Response to Topical Editor (Dr. Fiona O'Connor)

Comments:

".... Having read your response and your revised manuscript, and after consulting with the executive editors of GMD, I am writing to confirm that I can only recommend publication in GMD once you have adhered to GMD's strict policy on model code availability."

Response:

Following the GMD's policy, we have modified the section of "6. Code and data availability" as: "The source codes of BCC-ESM1, model input files, and scripts to reproduce the simulations that are presented in the article have been archived and made publicly available for downloading from http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3609337 (Wu et al., 2020). Model output of BCC CMIP6 AerChemMIP simulations described in this paper refer to Zhang et al. (2019) and is distributed through ESGF and freely accessible through the ESGF data portals after registration. Details about ESGF are presented on the CMIP Panel website at http://www.wcrp-climate.org/index.php/wgcm-cmip/about-cmip."

Tongwen Wu, and Co-authors.

1	Beijing Climate Center Earth System Model version 1 (BCC-ESM1):
2	Model Description and Evaluation of Aerosol Simulations
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28 Abstract. BCC-ESM1 is the first version of a fully-coupled Earth System Model with interactive atmospheric chemistry and aerosols developed by the Beijing Climate Center, 29 30 China Meteorological Administration. Major aerosol species (including sulfate, organic carbon, black carbon, dust and sea salt) and greenhouse gases are interactively simulated with 31 a whole panoply of processes controlling emission, transport, gas-phase chemical reactions, 32 secondary aerosol formation, gravitational settling, dry deposition, and wet scavenging by 33 clouds and precipitation. Effects of aerosols on radiation, cloud, and precipitation are fully 34 35 treated. The performance of BCC-ESM1 in simulating aerosols and their optical properties is comprehensively evaluated as required by the Aerosol Chemistry Model Intercomparison 36 Project (AerChemMIP), covering the preindustrial mean state and time evolution from 1850 37 38 to 2014. The simulated aerosols from BCC-ESM1 are quite coherent with CMIP5-recommended data, in-situ measurements from surface networks (such as IMPROVE 39 in the U.S. and EMEP in Europe), and aircraft observations. A comparison of modeled 40 aerosol optical depth (AOD) at 550 nm with satellite observations retrieved from Moderate 41 42 Resolution Spectroradiometer (MODIS) and Imaging Multi-angle Imaging 43 SpectroRadiometer (MISR) and surface AOD observations from AErosol RObotic NETwork (AERONET) shows reasonable agreements between simulated and observed AOD. However, 44 BCC-ESM1 shows weaker upward transport of aerosols from the surface to the middle and 45 46 upper troposphere, likely reflecting the deficiency of representing deep convective transport 47 of chemical species in BCC-ESM1. With an overall good agreement between BCC-ESM1 simulated and observed aerosol properties, it demonstrates a success of the implementation of 48 49 interactive aerosol and atmospheric chemistry in BCC-ESM1.

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51 **1. Introduction**

Atmosphere is a thin gaseous layer around the Earth, consisting of nitrogen, oxygen and 52 53 a large number of trace gases including important greenhouse gases (GHG) such as water vapor, tropospheric ozone (O_3) , carbon dioxide (CO_2) , methane (CH_4) , nitrous oxide (N_2O) , 54 and chloro-fluoro-carbons (CFCs). Besides gaseous components, atmosphere also contains 55 various aerosols, which are important for cloud formation and radiative transfer. Atmospheric 56 57 trace gases and aerosols are actually interactive components of the climate system. Their 58 inclusion in global climate models (GCMs) is a significant enhancement for most 59 state-of-the-art climate models (Lamarque et al., 2013; Collins et al., 2017). Early attempts in coupling global climate dynamics with atmospheric chemistry can be traced back to late 60 1970s, when 3D transport of ozone and simple stratospheric chemistry were firstly 61 62 incorporated into a GCM to simulate global O₃ production and transport (e.g., Cunnold et al. 1975; Schlesinger and Mintz 1979). Since mid-1980s, a large number of on-line global 63 climate/chemistry models have been developed to address issues of the Antarctic stratospheric 64 O₃ depletion (e.g., Cariolle et al. 1990; Austin et al. 1992; Solomon, 1999), tropospheric O₃ 65 66 and sulfur cycle (e.g., Feichter et al. 1996; Barth et al. 2000), tropospheric aerosol and its interactions with cloud (e.g., Chuang et al. 1997; Lohmann et al. 2000; Ghan and Easter, 2006; 67 Jacobson 2012). Aerosols and chemically reactive gases in the atmosphere exert important 68 influences on global and regional air quality and climate (Collins et al., 2017). 69

70 Since 2013, the Beijing Climate Center (BCC), China Meteorological Administration, has continuously developed and updated its fully-coupled GCM, the Beijing Climate Center 71 Climate System Model (BCC-CSM) (Wu et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2019). 72 73 BCC-CSM version 1.1 was one of the comprehensive carbon-climate models participating in 74 the phase five of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP5, Taylor et al. 2012). 75 When forced by prescribed historical emissions of CO_2 from combustion of fossil fuels and 76 land use change, BCC-CSM1.1 successfully reproduced the trends of observed atmospheric 77 CO₂ concentration and global surface air temperature from 1850 to 2005 (Wu et al., 2013). 78 During recent years, BCC-CSM1.1 has been used in numerous investigations on soil organic 79 carbon changes (e.g. Todd-Brown et al., 2014), ocean biogeochemistry changes (e.g. Mora et 80 al., 2013), and carbon-climate feedbacks (e.g. Arora et al., 2013; Hoffman et al., 2014). BCC-CSM includes main climate-carbon cycle processes (Wu et al., 2013) and the global mean atmospheric CO₂ concentration is calculated from a prognostic equation of CO₂ budget taking into account global anthropogenic CO₂ emissions and interactive land-atmosphere and ocean-atmosphere CO₂ exchanges.

put large efforts in 85 In recent years, BCC has developing a global 86 climate-chemistry-aerosol fully-coupled Earth System Model (BCC-ESM1) on the basis of BCC-CSM2 (Wu et al., 2019). The objective is to interactively simulate global aerosols (e.g. 87 88 sulfate, black carbon, etc.) and main greenhouse gases (e.g. O₃, CH₄, N₂O and CO₂) in the 89 atmosphere and to investigate feedbacks between climate and atmospheric chemistry. BCC-ESM1 is at the point to be publicly released, and it is actively used by BCC for several 90 CMIP6-endorsed research initiatives (Eyring et al. 2016), including the Aerosol Chemistry 91 92 Model Intercomparison Project (AerChemMIP, Collins et al., 2017) and the Coupled Climate–Carbon Cycle Model Intercomparison Project (C4MIP, Jones et al. 2016). 93

The purpose of this paper is to evaluate the performance of BCC-ESM1 in simulating 94 95 aerosols and their optical properties in the 20th century. The description of BCC-ESM1 is 96 presented in Section 2. The experimental protocol is given in Section 3. Section 4 presents the evaluations of aerosol simulations with comparisons to CMIP5-recommended data (Lamarque 97 98 et al., 2010) and data obtained from both global surface networks and satellite observations. The regional and global characteristics compared to observations and estimates from other 99 100 studies are analyzed. Simulations of aerosol optical properties in the 20th century are also analyzed in Section 4. Conclusions and discussions are summarized in Section 5. Information 101 102 about code and data availability is given in Section 6.

103 **2. Model description**

BCC-ESM1 is an Earth System Model with interactive chemistry and aerosol components, in which the atmospheric component is BCC Atmospheric General Model version 3 (Wu et al., 2019) with interactive atmospheric chemistry (hereafter BCC-AGCM3-Chem), land component BCC Atmosphere and Vegetation Interaction Model version 2.0 (hereafter BCC-AVIM2.0), ocean component Modular Ocean Model version 4 (MOM4)-L40, and sea ice component [sea ice simulator (SIS)]. Different components of BCC-ESM1 are fully coupled and interact with each other through fluxes of momentum, energy, water, carbon and other tracers at their interfaces. The coupling between theatmosphere and the ocean is done every hour.

113 The atmospheric component BCC-AGCM3-Chem is able to simulate global atmospheric composition and aerosols from anthropogenic emissions as forcing agents. Its resolution is T42 114 (approximately 2.8125 \$2.8125 ° transformed spectral grid). The model has 26 levels in a hybrid 115 116 sigma/pressure vertical coordinate system with the top level at 2.914 hPa. Details of the model physics are described in Wu et al. (2019). The BCC-AGCM3-Chem combines 66 gas-phase 117 118 chemical species and 13 bulk aerosol compounds as listed in Table 1. Apart from 3 gas-phase species of dimethyl sulfide (DMS), sulfur dioxide (SO₂) and ammonia (NH₃), the other 63 119 gas-phase species are the same as those in the "standard version" of MOZART2 (Model for 120 Ozone and Related chemical Tracers, version 2), a global chemical transport model for the 121 122 troposphere developed by the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) driven by meteorological fields from either climate models or assimilations of meteorological 123 observations (Horowitz et al., 2003). Advection of all tracers in BCC-AGCM3-Chem is 124 performed through a semi-Lagrangian scheme (Williamson and Rasch, 1989), and vertical 125 126 diffusion within the boundary layer follows the parameterization of Holtslag and Boville (1993). The gas-phase chemistry of the 63 MOZART2 gas-phase species as listed in Table 1 127 is treated in the same way as that in the "standard version" of MOZART2 (Horowitz et al., 128 2003), and there are 33 photolytic reactions and 135 chemical reactions involving 30 dry 129 130 deposited chemical species and 25 soluble gas-phase species. Dry deposition velocities for the 131 15 trace gases including O_3 , carbon monoxide (CO), CH₄, formaldehyde (CH₂O), acetic acid (CH₃OOH), hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), nitric acid (HNO₃), 132 polyacrylonitrile (PAN), acetone (CH₃COCH₃), peroxyacetic acid (CH₃COOOH), 133 134 acetaldehyde (CH₃CHO), methylglyoxal (CH₃COCHO), nitric oxid (NO), and pernitric acid 135 (HNO₄) are not computed interactively and directly interpolated from MOZART2 136 climatological monthly deposition velocities mean 137 (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/MOZART(model)) which are calculated offline (Bey et al., 2001; 138 Shindell et al., 2008) using a resistance-in-series scheme originally described in Wesely 139 (1989). The dry deposition velocities for the other 15 species including peroxy acetyl nitrate 140 (PAN), methyl nitroacetate (ONIT), organic nitrates (ONITR), ethyl alcohol (C₃H₅OH), organic

141 hydroxiperoxide ethyl (POOH), hydroperoxide (C_2H_5OOH) , propylhydroperoxide (C₃H₇OOH), methylene glycol mono acetate (ROOH), glycolaldehyde (GLYALD), acetol 142 143 (HYAC), methanol (CH₃OH), propanoic acid (MACROOH), isoprene hydroxy hydroperoxide (ISOPOOH), carboxylic acid (XOOH), formaldehyde (HYDRALD), and hydrogen (H_2) are 144 calculated using prescribed deposition velocities of O₃, CO, CH₃CHO, or land surface type 145 and surface temperature following the MOZART2 (Horowitz et al., 2003). Wet removal by 146 in-cloud scavenging for 25 soluble gas-phase species in the "standard version" of MOZART2 147 148 uses the parameterization of Giorgi and Chameides (1985) based on their temperature dependent effective Henry's law constants. In-cloud scavenging is proportional to the amount 149 of cloud condensate converted to precipitation, and the loss rate depends on the amount of 150 cloud water, the rate of precipitation formation, and the rate of tracer uptake by the liquid 151 phase water. Other highly soluble species such as HNO₃, H₂O₂, ONIT, ISOPOOH, 152 MACROOH, XOOH, and lead (Pb-210) are also removed by below-cloud washout as 153 calculated using the formulation of Brasseur et al. (1998). Below-cloud scavenging is 154 proportional to the precipitation flux in each model layer and the loss rate depends on the 155 156 precipitation rate. Vertical transport of gas tracers and aerosols due to deep convection is not yet included in the present version of BCC-AGCM3-Chem, which process is considered as a 157 part of the deep convection and occurs generally in a small spatial region on a GCM-box with 158 low-resolution (2.8 $at. \times 2.8$ $ac. \times 2.$ 159 160 treat transport of those water-soluble tracers by deep convection. But this effect will be involved in the next version of BCC model. 161

The BCC-AVIM2.0 is the land model with terrestrial carbon cycle. It is described in details in Li et al. (2019) and includes biophysical, physiological, and soil carbon-nitrogen dynamical processes. The terrestrial carbon cycle operates through a series of biochemical and physiological processes on photosynthesis and respiration of vegetation. Biogenic emissions from vegetation are computed online in BCC-AVIM2.0 following the algorithm of the Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature version 2.1 (MEGAN2.1, Guenther et al., 2012).

169 The oceanic component of BCC-ESM1 is the Modular Ocean Model version 4 with 40170 levels (hereafter MOM4-L40), and the sea ice component Sea Ice Simulator (SIS).

171 MOM4-L40 uses a tripolar grid of horizontal resolution with 1 ° longitude by 1/3 ° latitude between 30 S and 30 N ranged to 1 °longitude by 1 °latitude from 60 S and 60 N poleward 172 and 40 z-levels in the vertical. Carbon exchange between the atmosphere and the ocean are 173 calculated online in MOM4-L40 using a biogeochemistry module that is based on the 174 protocols from the Ocean Carbon Cycle Model Intercomparison Project-Phase 2 (OCMIP2, 175 http://www.ipsl.jussieu.fr/OCMIP/phase2/). SIS has the same horizontal resolution as 176 MOM4-L40 and three layers in the vertical, including one layer of snow cover and two layers 177 178 of equally sized sea ice. Details of oceanic component MOM4-L40 and sea-ice component SIS that are used in BCC-ESM1 may be found in Wu et al. (2013) and Wu et al. (2019). 179

In the following sub-sections, we will describe the treatments in BCC-ESM1 for 3 180 gas-phase species of DMS, SO₂ and NH₃, 13 prognostic aerosol species including sulfate 181 (SO42-), 2 types of organic carbon (hydrophobic OC1, hydrophilic OC2), 2 types of black 182 carbon (hydrophobic BC1, hydrophilic BC2), 4 categories of soil dust (DST01, DST02, 183 DST03, DST04), and 4 categories of sea salt (SSLT01, SSLT02, SSLT03, SSLT04). 184 185 Concentrations of all aerosols in BCC-ESM1 are mainly determined by advective transport, 186 emission, dry deposition, gravitational settling, and wet scavenging by clouds and precipitation, except for SO_4^{2-} which gas-phase and aqueous phase conversion from SO_2 are 187 also considered. The present version of aerosol scheme belongs to a bulk aerosol model and 188 mainly refers to the scheme of CAM-Chem (Lamarque et al., 2012), but the nucleation and 189 190 coagulation of aerosols are still ignored.

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2.1 SO₂, DMS, NH₃, and Sulfate

 SO_2 is a main sulfuric acid precursor to form aerosol sulfate SO_4^{2-} . Conversions of SO_2 192 to SO_4^{2-} occur by gas phase reactions (Table 2) and by aqueous phase reactions in cloud 193 droplets. The dry deposition velocity of SO₂ follows the resistance-in-series approach of 194 195 Wesely (1989) using the formula, $W_{SO2} = 1/(r_a + r_b + r_c)$, in which r_a , r_b , and r_c are the aerodynamic resistance, the quasi-laminar boundary layer resistance, and the surface 196 resistance, respectively and they are interactively computed in each model time step. The loss 197 rate of SO₂ due to wet deposition is computed following the scheme in the global Community 198 199 Atmosphere Model (CAM) version 4, the atmospheric component of the Community Earth 200 System Model (Lamarque et al., 2012).

201 The sources of SO_2 mainly come from fuel combustion, industrial activities, and volcanoes. SO₂ can also be formed from the oxidation of DMS as listed in Table 2 in which 202 their reaction rates follow CAM-Chem (Lamarque et al. 2012). The main source of DMS is 203 from oceanic emissions via biogenic processes. It is prescribed with the climatological 204 extracted 205 monthly data that are from MOZART2 package (<u>https://www2.acom.ucar.edu/gcm/mozart-4</u>). SO_4^{2-} is one of the prognostic aerosols in 206 BCC-AGCM3-Chem. Its treatment follows CAM4-Chem (Lamarque et al., 2012). It is 207 208 produced primarily by the gas-phase oxidation of SO_2 (in Table 2) and by aqueous phase oxidation of SO₂ in cloud droplets. The gas phase reactions, rate constants, and gas-aqueous 209 equilibrium constants are given by Tie et al. (2001). The heterogeneous reactions of SO_4^{2-} 210 occur on all aerosol surfaces. Their treatment follows a Bulk Aerosol Model (BAM) used in 211 212 CAM4 (Neale et al., 2010). The heterogeneous reactions depend strongly on pH values in clouds which are calculated from the concentrations of SO₂, HNO₃, H₂O₂, NH₃, O₃, HO₂, and 213 SO_4^{2-} . NH₃ is a gas tracer apart from MOZART2 (Table 1). Its sources include aircraft and 214 215 surface emissions due to anthropogenic activity, biomass burning, and biogenic emissions from land soil and ocean surfaces (Table 4). SO_4^{2-} is assumed to be all in aqueous phase due 216 to water uptake, although Wang et al. (2008a) showed that ~34% of sulfate particles are in 217 solid phase globally due to the hysteresis effect of ammonium sulfate phase transition. 218 However, in terms of radiative forcing, consideration of solid sulfate formation process 219 220 lowers the sulfate forcing by ~8% as compared to consideration of all sulfate particles in 221 aqueous phase (Wang et al., 2008b). Future model development may consider the life cycle of NH₃. The sulfate in- and below-cloud scavenging follows Neu and Prather (2011). Washout 222 of SO₄²⁻ is set to 20% of the washout rate of HNO₃ following Tie et al. (2005) and Horowitz 223 (2006). Dry deposition velocity of SO_4^{2-} is also calculated by the resistance-in-series 224 225 approach.

226 227

2.2 Aerosols of organic carbon and black carbon

BCC-AGCM3-Chem treats two types of organic carbon (OC), i.e. water-insoluble tracer OC1 and water-soluble tracer OC2, and two types of black carbon (BC), i.e. water-insoluble tracer BC1 and water-soluble tracer BC2. As shown in Table 2, hydrophobic BC1 and OC1 can be converted to hydrophilic BC2 and OC2 with a constant rate of 7.1×10^{-6} s⁻¹ (Cooke and 231 Wilson, 1996). The 4 tracers of organic carbon and black carbon are mainly from emissions including both fossil fuel and biomass burning, and are from the CMIP6 data package 232 233 (https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/input4mips/, Hoesly et al., 2018). Beside anthropogenic and biomass burning emissions, hydrophilic organic carbon OC2 can also come from natural 234 biogenic volatile organic compound (VOC) emissions. Dry deposition velocities for all the 4 235 OC and BC tracers are set to 0.001m.s⁻¹. OC2 and BC2 are soluble aerosols, and their sinks 236 are primarily governed by wet deposition. Their in- and below-cloud scavenging follows the 237 238 scheme of Neu and Prather (2011).

239 2.3 Sea salt aerosols

As shown in Table 3, sea salt aerosols in the model are classified into four size bins (0.2– 1.0, 1.0–3.0, 3.0–10, and 10–20 μ m) in diameter. They originate from oceans and are calculated online by BCC-ESM1. The upward flux $F_{sea-salt}$ of sea salt productions for four bins is proportional to the 3.41 power of the wind speed u_{10m} at 10 m height near the sea surface (Mahowald et al., 2006) and is expressed as

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$$F_{sea-salt} = S \cdot (u_{10m})^{3.41},$$
(1)

where *S* is a scaling factor and set to 4.05×10^{-15} , 4.52×10^{-14} , 1.15×10^{-13} , 1.20×10^{-13} for four size bins of sea salt aerosols in BCC-ESM1, respectively.

Dry deposition of sea salts depends on the turbulent deposition velocity in the lowest atmospheric layer using aerodynamic resistance and the friction velocity, and the settling velocity through the whole atmospheric column for each bin of sea salts. The turbulent deposition velocity and settling velocity depend on particle diameter and density (listed in Table 3). In addition, the fact that the size of sea salts changes with humidity is also considered. The wet deposition of sea salts follows the scheme for soluble aerosols used in CAM4, and depends on prescribed solubility and size-independent scavenging coefficients.

255 2.4 Dust aerosols

Dust aerosols behave in a similar way as sea salts. Their variations involve three major processes: emission, advective transport, and wet/dry depositions. The dust emission is based on a saltation-sandblasting process, and depends on wind friction velocity, soil moisture, and vegetation/snow cover (Zender et al., 2003). The vertical flux of dust emission is corrected by a surface erodible factor at each model grid cell which has been downloaded from NCAR website (https://svn-ccsm-inputdata.cgd.ucar.edu/trunk/inputdata/atm/cam/dst/). Soil erodibility is prescribed by a physically-based geomorphic index that is proportional to the runoff area upstream of each source region (Albani et al., 2014). Like sea salts, dry deposition of dust aerosols includes gravitational and turbulent deposition processes, while wet deposition results from both convective and large scale precipitation and is dependent on prescribed size-independent scavenging coefficients.

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2.5 Effects of aerosols on radiation, clouds, and precipitation

268 The mass mixing ratios of bulk aerosols are prognostic variables in BCC-ESM1 and directly affect the radiative transfer in the atmosphere with their treatments following the 269 NCAR Community Atmosphere Model (CAM3, Collins et al., 2004). Indirect effects of 270 271 aerosols are taken into account in the present version of BCC-AGCM3-Chem (Wu et al., 2019). Aerosol particles act as cloud condensation nuclei and exert influence on cloud 272 273 properties and precipitation, and ultimately impact the hydrological cycle. Prognostic aerosol masses are used to estimate the liquid cloud droplet number concentration N_{cdnc} (cm⁻³) in 274 BCC-AGCM3-Chem. N_{cdnc} is explicitly calculated using the empirical function suggested 275 276 by Boucher and Lohmann (1995) and Quaas et al. (2006):

277
$$N_{cdnc} = \exp\left[5.1 + 0.41\ln\left(m_{aero}\right)\right]$$
(2)

278 where m_{aero} (µg.m⁻³) is the total mass of all hydrophilic aerosols,

285

$$m_{aero} = m_{SS} + m_{OC} + m_{SO_4} + m_{NH_4NO_7} , \qquad (3)$$

280 i.e. the first bin of sea salt (m_{SS}), hydrophilic organic carbon (m_{OC}), sulphate (m_{SO_4}), and 281 Ammonium nitrite (NH₄NO₂). A dataset of NH₄NO₂ from NCAR CAM-Chem (Lamarque et 282 al., 2012) is used in our model.

283 N_{cdnc} is an important factor in determining the effective radius of cloud droplets for 284 radiative calculation. The effective radius of cloud droplets r_{el} is estimated as

 $r_{el} = \beta \cdot r_{l,vol} \,, \tag{4}$

where β is a parameter dependent on the droplets spectral shape and follows the calculation proposed by Peng and Lohmann (2003),

288
$$\beta = 0.00084 N_{cdnc} + 1.22$$
. (5)

 $r_{l,vol}$ is the volume-weighted mean cloud droplet radius, 289

290
$$r_{l,vol} = \left[(3LWC) / (4\pi \rho_w N_{cdnc}) \right]^{1/3},$$
(6)

291

where $\rho_{\rm w}$ is the liquid water density and *LWC* the cloud liquid water content (g cm⁻³).

292 Aerosols also exert impacts on precipitation efficiency (Albrecht, 1989), which is taken 293 into account in the parameterization of non-convective cloud processes. There are five 294 processes that convert condensate to precipitate: auto-conversion of liquid water to rain, 295 collection of cloud water by rain, auto-conversion of ice to snow, collection of ice by snow, 296 and collection of liquid by snow. The auto-conversion of cloud liquid water to rain (PWAUT) is dependent on the cloud droplet number concentration and follows a formula that was 297 originally suggested by Chen and Cotton (1987), 298

299
$$PWAUT = C_{l,aut} q_l^2 \rho_a / \rho_w \left(\frac{q_l \rho_a}{\rho_w N_{ncdc}}\right)^{1/3} H\left(r_{l,vol} - r_{lc,vol}\right)$$
(7)

Where \hat{q}_l is in-cloud liquid water mixing ratio, ρ_a and ρ_w are the local densities of air and 300 water respectively, and $C_{l,aut}$ is a constant. H(x) is the Heaviside step function with the 301 definition, 302

303
$$H(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 0\\ 1, & x \ge 0 \end{cases}.$$
 (8)

 $r_{lc,vol}$ is the critical value of mean volume radius of liquid cloud droplets $r_{l,vol}$, and set to 15 304 305 μm.

306 The treatment of aerosol single scattering (optical) properties (such as mass extinction efficiency, single scattering albedo, and asymmetric factor) follows the look-up table 307 308 approach in CAM (Collins et al., 2004). The optics for black, organic carbon, sea salt, and sea salt particles is assumed to be same as the optics for soot and water-soluble aerosols in the 309 310 Optical Properties of Aerosols and Clouds (OPAC) data set (Hess et al., 1998). The optics for dust is derived by Mie calculations for the size distribution represented by each size bin 311 (Zender et al., 2003). Similarly, for sulfate and nitrate particles, same set of aerosol optical 312 properties for ammonium sulfate are used and are taken from Wang et al. (2008b) with 313 treatment of aerosol hygroscopicity. The volcanic stratospheric aerosols are assumed to be 314 comprised of 75% sulfuric acid and 25% water, as in Hess et al. (1998). For each model year, 315

316 different aerosol types are assumed to be externally mixed in the calculation of bulk aerosol single scattering properties that are in turn used in the radiative transfer calculations. 317

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3. Experiment design for the 20th century climate simulation

There is an Aerosol Chemistry Model Intercomparison Project (AerChemMIP, Collins et 319 al., 2017) endorsed by the Coupled-Model Intercomparison Project 6 (CMIP6) for 320 documenting and understanding past and future changes in the chemical composition of the 321 atmosphere, and estimating the global-to-regional climate response from these changes. 322 323 Modelling groups with full chemistry and aerosol models are encouraged to perform all 324 AerChemMIP simulations (Collins et al., 2017). To assess the ability of our model to simulate aerosols (mean and variability), we have followed the historical simulation designed by 325 CMIP6 (Eyring et al., 2016) which is named as "historical" experiment in the Earth System 326 327 Grid Federation (ESGF). The historical experiment is forced with emissions evolving from 1850 to 2014 that include biomass burning emissions (Van Marle et al. 2017), anthropogenic 328 and open burning emissions (Hoesly et al., 2018; Feng et al., 2019). O₃ in the historical 329 330 simulation is an interactive prognostic variable and feedbacks on radiation, and the 331 concentrations of other WMGHG, e.g. CH₄, N₂O, CO₂, CFC11, and CFC12 are prescribed using CMIP6 historical forcing data (Meinshausen et al., 2017). Although CH₄ and N₂O are 332 prognostic variables in the chemistry scheme (Table 1), their prognostic values at each model 333 step in the historical experiment are replaced by CMIP6 data (Meinshausen et al., 2017) 334 throughout the model domain. The rest of historical forcing data include: (1) yearly global 335 gridded land-use forcing data sets (Hurtt et al., 2011; Hurtt et al., 2017), and (2) solar forcing 336 337 (Matthes et al.. 2017). All these datasets were downloaded from 338 https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/input4mips/. Climate feedback processes that involve 339 changes to the atmospheric composition of reactive gases and aerosols may affect the 340 temperature response to a given WMGHG concentration level.

3.1 Surface emissions 341

Surface emissions of chemical species from different sources are summarized in Table 342 343 4. They include anthropogenic emissions from fossil fuel burning and other industrial 344 activities, biomass burning (including vegetation fires, fuel wood and agricultural burning), biogenic emissions from vegetation and soils, and oceanic emissions. Most historical 345

346 emissions from anthropogenic source (surface, aircraft plus ship) and biomass burning from 1850 2014 CMIP6-recommended 347 to are data (available at 348 https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/input4mips). Anthropogenic or biomass burning sources of some tracers which are not included in the CMIP6 dataset (see Table 4), anthropogenic 349 emission of H₂ and N₂O are from monthly climatological dataset provided by the MOZART-2 350 standard package. N₂O is a prognostic variable in BCC-ESM1 but it is replaced by CMIP6 351 prescribed concentration in the historical run. Other emissions including biomass burning 352 353 (CH₃COCH₃) and anthropogenic emission (CH₃CHO, CH₃OH, and CH₃COCH₃) are from the Atmospheric Chemistry and Climate Model Intercomparison Project (ACCMIP) emission 354 inventory (http://accent.aero.jussieu.fr/ACCMIP.php) covering the period from 1850 to 2010 355 with 10-year intervals (see Table 4). Monthly lumped emissions of black carbon and organic 356 carbon aerosols from 1850 to 2014 are downloaded from CMIP6-recommended data, but we 357 used 80% (for BC) and 50% (for OC) of them in their hydrophobic forms (BC1 and OC1) and 358 the rest in their hydrophilic forms (BC2 and OC2), following the work of Chin et al. (2002). 359

360 Five tracers of ISOP, ACET (CH₃COCH₃), C_2H_4 , C_3H_8 , and Monoterpenes ($C_{10}H_{16}$) in 361 Table 1 belong to biogenic volatile organic carbons (VOCs). As shown in Table 4, those VOCs emissions are online calculated in BCC-ESM1 following the modeling framework of 362 the Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature version 2.1 (MEGAN2.1, 363 Guenther et al., 2012) using simple mechanistic algorithms to account for major known 364 365 processes controlling biogenic emissions. The MEGAN2.1 can provide a flexible scheme for 366 estimating 16 tracers of biogenic emissions from terrestrial ecosystems including five VOCs emissions used in BCC-ESM1 (Table 4). All the VOCs emissions depend on current and past 367 368 surface air temperature, solar flux, and the landscape types. Their calculation requires global 369 maps of plant functional type (PFT) and leaf area index (LAI) which is a prognostic variable 370 from the land model BCC-AVIM2. The effect of atmospheric CO_2 concentration on isoprene 371 emissions is included. 10% of the biogenic monoterpenes emissions as calculated online with the MEGAN2.1 algorithm in BCC-AVIM2 are converted to hydrophilic organic carbon (OC2) 372 373 to account for formation of secondary organic aerosols following Chin et al. (2002) in this 374 version of BCC-ESM1.

375 **3.2 Volcanic eruptions, lightning and aircraft emissions**

376 As there is no stratospheric aerosol scheme in BCC-ESM1, concentrations of sulfate aerosol at heights from 5 to 39.5 km, which volcanic origin, are directly prescribed using the 377 CMIP6-recommended data (Thomasson et al., 2018) from 1850 to 2014. The effects of 378 surface SO₂ emissions from volcanic eruption on the variation of SO2 in the atmosphere and 379 then on the variation of tropospheric SO_4^{2-} concentration are considered, and the SO_2 380 emissions from 1850 to 2014 are downloaded from the IPCC ACCMIP emission inventory 381 (http://accent.aero.jussieu.fr/ACCMIP.php). Aircraft emissions are provided for NO2, CO, 382 383 CH₄, NH₃, NO, SO₂, and aerosols of OC and BC (Table 1). The emissions of NO from lightning are online calculated in BCC-AGCM3-Chem following the parameterization in 384 MOZART2, and the globally-averaged mean during the period of 1850 to 2014 is 5.19 385 Tg(N) yr⁻¹, which is in agreement with observations within the range of 3 to 6 Tg(N) yr⁻¹ 386 (Martin et al., 2002). The lightning frequency depends strongly on the convective cloud top 387 388 height, and the ratio of cloud-to-cloud versus cloud-to-ground lightning depends on the cold cloud thickness from the level of 0° C to the cloud top (Price and Rind, 1992). 389

390

3.3 Upper boundary of the atmosphere

391 As no stratospheric chemistry is included in the present version of BCC-AGCM3-Chem, 392 it is necessary to ensure a proper distribution of chemically-active stratospheric species. 393 Concentrations of different tracers (O_3 , CH₄, N_2O , NO, NO₂, HNO₃, CO, and N_2O_3) at the top two layers of the model are set to prescribed monthly climatological values, and 394 concentrations from below the top two layers to the tropopause are relaxed at a relaxation 395 time of 10-days towards the climatology. Climatological values of NO, NO₂, HNO₃, CO and 396 N_2O_5 at the top two layers are extracted from MOZART2 data package available at the 397 Website (https://www2.acom.ucar.edu/gcm/mozart-4), originated from the Study of Transport 398 399 and Chemical Reactions in the Stratosphere (STARS, Brasseur et al., 1997). Concentrations 400 for the other tracers (O_3 , CH_4 , and N_2O) at the top two model layers are the zonally-averaged 401 and monthly values from 1850 to 2014 derived from the CMIP6 data package.

402 **3.4** The preindustrial model states

403 The preindustrial state of BCC-ESM1 is obtained from a piControl simulation of over 600 404 years in which all forcings including emissions data are fixed at 1850 conditions. The initial state of the piControl simulation itself is obtained through individual spin-up runs of each 405

406 component of BCC-ESM1 in order for the piControl simulation to run stably and fast to reach 407 its equilibrium. Figures 1(a-c) show the time series of global yearly means of the net energy budget at top of the atmosphere (TOA), near-surface air temperature (TAS), and sea surface 408 temperature (SST) from the piControl simulation for the last 450 years. It shows that the 409 surface climate in BCC-ESM1 nearly reaches its equilibrium after 600 years piControl 410 simulation. The whole system in BCC-ESM1 fluctuates around $+0.7 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ net energy flux at 411 TOA without obvious trend in 450 years (Fig. 1a). This level of TOA energy imbalance is 412 close to the average imbalance (1.0 Wm⁻²) among CMIP5 models (Wild et al., 2013). It means 413 that there exists surplus energy of $+0.7 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ obtained by the whole system in BCC-ESM1, 414 but do not cause remarkable climate drift. The global mean TAS and SST keep around 288.1 415 K (Fig. 1b) and 295.05 K (Fig. 1c), respectively. During the last 450 years, there are $(\pm 0.2 \text{ K})$ 416 amplitude of TAS and SST) oscillations of centennial scale for the whole globe (Figs. 1b and 417 1c), which are certainly caused by internal variation of the system. 418

Figures 2a-2c show the time series of global annual total burdens of SO₂, DMS, and OH 419 420 in the troposphere (integrated from the surface to 100 hPa) in the last 450 years of the piControl simulation. Without any anthropogenic source, the SO₂ amount in the troposphere 421 nearly keeps the level of 0.0868 Tg in the 450 years of the piControl simulation. Tropospheric 422 DMS varies around the value of 0.116 Tg. Tropospheric OH, as an important gas species 423 oxidizing SO₂ to form SO₄²⁻ (Table 2), keeps at a stable level in the atmosphere. SO₄²⁻ also 424 425 remains at a stable level of 0.556 Tg in the atmosphere in the whole period of the piControl simulation (Figure 2d). The amounts of BC and OC in the troposphere vary around 0.0395 Tg 426 and 0.275 Tg (Figures 2e-2f), respectively. Dust and sea salt aerosols are at the level of 22 Tg 427 and 11.7 Tg (Figures 2g-2h), respectively. All those data are close to the global mean 428 concentrations of 0.604 Tg SO_4^{2-} , 0.046 Tg BC, 0.30 Tg OC, 22.18 Tg dust, and 11.73 Tg sea 429 salts in 1850 which are estimated based on the CMIP5 prescribed data in 1850 (Lamarque et 430 431 al., 2010).

Figure 3 shows the global spatial distributions of annual mean sulfate, organic carbon, black carbon, dust, and sea salt aerosols in the whole atmospheric column averaged for the last 100 years of the piControl simulation of BCC-ESM. We can compare them with CMIP5 recommended concentrations in year 1850, considered as the reference state in the

436 pre-industrial stage. At that time, there are fewer anthropogenic/biomass SO_2 emissions, the SO_4^{2} over land are evidently smaller than those over oceans especially over the tropical 437 Pacific and Atlantic Oceans, where DMS can be oxidized to SO₂ and then form SO₄²⁻. There 438 are several centers of high values of black carbon and organic carbon in East and South Asia, 439 440 Europe, Southeast America, and in the tropical rain forests in Africa and South America. They mainly result from biomass burning including vegetation fires, fuel wood and 441 agricultural burning. Dust aerosols are mainly distributed in North Africa, Central Asia, North 442 443 China, and Australia, where arid and semi-arid areas locate. Dust emitted from Sahara Desert can be transported to the tropical Atlantic by easterly wind. The sea salt aerosols are mainly 444 distributed over the mid-latitude Southern Oceans, the tropical southern Indian Ocean, and the 445 tropical northern Pacific Ocean, where wind speeds near the sea surface are strong. As shown 446 447 in Fig. 3, all the spatial distribution patterns of CMIP5-derived sulfate, black carbon, organic carbon, dust, and sea salt aerosols (Lamarque et al., 2010) are well simulated in BCC-ESM1. 448 There are high spatial correlation coefficients, 0.76 for sulfate, 0.77 for black carbon, 0.77 for 449 450 organic carbon, 0.94 for dust, and 0.94 for sea salts, between CMIP5 data and BCC-ESM1 451 simulations. Relative lower relations for sulfate, black carbon and organic carbon are possibly caused as different anthropogenic emission sources are used in BCC-ESM1 and to create 452 CMIP5 data. Dust and sea salts belong to natural aerosols and depend on the land and sea 453 454 surface conditions, so their spatial distributions are easy to be captured and have relatively 455 higher correlations between CMIP5 data and BCC-ESM1 simulations.

456

457 **4. Evaluation of O₃ and aerosol simulations in the 20th century**

458 The rate of sulfate formation is dependent on the levels of oxidants in the troposphere. 459 O₃ is an important oxidant. So, the evaluation of simulated tropospheric O₃ is helpful to understand the aerosols simulations. BCC-ESM1 is driven by most of the 460 461 CMIP6-recommended emission data. As shown in Figure 4, the zonal distributions of the total amounts of tropospheric O_3 below 300 hPa to the ground and their changes with time from 462 463 1850 to 2014 from the CMIP6-recommend dataset (Table 4) are well simulated by 464 BCC-ESM1. Evident increasing trends since 1850 almost exist in every latitudes, especially in the Northern Hemisphere where the contents of tropospheric O_3 are higher than those in the 465

466 Southern Hemisphere.

467 Figure 5 shows the vertical profiles of O_3 simulations with comparison to global 468 ozonesonde observations averaged for the monthly data over 2010-2014 from the World Ozone and Ultraviolet Radiation Data Centre (WOUDC; http://woudc.org/data.php, last 469 access: 24 September 2019) in nine regions which are averaged from 41 global WOUDC sites. 470 471 The details of WOUDC data may refer to Lu et al. (2019). As shown in Figure 5, BCC-ESM1 472 well captures the observed ozone vertical structure at all regions. At the lower and middle 473 troposphere (i.e. below 6 km), the model typically shows positive bias within 5 ppbv for the Southern Hemisphere and 10 ppbv for the Northern mid-latitudes, similar to those simulated 474 from many other global atmospheric chemical models (Young et al., 2013, 2018). The model 475 476 has larger ozone overestimation in the upper troposphere and stratosphere at most regions, at least partly due to the use of prescribed stratospheric ozone as upper boundary conditions 477 478 and/or errors in modeling ozone exchange between the stratosphere and the troposphere. 479 Global tropospheric ozone burden derived from our simulation is 335 Tg averaged over 480 2010-2014, in consistent with recent assessment from multi chemistry models (Young et al., 481 2018).

482 **4.1 Global aerosols trends**

483 Figure 6(a)-(c) show the time series of global total emissions of SO₂, OC, and BC to the atmosphere from natural and anthropogenic sources. Emissions of SO₂ are largely due to 484 485 industrial production. From 1850 to 1915, SO₂ emissions increased year by year as the 486 Industrial Revolution intensified and expanded. But from 1915 to 1945, the increase trend of 487 SO₂ emissions became slower as broke out the First and the Second World Wars. After that 488 period, with growing industrial productions, SO₂ emissions increased again and reached a 489 maximum around the end of 1970s. During the 1980s and 2000s, with a substantial decrease 490 of SO2 emissions in Europe and the United States, the global SO2 emissions has been 491 decreasing since the 1980s despite the rapid increase of SO₂ emissions in South and East Asia 492 as well as in developing countries in the Southern Hemisphere in recent years (Liu et al., 493 2009). The OC and BC emissions substantially increased since 1950s just after the Second 494 World War. The global total OC emission in 2010 was nearly twice as much as that in pre-industrial (year 1850) and increased by 18 Tg • yr⁻¹. Anthropogenic black carbon 495

496 emissions increased from 1 Tg yr⁻¹ in 1850 to nearly 8 Tg yr⁻¹ in 2010.

Anthropogenic SO₂, OC and BC emissions strongly affect the variations of atmospheric 497 concentrations of sulfate, OC, and BC. The global 0.5°x0.5° gridded data of 498 CMIP5-recommended aerosols masses with 10-years interval from 1850 to 2000 (Lamarque 499 500 et al., 2010) provides an important reference to evaluate the aerosol simulations in BCC-ESM1. As shown in Figure 7b-7f, the annual total aerosol burdens of SO_4^{2-} , OC, and BC 501 in the whole atmosphere column as simulated by the BCC-ESM1 20th century historical 502 503 simulation are generally consistent with the values derived from CMIP5-recommended 504 aerosols concentrations. Due to increasing SO_2 emissions from 1850 to present day (Fig. 6), the global SO₂ burden in the atmosphere increased from 100 Tg in 1850s to 200 Tg in 1980s 505 (Fig. 7a), and has a high correlation coefficient of 0.996 with the anthropogenic emissions 506 507 (Fig. 6a), as the lifetime of SO_2 is short. The burden directly followed the emission. DMS in the atmosphere is oxidized by OH and NO_3 to form SO_2 (Table 2). Its natural emissions from 508 509 oceans from 1850 to 2010 in the model are the climatological monthly means (Dentener et al., 510 2006) from MOZART2 data package. As shown in Fig 7a, the global amount of DMS in the 511 whole atmosphere was about 0.12 Tg during 1850-1900 and decreased to 0.055 Tg in 2010. This decrease trend maybe partly results from the speeded rate of DMS oxidation with global 512 513 warming, and the loss of DMS gradually exceeds the source of ocean DMS emission to cause a net loss of DMS in the atmosphere since 1910s. Largely driven by SO_2 anthropogenic 514 515 emissions, the sulfate burden shows three different stages from 1850 to present. In the first period from 1850s to 1900s, the sulfate burden had a weak linear increase. It increased 516 significantly in the second stage from 1910's to 1940's, and then exploded since 1950's, until 517 518 the middle 1970s and early 1980s. The sulfate burden then remained nearly stable and even 519 showed slightly decreases as seen from the CMIP5 data. As for global BC and OC burdens, 520 BCC-ESM1 results show continuous increases since 1850s, especially from 1950 to present. From 1910's to 1940's, the CMIP5 data show a slight decrease of BC and OC burdens in the 521 atmosphere. 522

The dust and sea salt aerosols in the atmosphere are largely determined by the atmospheric circulations and states of the land and ocean surface. We can see that the global dust burden in the atmosphere showed evident increase from 1980 to 2000, which could be partly caused by evident global warming since 1980 and increasing soil dryness resulting in
more surface dust to be released in the atmosphere. Their details will be explored in the other
paper.

529 **4.2 Global aerosols budgets**

We further evaluate global aerosols budgets by comparing a 10-year average of BCC-ESM results from 1990 to 2000 with various studies for sulfate, BC, OC, sea salt, and dust. Their annual total emissions, average atmospheric mass loading, and mean lifetimes are listed in Tables 5 and 6. It is worth emphasizing that the global mean total source and sink for each type of aerosols in BCC-ESM1 are almost balanced.

The global DMS emission from the ocean is 27.4 Tg(S) yr^{-1} in BCC-ESM. This 535 emission in BCC-ESM is nearly balanced by the gas-phase oxidation of DMS to form SO₂. 536 The DMS burden is 0.12 Tg with a lifetime of 0.78 days, which is within the range of other 537 models reported in the literature. As shown in Table 5, the total SO_2 production averaged for 538 the period of 1991 to 2000 is 76.93 Tg(S) yr⁻¹. A rate of 13.2 Tg(S) yr⁻¹ (about 17%) SO₂ is 539 produced from the DMS oxidation, only 0.1 Tg(S) yr⁻¹ SO₂ from airplane emissions to the 540 atmosphere, and the rest (63.63 Tg(S) yr⁻¹, near 82.7%) from anthropogenic activities and 541 volcanic eruption at surface. The amount of SO₂ produced from the DMS oxidation is in the 542 range of other works (10.0 to 24.7 Tg(S) yr⁻¹) reported in Liu et al (2005). All the SO₂ 543 production is balanced by SO₂ losses by dry and wet deposition, and by gas- and 544 aqueous-phase oxidation. Half of its loss (38.74 Tg(S) yr⁻¹) occurs via its aqueous-phase 545 oxidation to form sulfate. Other losses through dry and wet depositions and gas-phase 546 oxidation to form SO_4^{2-} are also important (Table 2). All the sinks are in the range from the 547 literature (Liu et al., 2005). The global burden of SO_2 in the atmosphere is 0.48 Tg with a 548 549 lifetime of 1.12 days, consistent with values in literature (Liu et al., 2005).

Sulfate aerosol is mainly produced from aqueous-phase SO₂ oxidation (38.73 Tg(S) yr⁻¹) and partly from gaseous phase oxidation of SO₂ (10.32 Tg(S) yr⁻¹), and is largely lost by wet scavenging (49.06 Tg(S) y^{r-1}). The total SO₄²⁻ production in BCC-ESM is at the lower range of values in other models reported in Textor et al. (2006). Its global burden is 1.89 Tg and the lifetime is 4.69 days, which are within the range of 1.71 to 2.43 Tg and 3.3 to 5.4 days in the literatures (Textor et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2016; Matsui and Mahowald, 2017; 556 Tegen et al., 2019; the value derived from CMIP5 data).

Sources of BC and OC are mainly from anthropogenic emissions. Based on the CMIP6 557 data, there are, on average, 7.22 Tg yr⁻¹ BC and 13.91 Tg yr⁻¹ OC from fossil and bio-fuel 558 emissions and 18.38 Tg yr⁻¹ OC from natural emission during the period of 1991 to 2000. 559 560 Most of them are scavenged through convective and large-scale rainfall processes. The rest returns to the surface by dry deposition. The simulated global BC and OC burdens are 0.13 561 and 0.62 Tg, respectively (Table 6), all close to values of 0.114 Tg BC and 0.69 Tg OC 562 563 derived from the CMIP5 data, and within the range of 0.11-0.26 Tg BC (Textor et al., 2006; Matsui and Mahowald, 2017; Tegen et al., 2019) and less than the values of 1.25-2.2 Tg OC 564 in other literatures (Textor et al., 2006; Tegen et al., 2019). The simulated BC and OC 565 lifetimes are 6.6 and 5.0 days respectively, and are close to the recent values of 5.0-7.5 days 566 BC and 5.4-6.6 days OC in literatures (Matsui and Mahowald, 2017; Tegen et al., 2019). 567

The emissions of dust and sea salt are mainly determined by winds near the surface. The 568 annual total dust emission in BCC-ESM1 is 2592 Tg yr⁻¹, higher than AeroCom multi-model 569 mean (1840 Tg yr⁻¹, Textor et al., 2006), but comparable to other studies (Chin et al., 2002; 570 571 Liu et al., 2012; Matsui and Mahowald, 2017). The average dust loading is 22.93 Tg, lower than the value of 35.9 Tg in Ginoux et al. (2001) but slightly higher than the value of 20.41 572 Tg derived from CMIP5 data. The average lifetime for dust particles is 3.23 days that is 573 shorter than the AeroCom mean (4.14 days) and the value of 3.9 days in recent study (Matsui 574 and Mahowald, 2017). The simulated sea salt emission is 4667.2 Tg yr⁻¹, slightly lower than 575 the simulated value in Liu et al. (2012), and substantially lower than the AeroCom mean 576 (16600 Tg yr⁻¹, Textor et al., 2006). The simulated sea salt burdens are 11.89 Tg and close to 577 the CMIP5 data. Their averaged lifetimes are 0.93 days and close to the value in the recent of 578 579 Matsui and Mahowald (2017) but longer than the AeroCom mean (0.41days, Textor et al., 580 2006).

581 **4.3** Global aerosol distributions at present day

Figures 8-12 show December-January-February (DJF) and June-July-August (JJA) mean column mass concentrations of sulfate (SO_4^{2-}) , OC, BC, Dust, and Sea Salt aerosols averaged for the period of 1991-2000, respectively. Here, BCC-ESM1 simulated results are compared with the CMIP5-recommended data for the same period. Unlike the pre-industrial level of 586 sulfate shown in Fig. 2, sulfate concentrations at present day (Fig. 8) are strongly influenced by anthropogenic emissions, and have maximum concentrations in the industrial regions (e.g., 587 East Asia, Europe, and North America). Their seasonal variations are distinct and are 588 characterized by high concentrations in boreal summer and low concentrations in boreal 589 winter. These spatial distributions simulated by BCC-ESM1 are well consistent with the 590 CMIP5 data, with spatial correlation coefficients in DJF and JJA reaching 0.92 and 0.83 591 (Figure 13), respectively. The deviation of the spatial pattern in BCC-ESM1 is less from the 592 593 CMIP5 data in DJF but larger in JJA (Figure 13).

594 Unlike sulfate whose maximum concentrations are mainly distributed between 60 N and the equator, peaking concentrations of BC and OC as shown in Figs. 9 and 10 are located 595 596 near the tropics in the biomass burning regions (e.g., the maritime continent, Central Africa, 597 South America), and their seasonal variations from DJF to JJA are evidently weaker than 598 those of sulfate except in South America. In boreal summer, there are centers of high values in the industrial regions in the Northern Hemisphere mid-latitudes (i.e., East Asia, South Asia, 599 600 Europe, and North America). These main features of spatial and seasonal variations in CMIP5 601 data are well captured by BCC-ESM1, and the BCC-ESM1 vs. CMIP5 spatial correlation coefficients (Figure 13) are 0.90 (OC in DJF), 0.91 (BC in DJF), 0.91 (OC in JJA) and 0.92 602 (BC in JJA). There are less deviations of spatial pattern for OC in DJF and JJA, but larger 603 604 deviation for BC from CMIP5 data (Figure 13).

605 As show in Figure 11, dust concentrations in the atmosphere show largest values over 606 strong source regions such as Northern Africa, Southwest and Central Asia, and Australia, 607 and over their outflow regions such as the Atlantic and the western Pacific. In DJF, the 608 CMIP5 data shows centers of high concentrations over East Asia and Central North America, 609 but both centers are missing in BCC-ESM1. However, these two high-value centers in the 610 CMIP5 data may not be true, since frozen soils in these areas in winter lead to unfavorable 611 conditions for soil erosion by winds. The spatial correlation coefficients between CMIP5 and BCC-ESM1 remain high: 0.95 in JJA and 0.88 in DJF (Figure 13). Small deviations of spatial 612 613 pattern for dust simulations in BCC-ESM1 show less magnitude of dust maximums against 614 with CMIP5 data (Figure 13).

615

As shown in Figure 12, high sea salt concentrations are generally over the storm track

regions over the oceans, e.g., mid-latitudes in the Northern Oceans in DJF and the Southern Ocean in JJA where wind speeds and thus sea salt emissions are higher. In addition, there is a belt of high sea salt concentrations in the subtropics of both hemispheres where precipitation scavenging is weak. Their spatial distributions in BCC-ESM1 are consistent with the CMIP5 data with correlation coefficients of 0.92 in JJA and 0.90 in DJF (Figure 13). The spatial deviations of sea salt are much closer to CMIP5 data than those of sulfate, OC, BC, and dust distributions (Figure 13).

623 Figure 14 shows vertical distributions of zonally-averaged annual mean concentrations of sulfate, organic carbon, black carbon, dust, and sea salt aerosols in the period of 1991-2000. 624 Both BCC-ESM1 and CMIP5 results show that strong sulfur, OC, and BC emissions in the 625 industrial regions of the Northern Hemisphere mid-latitudes can rise upward and be 626 transported towards the North Pole in the mid- to upper troposphere. Most of OC, BC, and 627 dust aerosols are confined below 500 hPa, while sulfate can be transported to higher altitudes. 628 Sea salt aerosols are mostly confined below 700 hPa, as the particles are large in size and 629 630 favorable for wet removal and gravitational settling towards the surface. It can be seen that 631 BCC-ESM1 tends to simulate less upward transport of aerosols than the CMIP5 data, likely reflecting the omission of deep convection transport of tracers in BCC-ESM1. 632

The CMIP5 data used here are mainly from model simulations. We will further evaluate 633 the BCC-ESM1 model results with ground observations. Annual mean SO₄²⁻, BC and OC 634 635 aerosol observations from the Interagency Monitoring of Protected Visual Environments (IMPROVE) 1990-2005 sites over in the United 636 States (http://vista.cira.colostate.edu/IMPROVE/) and from the European Monitoring and Evaluation 637 638 Programme (EMEP) (http://www.emep.int) sites over 1995-2005 are used. As shown in 639 Figure 15a and 15b, the BCC-ESM simulated sulfate concentrations are in general comparable to the EMEP observations in Europe, but are systematically by about 1 μ g m⁻³ 640 higher than the U.S. IMPROVE observations. As for BC, there are large model biases at both 641 European and U.S. sites (Figs. 15c and 15d), especially BCC-ESM overestimates BC 642 643 concentrations at the IMPROVE sites. The observed OC concentrations are slightly 644 overestimated for IMPROVE sites but systematically underestimated for EMEP sites. Some statistical features for simulated concentrations versus EMEP and IMPROVE observations are 645

646 listed in Table 7. These comparisons are overall fairly reasonable considering the647 uncertainties in emissions and the coarse model resolution.

We then evaluate the simulated BC concentrations from BCC-ESM1 with the HIAPER 648 Instrumented Airborne Platform for Environmental 649 (High-Performance Research) Pole-to-Pole Observations (HIPPO) (Wofsy et al., 2011). The HIPPO campaign provided 650 observations of black carbon concentration profiles over Pacific Ocean and North America 651 between 2009 and 2011. Following Tilmes et al. (2016), model results here are sampled along 652 653 the HIPPO flight tracks and then averaged to different latitude and altitude bands for comparison. As shown in Figure 16, BCC-ESM1 and HIPPO aircraft observations shows 654 reasonable agreement in terms of the spatial distributions and seasonal variations of BC levels. 655 BCC-ESM1 generally reproduces the observed hemispheric gradients of BC, i.e. the larger 656 burden in the NH compared to the SH, in consistent with Figures 10 and 14. The mean value 657 of modelled results along the flight track is 11.1 ng/kg, comparable to 8.2 ng/kg of the HIPPO 658 659 observations. The model shows large overestimations of BC observations over the tropics, which is also found in the CAM4-chem global chemical model (Tilmes et al., 2016). 660

661

4.4 Aerosol Optical Properties

662 Aerosol optical depth (AOD) is an indicator of the reduction in incoming solar 663 radiation (at a particular wavelength) due to scattering and absorption of sunlight by aerosols. In this study, we calculate the AOD at 550 nm for all aerosols including sulfate, BC, organic 664 665 carbon, sea salt and dust as the product of aerosol dry mass concentrations, aerosol water content, and their specific extinction coefficients. The total AOD is calculated by summing 666 the AOD in each model layer for each aerosol species using the assumption that they are 667 externally mixed. The AOD observations retrieved from MODIS and MISR over the period of 668 669 1997-2003, and from AERONET over the period of 1998–2005 (http://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov) 670 are used to evaluate the averaged AOD at 550 nm in BCC-ESM. Figure 17 shows averages of MISR and MODIS AOD with corresponding averages from BCC-ESM. The BCC-ESM1 671 simulated AOD generally captures the spatial distribution of MISR and MODIS retrievals. 672 The model overestimates AOD over East China. It also systematically underestimates the 673 MODIS observations in the Southern Hemisphere, but is closer to MISR observations. Figure 674

675 18 shows multi-years annual means of BCC-ESM1 simulated AOD values versus observations from AERONET over the period of 1998-2005. The basic pattern of modeled 676 global AOD is similar to that of observations and their spatial correlation reaches 0.56. Large 677 values of AOD are mainly distributed in land continents such as North African, South Asia, 678 East Asia, Europe, and eastern part of North America. Figures 19a-19d present scatter plots of 679 observed versus simulated multi-year monthly mean AOD at those sites of AERONET in 680 Europe, North America, East Asia, and South Asia over the period of 1998-2005, respectively. 681 682 Model simulated monthly AOD generally agrees with observations within a factor of 2 for most sites. BCC-ESM slightly overestimates the AOD in European and North American sites. 683 In those regions, BCC-ESM also slightly overestimates MODIS and MISR AOD observations 684 685 (Fig. 17).

686 5. Summary and discussions

This paper presents a primary evaluation of aerosols simulated in version 1 of the Beijing 687 Climate Center Earth System Model (BCC-ESM1) with the implementation of the interactive 688 689 atmospheric chemistry and aerosol based on the newly developed BCC-CSM2. Global 690 aerosols (including sulfate, organic carbon, black carbon, dust and sea salt) and major greenhouse gases (e.g., O_3 , CH_4 , N_2O) in the atmosphere can be interactively simulated when 691 anthropogenic emissions are provided to the model. Concentrations of all aerosols in 692 BCC-ESM1 are determined by the processes of advective transport, emission, gas-phase 693 694 chemical reactions, dry deposition, gravitational settling, and wet scavenging by clouds and precipitation. The nucleation and coagulation of aerosols are ignored in the present version of 695 696 BCC-ESM1. Effects of aerosols on radiation, cloud, and precipitation are fully included.

697 We evaluate the performance of BCC-ESM1 in simulating aerosols and their optical 698 properties in the 20th century following CMIP6 historical simulation according to the 699 requirement of the AerChemMIP. It is forced with anthropogenic emissions evolving from 700 1850 to 2014 but some WMGHGs such as CH₄, N₂O, CO₂, CFC11 and CFC12 are prescribed 701 using CMIP6 prescribed concentrations (to replace prognostic values of CH₄ and N₂O from 702 the chemistry scheme). Both direct and indirect effects of aerosols are considered in 703 BCC-ESM1. Initial conditions of the CMIP6 historical simulation are obtained from a 704 600-year piControl simulation in the absence of anthropogenic emissions, which well captures

the pre-industrial concentrations of SO_4^{2-} , organic carbon (OC), black carbon (BC), dust, and 705 706 sea salt aerosols and are consistent with the CMIP5 recommended concentrations for the year 1850. With the CMIP6 anthropogenic emissions of SO₂, OC, and BC from 1850 to 2014 and 707 their natural emissions implemented in BCC-ESM1, the model simulated SO₄²⁻, BC, and OC 708 aerosols in the atmosphere are highly correlated with the CMIP5-recommended data. The 709 long-term trends of CMIP5 aerosols from 1850 to 2000 are also well simulated by 710 711 BCC-ESM1. Global budgets of aerosols were evaluated through comparisons of BCC-ESM1 712 results for 1990-2000 with reports in various literatures for sulfate, BC, OC, sea salt, and dust. 713 Their annual total emissions, atmospheric mass loading, and mean lifetimes are all within the range of values reported in relevant literature. Evaluations of the spatial and vertical 714 distributions of BCC-ESM1 simulated present-day SO₄²⁻, OC, BC, Dust, and sea salt aerosol 715 716 concentrations against the CMIP5 datasets and in-situ measurements of surface networks (IMPROVE in the U.S. and EMEP in Europe), and HIPPO aircraft observations indicate good 717 agreement among them. The BCC-ESM1 simulates weaker upward transport of aerosols from 718 719 the surface to the middle and upper troposphere (with reference to CMIP5-recommended 720 data), likely reflecting a lack of deep convection transport of chemical species in the present version of BCC-ESM1. The AOD at 550 nm for all aerosols including sulfate, BC, OC, sea 721 salt, and dust aerosols was further compared with the satellite AOD observations retrieved 722 from MODIS and MISR and surface AOD observations from AERONET. The BCC-ESM1 723 724 model results are overall in good agreement with these observations within a factor of 2. All these comparisons demonstrate the success of the implementation of interactive aerosol and 725 726 atmospheric chemistry in BCC-ESM1.

This work has only evaluated the ability of BCC-ESM1 to simulate aerosols. The variations of aerosols especially for sulfate are related to other gaseous tracers such as OH and NO₃ (Table 2), which are determined by the MOZART2 gaseous chemical scheme as implemented in BCC-ESM1, and require further evaluation. As limited length of the text, the other optical feature of aerosols such as extinction coefficients, single scattering albedo and asymmetry parameters, and even their feedbacks on radiation and global temperature change will be explored in the other paper. O_3 is evaluated in this work. Other GHGs such as CH_4 and N_2O concentrations can be simulated when forced with emissions and their simulations also need to be evaluated in future.

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6. Code and data availability

737 The source codes of BCC-ESM1-model are available for use under licence agreement., 738 model input files, and scripts to reproduce the simulations that are presented in the article 739 have been archived and made publicly available for downloading from 740 https://zenodo.org/record/3609337 (Wu et al., 2020). Readers interested in BCC ESM1 codes and the model input files required to reproduce the simulations may contact Dr. Tongwen Wu 741 (twwu@cma.gov.cn) for further details. Model output of BCC CMIP6 AerChemMIP 742 simulations described in this paper refer to Zhang et al. (2019) and is distributed through 743 ESGF and freely accessible through the ESGF data portals after registration. Details about 744 745 ESGF presented the CMIP Panel website are on at http://www.wcrp-climate.org/index.php/wgcm-cmip/about-cmip. 746

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748 Author contributions

Tongwen Wu led the BCC-ESM1 development. All other co-authors have contributions
to it. Fang Zhang and Jie Zhang designed the experiments and carried them out. Tongwen Wu,
Laurent Li, Lin Zhang, Xiaohong Liu, Aixue Hu, and Jun Wang wrote the final document

with contributions from all other authors.

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Table 1. Chemical species considered in BCC-AGCM3-Chem. Species marked with star (*)
denote those added in BCC-ESM1 apart from the 63 species used in MOZART2. In the
column of surface emission, interactive surface emissions are considered for sea salt and dust.

Species		Dry deposition	Wet deposition	Surface emission	Aircraft emission	Volcanic emission
	03	√	ucposition	chilission	chilission	ciiiissioii
	N_2O			\checkmark		
	N					
	NO	\checkmark		\checkmark	\checkmark	
	NO ₂	\checkmark				
	NO ₃					
	HNO ₃	\checkmark	\checkmark			
	HO ₂ NO ₂	\checkmark	\checkmark			
	N_2O_5					
	CH ₄	\checkmark		\checkmark	\checkmark	
	CH_3O_2					
	CH ₃ OOH	\checkmark	\checkmark			
	CH ₂ O	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark		
	CO	\checkmark		\checkmark	\checkmark	
	ОН					
	HO ₂					
	H_2O_2	\checkmark	\checkmark			
	C_3H_6			\checkmark		
	ISOP			\checkmark		
Gas tracers	PO ₂					
	CH ₃ CHO	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark		
	РООН	1	\checkmark			
	CH ₃ CO ₃					
	CH ₃ COOOH	\checkmark	\checkmark			
	PAN	\checkmark				
	ONIT	\checkmark	\checkmark			
	C ₂ H ₆			\checkmark		
	C ₂ H ₄			\checkmark		
	C_4H_{10}			\checkmark		
	MPAN	\checkmark				
	ISOPO ₂					
	MVK		\checkmark			
	MACR		~			
	MACRO ₂		·			
	MACROOH	\checkmark	\checkmark			
	MCO ₃	v	÷			
	$C_2H_5O_2$					
	C ₂ H ₅ OOH	\checkmark	\checkmark			
	$C_{10}H_{16}$	v	× ·	\checkmark		

Table 1. Continued.

Species name		Dry deposition	Wet deposition	Surface emission	Aircraft emission	Volcanio emissio
	C ₃ H ₈			\checkmark		
	$C_3H_7O_2$					
	C ₃ H ₇ OOH	\checkmark	\checkmark			
	CH ₃ COCH ₃	\checkmark		\checkmark		
	ROOH		\checkmark			
	CH₃OH	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark		
	C ₂ H ₅ OH	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark		
	GLYALD	\checkmark	\checkmark			
	НҮАС	\checkmark	\checkmark			
	EO ₂					
	EO					
	HYDRALD	\checkmark	\checkmark			
-	RO ₂					
Gas tracers	CH ₃ COCHO	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark		
	Rn-222					
	Pb-210	\checkmark	\checkmark			
	ISOPNO ₃		\checkmark			
	ONITR	\checkmark	\checkmark			
	XO ₂					
	ХООН	\checkmark	\checkmark			
	ISOPOOH	\checkmark	\checkmark			
	H ₂	\checkmark		\checkmark		
	Stratospheric O ₃	\checkmark				
	Inert O ₃	\checkmark				
	SO_2^*	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
	DMS*			~		
	NH ₃ *			\checkmark	\checkmark	
	SO ₄ ^{2-*}	\checkmark	\checkmark		•	
	0C1*	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	
	0C2*	\checkmark	\checkmark	~	\checkmark	
	BC1*	\checkmark	\checkmark	1	1	
	BC2*	~	√	√	J	
	SSLT01*	, ,	\checkmark	•	•	
Aerosols	SSLT02*	~	~			
10105015	SSLT02*	,				
	SSLT04*	~	~			
	DST01*	~				
	DST01 DST02*	· ·				
	DST02 DST03*	× ./	~ ./			
	03103	N	N			

- 1097 Table 2. Gas-phase chemical reactions for NH₃ and bulk aerosols precursors following
- 1098 CAM-Chem (Lamarque et al., 2012). The reaction rates (s^{-1}) refer to Tie et al. (2001) and
- 1099 Sander et al. (2003), and Cooke and Wilson (1996). Temperature (T) is expressed in K, air
- 1100 density (M) in molecule cm^{-3} , ki and ko in cm^{3} molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹.
- 1101

Chemical reactions	Rate
$NH_3 + OH \rightarrow H_2O$	1.70E-12*exp(-710/T)
$SO_2 + OH \rightarrow SO_4^{2-}$	ko/(1.+ko*M/ki)*f**(1./(1.+log10(ko*M/ki)), in which
	ko=3.0E-31*(300/T)**3.3; ki=1.E-12; f=0.6
$DMS + OH \rightarrow SO_2$	9.60E-12*exp(-234./T)
$DMS + OH \rightarrow .5*SO_2 + .5*HO_2$	1.7E-42*exp(7810/T)*M*0.21/(1+5.5E-31*exp(7460/T)* M* 0.21)
$DMS + NO_3 \rightarrow SO_2 + HNO_3$	1.90E-13*exp(520/T)
$BC1 \rightarrow BC2$	7.10E-06
$OC1 \rightarrow OC2$	7.10E-06

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1	1	04	

Table 3. Size and density parameters of bulk aerosols.

		Mean radius (µm) /	Geometric standard	Density
Aerosols	Species Name			
		bin size (µm)	deviation (µm)	$(g \text{ cm}^{-3})$
SO ₄ ²⁻	Sulfate	0.05	2.03	1.77
BC1	hydrophobic black carbon	0.02	2.00	1.0
BC2	hydrophilic black carbon	0.02	2.00	1.0
OC1	hydrophobic organic carbon	0.03	2.24	1.8
OC2	hydrophilic organic carbon	0.03	2.24	1.8
DST01	Dust	0.55/ bin: 0.1-1.0	2.00	2.5
DST02	Dust	1.75 / bin: 1.0-2.5	2.00	2.5
DST03	Dust	3.75 / bin: 2.5-5.0	2.00	2.5
DST04	Dust	7.50 / bin: 5.0-10.	2.00	2.5
SSLT01	Sea salt	0.52 / bin: 0.2-1.0	2.00	2.2
SSLT02	Sea salt	2.38 / bin: 1.0-3.0	2.00	2.2
SSLT03	Sea salt	4.86 / bin: 3.0-10.	2.00	2.2
SSLT04	Sea salt	15.14 / bin: 1020.	2.00	2.2

Table 4. Source of emission data. MOZART2 data denote the standard tropospheric chemistry package for MOZART contains surface emissions from the EDGAR 2.0 data base (Olivier et al., 1996). ACCMIP data are downloaded from the IPCC ACCMIP emission inventory (http://accent.aero.jussieu.fr/ACCMIP.php) and they vary from 1850 to 2000, in 10-year (Lamarque al., 2010). CMIP6 steps et data are from https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/input4mips/. Anthropogenic emission includes Industrial and fossil fuel use, agriculture, ships, and etc. Biomass burning includes vegetation fires incl. fuel wood and agricultural burning.

Species	Anthropogenic emission	Biomass burning	Biogenic emissions from vegetation	Biogenic emissions from soil	Oceanic emissions	Airplane emission	Volcanic emission
C ₂ H ₄	CMIP6	CMIP6	On-line computation		MOZART2		
C₂H₅OH	CMIP6	CMIP6					
C_2H_6	CMIP6	CMIP6	ACCMIP		MOZART2		
C_3H_6	CMIP6	CMIP6	On-line computation		MOZART2		
C_3H_8	CMIP6	CMIP6	ACCMIP		MOZART2		
C_4H_{10}	CMIP6	CMIP5	MOZART2		MOZART2		
CH ₂ O	CMIP6	CMIP6					
CH₃CHO	ACCMIP	CMIP6					
CH₃COCHO		CMIP6					
CH₃OH	ACCMIP	CMIP6	ACCMIP				
CH₃COCH₃	ACCMIP	ACCMIP	On-line computation		MOZART2		
ISOP		CMIP5	On-line computation				
$C_{10}H_{16}$		CMIP6	On-line computation				
CH ₄	CMIP6	CMIP6	MOZART2		MOZART2	CMIP6	
СО	CMIP6	CMIP6	ACCMIP	MOZART2	ACCMIP	CMIP6	
H ₂	MOZART2	CMIP6		MOZART2	MOZART2		
N ₂ O	MOZART2	CMIP6		MOZART2	MOZART2		
NH ₃	CMIP6	CMIP6		ACCMIP	ACCMIP	CMIP6	
NO	CMIP6	CMIP6		ACCMIP		CMIP6	
SO ₂	CMIP6	CMIP6				CMIP6	ACCMIP
DMS					ACCMIP		
OC1	CMIP6	CMIP6				CMIP6	
OC2	CMIP6	CMIP6	On-line computation			CMIP6	
BC1	CMIP6	CMIP6				CMIP6	
BC2	CMIP6	CMIP6				CMIP6	

		BCC-ESM	Other studies and CMIP5 data
		(1991-2000 mean)	
DMS	Sources	27.4	
	Emission	27.4	10.7-23.7 ^a
	Sinks	28.0	
	Gas-phase oxidation	28.0	
	Burden	0.12	$0.04-0.29^{a}$
	Lifetime	0.78	0.5-3.0 ^a
SO_2	Sources	76.93	
	Emission at surface	63.63	
	Emission from airplane	0.10	
	DMS oxidation	13.20	$10.0-24.7^{\mathrm{a}}$
	Sinks	76.96	
	Dry deposition	18.53	$16.0-55.0^{\rm a}$
	Wet deposition	9.36	$0.0-19.9^{a}$
	Gas-phase oxidation	10.33	$6.1-16.8^{a}$
	Aqueous-phase oxidation	38.74	24.5-57.8 ^a
	Burden	0.48	$0.40-1.22^{a}$
	Lifetime	1.12	0.6-2.6 ^a
SO_4^{2-}	Sources	49.05	59.67 ± 13.13^{b}
	Emission	0.00	
	SO ₂ aqueous-phase	38.73	
	oxidation		
	SO ₂ gas-phase oxidation	10.32	
	Sinks	49.06	
	Dry deposition	2.20	4.96-5.51 ^d
	Wet deposition	46.86	39.34-40.20 ^d
	Burden	1.89	1.98±0.48 ^b , 1.71 ^c ,1.2 ^g , 2.22-2.43 ^h
	Lifetime	4.69	4.12 ± 0.74^{b} , 3.72 - 3.77^{d} 3.3^{g} , 3.7 - 4.0^{h}

Table 5. Global budgets for DMS, SO_2 , and sulfate in the period of 1991 to 2000. Units are sources and sinks, $Tg(S) yr^{-1}$; burden, Tg; lifetime, days.

Notes: References denote a for Liu et al. (2005), b for Textor et al. (2006), c for the values derived from CMIP5 prescribed aerosol masses averaged from 1991 to 2000, d for Liu et al. (2012), g for Matsui and Mahowald (2017), and h for Tegen et al. (2019). Values of DMS, SO₂, and sulfate burdens in the literature d are transferred from TgS to Tg (species) for units consistence.

		BCC-ESM	Other studies and
		(1991-2000 mean)	CMIP5 data
BC	Sources	7.22	
	Emission	7.22	$11.9 \pm 2.7^{\rm b}, 7.8^{\rm g}$
	Sinks	7.24	7.75 ^d , 7.8 ^g
	Dry deposition	0.90	0.27 ^g , 1.30-1.64 ^e
	Wet deposition	6.34	7.5 ^g , 6.10-6.45 ^e
	Burden	0.13	0.114° , $0.24 \pm 0.1^{\circ}$, 0.11° , $0.14-0.26^{\circ}$,
			0.084-0.123 ^e
	Lifetime	6.60	$7.12 \pm 2.35^{\text{b}}$, $3.95 - 4.80^{\text{e}}$, 5.0^{g} , $6.3 - 7.5^{\text{h}}$
OC	Sources	32.29	
	Fossil and biofuel	13.91	
	emission		
	Natural emission	18.38	
	Sinks	32.30	
	Dry deposition	2.44	
	Wet deposition	29.86	
	Burden	0.62	$0.69^{\circ}, 1.7 \pm 0.45^{\circ}, 1.0 - 2.2^{h}$
	Lifetime	5.00	$6.54 \pm 1.76^{\text{b}}, 4.56 - 4.90^{\text{d}}, 6.4^{\text{g}}, 5.4 - 6.6^{\text{h}}$
Dust	Sources	2592.0	1840 ^b ,2943.5-3121.9 ^d , 2677 ^g
	Sinks	2592.0	
	Dry deposition	1630.8	1444 ^g
	Wet deposition	961.2	1245 ^g
	Burden	22.93	20.41 ^c , 22.424.7 ^d , 35.9 ^f ,
			$19.2 \pm 7.68^{\text{b}}, 28.5^{\text{g}}, 16.5 - 17.9^{\text{h}}$
	Lifetime	3.23	$4.14 \pm 1.78^{\text{b}}, 2.61 - 3.07^{\text{d}}, 3.9^{\text{g}}, 5.3 - 5.7^{\text{h}}$
Sea Salt	Sources	4667.2	4965.5-5004.1 ^d , 5039 ^g
	Sinks	4667.4	
	Dry deposition	2978.5	2158 ^g
	Wet deposition	1688.9	2918 ^g
	Burden	11.89	$7.58-10.37^{a}$, 6.4 ± 3.4^{b} , 11.84^{c} ,
			13.6 ^g , 3.9 ^h
	Lifetime	0.93	$0.41 \pm 0.24^{b}, 0.55 = 0.76^{d}, 0.98^{g}, 1.2 = 1.3^{h}$

Table 6. Same as Table 5, but for global budgets for black carbon, organic carbon, dust, and sea salts. Units are sources and sinks, $Tg yr^{-1}$; burden, Tg; lifetime, days.

Notes: References denote a for Liu et al. (2005), b for Textor et al. (2006), c derived from CMIP5 prescribed aerosol masses averaged from 1991 to 2000, d for Liu et al. (2012), e for Liu et al. (2016), f for Ginoux (2001), g for Matsui and Mahowald (2017), and h for Tegen et al. (2019).

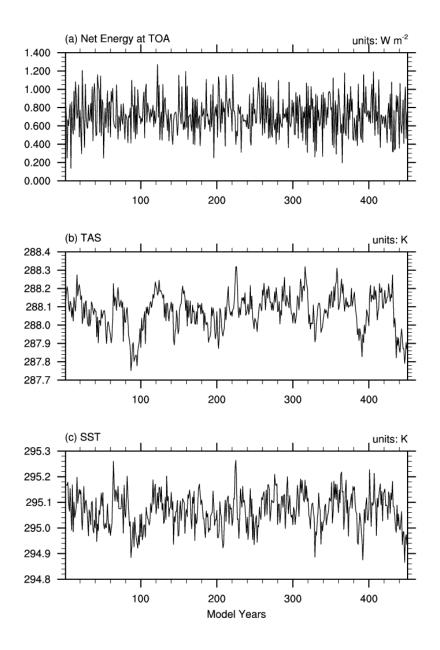


Figure 1. The time series of global and annual mean of (a) net energy budget at top of atmosphere (W m^{-2}), (b) near-surface air temperature (K), and (c) sea surface temperature (K) in the last 450 years of the piControl simulation.

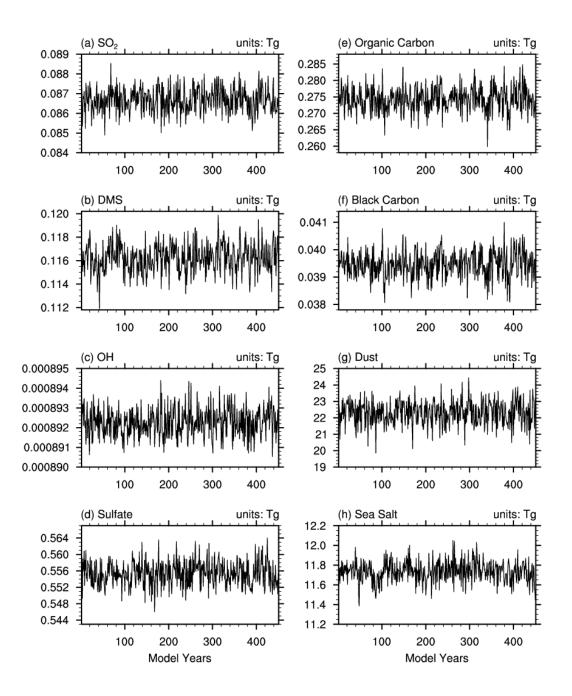


Figure 2. Same as in Figure 1, but for the global burdens of (a) SO_2 , (b) DMS, (c) OH, and (d-h) different aerosols in the troposphere (below 100 hPa). Units are Tg.

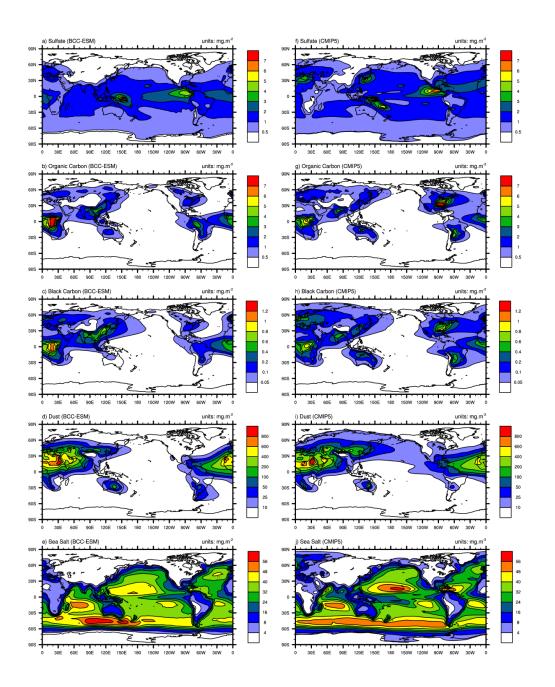


Figure 3. Global distributions of annual mean mass burdens of sulfate (SO_4^{2-} ; first row), organic carbon (OC; second row), black carbon (BC; third row), dust (fourth row), and sea salt (fifth row) aerosols in the whole atmospheric column. The left panels show the mean averaged for the last 100 years of BCC-ESM pre-industrial piControl simulations, and the right panels show the CMIP5 recommended aerosol concentrations in year 1850 (the website at IIASA http://tntcat.iiasa.ac.at/RcpDb/.). Units: mg m⁻².

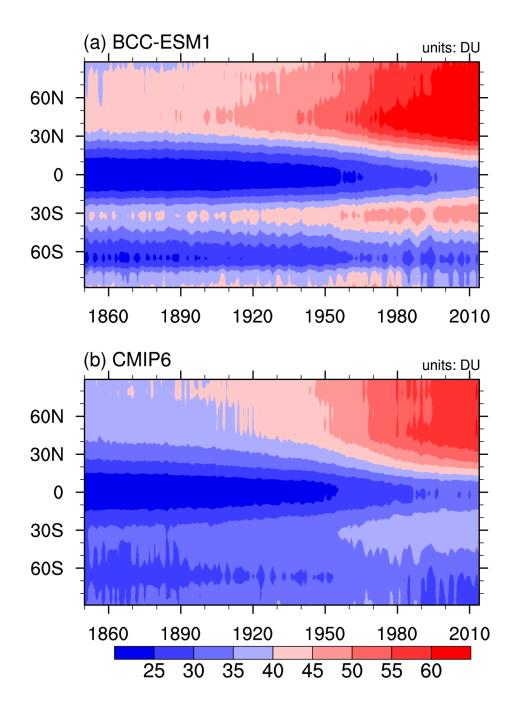


Figure 4. Zonal mean of yearly mean concentration of ozone column in the troposphere below 300 hPa to the ground from 1871 to 1999 for (a) BCC-ESM1 and (b) CMIP6 data. Unit: DU.

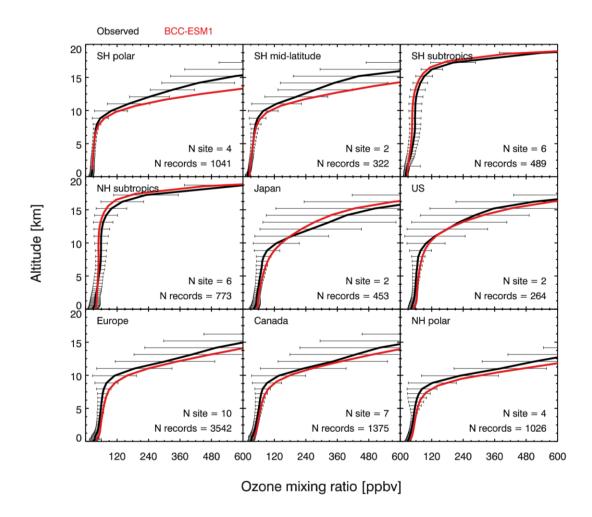


Figure 5. Vertical profiles of annual mean ozone concentrations from observations averaged for 2010-2014 in nine regions (black) and from the BCC-ESM1 simulations (red). The observations are derived from 41 global WOUDC sites.

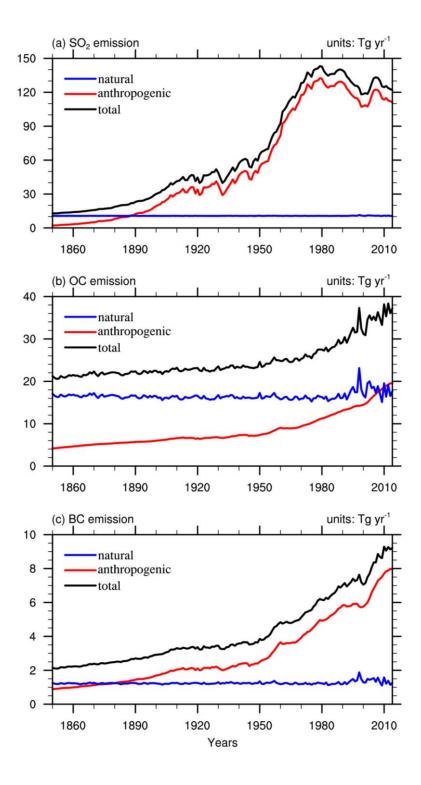


Figure 6. Global annual anthropogenic, natural, and total emissions of SO_2 , organic carbon (OC), and black carbon (BC) in the BCC-ESM1 historical simulation. All the biomass burning emissions are included in natural emissions in (a)-(c). Units: Tg yr⁻¹.

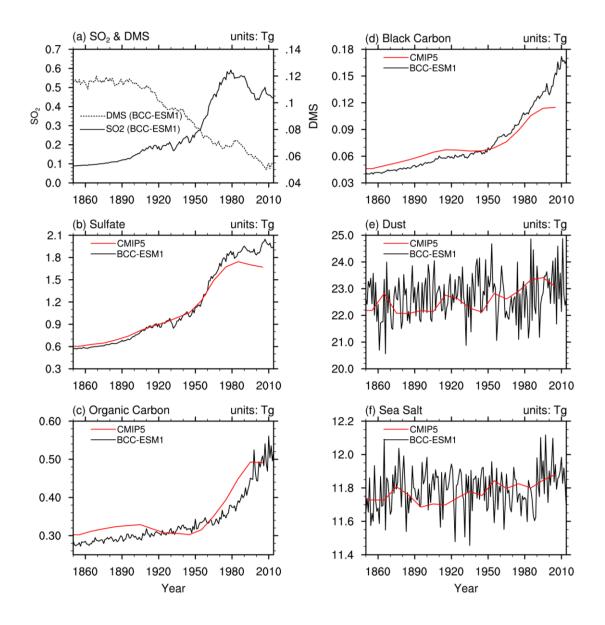


Figure 7. The time series of global yearly amounts of (a) SO_2 and DMS and (b-f) aerosols in the whole atmosphere column from the CMIP6 historical simulations of BCC-ESM1 (black lines) and the CMIP5-recommended aerosols masses (red lines). The yearly CMIP5 data are interpolated from the time series in 10-year interval. Units: Tg.

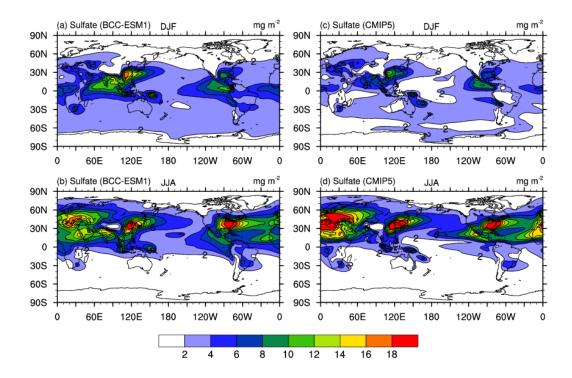


Figure 8. December-January-February (DJF; top panels) and June-July-August (JJA; bottom panels) mean sulfate ($SO_4^{2^-}$) aerosol column mass concentrations averaged for the period of 1971-2000. Left panels show the historical simulations of BCC-ESM1, and right panels the CMIP5-recommended data. Units: mg.m⁻².

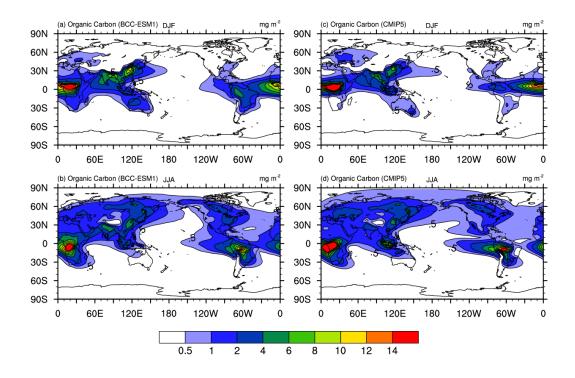


Figure 9. The same as in Figure 8, but for organic carbon (OC) aerosol column mass concentrations. Units: $mg m^{-2}$.

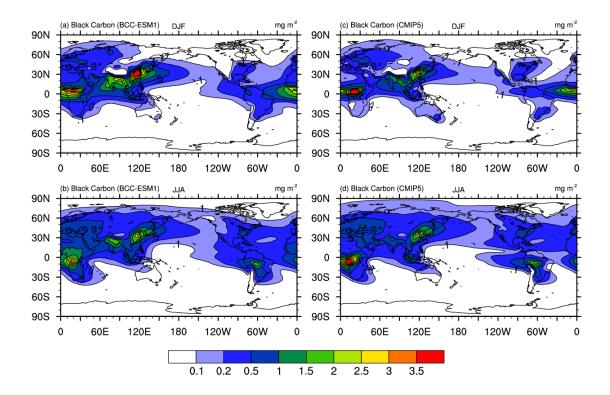


Figure 10. The same as in Figure 8, but for black carbon (BC) aerosol. Units: mg.m⁻².

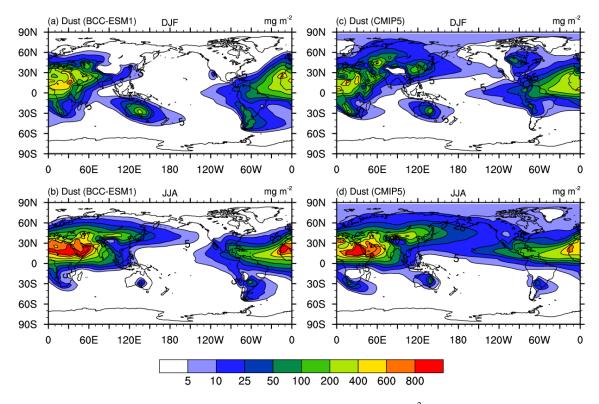


Figure 11. The same as in Figure 8, but for dust aerosol. Units: mg.m⁻².

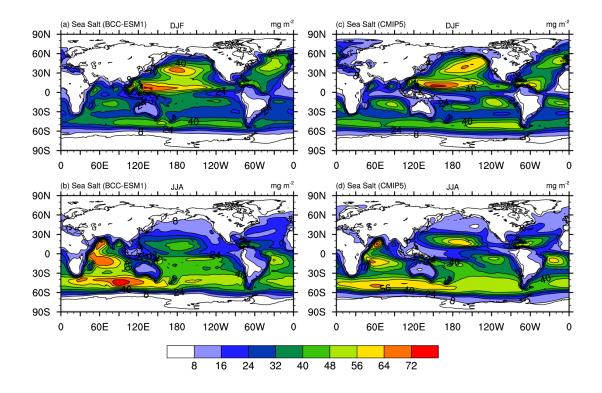


Figure 12. The same as in Figure 8, but for sea salt (SSLT) aerosol. Units: mg.m⁻².

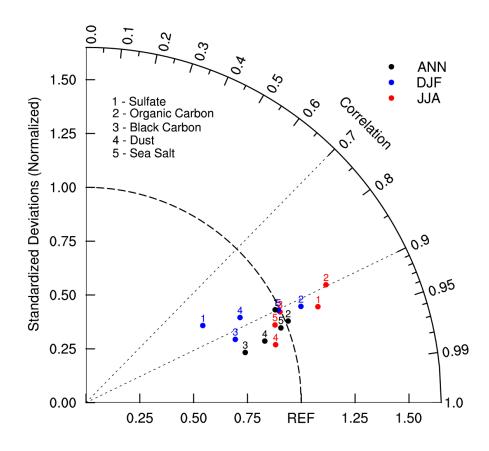


Figure 13. Taylor diagram for the global aerosols climatology (1971–2000) of sulfate, organic carbon, black carbon, dust, and sea salt averaged for December-January-February (DJF), June-July-August (JJA), and annual respectively. The radial coordinate shows the standard deviation of the spatial pattern, normalized by the observed standard deviation. The azimuthal variable shows the correlation of the modelled spatial pattern with the observed spatial pattern. Analysis is for the whole globe. The reference dataset is CMIP5-prescribed dataset.

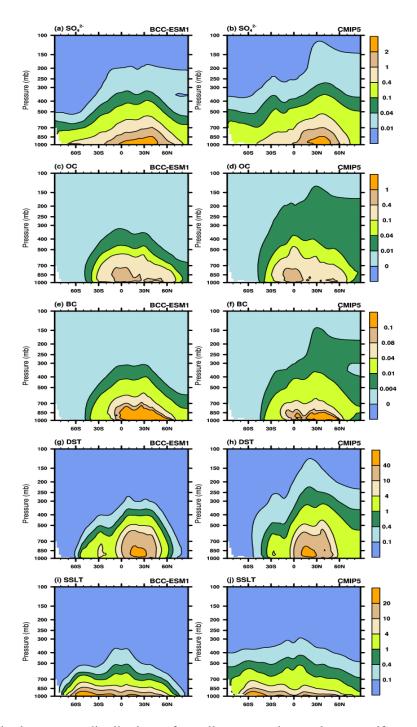


Figure 14. Latitude-pressure distributions of zonally-averaged annual mean sulfate, organic carbon, black carbon, dust, and sea salt aerosol concentrations for the period of 1971-2000. Left panels show the CMIP6 historical simulation of BCC-ESM1, and right panels the CMIP5 recommendation data. Units: $\mu g m^{-3}$.

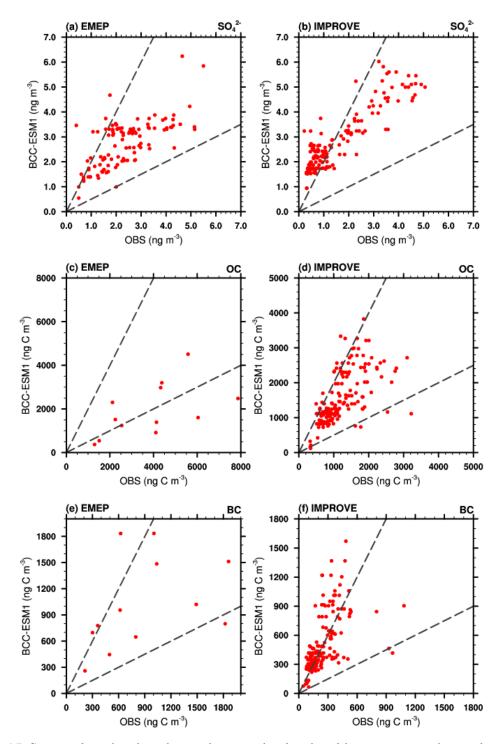


Figure 15. Scatter plots showing observed versus simulated multi-years averaged annual mean sulfate (SO_4^{-2}) , organic carbon (OC), black carbon (BC) mixing ratios at IMPROVE and EMEP network sites. Observations are averages over the available years 1990–2005 for IMPROVE sites, and 1995–2005 for EMEP sites. Simulated values are those at the lowest layer of BCC-ESM1.

Table 7. Observed versus simulated concentrations of sulfate (SO_4^{2-}) , organic carbon (OC), black carbon (BC) for the regional mean and spatial standard deviation, minimum and maximum values at HIPPO aircraft observations (BC only), IMPROVE and EMEP network sites, and the spatial correlation between observed and simulated multi-years averaged annual means. Simulated values are selected for the same locations and same valid observation time. The data used same as those in Figure 12.

	EMEP			IMPROVE			HIPPO
	SO4 ²⁻	OC	BC	SO4 ²⁻	OC	BC	BC
	(Obs/Model)	(OBS/Model)	(OBS/Model)	(OBS/Model)	(OBS/Model)	(OBS/Model)	(OBS/Model)
Mean Values	2.37/2.74	3844/1919	884/1022	1.53/2.79	1215/1565	249/504	8.2/11.1
Std Deviation	1.16/0.93	1997/1215	572/526	1.30/1.20	572/745	164/296	27.9/21.0
Min Values	0.40/0.55	1296/369	214/259	0.22/0.94	322/123	45/66	0.0025/0.066
Max Values	5.50/6.24	7867/4510	1859/1834	5.07/6.02	3219/3827	1084/1570	558.91/267.11
Correlation	0.67	0.56	0.40	0.90	0.63	0.55	0.51
(Obs and Mode	l)						

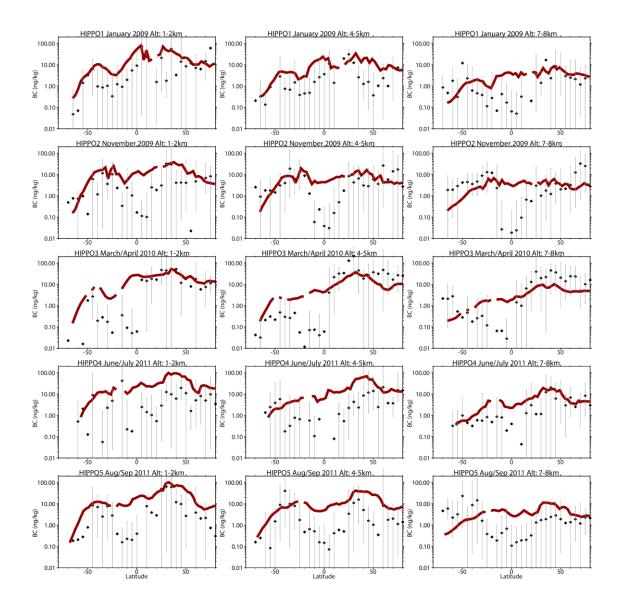


Figure 16. Comparison of modelled black carbon (BC) aerosol (red lines) with observations from HIPPO aircraft campaigns over the Pacific Ocean (black symbols, bars represent the full data range). Observations from different HIPPO campaigns were averaged over 5 °latitude bins and three different altitude bands (left column: 1-2 km, middle column: 4-5 km, and right column: 7-8 km) along the flight track over the Pacific Ocean. Model results were sampled along the flight track and then averaged over the abovementioned regions for comparison.

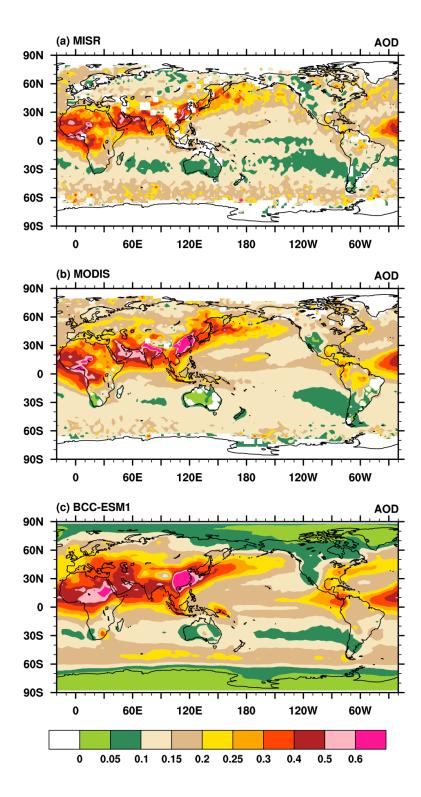
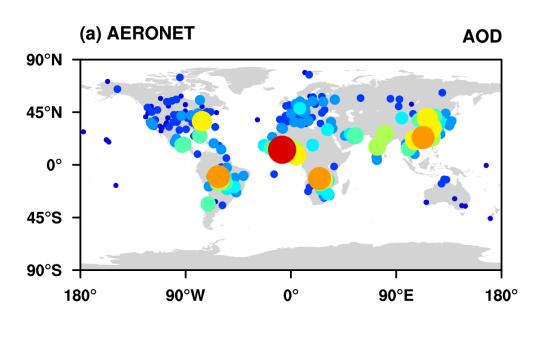


Figure 17. Global distribution of annual mean AOD simulated in BCC-ESM1 compared with the MISR and MODIS data for the year 2008.



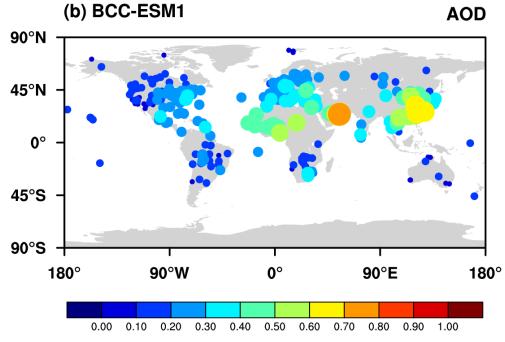


Figure 18. Observed versus simulated annual means of AOD at AERONET sites. Each data point represents the mean averaged for available monthly values of AOD. The dot sizes denote the magnitudes of AOD at sites. The spatial correlation is 0.56.

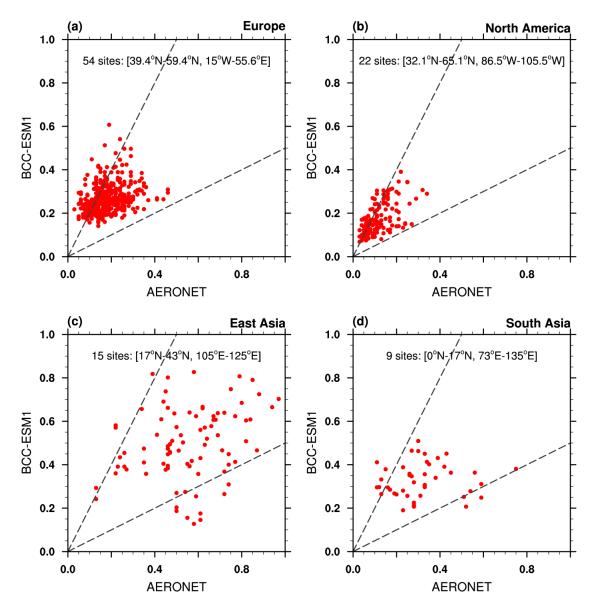


Figure 19. Scatter plots of observed versus simulated monthly mean AOD at AERONET sites in Europe, North America, East Asia, and South Asia over the period of 1998-2005.