

Abstract

The Modular Earth Submodel System (MESSy) is an open, multi-institutional project providing a strategy for developing comprehensive Earth System Models (ESMs) with highly flexible complexity. The first version of the MESSy infrastructure and process submodels, mainly focusing on atmospheric chemistry, has been successfully coupled to an atmospheric General Circulation Model (GCM) expanding it into an Atmospheric Chemistry GCM (AC-GCM) for nudged simulations and into a Chemistry Climate Model (CCM) for climate simulations.

Here, we present the second development cycle of MESSy, which comprises (1) an improved and extended infrastructure for the basemodel independent coupling of process-submodels, (2) new, highly valuable diagnostic capabilities for the evaluation with observational data and (3) an improved atmospheric chemistry setup. With the infrastructural changes, we place the headstone for further model extensions from a CCM towards a comprehensive ESM. The new diagnostic submodels will be used for regular re-evaluations of the continuously further developing model system. The updates of the chemistry setup are briefly evaluated.

1 Introduction

The Modular Earth Submodel System (MESSy, Jöckel et al., 2005) defines a strategy for building comprehensive Earth System Models (ESMs) from process based modules, the so-called *submodels*. Technically, MESSy comprises standard interfaces to couple the different components, a simple coding standard and a set of submodels coded accordingly.

The basic idea is to organise the code into 4 different layers: the basemodel layer (BML) ultimately consists only of a central clock and run-time control, currently however, typically of a general circulation model (GCM) or a box model. The basemodel interface layer (BMIL) comprises the basemodel specific implementation of the MESSy

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infrastructure; it can be regarded as a multiple socket outlet for the communication between the basemodel and the submodels. The submodel interface layer (SMIL) represents the connector of a specific process to the infrastructure (BMIL). And last but not least, the submodel core layer (SMCL) comprises the basemodel independent implementation of a specific process in the Earth System, or of a diagnostic tool of the model system. It can be regarded as an operator using the data provided via its SMIL and providing data back via its SMIL to other submodels and/or the basemodel. Examples of MESSy submodels are MECCA(-AERO) (Sander et al., 2005; Kerkweg et al., 2007), SCAV (Tost et al., 2006), AIRSEA (Pozzer et al., 2006), PSC (Buchholz, 2005), ONLEM, OFFLEM, TNUDGE (all three Kerkweg et al., 2006b), DRYDEP and SEDI (both Kerkweg et al., 2006a).

The BMIL of MESSy is based on so-called generic (or infrastructure) submodels, where the term *generic* indicates that these submodels are also coded as basemodel independent submodels, i.e., organised into an interface and a core layer. Each generic submodel serves a specific, superordinate purpose (see also Jöckel et al., 2005), among them

- a central submodel control interface (SWITCH + CONTROL) for switching the individual submodels on/off and for providing the main entry points for calling the submodels from the basemodel,
- a submodel (TOOLS) providing common subroutines and functions shared between different submodels (e.g., sorting algorithms, interpolation methods),
- a data import interface (NCREGRID) for the automatic re-discretisation of gridded geoscientific data from netCDF¹ files to the actual rectangular (e.g., Gaussian) model grid (Jöckel, 2006).

Another important generic submodel, the data transfer and export interface introduced by Jöckel et al. (2005) comprises mainly three parts:

¹<http://www.unidata.ucar.edu/software/netcdf>

- a module for the definition of constants (CONSTANTS) shared between the basemodel and/or different submodels,
- a memory and meta-data management interface (TRACER, Jöckel et al., 2008) specialised for the representation of constituents in the different domains of the Earth System, for instance water in different phases in the atmosphere, chemical compounds in the atmosphere and the ocean, and aerosol in the atmosphere,
- a memory and meta-data management interface for the data exchange between the submodels and between the submodels and the basemodel, and for the data export to files.

In development cycle 1 of MESSy (MESSy1), the third part is entirely based on the stream interface (unpublished) of the atmospheric GCM ECHAM5 (Roeckner et al., 2006), which has been extended (see supplementary material of Jöckel et al., 2005) for the atmospheric chemistry general circulation model (AC-GCM) ECHAM5/MESSy1 (Jöckel et al., 2006). Since this stream interface is rather specific for ECHAM5, the application of the MESSy infrastructure was so-far limited to the basemodel ECHAM5. To overcome this limitation and to allow for different basemodels, we present in Sect. 2 a completely new, basemodel independent implementation of a memory and meta-data management and data export interface (named CHANNEL) with much enhanced flexibility and modularity.

We further extended the MESSy infrastructure by two new generic submodels: TIMER for the time control and QTIMER for the optimal use of scheduler run-time limits and run-time diagnostics. These are described in Sects. 3 and 4, respectively.

In addition, new diagnostic (Sect. 5) and process (Sect. 6) submodels have been developed. And finally, modifications of the chemistry setup compared to previous versions (Jöckel et al., 2006) have been introduced (Sect. 7) together with minor structural changes (Sect. 8). With the updated model system a comprehensive re-evaluation simulation has been performed (Sect. 9).

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2 CHANNEL: a memory and meta-data management, data transfer and export interface

A common task in ESMs is the storage (in memory) and output (to files) of information (data), which represent the state of the simulated system, for instance the temperature of air, the ocean salinity, or the abundances of ozone and water vapour in the atmosphere. During the simulation, this information needs in general to be shared between different processes, thus providing the coupling between them. A complete description of such data comprises information about

- the quantity (meta-data), such as the measuring unit,
- the underlying geometry, e.g., the mathematical representation, the discretisation, and the corresponding dimensions,
- the arrangement of values in memory (array shape),
- the layout in the output file, depending on the file format,
- the parallel decomposition, if the ESM runs in a parallel environment,
- the values.

The generic submodel CHANNEL described here, provides a powerful application programming interface (API) to handle such data for the flexible and efficient data exchange/data sharing between different processes (submodels). It is written in Fortran95 (ISO/IEC-1539-1) following an object-oriented approach to the extent possible. The basic entities, implemented as Fortran95 structures, of CHANNEL are

- *attributes*, representing time independent, scalar characteristics, e.g., the measuring unit,
- *dimension variables*, representing specific coordinate axes, e.g., the latitude in degrees north, the zonal wave number, the trajectory number,

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- *dimensions*, representing the basic geometry in one dimension, e.g., the number of latitude points, the number of trajectories,
- *representations*, describing multidimensional geometric structures (based on *dimensions*), e.g., Eulerian (or grid-point), spectral, Lagrangian,
- *channel objects*, representing data fields including their meta information (*attributes*) and their underlying geometric structure (*representation*), e.g., the 3-D vorticity in spectral representation, the ozone mixing ratio in Eulerian representation, the pressure altitude of trajectories in Lagrangian representation,
- *channels*, representing sets of “related” *channel objects* with additional meta information. The “relation” can be, for instance, the simple fact that the *channel objects* are defined by the same submodel.

CHANNEL further serves the input/output (IO) of data from/into files. The implemented IO features comprise

- a complete control (user interface) via two Fortran95 namelists,
- a powerful restart facility for simulation chains,
- output redirection for tailor made output files,
- a flexible choice of the output file format, the output method and the output precision, and
- the capability to conduct basic statistical analyses w.r.t. time on-line, i.e., to output in addition (or alternative) to the instantaneous data (i.e., at a specific model time step) the average, standard deviation, minimum, maximum, event counts, and event averages for the output time interval.

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The current IO implementation comprises the netCDF² output format, either by serial or parallel access (parallel netCDF³). Entry points for alternative output formats or methods are provided in the code, which can be expanded easily.

In order to enable the application of the IO features also for *tracers* defined by the generic submodel TRACER (Jöckel et al., 2008), CHANNEL also provides subroutines to elegantly associate the tracer memory with CHANNEL meta-information without additional memory requirements.

A reference manual with more detailed information on CHANNEL is part of the electronic supplement of this article. The source code of CHANNEL including a simple example application is provided on request.

3 TIMER: a generic submodel for time control

A central part of a comprehensive ESM is the control of the timing information. In development cycle 1 of MESSy (MESSy1), this is entirely based on the timer (unpublished) of the atmospheric GCM ECHAM5 (Roeckner et al., 2006). To enable the application of the timer also for other basemodels, we extracted the timer relevant code and re-implemented it as the generic MESSy submodel TIMER, by keeping largely its original functionality and namelist syntax. TIMER comprises three SMCL Fortran95 modules, which serve different purposes:

- `messy_main_timer.f90` provides
 - the basic type structure to store date and time information,
 - the basic variables to store date and time information,
 - tools (functions and subroutines) for date and time format conversions, time span calculations, etc.;

²<http://www.unidata.ucar.edu/software/netcdf>

³<http://www.mcs.anl.gov/parallel-netcdf>

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- `messy_main_timer_manager.f90` provides the internal clock for the model simulation. It manages the time stepping and the date and time information during the simulation;
- `messy_main_timer_event.f90` provides data types and routines to schedule processes at specific (regular) time intervals (so-called events), e.g., to trigger regular output or input.

In addition `TIMER` comprises the basemodel interface layer (BMIL) module `messy_main_timer_bi.f90`, which establishes the connection to the basemodel, and thus contains the basemodel specific settings. The electronic supplement contains a detailed documentation of `TIMER` including all definitions, subroutines and a description of the functionality of the event manager.

4 QTIMER: optimal use of queue limits and run-time diagnostics

Complex simulations with comprehensive GCMs, Chemistry Climate Models (CCMs) or ESMs are usually expensive in terms of the computational effort. These simulations are mostly carried out on high performance computers hosted by specialised computing centres serving a larger number of users. To facilitate an evenhanded distribution of computer resources among the different users, for accounting the used CPU time, and to guarantee an optimal usage of the hardware, computational tasks are usually organised and scheduled by resource management tools, such as for instance IBM Load Leveler⁴, Sun Grid Engine⁵, Network Queuing System⁶, Load Sharing Facility⁷, or Portable Batch System⁸.

⁴<http://www.redbooks.ibm.com/abstracts/SG246038.html>

⁵<http://gridengine.sunsource.net/>

⁶in various implementations, see <http://alexander.ucsf.edu/~srp/batch/systems.html>

⁷<http://www.platform.com/Products/platform-lsf>

⁸<http://www.pbsgridworks.com>

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In most cases, these systems are configured to dedicate and account specific resources (number of nodes, number of CPUs, CPU time, memory, etc.) to the tasks. The user has to request the required resources and submit a task (job) to the queue manager. The resource limitations configured by the high performance computing centre, in particular the maximum allowed CPU time per task, is usually not sufficient to perform a comprehensive or long term climate simulation. Therefore, the simulation needs to be split into pieces, so-called chain elements of a simulation chain, which are processed in sequence. The prerequisite for this method is that the model is able to dump its complete state (in full numeric precision) to files on disk, from which the simulation can be unambiguously continued. Such a facility is provided by CHANNEL (see Sect. 2).

Moreover, such a file dump and simulation interrupt needs to be triggered from within the model itself. This can for instance be achieved after a fixed number of model time steps, or by defining an event in the generic submodel TIMER (see Sect. 3) after a specific simulation time interval. The drawback of both methods is that they do not automatically allow an optimal usage of the maximum reserved CPU time dedicated by the job scheduler. The user has to estimate the required CPU time for the given model configuration and setup and set the trigger manually. This method bears the risk that either the trigger comes too late and the scheduler terminates the job before the restart files are dumped, or that the trigger comes too early giving away valuable CPU time already reserved by the scheduler and thus decreasing the turn-around by unnecessary increasing the waiting times (in the queue) between the sequenced tasks.

The generic submodel QTIMER measures on-line the time consumed by the simulation (accumulated for each model time step) and triggers the restart just before the maximum time reserved by the scheduler is reached. The corresponding queue time limit needs to be specified in the CTRL namelist of QTIMER (see Fig. 1).

As added value, QTIMER provides a performance monitoring tool, since the time consumed by each model time step is measured on-line. The resulting timing

information is stored in *channel objects* of the *channel* “qtimer” (see Sect. 2) and can therefore elegantly be output, e.g., to netCDF files. An example is shown in Fig. 2.

5 New diagnostic submodels

The evaluation of the simulation output of comprehensive ESMs usually requires additional post-processing steps (statistics and visualisation). The output data for this post-processing, i.e., the model output, is limited, however, by the available disk-storage and by the performance decrease caused by input/output latencies of the disk access. For both reasons, it is normally not feasible to output the entire model state in every model time step. Depending on the scientific task, output of the 3-D model state variables is triggered in regular intervals (5 hourly, 6 hourly, 12 hourly, etc.). This method, however, has several disadvantages. In case the output frequency is an integer divisor of 24h (such as 6 h), the model output at a specific geographic location is always for the same local times (more precisely for the same mean solar times, e.g., 0, 6, 12, 18 at 0° E). Averaging such output (e.g., monthly) can cause unintended localised biases, since the same mean solar time implies the same solar zenith angle. Such biases occur for instance for photochemically active, short lived species and are in general not desirable. Another drawback of the simple output scheme is a twofold relative disproportion of the spatio-temporal data density: Whereas data in “smooth” regions (i.e., with small gradients, e.g., in remote areas) is comparably dense, data in regions with large gradients is comparably sparse. Other criteria for this “sensible” data density are regions of special interest or points in space and time with a high availability of observational data for model evaluation; more specific, high frequency stationary observations, measurement campaigns, and in particular satellite observations. In many cases, it is therefore desirable to increase the output data frequency for specific variables at specific locations, or to provide tailor made output appropriate for very specific purposes (e.g., to improve the statistics); in any case, however, without increasing the amount of output data much further beyond the standard output data.

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In addition to the statistical (w.r.t. time) diagnostic capabilities of the generic submodel CHANNEL (see Sect. 2), we therefore implemented four diagnostic output submodels, which are all utilising the generic submodel CHANNEL.

5.1 VISO: iso-surfaces and maps

The first diagnostic submodel, VISO, serves two purposes. First, it is used to diagnose vertically layered, 2-D iso-surfaces in 3-D scalar fields in Eulerian (grid-point) representation (see Sect. 2). The search algorithm determines in every vertical column of the field the level index of the box with the specified value and, by linear interpolation, the fraction of the vertical box length below the specified value. The submodel is entirely controlled via its CPL namelist (Fig. 3), and an iso-surface is defined by (values in parentheses correspond to the first example in Fig. 3)

- the keyword `ISO` with an arbitrary but unique number in parentheses (`ISO(1)`),
- a unique name of the iso-surface (`isent340`),
- the name of the *channel* containing the 3-D scalar field (`PHYS`),
- the name of the *channel object* representing the 3-D scalar field (`tpot`),
- the value of the iso-surface in units of the 3-D scalar field (`340.0`),
- a switch to calculate the level index only (`F`), or the level index and the vertical box fraction below the iso-value (`T`),
- a switch to search from the top to the lowest layer (`F`) or from the lowest to the top layer (`T`),
- the number of levels to skip for the search from the top layer (default is zero), and
- the number of levels to skip for the search from the lowest layer (default is zero).

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In the example, isentropes of 340 (ISO(1)), 380 (ISO(2)) and 420 K (ISO(3)) are defined, and further surfaces of constant potential vorticity at 2 (ISO(4)) and 3.5 PVU (ISO(5)). For PV2 the search is from the top layer down, skipping the 4 lowest model layers, and for PV3.5 the search is reversed, skipping the 3 lowest layers.

The second application of VISO is for mapping 3-D scalar fields in Eulerian (grid-point) representation on surfaces defined by a level index (and optionally by a fraction of the box), as for instance an iso-surface defined by the same submodel. Such a map is defined in the CPL namelist by (values in parentheses correspond to the first example in Fig. 3)

- the keyword MAP with an arbitrary but unique number in parentheses (MAP(1)),
- a unique name of the map (pth340),
- the name of the *channel* containing the surface (viso),
- the name of the *channel object* representing the surface (isent340),
- the name of the *channel* containing the 3-D scalar field in Eulerian representation (PHYS), and
- the name of the *channel object* representing the 3-D scalar field in Eulerian representation (press).

In the examples the pressure altitude of the isentropes of 340 (MAP(1)), 380 (MAP(2)) and 420 K (MAP(3)) are defined, and further the pressure (MAP(10)) and temperature (MAP(11)) at the tropopause. The tropopause information (vertical level index and fraction of the tropopause box below the tropopause) are provided as *channel objects* tp_i and tp_f, respectively, in *channel* tropop by the submodel TROPOP (see Jöckel et al., 2006). The suffixes _i and _f for level index and fraction are automatically appended internally, and the presence of the *channel object* for the fraction determines the mapping algorithm. If the fraction is present, the values are linearly interpolated

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in vertical direction, if the fraction is not defined, the value at the level index of the corresponding surface is selected.

The iso-surfaces and maps of VISO are defined as 2-D *channel objects* in Eulerian representation in the *channel_{VISO}*. For the index and fraction of an iso-surface, the corresponding channel object names are internally generated by appending *_i* and *_f*, respectively, to the iso-surface name specified in the CPL namelist. For the maps, the name specified in the namelist is used directly. Operating with channel objects enables automatically all namelist controllable output features for the iso-surface and map information of VISO (see Sect. 2), such as for instance time averaging, output redirection, etc. Figure 4 shows typical examples of VISO applications.

With the on-line diagnosis of iso-surfaces and maps with VISO, grid-point data are reduced in one (the vertical) dimension. This data reduction can be exploited to increase the output frequency (i.e., the time resolution) without blowing up the storage requests. Obtaining the same information via post-processing of the standard output requires the output of 3-D data (one field for iso-surfaces, two fields for a map) with the desired output frequency, instead.

5.2 SCOUT: stationary column output

A proper evaluation of ESMs, CCMs and GCMs requires a thorough comparison of the model results with observations. Large databases of observations at stationary, ground-based observatories exist for meteorological data and also for the chemical composition of the atmosphere. These observations often comprise also vertical information obtained for instance with radar, lidar, balloon sondes, and other techniques. Moreover, specifically in case of continuous or quasi-continuous measurement techniques, the time resolution of these observations is usually much higher than the typical data output frequency of a 3-D, global (or regional) model simulation. The standard methods for the comparison of model results with such observations, is either the time averaging of the observations or a time interpolation of the model output. In both cases, valuable information about the variability is lost. To

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overcome this limitation with the classical, off-line post-processing approach, requires the output of large amounts of 3-D data implying the need for large storage capacities and slowing down the model simulation considerably, due to the comparably slow input/output.

5 To enable the high-frequency output of data from the model at the position of stationary observatories on-line, i.e., from within the model simulation, we implemented the submodel SCOUT.

The key algorithm is a function (`locate_in_decomp`)

$$(x, y) \rightarrow (p, i, j) \quad (1)$$

10 to calculate the process (or CPU) identifier (p) and the array indices (i and j) of the corresponding grid-box from the geographic longitude (x) and latitude (y) in a parallel environment. This function depends on the *representation* of the *channel object*, in particular on its parallel decomposition in distributed memory and on the memory layout of the corresponding data arrays on each process (or CPU). Since this function serves
15 a general purpose and is also used by other submodels (e.g., S4D, see Sect. 5.3), it is part of the *generic submodel* TRANSFORM.

The submodel SCOUT is entirely controlled by its CPL namelist as shown in Fig. 5.

For 3-D fields (i.e., with a vertical dimension) the vertical column is sampled, for 2-D, horizontally oriented fields, such as for instance the tropopause pressure or
20 temperature, or iso-surfaces and maps from VISO (see Sect. 5.1), the corresponding scalar value is sampled and output. Internally, the sampled data are stored as *channel objects* in column (for 3-D fields) or scalar (for 2-D fields) representation, respectively. Operating with channel objects enables automatically all namelist controllable output features for sampled data (see Sect. 2), such as for instance time averaging, output
25 redirection, etc. With SCOUT, high frequency output of model data for comparison with stationary observations can be provided, examples are shown in Fig. 6.

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5.3 S4D: sampling in 4 dimensions

In addition to measurement data from ground based, stationary observatories, data from moving platforms like aircraft, ships, and trains are well suited for the model evaluation. This kind of observational data stem either from dedicated campaigns targeting on specific scientific questions, but also from regular or quasi regular investigations (e.g., CARIBIC⁹, Brenninkmeijer et al., 2007; or MOZAIC¹⁰, Marengo et al., 1998). A direct comparison of observations from moving platforms with model simulation results is challenging in many aspects. The common approach is to sample the 3-D model output off-line (i.e., as a post-processing step) to the position and time of the moving platform. In addition to the time resolution (similar to stationary observatories), for moving platforms also the spatial resolution of the data is usually much finer than that of the model output. This implies that the model output needs to be interpolated in space and time. In particular along the time dimension a lot of information is lost, since usually the data output frequency is much lower than the model time stepping frequency.

In order to retrieve the maximum information out of the model simulation for comparison with observations from moving platforms, we implemented the submodel S4D, which interpolates the model data to the platform track on-line, i.e., during the model simulation. The platforms and the requested data are specified in the CPL-namelist (see Fig. 7) by

- the keyword `TRACK` followed by an arbitrary, but unique number (between 1 and 100) in parentheses,
- an up to 8 character long, unique name,
- a string with the path and file name base to the ASCII file containing the track positions,

⁹<http://www.caribic-atmospheric.com>

¹⁰<http://mozaic.aero.obs-mip.fr>

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- a switch indicating how the track position files are partitioned (either monthly (1), or daily (0)), with –1 the track is deactivated,
- a switch to produce either time series output along the track of the complete model column (T), or to perform a vertical interpolation onto the track (F),
- a switch to output all model time steps along the track (in case the frequency of the track position information is lower than the model time stepping frequency (T) or only those dates and times listed in the position file; the latter potentially causes non-equidistant time intervals in the output files),
- a fill value used for indicating missing data, in case the previous switch is T and the model time step is shorter than the distance between the track position way points,
- a list of *channel objects* to be sampled along the track; the list needs to be specified as a semicolon-separated list of channel names, each followed by a colon and a comma-separated list of channel object names; channel objects can be summarised by using wildcards (* and ?).

The ASCII track position files must contain 9 columns with year, month, day, hour, minute, second (UTC), geographic longitude, geographic latitude and pressure altitude (in hPa). If the specified pressure altitude at a given horizontal position (longitude and latitude) is out of the range of the hybrid pressure grid at this position (and time), the value at the nearest vertical model boundary (either lowest or uppermost layer, respectively) is sampled.

For each defined track, S4D produces an additional output *channel* named `s4d_` followed by the track name specified in the namelist (second item in the list above). The sampled *channel objects* are in scalar or column representation, depending on the 5th item in the namelist above and on the object to be sampled (2- or 3-D grid-point representation). The *channel objects* in the new S4D *channel* are named as

the original *channel*, followed by an underscore and the name of the original *channel object*.

For the horizontal interpolation, the subroutine `locate_in_decomp` already introduced for the submodel SCOUT (see Sect. 5.2, Eq. 1) is overloaded

$$5 \quad (x, y) \rightarrow (p, i, j)_n \quad (2)$$

to return the grid point index triples of the $n \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ surrounding grid-points, instead of the index triple of the nearest neighbouring grid-point, only. This information is used for a horizontal bi-linear interpolation to the track position. The vertical interpolation, if requested, is a linear interpolation in pressure altitude.

10 For each track, S4D checks in every model time step, if the time span of the track lies in the future or in the past. In both cases, the track is not active and no calculations are performed. In case the current model time step falls within the time interval of the track, however, S4D searches the position of the track, of which the date and time information lies closest to $T + \Delta t / 2$, where T is the current model date and time and Δt is the model time step length. At this position the horizontal (and, if requested vertical) interpolation(s) are performed and the results are stored in the corresponding S4D *channel object*. For S4D *channels*, output is automatically triggered for every model time step in which an interpolation took place (or in other words the track was active). This guarantees the highest possible output frequency along the tracks, which implies

15 that no information from the model along the track is lost. The data volume added by this tailor made output along a track is negligible compared to the regular output of 2- and 3-D data fields. Note that for retrieving the same information off-line (through post-processing) all desired 2- and 3-D fields must be output at every model time step first.

25 Figure 8 shows an example of the added value achieved with the application of S4D. The upper left panel shows the OH mixing ratio along a flight path sampled from an ECHAM/MESSy Atmospheric Chemistry (EMAC) model simulation with different techniques. The on-line sampling with S4D (red boxes) delivers the maximum

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information available, i.e., with one value every model time step (12 min in the example). Off-line sampling from 5-hourly, 3-D model output without interpolation in space and time (blue line) clearly shows the grid-box structure (due to the nearest neighbour selection at the time dependent aircraft position). A severe sampling artefact (of 2 orders of magnitude absolute error) is clearly visible on 9 September, between 00:30 and 01:00 UTC, i.e., right in the middle between two output time steps. The reason for this artefact is explained by the lower right panel of Fig. 8: for 9 September, 00:45 UTC, the nearest available output time in 3-D output data is for 9 September, 03:00 UTC. The aircraft is at 00:45 UTC at a position (blue circle), where it is still night. At the same position at 03:00 UTC, however, (as shown in the figure) the sun is rising. The availability of sunlight is directly reflected in the abundance of the photochemically produced OH radical. Linear interpolation in time even drastically increases the problem with the sampling artefact (black line in the upper left panel of Fig. 8), since by linear interpolation in time, the sunlit region is artificially broadened (middle left and lower left panel in Fig. 8).

Besides such off-line sampling artefacts resulting from day and night mismatches for photochemically active species and photolysis rates, similar sampling artefacts can arise for all quantities with fast varying gradients and/or smaller-scale features, such as streamers, tropopause folds, emission plumes, clouds, etc. With the classical off-line sampling approach such phenomena can either be overlooked, if they occur in between the model output time steps, or overstated, if they are present in the model output time step, but not anymore a few steps later. An a-posteriori correction of such artefacts is impossible, since the required information is lost. The solutions are either to increase the model output frequency (which drastically increases the storage demands), or to perform the sampling on-line, as done with S4D.

5.4 SORBIT: sampling along sun-synchronous satellite orbits

A fast growing source of geoscientific data for model evaluation is emerging from remote sensing instruments on satellites. A specific class of satellites is defined by

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the sun-synchronous orbiters. Their orbit is nearly polar and their orbit inclination (cf. Fig. 9) and altitude is chosen such that the gravitational force gradient resulting from the Earth's oblateness causes a precession rate of the orbital plane (with respect to the celestial sphere) of one full circle per year. As a result, any given point of the Earth's surface is passed by the satellite at the same local mean solar time. This implies constant light conditions, which is favourable for remote sensing instrumentation relying on sunlight. The local (index L) time $T_{L,O}$ (hour of day) of the orbiter's (index O) flyover at a given latitude θ is, as derived from the spherical rectangular triangle (see Fig. 9 and Eq. 3.203g in Bronstein et al., 2005):

$$T_{L,O}(\theta) = T_{L,O}(0) \pm \arcsin \frac{\tan \theta}{\tan \delta} \quad (3)$$

$T_{L,O}(0)$ is the equator crossing local time, δ is the inclination of the orbital plane, and the sign is positive for the ascending and negative for the descending parts of the orbit, respectively (see also Leroy, 2001). This simple relation for the orbit geometry of sun-synchronous orbiters nicely allows the tailor made on-line sampling of data from a model for direct comparison with the retrieved satellite observations without the requirement of knowing the actual position of the satellite at a given time. For a given scalar variable X in grid-point representation, a second variable X_O is defined as

$$X_O(i, j, k, l) = \begin{cases} X(i, j, k, l) & \text{if } |T_L(i, j, l) - T_{L,O}(\theta(j))| \leq \Delta T \\ X_U & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

where i , j and k are the grid-box indices in longitudinal, latitudinal and vertical direction, respectively, l is the time step of the model, and T_L is the local solar time (hours of day) in the corresponding grid-box (with indices i and j) at model time step l :

$$T_L(i, j, l) = T_{UTC}(l) + \frac{\lambda(i, j)}{360} 24 \quad (5)$$

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λ is the geographical longitude (in degrees) and $T_{UTC}(l)$ the model time (UTC) at time step l . Furthermore, X_U in Eq. (4) indicates an undefined value, and due to the discrete grid, a time interval ΔT is required. A natural choice is half the model time step length, i.e., $\Delta T = \Delta t/2$, or the width of the grid-box expressed in units of time, e.g., $\Delta T = (86\,400/N_x)/2$ (in seconds), where N_x is the number of longitude points of the grid.

During the model integration X_O is successively filled at each model time step l . After 24 h, the (latitude dependent) local solar time of the orbiter ($T_{L,O}$) was reached in every grid-box of the model. The resulting global field X_O is output and re-initialised by X_U for the next 24 h.

The implementation of this algorithm in SORBIT is, as the other diagnostic submodel presented here, utilising the capabilities of the channel interface (Sect. 2) and entirely controllable by the CPL-namelist (see Fig. 10). Two entries are used to control the output interval (`lout_auto`) and the undefined value X_U (`r_init`). For `lout_auto = T` the output is triggered every 24 h (i.e., if the X_O field is full). The option `lout_auto = F` is only useful for testing. In that case, the output frequency is specified in the CPL-namelist of the channel interface (Sect. 2). The orbit definitions consist of

- the keyword `ORB` followed by an arbitrary, but unique number (between 1 and 50) in parentheses,
- the name of the orbit (up to 8 characters),
- a flag for calculating the orbiter's overflight local solar time $T_{L,O}(\theta)$ according to Eq. (3), i.e., latitude dependent (`T`), or for using the equator crossing local time $T_{L,O}(0)$ at all latitudes (`F`),
- the inclination δ of the orbital plane,
- a flag to select either the ascending (`T`) or descending (`F`) part of the orbit,
- the hour of the equator crossing local solar time,

- the minute of the equator crossing local solar time,
- a switch for selecting $\Delta T = \Delta t/2$ (F) or, more restrictive, $\Delta T = \min(\Delta t, 86\,400/N_x)/2$ (see Eq. 4), and
- a list of *channel objects* to be sampled along the orbit; the list needs to be specified as a semicolon-separated list of channel names, each followed by a colon and a comma-separated list of channel object names; channel objects can be summarised by using wildcards (* and ?).

For each defined orbit, SORBIT produces an additional output channel named `sorbit_` followed by the orbit name specified in the namelist (second item in the list above). The sampled *channel objects* are, depending on the object to be sampled, in 2- or 3-D grid-point representation. The *channel objects* in the new SORBIT *channel* are named as the original *channel*, followed by an underscore and the name of the original *channel object*.

Figure 11 illustrates the increase of the valuable (i.e., useful for direct comparison) model output data density in comparison to the data density of satellite observations. The left column of Fig. 11 shows a standard snapshot output of a model simulation. For an intended point-by-point comparison with observations from a satellite instrument, only very few measurements from only one orbit correspond to the output simulation time. The exact number depends on the time difference between the orbit position and the model simulation output time, which the user allows to define two times as being equal. This is indicated by the red (strict definition, i.e., only small deviation allowed) and the blue (weaker definition with a larger time deviation allowed) symbols. The SORBIT output (middle column), however, is constructed to output each grid-box at the time of the day, which corresponds to a potential overflight of the orbiter, simply by selecting the correct, latitude dependent, local solar time. As a consequence, for all orbit positions of all orbits, the SORBIT output contains the corresponding model value with the strict criterion for the allowed time deviation applied (red symbols in the right panels of Fig. 11). In other words, for each satellite observation, a corresponding

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model simulated value is directly available in the output. Erroneous interpolation in time between snapshots is not required anymore. This is the highest valuable data density that can be reached within the limitations due to the coarse model grid, and the fact that the derived geometry is – strictly speaking – only valid for measurements in NADIR mode.

Figure 12 illustrates the systematic error arising, if climatological averages derived from sun-synchronously orbiting instruments are wrongly compared to climatological averages derived from standard (i.e., snapshot) model output. The examples show (arbitrarily selected) monthly (January 2006) averages of NO at 50 hPa (left) and the total ozone column density (right), once calculated from 5-hourly standard snapshot output (upper) and once calculated from SORBIT output (mid). The latter represents here the climatology derived from satellite observations. The lower panels show the corresponding absolute differences (in the respective units). The systematic biases are apparent and non-negligible. It is straightforward to argue that the systematic error is the larger, the shorter the photochemical lifetime, or likewise, the larger the diurnal amplitude of the selected species is.

6 New process submodels

A well suited method for the evaluation of Earth System models is the simulation and subsequent comparison to observations of so-called tracers of opportunity. The fate and distribution of such tracers are characteristically determined by a few processes only. Here, we introduce two new MESSy submodels for the simulation of ^{222}Rn and ^{210}Pb (DRADON, Sect. 6.1) and ^{14}CO (D14CO, Sect. 6.2) and one for artificial tracers (TREXP, Sect. 6.3).

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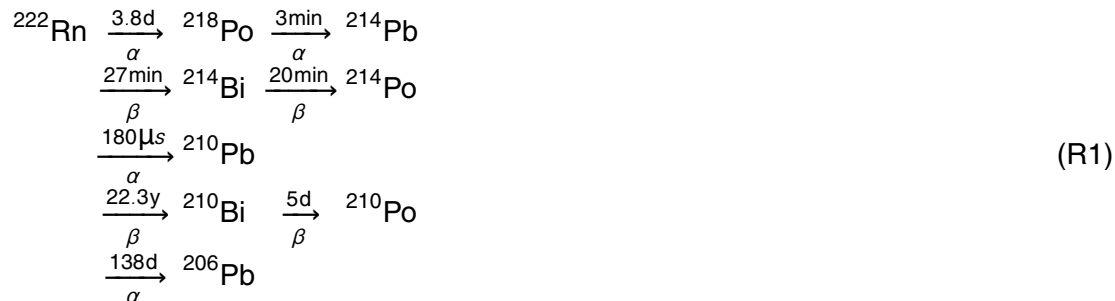
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6.1 DRADON: radon as diagnostic tracer

^{222}Rn is widely applied for the evaluation of the atmospheric transport characteristics (mainly in the vertical direction) of models of the atmosphere (e.g., Mahowald et al., 1997; Dentener et al., 1999; Allen et al., 1996; Zhang et al., 2008). The tracer is emitted from soil as radioactive decay product of ^{226}Ra and itself decays further with a half-life of 3.8 days:



A common assumption is a ^{222}Rn emission rate of 1 atom/(cm² s) over ice and snow free soil and zero elsewhere. A more detailed source estimation has been derived by Schery and Wasiolek (1998).

Within the decay chain of ^{222}Rn , one daughter provides an additional, well suited tracer of opportunity for model evaluation: ^{210}Pb (with a half-life of 22.3 years). After its production ^{210}Pb immediately sticks to aerosol, due to its high adhesiveness. It is therefore ideally suited to evaluate model simulated aerosol dry and wet deposition rates (e.g., Rehfeld and Heimann, 1995; Preiss and Genthon, 1997; Liu et al., 2001; Koch et al., 1996). Due to these removal processes from the atmosphere, the atmospheric life-time of ^{210}Pb is considerably shorter (days to weeks) than its decay half-life of 22.3 years. Measurements of both, the atmospheric abundance and the rain-out of ^{210}Pb , exist for a direct comparison with model simulations (e.g., Preiss et al., 1996; Preiss and Genthon, 1997).

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The submodel DRADON (diagnostic Radon) is controlled by Fortran95 namelists (see Fig. 13) with various options:

- The source can either be specified as constant emission rates over (ice and snow free) land and ocean, respectively, or an external source distribution (e.g., Schery and Wasiolek, 1998)¹¹ can be pre-scribed.
- The source can be either applied as tendency of the tracer in the lowest model layer, or as lower boundary condition of the vertical diffusive flux. This is the same way as tracer surface emissions are handled in the submodel OFFLEM (see Kerkweg et al., 2006b).
- Only the decay of ²²²Rn can be simulated, or the decay chain up to ²¹⁰Pb (including its decay). In the latter case, the corresponding system of coupled ordinary differential equations (ODE) is integrated with the Bareman solution described by Pressyanov (2002).
- ²¹⁰Pb, in case it is simulated (see above), is associated to an aerosol submodel and mode. These informations determine the aerosol characteristics (such as the mean radius and the radius standard deviation) required for the calculation of the aerosol relevant processes (sedimentation (submodel SEDI), scavenging (submodel SCAV), dry deposition (submodel DRYDEP)).

Figure 14 shows the summarised results of an EMAC simulation in T42L90MA resolution with the DRADON submodel. We follow the analysis of Zhang et al. (2008, for observations see references therein), and present the atmospheric abundance of ²²²Rn in comparison to observations at several ground based stations. 8 simulated years (2000–2007, nudged towards ECMWF operational analysis data) have been averaged for comparison.

¹¹<http://infohost.nmt.edu/~schery/mapdata.html>

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The simulation results are of comparable quality as derived by Zhang et al. (2008), who used also ECHAM5 as basemodel. The individual time series (monthly climatologies) are provided in the electronic supplement (Fig. 23 in MESSy2_evaluation.pdf).

Figure 15 shows the results of the same EMAC simulation for the atmospheric abundance and deposition of ^{210}Pb in comparison to the climatology of observations provided by Preiss and Genthon (1997). The scatter of both, the ^{210}Pb abundance and the rain-out flux, is comparable between the observations and the simulation results (Fig. 15 lower row), however, the correlation between the simulation results and the climatology is only moderate due to the large scatter. The regression analysis yet indicates a good agreement of the simulated abundance with the observations (a slope of 0.87), whereas the deposition flux is by a factor of 4 underestimated by the model (slope of 0.24). This is particularly surprising, since both, the near-surface abundance (Fig. 15, left; see also Fig. 19 in MESSy2_evaluation.pdf in the supplement) and the vertical profiles (compiled by Emmons et al., 2000, see Fig. 16 in MESSy2_evaluation.pdf in the supplement) are quite well represented by the model. Moreover, the global mass flux of ^{210}Pb is well balanced, ruling out a model error: the (8 year) average annual global source flux of ^{222}Rn decaying into ^{210}Pb is calculated to 13 ± 0.01 kg/year, the deposition fluxes by scavenging, dry deposition and sedimentation are 10.75 ± 0.02 , 0.51 ± 0.01 , and 1.38 ± 0.02 kg/year, respectively. The uncertainty ranges are the multi-annual (2000–2007) standard deviations. The annual change in burden is less than ± 0.002 kg/year. This implies a small mass deficit (deposition – emission) of -0.35 kg/year or -3% of the annual emission, which is explained by the radioactive decay of ^{210}Pb .

6.2 D14CO: ^{14}CO as diagnostic tracer

^{14}CO is a well suited tracer for the evaluation of global atmospheric chemistry models w.r.t. the simulated global distribution of the OH radical and the capability of the model to accurately represent the stratosphere-to-troposphere exchange (Jöckel et al., 2002;

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Jöckel, 2000, and references therein).

The primary origin of atmospheric ^{14}C is production by cosmic radiation. High energy cosmic rays (mainly protons) induce large nucleonic particle cascades in the atmosphere and produce atmospheric neutrons. Most of them diffuse and thermalize before they are captured by nitrogen nuclei forming ^{14}C ($^{14}\text{N}(n,p)^{14}\text{C}$). The recoil ^{14}C atom rapidly oxidizes to ^{14}CO , with a yield that has been determined to be approximately 95% (Pandow et al., 1960; MacKay et al., 1963). In this way, a natural tracer is produced throughout the atmosphere, almost equally partitioned between the stratosphere and the troposphere, however with its maximum in polar regions caused by the influence of the geomagnetic field on the primary cosmic ray particles. The average source strength is 1.6–2 molecules per second and per square-centimeter of the Earth's surface, corresponding to a total production of approximately 13–16 kg ^{14}CO per year. Since the cosmic ray flux reaching the atmosphere is modulated by the solar wind intensity, the cosmogenic ^{14}CO production rate oscillates with a phase of 11 years (solar cycle) with higher production rates during times of low solar activity. The secondary (“biogenic”) contribution, comprising 20–25% of the total source, consists of recycled ^{14}CO from the biosphere, entering or evolving in the atmosphere by oxidation of natural methane and higher hydrocarbons, and by biomass burning. The use of fossil fuel does not contribute to atmospheric ^{14}CO as geological production times vastly exceed the ^{14}C half life of about 5730 years.

The significance of ^{14}CO is that it constitutes a natural tracer that can be used to assess the hydroxyl radical (OH) abundance, because $^{14}\text{CO} + \text{OH}$ is its main sink reaction, with an average tropospheric lifetime of ^{14}CO of about 2–3 months. Jöckel and Brenninkmeijer (2002) compiled a climatology of cosmogenic ^{14}CO , i.e., a zonally averaged seasonal cycle at the surface comprising 1088 ^{14}CO observations from 4 institutes and Jöckel et al. (2002) used this climatology to evaluate two different chemistry transport models (CTMs).

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The submodel D14CO implements the methodology as a MESSy submodel for further investigations and for the evaluation of EMAC. Up to 10 independent setups are possible, each comprising three tracers, one for total ^{14}CO , one for ^{14}CO produced in the stratosphere, and one for ^{14}CO produced in the troposphere, respectively. Different concurrent setups allow sensitivity studies within one model simulation. The definition of one exemplary setup is shown in Fig. 16, which explains the D14CO namelists.

Figure 17 shows the result of an EMAC-D14CO simulation in T42L90MA resolution from 1998 to 2008 (June), nudged towards the ECMWF operational analysis data.

The three ^{14}CO tracers have been analysed (i.e., compared to the ^{14}CO climatology) according to the procedure described by Jöckel et al. (2002), however, the results have been aggregated monthly. Thus, the upper and middle panel of Fig. 17 can be directly compared to Fig. 2 in Jöckel et al. (2002). It is important to note that for the simulation presented here, no re-scaling of the stratospheric contribution is applied. Furthermore, a different source distribution with a weaker vertical gradient has been applied here (Masarik and Beer, 1999 instead of Lingenfelter, 1963) tending to lower ^{14}CO mixing ratios at the surface. Note further that the peak values are smoothed, since the results have been monthly averaged.

EMAC-D14CO, as the models used by Jöckel et al. (2002), shows a distinct asymmetry of wintertime surface ^{14}CO between the Northern (NH) and Southern Hemisphere (SH). The fraction of ^{14}CO originating from the stratosphere at the surface is larger in the NH compared to the SH. Due to its finer vertical resolution, EMAC represents the stratosphere-to-troposphere exchange (amount and phase) much better than the models used by Jöckel et al. (2002). Common to all three models is the still unexplained significant underestimation of near surface ^{14}CO in NH autumn. A further, more detailed analysis including a comparison to more recent observations is clearly required, however, far beyond the scope of this model documentation.

6.3 TREXP: tracer release experiments from point sources

The submodel TREXP was initially implemented to provide a submodel for artificial tracer studies as discussed previously by Jöckel et al. (2003). As all MESSy submodels, it is completely controlled via its namelist, more specifically its CPL namelist (for an example see Fig. 18). TREXP is used to define new tracers (including one degradation reaction) and point sources of tracers. A new tracer and degradation reaction is defined by

- the keyword `TR` followed by an arbitrary, but unique number (between 1 and 50) in parentheses,
- the unique name of the tracer,
- an optional sub-name of the tracer,
- the order of its degradation reaction, which is either 0 for radioactively decaying species or 1 for species reacting with one further educt,
- the decay constant (in 1/s for 0-order decay) or the Arrhenius A-factor (in cm^3/s for first order reactions),
- and, in addition only for first order reactions, the activation temperature (in K) and,
- the *channel* and *channel object* names (see Sect. 2) of the reaction partner (educt).

Note that the reaction partner in first order reactions is not altered by the reaction. Sources for the tracers defined this way by TREXP can be specified – as for any other tracer – via the submodels OFFLEM or TNUDGE. As an alternative TREXP allows also to specify point sources. Such a point source is defined by

- the keyword `POINT` followed by an arbitrary, but unique number (between 1 and 100),

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- the longitude (in ° E),
- the latitude (in ° N),
- the pressure level (in hPa),
- the mass (in kg) to be released,
- 5 – the start date and time (year, month, day, hour, minute, second) of the tracer release,
- the stop date and time (year, month, day, hour, minute, second) of the tracer release,
- the semicolon-separated list of tracers to be released.

10 Note that point sources defined in TREXP can also be used to emit tracers, which are not defined by TREXP, but by other submodels. For this `l_force_emis` needs to be T. The specified mass is continuously released within the time interval determined by the start and stop dates and times.

15 Besides the originally intended application to simulate artificial tracer release experiments, TREXP can also be used to simulate strong point sources, (e.g., volcano eruptions, mega-cities, etc.). An example is shown in Fig. 19.

7 Improvements of the chemistry setup

For the development cycle 2 of MESSy introduced here, we implemented several updates and improvements for simulating the atmospheric gas phase and heterogeneous
20 chemistry. These changes mainly comprise

- plugging in an additional update of the Module Efficiently Calculating the Chemistry of the Atmosphere (MECCA, Sander et al., 2005),

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- plugging in the Multiphase Stratospheric Box Model (MSBM) for consistently calculating the heterogeneous reaction rates on polar stratospheric cloud (PSC) particles and on stratospheric background aerosol,
- an improvement of the submodel LNOX for the calculation of the tropospheric NO_x produced by lightning activity.

Further details of these changes/updates are described in this section.

7.1 MECCA

The Module Efficiently Calculating the Chemistry of the Atmosphere (MECCA, Sander et al., 2005) has been renamed to MECCA1. In addition we plugged in an updated version (now called MECCA), which is also applied in the photochemical box model CAABA (Sander et al., 2010). MECCA (as MECCA1) is used to create (and solve) tailor made chemical mechanisms.

7.1.1 The Kinetic Pre-Processor Post Processor (KP⁴)

An atmospheric chemistry mechanism is mathematically described by a system of coupled ordinary differential equations (ODEs). For the integration in MECCA1 and MECCA we use the Kinetic Pre-Processor (KPP) to generate the Fortran95 code for the specified kinetic system and to combine it with a suited (depending on the stiffness of the corresponding ODE system) numerical solver. Whereas MECCA1 is based on version 1.1 of KPP (Damian et al., 2002), MECCA is based on version 2.2 of KPP (Sandu and Sander, 2006). Note that the syntax of the KPP input files (in particular the equation and the species files) and the generated Fortran95 code are different between both versions.

A major drawback of the KPP generated Fortran95 code is that it is – at least without further modifications – not running with satisfactory run-time performance. This is not an issue for photochemical (0-D) box models (which require a few CPU-seconds on

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a standard PC for a typical integration), but a huge problem for three dimensional models, where the integration of the kinetic systems requires up to 80% or more of the used CPU time. The main reason for the bad run-time performance is a special form of nested loops (e.g., in the subroutine `KppDecomp`), which are used to calculate the LU-decomposition (lower – upper) of the (sparse) Jacobian:

```
DO k=1,NVAR
  ...
  DO kk = LU_CROW(k), LU_DIAG(k)-1
    j = LU_ICOL(kk)
10    a = -W(j) / JVS( LU_DIAG(j) )
    W(j) = -a
    DO jj = LU_DIAG(j)+1, LU_CROW(j+1)-1
      W( LU_ICOL(jj) ) = W( LU_ICOL(jj) ) &
        + a*JVS(jj)
15    END DO
    ...
  END DO
  ...
END DO
```

The operations in the nested loops contain integer arrays for the indirect addressing of arrays, which prevent the compiler from an efficient optimisation (e.g., because no memory pre-fetching is possible). Since the indices are known a-priori and do not change during the integration, but only depend on the chosen kinetic mechanism, the loops can be easily replaced by a sequence of operations without the need of index arrays and indirect addressing:

```
...
a = - W(32) / JVS(93)
W(32) = -a
W(106) = W(106) + a * JVS(94)
20 W(109) = W(109) + a * JVS(95)
...
30
```

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A further problem occurs on vector architectures, because the layout of the KPP generated code is for solving a kinetic system in one single box. This implies that for the application in models with a spatial resolution (usually 2- or 3-D), an outer loop over the spatial positions (e.g., model grid boxes) is required. On vector architectures (and potentially also on scalar architectures depending on the cache structure) it is more favourable, however, to have this loop over the spatial position as innermost loop.

In MECCA1 the loop structures with indirect addressing (first issue above) are replaced by a sequence of operations with the help of a shell-script (containing mainly `sed` commands), which automatically generates a Fortran95 program from the KPP generated code, compiles and runs it, and thereby explicitly executes the loops and writes the alternative Fortran95 code. To address the second issue (vector blocking) in MECCA1, we have to maintain a specific (“vectorised”) SMIL module for MECCA1 and additional scripts to modify the SMCL modules. Unfortunately the scripts are not very robust w.r.t. minor modifications of the KPP input files (in particular the equation file), and the need to maintain two different Fortran95 modules for the same purpose but only for different architectures is error-prone and therefore unsatisfactory.

Consequently, for MECCA (based on KPP 2.2), we use the KPP post processor (KP^4) to modify the KPP generated Fortran95 code (including the modification of the loop structure and optionally the vector blocking) to achieve an improved run-time performance. The core of KP^4 consists of a Fortran95 parser and is implemented in C++. This core is controlled by a shell-script (`kp4.ksh`), which in turn is called from the script (`xmecca`), which guides the user through the complete process of generating a tailor made chemical mechanism.

If selected (required for the SMIL of the 3-D model, optional for the CAABA box model), KP^4 combines all KPP output files (Fortran95) to one Fortran95 module. Within this module, the nested `DO` loops with access to the index arrays are replaced by a sequence of operations (as shown above). If an additional vector blocking is desired (the user needs to specify the vector length), all variables and operations are modified accordingly. The KPP variables, which need to be expanded by one rank for the vector

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blocking are listed in the wrapper script (`kp4.ksh`), additional user specified variables (e.g., the pressure) in the KPP equation file need to be encapsulated in an additional directive of the form (no line break at the \):

```
!KPPPP_DIRECTIVE vector variable \  
  
    definition start  
5   REAL(dp) :: press ! pressure [Pa]  
    ...  
!KPPPP_DIRECTIVE vector variable \  
    definition end
```

The dots indicate further variables. In order to allow both, either scalar code or the internal vector blocking with the same SMIL module, KP^4 in addition automatically generates a “fill-subroutine” (named `fill_var`) for each variable (`var`) subject to vector blocking. By means of these routines, the SMIL simply “fills” the corresponding variables at all spatial positions (i.e., grid boxes) at once (at the beginning of the time step) into corresponding SMCL arrays. The vector loop is thus part of the automatically generated SMCL, and not anymore (as in MECCA1) part of the (not automatically generated) SMIL. If in vector mode a solver with automatic time stepping is applied, a special Fortran95 module (`messy_main_tools_kp4_compress.f90`) of KP^4 takes care of shuffling the grid-boxes along the vector, depending on whether the final stage is reached or further sub-time-steps are required.

The run-time performance improvement, after these measures are applied, depends on the stiffness of the kinetic system, but mainly on the architecture. For a typical setup (EMAC in T42L90MA resolution) comprising tropospheric and stratospheric chemistry (similar as described by Jöckel et al., 2006), we achieved, after the replacement of the nested loops (no vector blocking), a factor of 10 speedup (compared to the original KPP output) on an IBM Power6.

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7.1.2 MECCA_KHET

An important improvement of the chemical setup is the new differentiation of tropospheric from stratospheric heterogeneous reactions on aerosol surfaces. In the previous setup (see Jöckel et al., 2006) the submodels PSC (Buchholz, 2005; Kirner, 2008, Kirner et al., 2010) and HETCHEM were used to calculate the heterogeneous reaction coefficients. In a typical model setup, PSC was used to calculate the polar stratospheric cloud (PSC) properties in a defined PSC region (polar lower stratosphere). HETCHEM then calculated in (every grid box of) the stratosphere the corresponding reaction coefficients (on PSCs) within this PSC region and on a climatological background (sulphate) aerosol outside the PSC region. For the troposphere the reaction coefficients (on aerosol surface) were either calculated on an external tropospheric aerosol surface density climatology, or by coupling a dynamical aerosol model. The resulting reaction coefficients in all regions were combined within HETCHEM and delivered to MECCA1 as pseudo first-order reaction coefficients. Due to the implementation, no distinction between typical stratospheric and tropospheric reaction pathways is possible. In particular, the reaction



is calculated within MECCA1 with the reaction coefficient (from HETCHEM) throughout the atmosphere, i.e., on PSCs, stratospheric sulphate aerosol and on tropospheric aerosol. However, in the troposphere N_2O_5 reacting heterogeneously on aerosol surfaces is converted into aqueous-phase nitrate, whereas in the dry stratosphere, gaseous HNO_3 is produced. Therefore, in MECCA, Reaction (R2) is split into two alternative pathways,



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which take into account that in the troposphere the reaction product is not released as HNO_3 , but mostly remains in the aerosol phase (coarse mode, indicated by cs) in a dissociated state. This approach requires a distinction between stratospheric and tropospheric reaction coefficients, which are zero in the respective other domain.

5 These are provided by the new sub-submodel MECCA_KHET. For the stratosphere, MECCA_KHET is coupled (via its CPL-namelist, see Fig. 20) to a stratospheric aerosol model, e.g., MSBM (see Sect. 7.2), which calculates the $k_{\text{het, strat}}$ and provides in addition a region flag (*channel object* STRAT_region), which is 0 in the stratosphere and 1 in the troposphere.

10 In the troposphere (defined by the STRAT_region flag), MECCA_KHET calculates the $k_{\text{het, trop}}$ either based on an aerosol surface density climatology (aerosurf_clim in the CPL_KHET namelist, see Fig. 20), or based on the information provided by a dynamic tropospheric aerosol submodel (asm(.)), see namelist). As a nice feature, the tropospheric aerosol surface area densities and corresponding reaction coefficients can be calculated (and output via the channel interface, Sect. 2) for several aerosol models running concurrently for diagnostics, but of course only one set of reaction coefficients can be used in the MECCA kinetic calculation. The latter is selected by the namelist switch asm_cpl.

20 The tropospheric heterogeneous reaction rate coefficients are calculated in MECCA_KHET as mass transfer rates (in 1/s)

$$k_{\text{het, trop}} = \frac{1}{4} v \gamma A, \quad (6)$$

where γ is the dimensionless uptake coefficient, A the aerosol surface area density (in m^2/m^3) and v the mean molecular velocity (in m/s) of the Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution

$$25 \quad v = \left(\frac{8R_{\text{gas}}T}{M_m \pi} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}, \quad (7)$$

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where T is temperature (in K), $R_{\text{gas}} = 8.314409 \text{ J/(K mol)}$ and M_m is the molar mass of the reactant (in kg/mol). The area surface density is calculated as

$$A = \sum_{m=1}^M 4\pi r_m^2 n_m \exp\left(2 \frac{(\log_{10}(\sigma_m))^2}{(\log_{10}(e))^2}\right), \quad (8)$$

where the sum is over the M aerosol modes (listed in `asm(.)`), r_m is the ambient radius of aerosol mode m , σ_m is the corresponding radius standard deviation, and n_m the particle number density of aerosol mode m .

7.2 MSBM

The Multiphase Stratospheric Box Model (MSBM) is basically a combination of the PSC submodel (Buchholz, 2005; Kirner, 2008) and the calculation of the stratospheric heterogeneous reaction rate coefficients of HETCHEM (Jöckel et al., 2006, and references therein). Indeed, the code of MSBM is to a large degree identical to the code of PSC. A detailed description of the current status of the polar stratospheric clouds (PSCs) parameterisations is beyond the scope of this overall model documentation and will be published elsewhere (Kirner et al., 2010).

The reasons for combining the submodels PSC and parts of the submodel HETCHEM into MSBM are straightforward: first of all, it is favourable to have only one consistent submodel for the calculation of the heterogeneous reaction rate coefficients on stratospheric aerosol. Indeed, the distinction between “PSC region” and “rest of the stratosphere” must be consistent, if more than one submodel (like PSC and HETCHEM) are involved. This unavoidably leads to a close coupling, which renders the separation rather artificial. Moreover, large parts of the code (SMCL) of PSC and HETCHEM, in particular the functions and subroutines for the calculation of various heterogeneous pseudo-first order reaction coefficients are identical, because the same parameterisation for reactions on stratospheric background (sulphate) aerosol surfaces (HETCHEM) and PSC surfaces are applied. Maintaining different modules with the

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same code, however, is error-prone and the risk is always present that the different parts diverge after updates and/or bug-fixes, for instance that different (inconsistent) parameter settings occur.

A second process, which is implemented in both, PSC and HETCHEM, is the re-partitioning of H₂O into the gas-, liquid- and ice-phase in the stratosphere. Since this re-partitioning affects directly the hydrological cycle, and therefore exerts a feedback on the dynamical part of the ESM (or GCM), it is also desirable to calculate this process consistently throughout the stratosphere.

In short summary, reasonable setups for stratospheric calculations always had to involve the submodels PSC and HETCHEM, now in MSBM we put together what reasonably belongs together. It is important to note, however, that the obsolete submodels PSC and HETCHEM remain available for compatibility with MESSy1. As a result, the user can now select between two different setups for stratospheric chemistry: one involving MECCA1, PSC and HETCHEM and another involving MECCA (with its sub-submodel MECCA_KHET, see Sect. 7.1.2) and MSBM.

7.3 LNOX

An important source of atmospheric nitrous oxide is contributed by lightning activity (Schumann and Huntrieser, 2007). Since single flashes cannot be resolved by global models of the atmosphere, this contribution has to be parameterised. The MESSy submodel LNOX (Jöckel et al., 2006; Tost et al., 2007) provides several parameterisations based on convective mass-flux (Grewe et al., 2001), based on cloud-top-height (Price and Rind, 1992, 1994), based on the updraft strength at a given altitude (Allen and Pickering, 2002), or based on the amount of convective precipitation at the surface (Allen and Pickering, 2002). Each parameterisation can be selected via the Fortran95 namelist of LNOX and further be combined with the C-shape like vertical distribution of the resulting NO_x (Pickering et al., 1998). All parameterisations, except for the one by Grewe et al. (2001), distinguish between flashes over land and flashes over the ocean for the calculation of the flash frequency. In previous versions

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of LNOX, the flash frequency in each model grid box was either calculated for land or for ocean, depending on an integer land-sea mask. This has been changed and now both calculations, for land and ocean, are performed. The resulting flash frequency in each grid box is then determined as the sum of both contributions, weighted with the fractional land-sea mask. The impact on the global flash frequency distribution is shown in Fig. 21 exemplarily for the parameterisation by Price and Rind (1994) as has been applied by Jöckel et al. (2006).

As expected, the largest effect (Fig. 21, lower panel) is a reduction of the flash frequency over Indonesia and Middle America, where (in the applied resolution) most grid-boxes were previously “oceanic”, whereas with the revised LNOX the land fraction (with a reduced flash frequency) is properly taken into account. Since the normalised flash frequency is shown and both simulation results have been normalised with their respective average (in time) integrated (in space) flash frequency, Fig. 21 (lower panel) indicates a relative redistribution of flashes into the continental, lightning-active regions. This is a clear improvement, since we have shown earlier that the flash frequency over Indonesia and Middle America was considerably overestimated by LNOX (Tost et al., 2007).

8 Other changes

In addition to the major extensions described in the previous sections, we here list minor (but yet important) updates in the development cycle 2 of MESSy for the sake of completeness. These updates comprise:

- Complementing the generic submodels described in Sects. 2–4 and the generic submodel TOOLS, which is also part of MESSy1, MESSy2 provides the new generic submodels
- BLATHER providing subroutines for the standardised output to the standard output and standard error units, i.e., to the log-files.

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- RND provides uniformly distributed random numbers between 0 and 1, calculated with either the standard Fortran90 function `RANDOM_NUMBER` or the Mersenne Twister algorithm (Matsumoto and Nishimura, 1998). Based on these, RND can also produce normally-distributed random numbers centered around zero, using the Marsaglia polar method¹².
- GRIDTRAFO providing algorithms for various grid-transformations. The details will be described elsewhere (Poizzer et. al, 2010).
- TRANSFORM providing high-level routines for the transformation and transposition of decomposed fields between the different representations/parallel decompositions.
- MPI containing high level routines and variables as interface to the message passing interface (MPI) library, which is used for the distributed memory parallelisation.
- The directory structure of the distribution has been changed to better reflect the 4 layer structure (subdirectories `smcl`, `smil` and `bmil`, respectively) and to allow different basemodels in the same distribution. As a prototype case, two different versions of ECHAM5 (5.3.01 and 5.3.02) are now included as basemodels. The distribution contains the file `DIRSTRUCT` with further information.
- The basemodel interface layer (BMIL) Fortran95 modules have now the suffix `_bi.f90`.
- The submodel interface layer (SMIL) Fortran95 modules have now the suffix `_si.f90`, if they are used for different basemodels (not only different versions of the same basemodel).
- The configure/gmake process has been revised.

¹²http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Marsaglia_polar_method

- The universal run-script has been revised.
- The automatic restart facility has been revised. It is based on the generic submodel CHANNEL (see Sect. 2). Restart files are enumerated with the restart cycle number and therefore not overwritten, as previously. A new script (`init_restart`) is provided to prepare a model setup starting from restart files.

9 A re-evaluation simulation

With the modifications presented in Sect. 7 and the additional diagnostics, of which some results have been presented in the sections above, we performed a re-evaluation simulation with EMAC (now based on MESSy2) similar to the S2 simulation presented by Jöckel et al. (2006).

9.1 Model configuration and setup

The applied spectral resolution of the ECHAM5 basemodel (version 5.3.02) is again T42, corresponding to a horizontal quadratic Gaussian grid of approximately $2.8^\circ \times 2.8^\circ$ in latitude and longitude. The vertical discretisation comprises 90 layers reaching from the ground into the mesosphere, more precisely up to 0.01 hPa (mid of uppermost layer). This T42L90MA (MA = middle atmosphere) setup is “nudged” (by Newtonian relaxation) towards the operational analysis data of the ECMWF. More specifically, the prognostic variables (logarithm of) surface pressure, vorticity, divergence and temperature are nudged, the latter three only between the 4th model layer above the ground to approximately 200 hPa. The simulation time covers the years 1998 (January) to 2008 (June).

The main differences compared to the S2 simulation of Jöckel et al. (2006) are:

- The submodels MECCA (with sub-submodel MECCA.KHET) and MSBM are used, instead of MECCA1, PSC and HETCHEM (see Sects. 7.1, 7.1.2 and 7.2).

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- The submodel LNOX takes into account the fractional land-sea mask (see Sect. 7.3). Yet, the total emission is rescaled to achieve approximately 5 Tg/year NO emission by lightning.
- The biomass burning emissions of the Global Fire Emission Database (GFED version 2.1, Randerson et al., 2007; Van der Werf et al., 2006) for the years 1998 to 2006 are used (monthly averages); for the years 2007 and 2008 we applied climatological monthly averages of the previous years (because at the time of our simulation the data for these years were not available). Note that in Jöckel et al. (2006) we applied the monthly data of the year 2000 (GFED version 1) repeatedly for all years.
- The submodel AIRSEA (Pozzer et al., 2006) is applied to calculate the emissions of C₅H₈, DMS and CH₃OH from the ocean.
- We take into account the emissions of the bromo-carbons CHCl₂Br, CHClBr₂, CH₂ClBr, CH₂Br₂ and CHBr₃ (as described by Kerkweg et al., 2008b) with the submodel OFFLEM (Kerkweg et al., 2006b), as well as the release of Br from sea-salt (Kerkweg et al., 2008b) with the submodel ONLEM (Kerkweg et al., 2008b). The Br-flux from sea-salt is calculated by scaling the mass flux of sea-salt by the ratio of the bromine to chlorine abundance in sea-salt (1.5×10^{-3}) and by assuming a bromine depletion within the sea salt of 50% (leading to an additional factor 0.5).
- In S2 described by Jöckel et al. (2006) we applied a pre-compiled (monthly climatological) aerosol surface area density in the troposphere for the calculation of heterogeneous reactions on aerosol surface. In the new simulation, the submodel M7 (Vignati et al., 2004; Kerkweg et al., 2008a) is applied to include tropospheric aerosol; and the sub-submodel MECCA_KHET is coupled to M7, i.e., the tropospheric heterogeneous reaction rate coefficients are calculated by MECCA_KHET (and applied in MECCA as pseudo-first order reactions) for the

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aerosol surface density of the M7 aerosol. For the N_2O_5 reaction on aerosol surface (Reaction R4), we used an uptake coefficient (see Eq. 6) of $\gamma = 0.02$ as suggested by Evans and Jacob (2005).

- The chemistry of mercury was implemented using the reaction mechanism by Xie et al. (2008). Global mercury emission fields were taken from the GEOS-Chem model for the year 2004 (Selin et al. (2008) and Bess Sturges Corbitt, personal communication, 2008). Loss by scavenging was accounted for assuming uptake coefficients of $\gamma = 0.001$ for gaseous elemental mercury (GEM) and $\gamma = 0.1$ for reactive gaseous mercury (RGM). Uptake of RGM on aerosols was calculated using an uptake coefficient $\gamma = 0.1$. Due to its high volatility, uptake of GEM onto aerosols was not considered.
- The reaction coefficients in MECCA have been updated to JPL2006 (Sander et al., 2006). The chemical mechanism as applied in MECCA is listed in detail in the electronic supplement.
- We applied a more comprehensive aqueous phase mechanism in the submodel SCAV (Tost et al., 2006), which is listed in detail in the electronic supplement.
- We included the heterogeneous reaction



on tropospheric aerosol (reaction number HET202, see MESSy2.mecca.pdf in the electronic supplement). The reaction rate coefficient is calculated by MECCA_KHET according to Eqs. (6), (7) and (8). According to Sander et al. (2006), the accommodation coefficient for uptake on liquid water is ≥ 0.05 . For our study, we have used $\gamma = 0.1$.

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9.2 Results

Since the overall chemical setup has already been evaluated in detail (Jöckel et al., 2006), the same effort is not repeated here. The electronic supplement (MESSy2_evaluation.pdf in the supplement) contains a series of figures with comparisons of the simulation results (both, from the S1 simulation presented by Jöckel et al. (2006) and the new simulation presented here) with observed vertical profiles (compiled by Emmons et al., 2000, from various field campaigns), and with observed time series of near-surface CO provided by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration Earth System Research Laboratory (NOAA/ESRL; as originally presented by Novelli et al., 1998). Moreover, the supplemental document contains also figures showing the simulated QBO, the total (zonally averaged) ozone column, and a snapshot of total ozone during the antarctic vortex split in September 2002. Additional results on ^{222}Rn and ^{210}Pb have been mentioned already in Sect. 6.1.

Due to the application of transient biomass-burning emissions (GFED 2.1, see above), the inter-annual variability of near-surface CO is – as to be expected – generally larger compared to the S1 simulation. This is shown by the simulated CO anomalies (Fig. 17 of MESSy2_evaluation.pdf in the supplement), which however, as for the S1 simulation, hardly correlate with the observed anomalies.

In general, the comparison of the simulated mixing ratios from this study with the aircraft campaign observations is in agreement to what has been obtained using the model results from simulation S1 and described by Pozzer et al. (2007). More specifically, for the C_2 - C_3 alkanes and alkenes included in the chemical mechanism (ethane, propane, ethene and propene), the largest differences (up to 50%) between the simulated mixing ratios from the new simulation and from simulation S1 occur in the lower troposphere and in the planetary boundary layer (PBL). Differences in the biomass burning emissions are clearly indicated by the differently simulated mixing ratios of these compounds at the west-African coast. However, as shown previously for simulation S1, also here alkenes are largely underestimated, while a good agreement

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saturation effect of HNO_3 being resorbed on the aerosol surface. This is, however, subject of further investigations which go beyond the scope of this discussion. Luckily, the effect of the conversions hardly affects other species, most probably because HNO_3 and $\text{NO}_3^-(\text{cs})$ share the same efficient removal processes, namely mainly scavenging and dry deposition.

10 Summary and outlook

The second development cycle of the Modular Earth Submodel System (MESSy2) expands this modelling system by an improved, basemodel-independent model infrastructure. The new developments comprise (1) a completely new designed memory and meta-data management, data transfer and export interface (including restart facility), which is the generic submodel CHANNEL, (2) the generic submodel TIMER for the overall time control, and (3) the generic submodel QTIMER for the efficient application within job-scheduling systems. The electronic supplement contains detailed documentations of CHANNEL and TIMER. The new infrastructure submodels, mainly CHANNEL and TIMER, are required for a further development towards a comprehensive Earth System Model (ESM). More specifically, our current activities of coupling a dynamical and bio-geochemical ocean model, the on-line nesting of a regional model and the extension of the model domain into the thermosphere by coupling of an upper atmosphere model rely on this infrastructure.

For the regular evaluation of model results in comparison to observations, new diagnostic (data sampling) submodels are provided: (4) VISO for diagnosing vertically layered, 2-D iso-surfaces in 3-D scalar fields in Eulerian representation and for mapping 3-D scalar fields in Eulerian representation onto these surfaces, (5) SCOUT for sampling vertical model columns with higher output frequency at stationary observational sites, (6) S4D for sampling model data along the tracks of moving platforms with the maximum possible frequency (i.e., every model time step), and (7) SORBIT for sampling model data along orbits of sun-synchronously polar orbiting satellites. These diagnostic submodels are fully controllable by the MESSy user

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interface i.e., Fortran95 namelists, which are explained in detail. The submodels are designed with minimum overhead w.r.t. additional computational and memory demands, and – if applied – considerably increase the information contents (less valuable information is lost) of model output without blowing up the file space demands.

5 For all diagnostic submodels introduced here, it is shown in detail that alternative approaches based on the post-processing of standard model output either introduce arbitrarily large interpolation errors, or significantly decrease the statistical sample sizes, if only perfect matches in space and time are considered.

10 In addition to the sampling submodels, also three new diagnostic process submodels exploiting so-called “tracers of opportunity” for the model evaluation are introduced: (8) DRADON for the simulation of ^{222}Rn and (optionally) ^{210}Pb , (9) D14CO for the simulation of cosmogenic ^{14}CO , and (10) TREXP for simulating point-sources of virtual and real species and for simulating simple zero order (i.e., decay) and first order reactions. Like the data sampling submodels, these submodels are also controllable
15 by Fortran95 namelists, which are documented here. DRADON is evaluated for both, ^{222}Rn and ^{210}Pb , with available observations, D14CO with a previously published climatology, which is also based on observations. The simulation results are in good agreement with the observations.

20 Furthermore, the chemistry setup has been improved: (11) A new version of MECCA is implemented in addition to the previous version, which is now called MECCA1. For the efficient application of MECCA in 3-D models, we apply the kinetic pre-processor (KPP) post processor (KP⁴) for automatic code optimisation on vector and scalar architectures. MECCA comprises the sub-submodel (12) MECCA.KHET for the calculation of heterogeneous reaction rate coefficients on tropospheric aerosol and for combining them with corresponding stratospheric heterogeneous rate coefficients.
25 The latter are now provided by (13) the new submodel MSBM, which is a combination of the PSC submodel and the HETCHEM submodel, thus constituting a multi-phase stratospheric box model. It is important to note that, according to the MESSy philosophy, both setups, i.e., either MECCA1 – PSC – HETCHEM, or MECCA –

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MECCA_KHET – MSBM are available in the same model environment. The (14) submodel LNOX for the calculation of lightning NO production now takes into account the fractional land-sea mask for those parameterisations, which distinguish flashes over land from those over sea.

5 MESSy2 (as MESSy1) with the improved chemistry setup, i.e., using MECCA – MECCA_KHET – MSBM and other modifications/extensions (e.g., improved emissions, a more complex aqueous phase mechanism, a mercury mechanism included, tropospheric heterogeneous chemistry on prognostic M7-aerosol surfaces) has been successfully coupled to the Atmospheric General Circulation Model (GCM) ECHAM5,
10 together constituting the ECHAM/MESSy Atmospheric Chemistry (EMAC) model. The new version is evaluated in comparison to previous results and in comparison to observations. Overall, the results are satisfactory and confirm the very high standard of the model system.

Supplementary material related to this article is available online at:

15 **[http://www.geosci-model-dev-discuss.net/3/1423/2010/
gmdd-3-1423-2010-supplement.zip](http://www.geosci-model-dev-discuss.net/3/1423/2010/gmdd-3-1423-2010-supplement.zip)**

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```

&CTRL
QTIME  = 24,0,0, ! QUEUE TIME LIMIT (hh,mi,se) (NOTE: 0,0,0 TO SWITCH OFF)
QCLOCK = 'wall', ! QUEUE CLOCK TYPE ('wall','cpu','user','sys ')
QFRAC  = 0.95   ! USABLE FRACTION OF QUEUE TIME LIMIT
/
&CPL
QMETHOD = 'max' ! METHOD FOR PARALLEL PROCESSING ('max', 'ave', 'sum')
L_DIAG  = F     ! DIAGNOSTIC OUTPUT TO LOG-FILE ?
/
  
```

Fig. 1. The CTRL and CPL namelists of QTIMER in `qtimer.nml`. QTIME denotes the maximum available scheduler time specified as hours, minutes, seconds. If all three are zero, QTIMER is switched off. QCLOCK denotes the time to be measured for the restart trigger, which is either the wall-clock time ('wall'), the CPU time ('cpu'), the user time ('user'), or the system time ('sys'). QFRAC is the fraction of QTIME to be actually consumed by the executable. The rest is left to the finalising phase of the model and to outside tasks, such as for instance cleaning up within the wrapper script which called the executable, etc. In parallel environments, the time on each CPU is measured separately, however, the restart needs to be triggered for all parallel processes simultaneously. Depending on the accounting policy of the computing centre, the times are averaged ('ave') or summed ('sum') over all CPUs, or the maximum ('max') over all CPUs is used (specified by QMETHOD). The L_DIAG switch is to turn on (T) diagnostic summary output in every time step to standard output. The default is to avoid this output (F).

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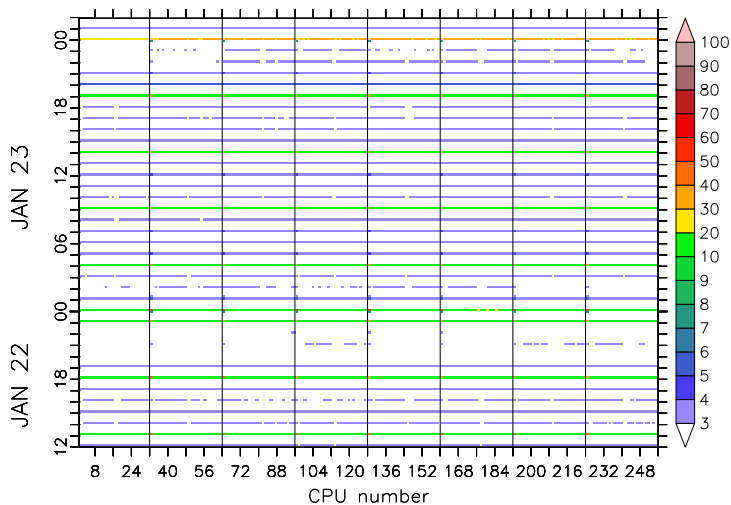


Fig. 2. Example of QTIMER output: the figure shows the CPU time (in seconds) of a T42L90MA EMAC simulation with a comprehensive chemistry setup and additional diagnostic netCDF output on an IBM Power6 using 8 nodes à 32 CPUs (the node boundaries are indicated by the vertical black lines). The netCDF output in this case is serial, i.e., the data is gathered and output to files by the first CPU, only. The vertical axis shows the simulation time from 22 January (12:00 UTC) to 24 January (02:00 UTC) of an arbitrary year. The time step of the model simulation is 12 min. Model time steps without output require less than 3 s (white), whereas the serial netCDF output increases the CPU time considerably: In the example, the output of the vertical column of various data fields at 86 locations (with the submodel SCOUT, see Sect. 5.2) every hour increases the CPU time to up to 4 s (light blue). The full, 3-D (standard) output every 5 h requires up to 20 s (green), also the additional output along 12 different polar satellite orbits (with submodel SORBIT, see Sect. 5.4) every 24 h at 00:00 UTC. If the 5 hourly 3-D output and the SORBIT output coincide (e.g., on 24 January, 00:00 UTC in the example) the required CPU times add up to a total of 30 to 40 s (orange). The first CPU on each node requires a factor of 2 to 3.5 increased CPU time for the serial netCDF output, since all the communication between the (shared memory) nodes is executed here. All numbers strongly depend on the amount of output data.

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```

&CPL
#####
!# A. DEFINITION OF ISO-SURFACES
#####
!# NOTES:
!# - channel objects <name>_i, and <name>_f are added for
!# 'index' and 'fraction below'
!# SYNTAX:
!# ISO-SURFACE name, channel, object, iso-value, index + fraction ?,
!# reverse search ?, skip levels from top, skip levels from sfc
!# ISENTROPES (THETA=CONST.)
ISO(1) = 'isent340', 'PHYS', 'tpot', 340.0, T, T, , ,
ISO(2) = 'isent380', 'PHYS', 'tpot', 380.0, T, T, , ,
ISO(3) = 'isent420', 'PHYS', 'tpot', 420.0, T, T, , ,
!# CONST. POTENTIAL VORTICITY
ISO(4) = 'PV2', 'tropop', 'PV', 2.0, T, T, 1, 4,
ISO(5) = 'PV3.5', 'tropop', 'PV', 3.5, T, F, 1, 3,
!#
#####
!# B. FIELDS MAPPED TO (ISO-)SURFACES
#####
!# NOTES:
!# - '_i' and '_f' are internally appended to SURFACE(object) name
!# for 'index' and 'fraction below'; availability of '_f' determines
!# the mapping method
!# SYNTAX:
!# MAP name, ISO-SURFACE(channel), ISO-SURFACE(object),
!# FIELD(channel), FIELD(object)
!#
!# PRESSURE ON ISENTROPES
MAP(1) = 'pth340', 'viso', 'isent340', 'PHYS', 'press',
MAP(2) = 'pth380', 'viso', 'isent380', 'PHYS', 'press',
MAP(3) = 'pth420', 'viso', 'isent420', 'PHYS', 'press',
!#
!# PRESSURE AND TEMPERATURE AT TROPOPAUSE
MAP(10) = 'ptp', 'tropop', 'tp', 'PHYS', 'press',
MAP(11) = 'ttp', 'tropop', 'tp', 'PHYS', 'tml',
!#
/

```

Fig. 3. Example CPL namelist of VISO in viso.nml.

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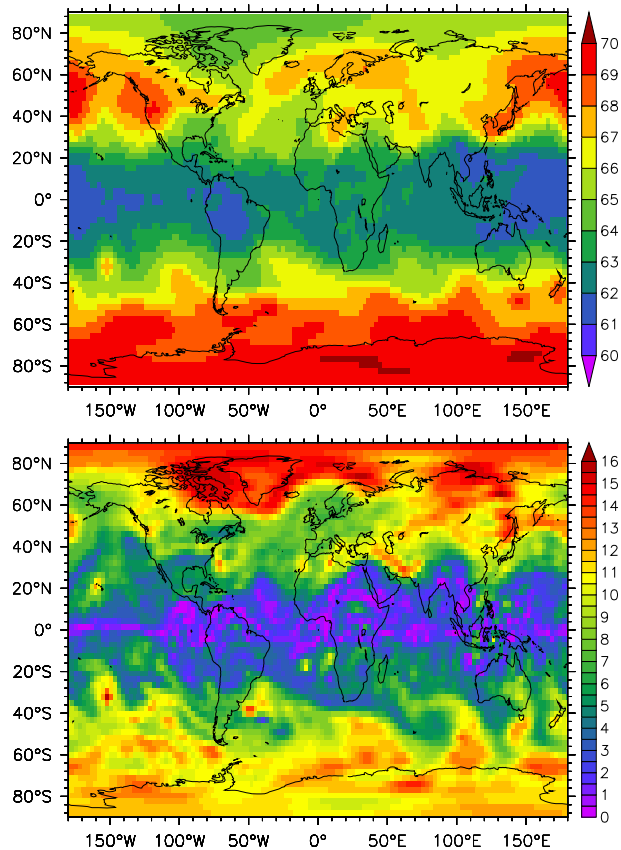


Fig. 4. Example of VISO output: the upper panel shows the level index (counted from the top of the atmosphere to the surface) of the 380 K isentrope from a T42L90MA EMAC simulation on 1 January 2005 at 02:00 UTC. The lower panel shows the potential vorticity (absolute value) on the 380 K isentrope at the same time.

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```

&CPL
!# NAME, LATITUDE, LONGITUDE, LIST OF CHANNEL OBJECTS
!# NOTES:
!#   - NAME <= 5 CHARACTERS
!#   - SYNTAX FOR CHANNEL OBJECT LIST:
!#       "channel:object,object,object;channel:object;"
!#       (in object-names wildcards (*,?) can be used)
LOC(1) = 'MAINZ', 49.98, 8.23, "tracer_gp:Rn,CO,H2O;tropop:tp*,PV;",
/

```

Fig. 5. Example CPL namelist of SCOUT in `scout.nml`: up to 500 locations of observatories can be defined with the keyword `LOC` and an arbitrary, but unique number (between 1 and 500). The definition consists of an up to 5 character long, unique name (`MAINZ`), followed by the latitude (`49.98`) in degrees north, the longitude (`8.23`) in degrees west (between -180 and 360), and a string with the list of *channel objects* in Eulerian (grid-point) representation to be sampled. This list comprises semicolon-separated blocks, one for each *channel* starting with the name of the *channel* and followed by colon and a comma-separated list of *channel objects*. If a channel object name contains wildcards (`*`,`?`), all channel objects with matching names are selected. In the example, the objects `Rn`, `CO` and `H2O` from the channel `tracer_gp` are sampled, and the objects `PV` and those starting with `tp` from the `tropop` channel.

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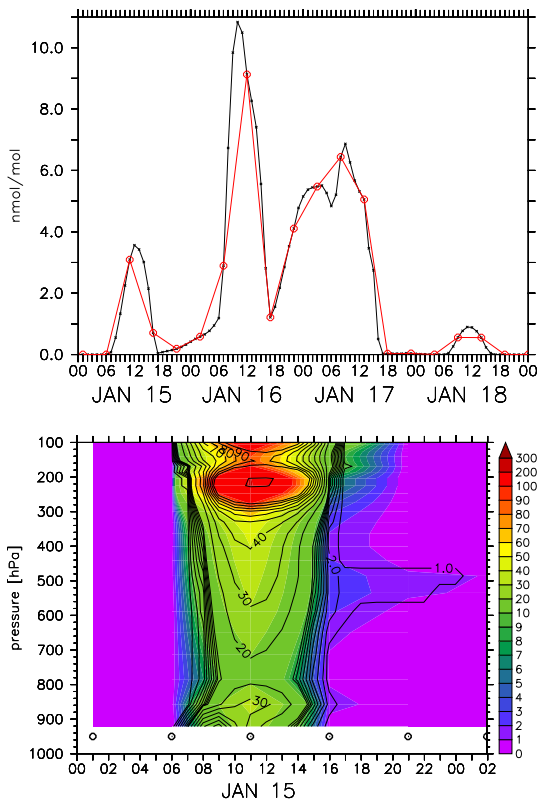


Fig. 6. Example of SCOUT output: the upper panel shows the simulated near surface NO mixing ratio (in nmol/mol) at 49.98° N and 8.23° E for 4 arbitrary days. The red line and symbols depict the off-line interpolated data based on the 5 hourly, 3-D output; the black line and symbols show the hourly sampled output with SCOUT. The latter shows – as to be expected – more details, the maximum on 16 January is for instance clearly underestimated by the off-line post-processing method. The lower panel shows the OH mixing ratio (in 10^{-15} mol/mol) versus pressure altitude at the same location for the first day. The colour shaded area is for the time series sampled hourly with SCOUT, the contour lines (with the same levels) are based on the 5 hourly 3-D output. The black symbols (at 950 hPa) denote the interpolation points of the 5-hourly output.

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```

&CPL
!# SYNTAX: NAME, TRACK-DATA FILE BASE, UPDATE-SWITCH, COLUMN OUTPUT ?,
!#         OUTPUT ALL MODEL TIME STEPS ALONG TRACK, FILL VALUE,
!#         LIST OF CHANNEL OBJECTS
!#
!# NOTES:
!# - NAME <= 8 CHARACTERS
!# - UPDATE SWITCH: -1: NEVER (SWITCHED OFF)
!#                   0: DAILY
!#                   1: MONTHLY
!# - TRACK-DATA FILE NAMES
!#       <path>/<prefix><YYYY><MM><DD>.pos   (daily)   -> 0 !
!#       <path>/<prefix><YYYY><MM>.pos      (monthly) -> 1 !
!# - SYNTAX FOR CHANNEL OBJECT LIST:
!#       "channel:object,object,object;channel:object;"
!#       (in object-names wildcards (*,?) can be used)
!#
!# - THE TRACK-DATA FILES MUST CONTAIN:
!#       year month day hour minute second longitude latitude pressure [hPa]
!#
TRACK(1) = 'TEST_D', '$INPUTDIR_MESSY/s4d/misc/test_', 0, T, T, -1.E+34,
          "tracer_gp:Rn,14CO,H2O;tropop:tp,PV;PHYS:press;g3b:aps;",
TRACK(2) = 'TEST_M', '$INPUTDIR_MESSY/s4d/misc/test_', 1, F, T, -1.E+34,
          "tracer_gp:Rn,14CO,H2O;tropop:tp*;PHYS:pressi,press;g3b:aps;",
/

```

Fig. 7. Example namelist of the submodel S4D: For TRACK (1) S4D looks at every first model time step of a new day (0) for the presence of a file named `test.YYYYMMDD.pos`, in the path `$INPUTDIR_MESSY/s4d/misc`, where YYYY, MM and DD are replaced by the current model year, time and day, respectively. For TRACK (2), the position files are split into monthly files (1), and S4D searches likewise for the position file `test.YYYYMM.pos` at the first time step every new month in the same path. If the respective files are not present, a warning is output and no data is sampled. S4D creates the new *channels* S4D_TEST_D (TRACK (1)) and S4D_TEST_M (TRACK (2)), respectively. Along TRACK (1) the complete model column is sampled every model time step (T,T), whereas along TRACK (2) the requested 3-D channel objects are vertically interpolated to the actual pressure altitude position in each model time step (F,T). Since every model time step is sampled on both tracks, the missing value (-1.E+34) is meaningless in the given examples. Along TRACK (2) all objects which name starts with `tp` from channel `tropop` are sampled (`tropop:tp*`), whereas along TRACK (1) only the object `PV` of channel `tropop` is sampled. The latter results in the channel object `tropop_PV` in channel S4D_TEST_D.

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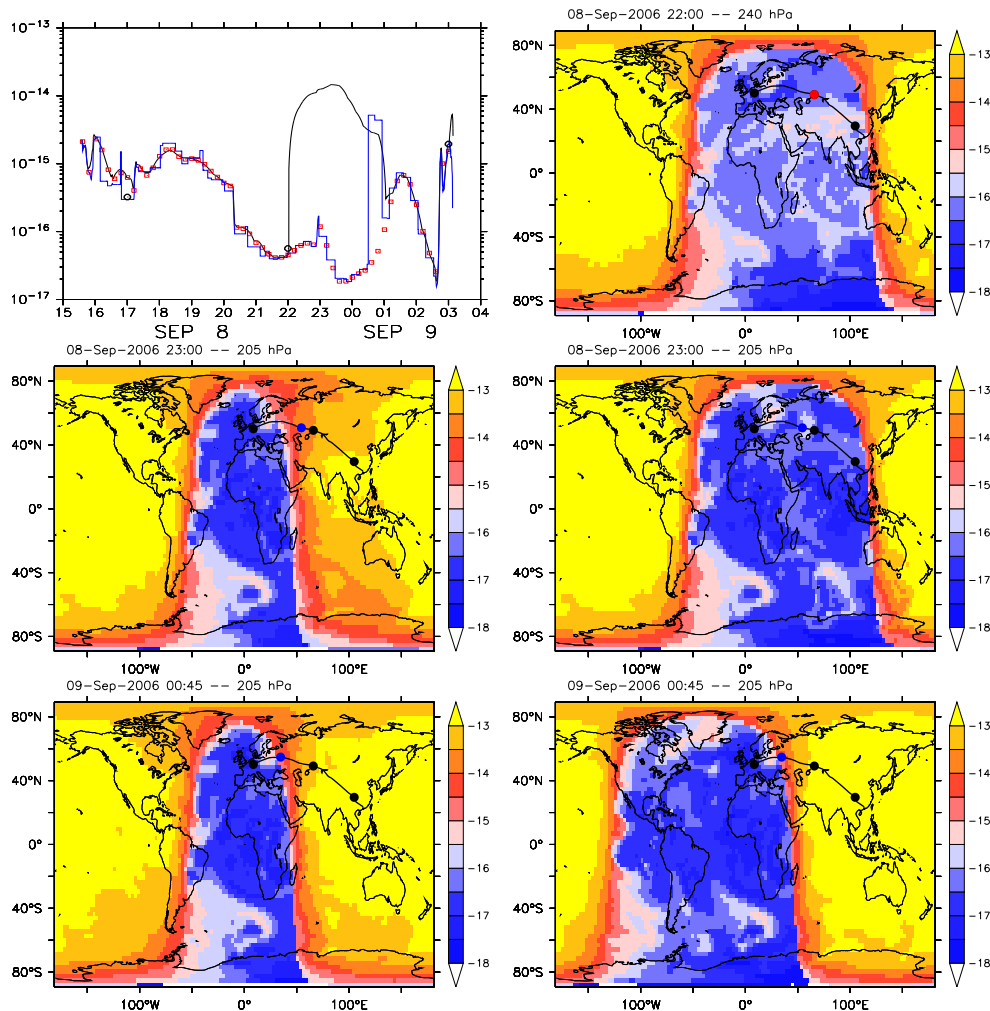


Fig. 8. Continues on the next page.

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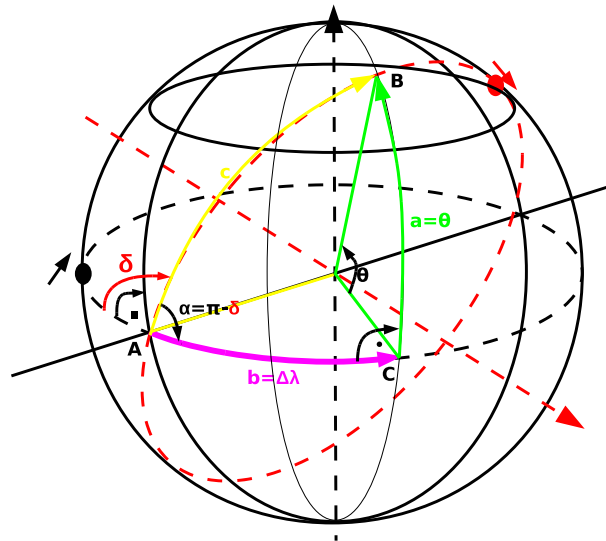


Fig. 9. Orbit geometry of a sun-synchronously orbiting satellite: the black and the red dot indicate arbitrary positions of an equator-following and a sun-synchronous orbiter, respectively. The corresponding arrows indicate the flight direction. The orbital plane of the sun-synchronous orbiter (dashed red ellipse) is rotated from the equatorial plane (dashed black line) by the inclination δ . The points A, B and C form a rectangular spherical triangle with $a = \theta$ being the latitudinal distance (green), $b = \Delta\lambda$ the longitudinal distance (pink) and c the orbital distance (yellow) of an arbitrary satellite position from the equatorial intersection (A).


```

&CPL
! T: automatic daily output (highly recommended)
! F: output according to CPL in channel.nml (for testing)
lout_auto = T,
! value for re-initialisation at first time step of every day
r_init    = -1.0E+34,
!
!# SYNTAX: - NAME,
!#          - LATITUDE DEPENDENT LOCAL TIME (T,F), ORBIT INCLINATION (deg),
!#            ASCENDING(+1) (T) OR DESCENDING(-1) (F)
!#          - LOCAL TIME HOUR, LOCAL TIME (MINUTE) [EQUATOR CROSSING TIME],
!#            LIMIT DT TO LOCAL TIME DISTANCE ? (T,F)
!#          - LIST OF CHANNEL OBJECTS
!#
!# NOTES:
!#   - NAME <= 8 CHARACTERS
!#   - SYNTAX FOR CHANNEL OBJECT LIST:
!#     "channel:object,object,object;channel:object;"
!#     (in object-names wildcards (*,?) can be used)
!#
ORB(1) = 'ENVI-AN',  T, 98.5451, T, 22,00, F, 'g3b:aps,albedo;PHYS:geopot,qml,tml;tracer_gp:*',
ORB(2) = 'ENVI-DN',  T, 98.5451, F, 10,00, F, 'g3b:aps,albedo;PHYS:geopot,qml,tml;tracer_gp:*',
/

```

Fig. 10. Example namelist of the submodel SORBIT: the SORBIT *channels* (sorbit_ENVI-AN and sorbit_ENVI-DN) are output every 24 h simulation time (i.e., when the sampled fields are full), since `lout_auto = T`. After the output the SORBIT *channel objects* are re-initialised with `r_init = -1.0E+34`. Two sun synchronous orbits are defined, both with latitude dependent local time calculation (T): 'ENVI-AN' for the ascending part (T) of ENVISAT with an equator crossing local time of 22:00 and 'ENVI-DN' for the descending part (F) of ENVISAT with an equator crossing local time of 10:00. The orbit inclination in both cases is 98.5451°, the *channel objects* `aps` and `albedo` from *channel* `g3b`, the *channel objects* `geopot`, `qml`, `tml` from *channel* `PHYS`, and all chemical species from *channel* `tracer_gp` are sampled at the orbit local times, i.e., if the corresponding grid-box local time is within $T_O \pm \Delta t/2$ (F), where T_O is the orbit local time and Δt the model time step.

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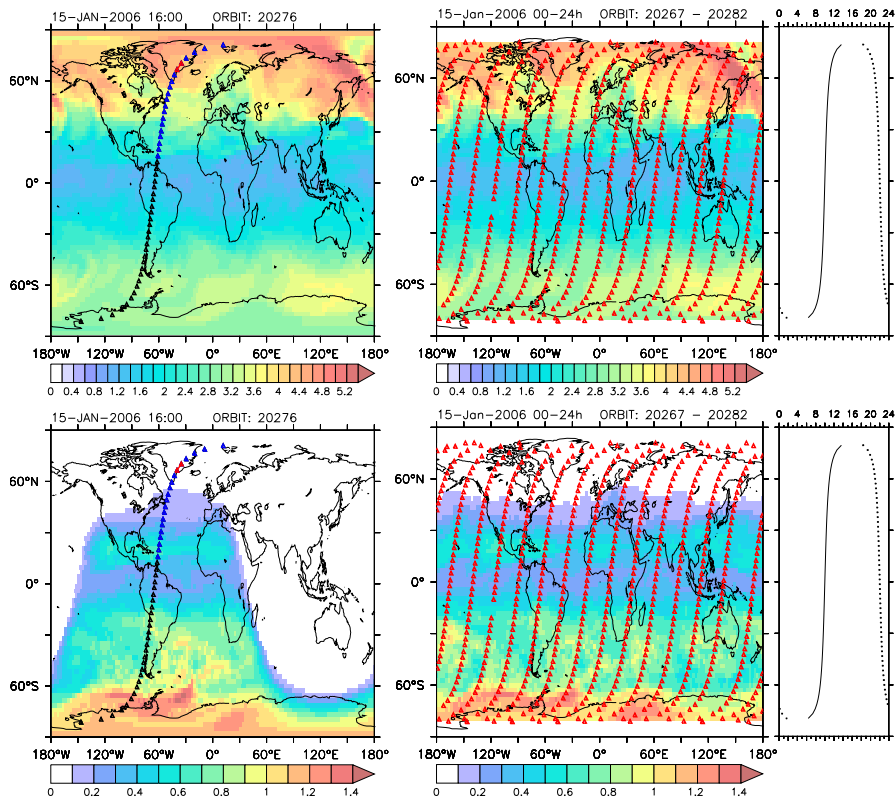


Fig. 11. Snapshot model output (left) for 15 January 2006, 16:00 UTC compared to SORBIT output for the same day (mid). The upper row shows O_3 (in $\mu\text{mol}/\text{mol}$) and the lower row NO (in nmol/mol), both at 50 hPa. The triangles denote the footprints of the descending parts of the ENVISAT orbits (orbit numbers are indicated at the top of the panels). The right panels show the corresponding latitude dependent local time (hour of day) of the descending (line) and ascending (symbols) parts of the orbits. Red symbols denote those orbit positions which correspond directly to the time of the underlying model output, blue symbols indicate positions which are at maximum $\pm\Delta t$ away from the given model output time (Δt is the model time step length), and black symbols show orbit positions outside this time interval. The example shows results from a T42L90MA simulation with a time step $\Delta t = 12$ min. The SORBIT output (mid) is – per construction – for the correct local time of all orbit positions, thus the output matches all orbit positions within one model time step.

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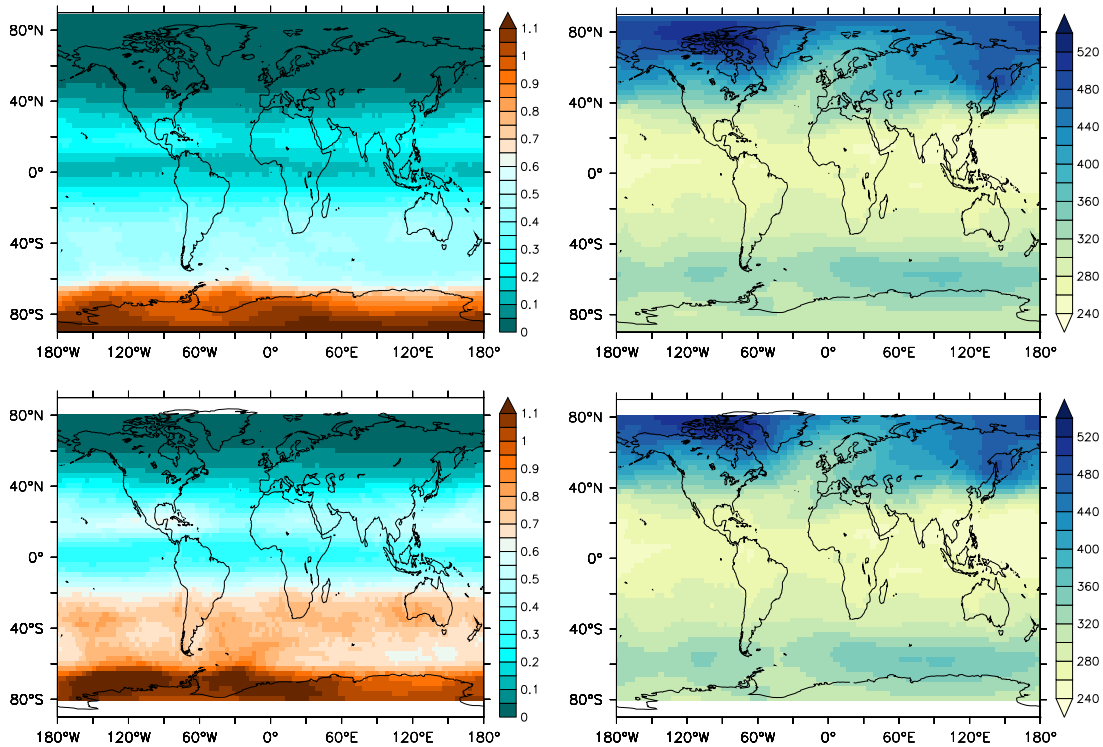


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```

&CTRL
I_Rn_flux_method = 1 ! 0 = const; 1 = offline
! ### only for I_Rn_flux_method = 0:
R_Rn_cflux_land = 10000.0 ! atoms m(-2) s(-1)
R_Rn_cflux_ocean = 0.0 ! atoms m(-2) s(-1)
/

&CPL
I_GP_emis_method = 2 ! emission method for GP (1,2)
L_GP_chain = T ! 222Rn -> ... -> 210Pb
! ### only for L_GP_chain = T:
C_GP_210Pb_aermod = 'ptrac',
I_GP_210Pb_mode = 4,
/

! ### only for I_Rn_flux_method = 1:
&RGTEVENTS
RG_TRIG(1) = 1, 'months', 'first', 0, 'Rn_flux', 1, 1, 12, $START_MONTH, 'Rn_flux',
/

&REGRID
!outfile = "ncrg_${HRES}_Rn_flux_lx1_schery1998.nc",
infile = "$INPUTDIR_MESSY/dradon/Rn_flux_lx1_schery1998.nc",
i_latm = "LAT",
i_latr = -90.0, 90.0,
i_lonm = "LON",
i_lonr = -180., 180.,
i_timem = "MONTH_REG",
! convert mBq m(-2) s(-1) to atoms m(-2) s(-1)
var = "Rn_flux=RN_FLUX:INT,0.0473665E+04"
/

```

Fig. 13. Example namelist file of the submodel DRADON: in the CTRL namelist, the choice is made, whether the ²²²Rn source is constant ($I_{Rn_flux_method} = 0$) with values (in atoms/(m²s)) of $R_{Rn_cflux_land}$ over (snow free) land and $R_{Rn_cflux_ocean}$ over the oceans, respectively, or whether the ²²²Rn source is provided off-line ($I_{Rn_flux_method} = 1$). Switched in the CPL namelist, the ²²²Rn emission is either applied as tracer tendency to the lowest model grid box ($I_{GP_emis_method} = 1$), or as lower boundary condition of the vertical diffusive flux ($I_{GP_emis_method} = 2$), i.e., in the same way as tracer surface emissions are handled in the submodel OFFLEM (see Kerkweg et al., 2006b). In case not only the ²²²Rn decay ($L_{GP_chain} = F$) is calculated, but the whole decay chain up to ²¹⁰Pb ($L_{GP_chain} = T$), $C_{GP_210Pb_aermod}$ and $I_{GP_210Pb_mode}$ specify the aerosol model and the corresponding mode for the ²¹⁰Pb tracer, respectively. The corresponding aerosol mean radius and aerosol radius standard deviation are retrieved from the selected aerosol submodel. In the example setup above, the submodel PTRAC (Jöckel et al., 2008) is used as simple aerosol model. The namelists RGTEVENTS and REGRID are used to import a time varying, prescribed (off-line) global ²²²Rn source distribution via the MESSy NCREGRID interface (see Jöckel, 2006), in case $I_{Rn_flux_method} = 1$.

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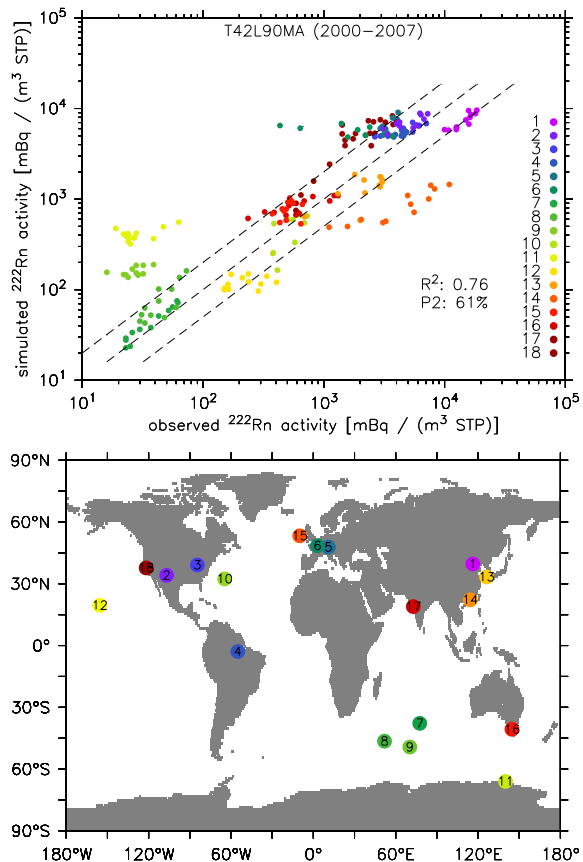



Fig. 14. Observed versus simulated monthly average ^{222}Rn activity in $\text{mBq}/(\text{m}^3 \text{STP})$ at ground level (upper panel). The model results are climatological monthly averages of the years 2000–2007 from an EMAC-DRADON simulation in T42L90MA resolution. The figure corresponds to Fig. 9 (upper left panel) by Zhang et al. (2008, for observations see references therein), i.e., the dashed lines indicate the range within a factor of 2 of the measurements, P2 is the percentage of samples within this range, and R^2 is the correlation coefficient between the simulated and observed data. The colors and numbers indicate the positions on the globe (lower panel).

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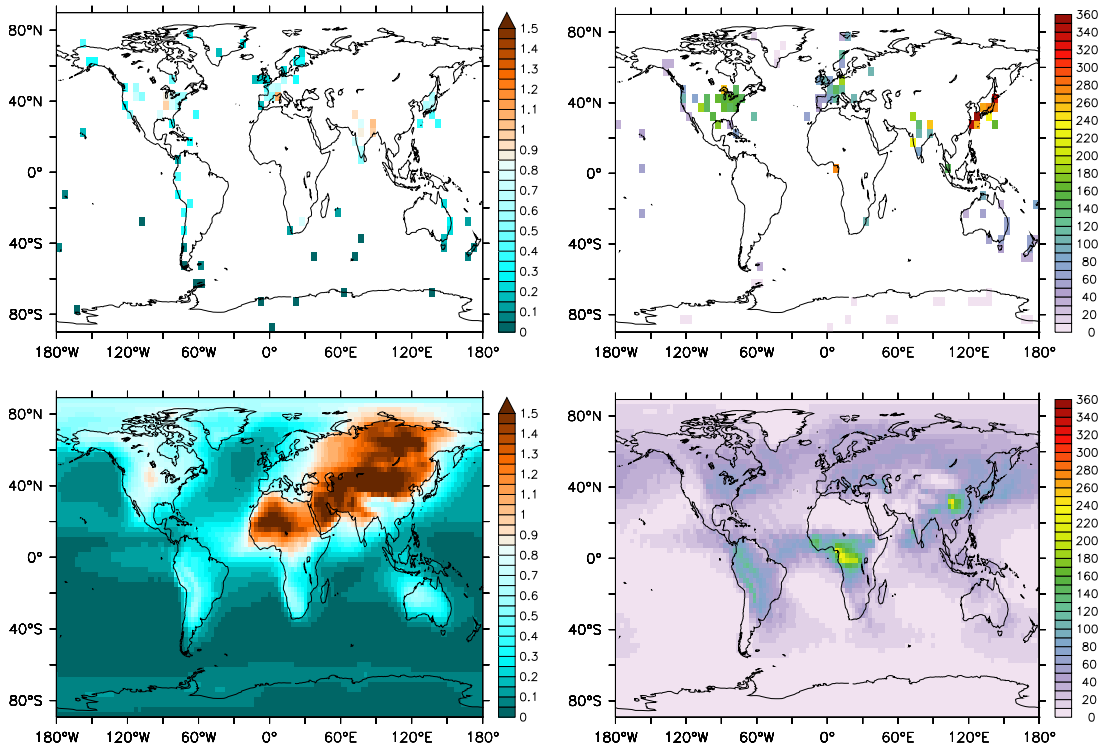


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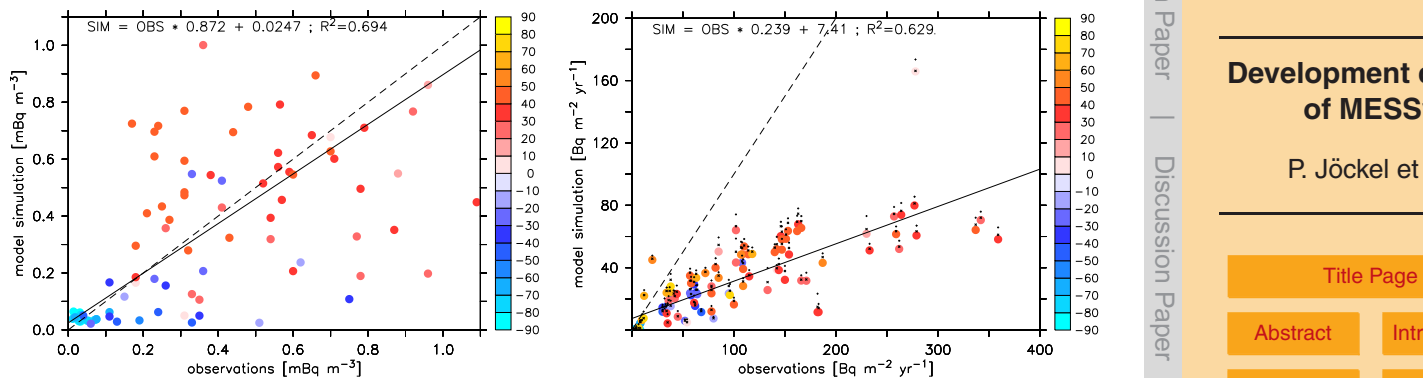


Fig. 15. ^{210}Pb activity ($\text{mBq}/(\text{m}^3 \text{STP})$, left) and ^{210}Pb deposition flux ($\text{Bq}/(\text{m}^2 \text{yr})$, right): the upper row shows the climatology compiled by Preiss and Genthon (1997), the middle row the averaged (2000–2007) results of an EMAC-DRADON simulation in T42L90MA resolution with a constant ^{222}Rn emission of $1 \text{ atom}/(\text{cm}^2 \text{ s})$ over ice-free land. The lower row shows the respective correlations of the model results (SIM) with the observed climatologies (OBS), color coded by latitude. For the regression analysis, the model results have been transformed to the $5^\circ \times 5^\circ$ grid of the observed climatology. The black lines indicate the results of the linear regression analysis, the dashed line the line of perfect correspondence. R^2 is Pearson's correlation coefficient. Colored symbols in the lower right panel indicate the simulated wet deposition fluxes of ^{210}Pb , the tiny symbols indicate the corresponding accumulated fluxes of wet and dry deposition, and the total flux including also deposition through sedimentation, respectively.

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&CPL
!-----
!# SWITCHES: - 1: INTEGRATION ON (T) / OFF (F)
!#           - 2: TENDENCY ADJUSTMENT ON (T) / OFF (F)
S_SWITCH(1) = T, T,
!-----
!### SOURCE DISTRIBUTION:
!# - channel, object
!# - '+', event name (must begin with 'CS' to identify source)
S_14CO(1) = '+','CS_MA_N',
!-----
!### TROPOPAUSE FOR STE (14COs + 14COt)
!#           | diagnosed | climatological | const. press. |
!# switch:| 1 | 2 | 3 |
S_TP_STE(1) = 1, 'tropop', 'tp', 30000., 21500., 10000.,
!-----
!### TROPOPAUSE FOR OH (OHs + OHt)
!#           | diagnosed | climatological | const. press. |
!# switch:| 1 | 2 | 3 |
S_TP_OH(1) = 2, 'tropop', 'tp', 30000., 21500., 10000.,
!-----
!### STRATOSPHERIC OH
!# - channel, object
!# - '+', event name (must begin with 'OH' to identify OH)
S_OHs(1) = 'tracer_gp', 'OH',
!-----
!### TROPSPHERIC OH
!# - channel, object
!# - '+', event name (must begin with 'OH' to identify OH)
S_OHt(1) = 'tracer_gp', 'OH',
!-----
/

&RGTEVENTS
RG_TRIG(1) = 1, 'years', 'first', 0, 'CS_MA_N', 13, 0, 13, 13,
              'VAR=P14CO_MA_N;UNIT=molec/(g s);ZSCALE=1.0',
/

&REGRID
infile = "$INPUTDIR_MESSY/d14co/nP_14C.nc",
i_latm = "LAT",
i_latr = -90.0,90.0,
i_lonm = "LON",
i_tmem = "PHI",
i_hyam = "PRESS",
i_p0 = "100.0",
var = "P14CO_MA_N=NP14C_MA",
/

```

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Fig. 16. Example namelist file of the submodel D14CO: The example shows a definition of one setup. Three tracers, CO_14C_01, CO_14Cs_01, and CO_14Ct_01 will be defined by the submodel for the total ^{14}C O, the ^{14}C O produced in the stratosphere and for the ^{14}C O produced in the troposphere, respectively. The tropopause to distinguish between the production domains is set by `S_TP_STE(1)`, here the diagnosed tropopause (*channel object* 'tp' from *channel* 'tropop' is used. The alternatives are a climatological tropopause (e.g., at $300-200 \times \cos^2(\text{latitude})$ hPa) or a constant pressure level (e.g., at 100 hPa). For the OH distribution, the corresponding tracer (*channel object* 'OH' from *channel* 'tracer_gp') is used for both, the troposphere (`S_OHt(1)`) and the stratosphere (`S_OHs(1)`). Alternatively, off-line provided OH fields can be chosen (in the same way as the source below), separately for stratosphere and troposphere, combined at the tropopause selected with `S_TP_OH(1)` (similar as `S_TP_STE(1)`). The 3-D source distribution is set with `S_14CO(1)`, here the '+' indicates that the event (see TIMER, Sect. 3) with name 'CS_MA_N' must be evaluated. The corresponding event `RG_TRIG(1)` triggers the import of the variable 'P14CO_MA_N' in units of molec/(g s) via NCREGRID (Jöckel, 2006) using the corresponding REGRID-namelist. The vertical axis of this field requires no scaling (`ZSCALE = 1.0`), because it is already in pressure units. The first switch in `S_SWITCH(1)` can be used to deactivate this specific setup (set to `F`), the second switch, if `T`, forces a re-adjustment (linearisation) of the tracer tendencies in every model time step, such that always `CO_14C_01 = CO_14Cs_01 + CO_14Ct_01`. Up to 10 setups can be defined in this way, independent of each other. This allows sensitivity studies w.r.t. the source distribution, the OH distribution etc. in only one model simulation.

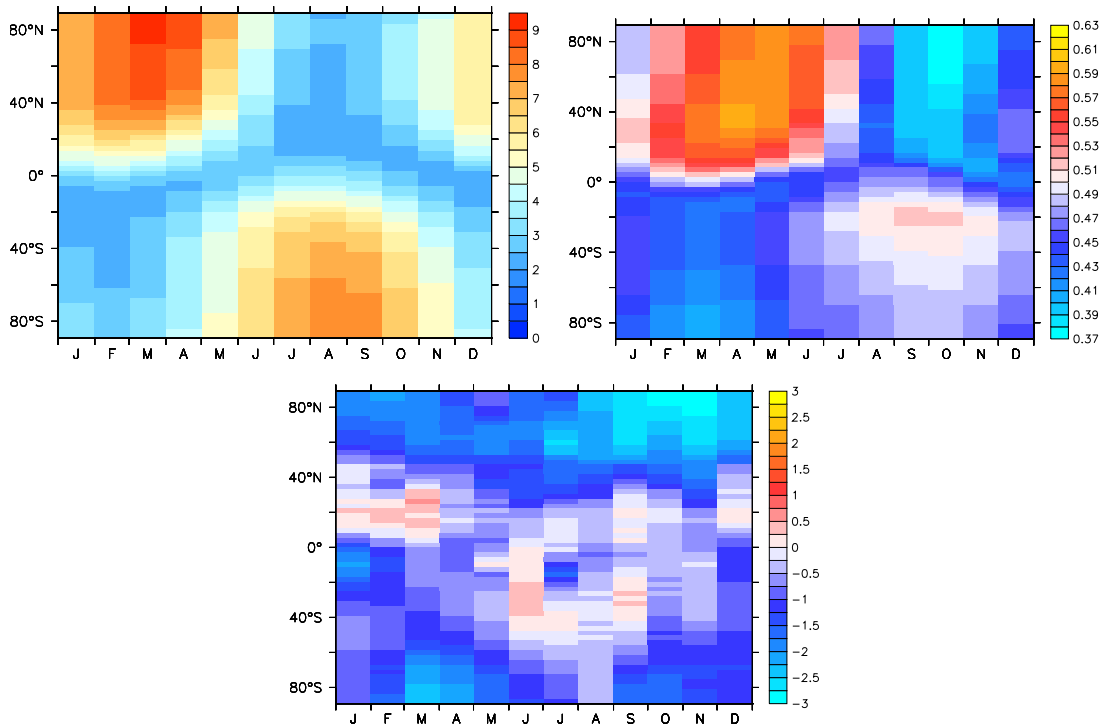


Fig. 17. Simulated multi-annual (1998–June 2008) monthly average near-surface cosmogenic ^{14}CO mixing ratio (in $\text{molec}/(\text{cm}^3 \text{ STP})$, upper panel) and corresponding stratospheric fraction (middle panel). The lower panel shows the deviation (model – climatology) from the climatology based on observations compiled by Jöckel and Brenninkmeijer (2002). For the simulation the cosmogenic ^{14}C source distribution from Masarik and Beer (1999) was applied, normalised to a global average production rate of $1 \text{ molec}/(\text{cm}^2 \text{ s})$. The climatology based on observations has been normalised to the same global average production rate by dividing it by the 1955–1988 (i.e., three solar cycles) average production rate of $1.91 \text{ molec}/(\text{cm}^2 \text{ s})$. This number is based on the relationship between the global average ^{14}CO production rate and heliospheric potential (Masarik and Beer, 1999) and the reconstruction of the heliospheric potential (Usoskin et al., 2005).

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&CPL
! ALLOW POINT EMISSIONS ALSO FOR NON-TREXP-TRACERS ?
l_force_emis = T,
!
! ### LIST OF TRACERS
! ### O : ORDER OF REACTION
!      = 0: dx/dt = -ka * x + p ,      [ka] = 1/s , Ta = 0
!      = 1: dx/dt = -ka * x * [Y] + p , [ka] = cm3/s
!      (p: production, x: mixing ratio, Y: reaction partner
! ### ka: O=0: ARRHENIUS A FACTOR      [ka] = cm3/s
!      O=1: DECAY CONSTANT             [ka] = 1/s
! ### Ta: O=0: Ta=0
!      O=1: ACTIVATION TEMPERATURE [K]
! SYNTAX:
!
!                                ONLY FOR ORDER=1
!                                |=====|
!      'name', 'subname', ORDER, ka, Ta, 'channel', 'object'
TR( 1) = 'T01', , 1, 0.5625E-13, 1.5550E+03, 'tracer_gp', 'OH',
TR( 2) = 'R01', , 0, 1.981875e-10, , , , ,
!
! ### LIST OF RELEASE POINTS AND TIME
! ### LEV [hPa], MASS [kg], LON [-180 ... 180], LAT [-90 ... 90]
! SYNTAX:
!      LON, LAT, LEV, MASS [kg],
!      YYYY, MM, DD, HH, MI, SE, YYYY, MM, DD, HH, MI, SE, tracer_list
!      |=====| |=====|
!
!      START                STOP
POINT( 1) = 11.88, 78.90, 1000.0, 0.0978E+03,
           1978, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1978, 1, 2, 0, 0, 0, 'T01;R01;',
/

```

Fig. 18. Example namelist file of the submodel TREXP: With `l_force_emis = T` the point sources (defined further down with `POINT`) can also comprise emissions of tracers, which have been defined by other submodels. Per default (`l_force_emis = F`) point sources are only allowed for tracers defined by TREXP (defined with `TR`). Two tracers are defined here (both without sub-name): the first (`TR(1)`) is T01, which reacts with OH from channel `tracer_gp` with a rate coefficient of $k = 0.5625 \times 10^{-13} \exp(-1555/T) \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}$, where T is the temperature in K. The second (`TR(2)`) is R01, a radioactively decaying species with a decay constant of $1.981875 \times 10^{-10} \text{ 1/s}$. The mass of 97.8 kg of both tracers is released continuously on 1 January 1978 at 11.88° E, 78.90° N at 1000 hPa pressure altitude.

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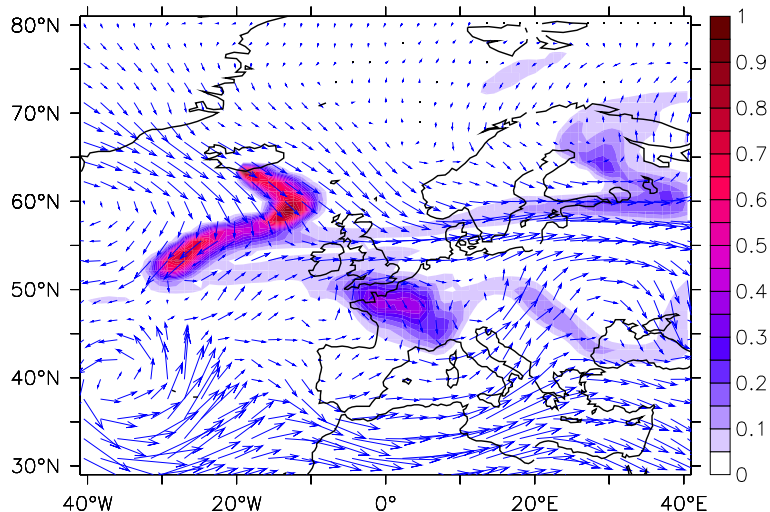


Fig. 19. Simulated ash plume of the Eyjafjallajökull over Europe at 18 April 2010, 16:00 UTC. The color scale indicates the column density (normalised to the maximum in the selected geographical region) in relative units. The blue arrows indicate the wind vector at 500 hPa. The EMAC simulation was performed in T106L90MA resolution nudged to the operational ECMWF analysis data. The submodel TRESP was used to define a continuous point-source at 63.629° N, 19.630° W in 500 hPa, starting 14 April 2010 at 00:00 UTC.

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```

&CTRL_KHET
l_troposphere = T
l_stratosphere = T
/

&CPL_KHET
! channel and object with aerosol surface climatology:
aerosurf_clim = 'offlem', 'aerosurf_clim'
!
! aerosol submodel and modes:
asm(3) = 'm7', '2,3,4'
!
! aerosol chemistry coupling; submodel to calculate rate
! coefficients (0 = aerosol surface climatology):
ams_cpl = 0
!
! stratosphere
strat_channel = 'msbm'
/

```

Fig. 20. Example namelists of the sub-submodel MECCA.KHET: The logical switches `l_troposphere` and `l_stratosphere` in `CTRL_KHET` determine if MECCA.KHET is performing calculations (T=true) for the troposphere and/or stratosphere, respectively, or not (F=false). In the `CPL_KHET` namelist, `aerosurf_clim` (optionally) names the *channel* and the *channel object* (Sect. 2) of an aerosol surface density climatology for which the heterogeneous reaction coefficients $k_{\text{het,trop}}$ shall be calculated. The array `asm` lists the dynamic (tropospheric) aerosol model(s) and corresponding aerosol mode number(s), for which the aerosol surfaces and the heterogeneous reaction coefficients $k_{\text{het,trop}}$ shall be calculated. Any listed aerosol submodel (m7 in the example here) needs to deliver the ambient radius in m (*channel object* `wetradius` with rank 4, where the 3rd rank determines the aerosol mode) and the corresponding radius standard deviation (*channel object* `sigma` with rank 1 specifying the aerosol mode). In addition, for each aerosol mode the information on the particle number density must be available as TRACER (Jöckel et al., 2008). The parameter `ams_cpl` is used to select the set of $k_{\text{het,trop}}$, which is used for the kinetic calculations in MECCA; 0 is used for the aerosol climatology defined by `aerosurf_clim`, any other number `x` for the corresponding aerosol submodel listed as `asm(x)`. Finally, `strat_channel` names the *channel* of a stratospheric aerosol model, which delivers the stratospheric heterogeneous coefficients $k_{\text{het, strat}}$ and the *channel object* `STRAT_region` for flagging the stratosphere and troposphere (see text).

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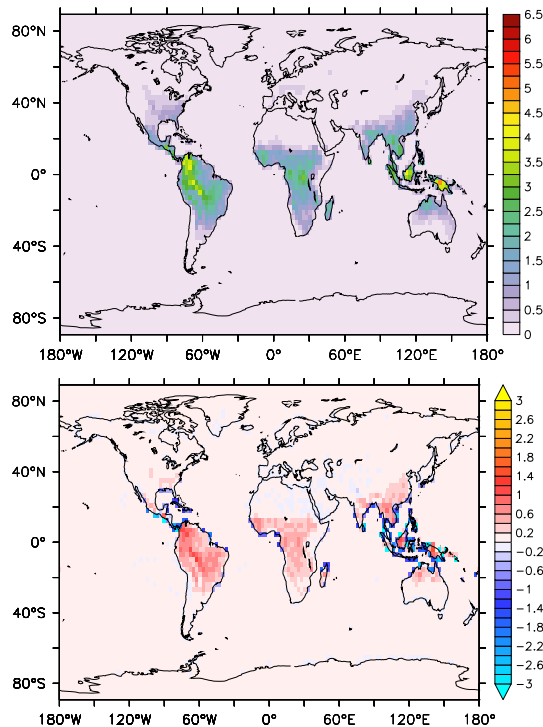


Fig. 21. Simulated two year (2003–2004) average flash frequency (upper panel) normalised to the total flash frequency (horizontally integrated, averaged in time) in $10^{-14} \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ calculated with the parameterisation proposed by Price and Rind (1994) and taking into account the fractional land-sea mask. The lower panel shows the deviation of this flash frequency distribution from that calculated (data from Jöckel et al., 2006) with a previous version of LNOX based on the same parameterisation, but without accounting for the fractional land-sea mask. Both simulations were performed in T42L90MA resolution.

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