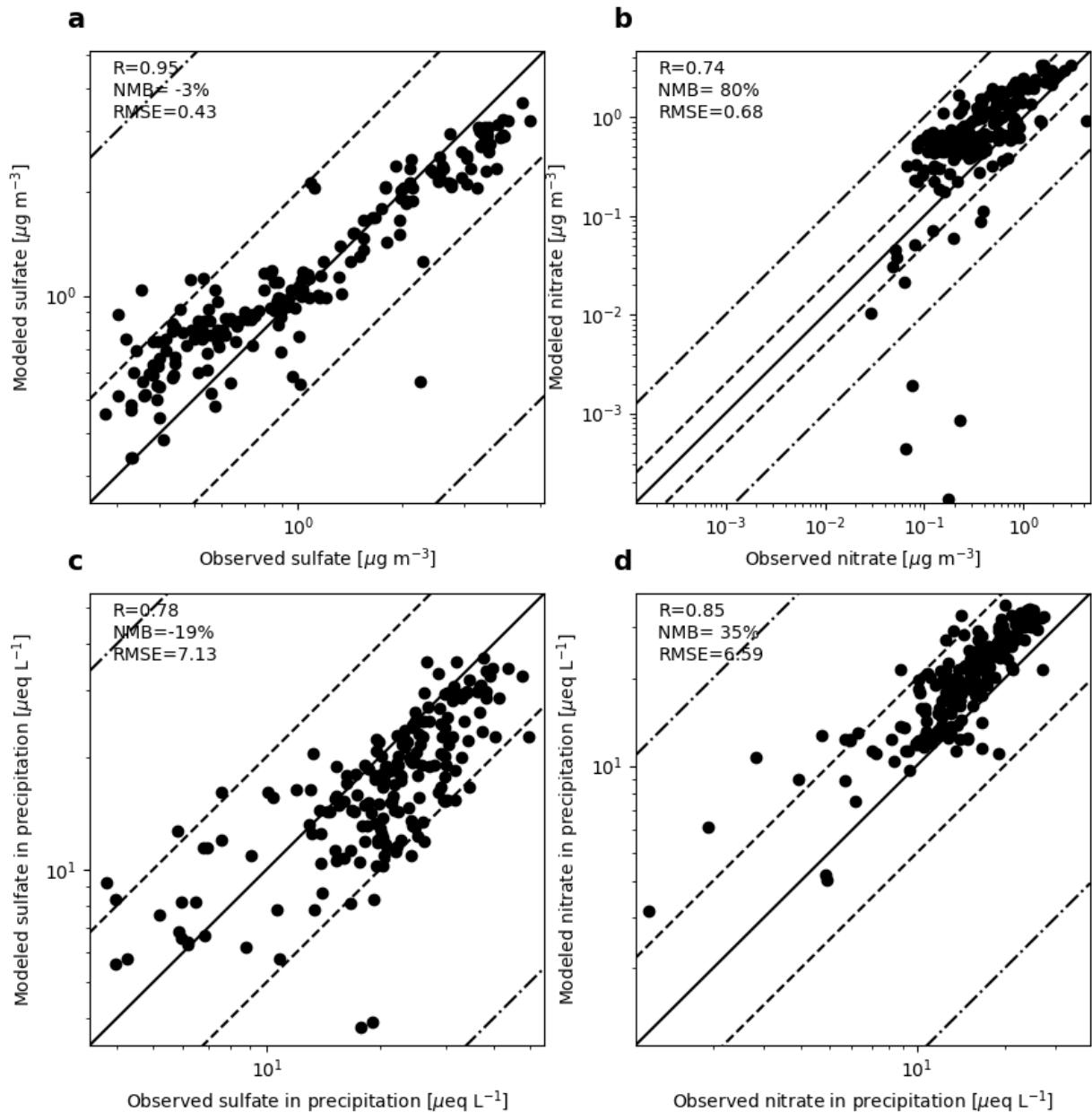


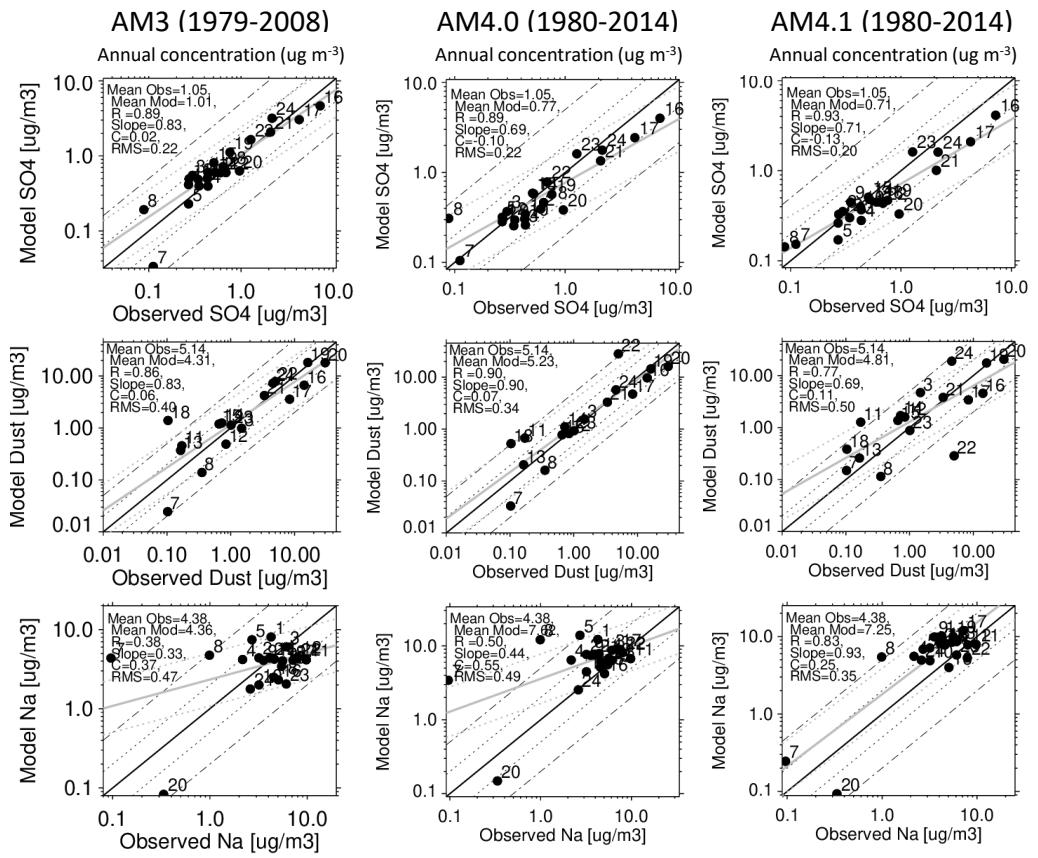
-50 -20 -5 5 20 50











ESM4_amip_D1 1980-2014

