

1 **Application of the Multi-Scale Infrastructure for Chemistry and Aerosols**  
2 **version 0 (MUSICAv0) for air quality research in Africa**

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30 **Abstract**

31 The Multi-Scale Infrastructure for Chemistry and Aerosols Version 0 (MUSICAv0) is a new  
32 community modeling infrastructure that enables the study of atmospheric composition and  
33 chemistry across all relevant scales. We develop a MUSICAv0 grid with Africa refinement (~28  
34 km × 28 km over Africa). We evaluate the MUSICAv0 simulation for 2017 with in situ  
35 observations and compare the model results to satellite products over Africa. A simulation from  
36 the Weather Research and Forecasting model coupled with Chemistry (WRF-Chem), a regional  
37 model that is widely used in Africa studies, is also included in the analyses as a reference. Overall,  
38 the performance of MUSICAv0 is comparable to WRF-Chem. Both models underestimate carbon  
39 monoxide (CO) compared to in situ observations and satellite CO column retrievals from the  
40 Measurements of Pollution in the Troposphere (MOPITT) satellite instrument. MUSICAv0 tends  
41 to overestimate ozone (O<sub>3</sub>), likely due to overestimated stratosphere-to-troposphere flux of ozone.  
42 Both models significantly underestimate fine particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) at two surface sites in East  
43 Africa. The MUSICAv0 simulation agrees better with aerosol optical depth (AOD) retrievals from  
44 the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) and tropospheric nitrogen dioxide

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46 (NO<sub>2</sub>) column retrievals from the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) than WRF-Chem.  
47 MUSICA<sub>v0</sub> has a consistently lower tropospheric formaldehyde (HCHO) column than OMI  
48 retrievals. Based on model-satellite discrepancies between MUSICA<sub>v0</sub> and WRF-Chem and  
49 MOPITT CO, MODIS AOD, and OMI tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub>, we find that future field campaign(s)  
50 and more in situ observations in an East African region (30°E – 45°E, 5°S – 5°N) could  
51 substantially improve the predictive skill of atmospheric chemistry model(s). This suggested focus  
52 region exhibits the largest model-in situ observation discrepancies, as well as targets for high  
53 population density, land cover variability, and anthropogenic pollution sources.

## 54 1. Introduction

55 As one of the most dramatically changing continents, Africa is experiencing myriad  
56 environmental sustainability issues (e.g., [Davidson et al., 2003](#); Washington et al., 2006; Ziervogel  
57 et al., 2014; Boone et al., 2016; [Swilling et al., 2016](#); Baudoin et al., 2017; Güneralp et al., 2017;  
58 Nicholson 2019; Fisher et al., 2021; [Langerman et al., 2023](#)). These environmental issues are  
59 causing vast losses in lives and in African economies, and are coupled with poverty and under-  
60 development (Washington et al., 2006; Fisher et al., 2021). Some of these environmental  
61 challenges are particularly severe in Africa compared to many other regions of the world (e.g.,  
62 droughts, floods, high temperatures, land degradation, and fires; Washington et al., 2006; [Nka et](#)  
63 [al., 2015](#); van der Werf et al., 2017; [Haile et al., 2019](#)). However, even though Africa is the second  
64 largest continent, in land area and population, attention and research on environmental challenges  
65 in Africa are very limited, leading to a deficit of knowledge and solutions (e.g., De Longueville et  
66 al., 2010). [Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change \(IPCC\) computes a human vulnerability](#)  
67 [metric from existing challenges such as poverty, access to health care plus expected mortality for](#)  
68 [climate hazards such as heat, drought, flood, fires and constraints to adaptation like funding, and](#)  
69 [government infrastructure \(Moss et al., 2001\). Many regions in Africa exhibit the most extreme](#)  
70 [values for this metric.](#)

71 Degraded air quality is an example of a severe environmental challenge with growing  
72 importance in Africa (e.g., [Kinney et al., 2011](#); [Naiker et al., 2012](#); Liousse et al., 2014; Thompson  
73 et al., 2014; [Amegah et al., 2017](#); Heft-Neal et al., 2018; Fisher et al., 2021; [Okure et al., 2022](#);  
74 Vohra et al., 2022). A previous study found that air pollution across Africa caused ~1.1 million  
75 deaths in 2019 (Fisher et al., 2021). However, the study of air quality in Africa is hindered by the  
76 scarcity of ground-based observations (e.g., Paton-Walsh et al., 2022; [Kalisa et al., 2023](#)),  
77 modelling capability and the use of satellite observations. In this paper, we will focus on air quality  
78 analyses over Africa with the new model Multi-Scale Infrastructure for Chemistry and Aerosols  
79 (MUSICA; Pfister et al., 2020).

80 Atmospheric chemistry modeling is a useful tool to [provide air quality forecasts, and to](#)  
81 [understand chemical processes](#). Various models have been applied to study atmospheric chemistry  
82 and air quality in Africa such as the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model coupled with  
83 Chemistry (WRF-Chem) (e.g., Kuik et al., 2015; Kumar et al., 2022; [Jenkins and Gueye, 2022](#)),  
84 the GEOS-Chem chemical transport model (e.g., Marais et al., 2012, 2019; Lacey et al., 2018), the  
85 CHIMERE chemical transport model (e.g., Menut et al., 2018; Mazzeo et al., 2022), and the U.K.  
86 Earth System Model (UKESM1) (Brown et al., 2022), and GEOS5 (Bauer et al., 2019).

87 MUSICA is a new state-of-the-art community modeling infrastructure that enables the  
88 study of atmospheric composition and chemistry across all relevant scales (Pfister et al., 2020).  
89 The newly developed MUSICA Version 0 (MUSICA<sub>v0</sub>) is a global chemistry-climate model that  
90 allows global simulations with regional refinement down to a few kilometers spatial resolution  
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196 (Schwantes et al., 2022). The coupling with other components of the Earth system (e.g., land,  
197 ocean, and sea ice) can also be performed at multiple scales. MUSICAv0 has various advantages  
198 and is particularly suitable for research applications over Africa. For example, MUSICAv0 can be  
199 used to study the interactions between atmospheric chemistry and other components of the Earth  
200 system and climate. MUSICA also includes the whole atmosphere (from the surface to  
201 thermosphere), and therefore can also be used to study the stratosphere and above and interactions  
202 between the stratosphere and troposphere. This is critical because some of the environmental issues  
203 are coupled (e.g., the ozone–climate penalty; Brown et al., 2022). In addition, as a global model,  
204 MUSICAv0 does not require boundary conditions to study a region at high resolution. Global  
205 impacts and interactions can be simulated in a consistent and coherent way. This feature is  
206 important as inflow from other continents and oceans significantly impacts air quality in Africa.  
207 MUSICAv0 has been evaluated over North America (Schwantes et al., 2022, Tang et al., 2022)  
208 and is also being developed and tested in other regions around the globe  
209 (<https://wiki.ucar.edu/display/MUSICA/Available+Grids>).

210 This paper serves as the basis for the future application of MUSICAv0 in Africa. In this  
211 study, we develop a MUSICAv0 model grid with regional refinement over Africa. Because  
212 MUSICAv0 with Africa refinement is newly developed while WRF-Chem has been previously  
213 used for African atmospheric chemistry and air quality studies, here we include results from WRF-  
214 Chem to assess the ability of MUSICAv0 in reproducing the regional features of atmospheric  
215 composition as simulated by WRF-Chem. We conduct the MUSICAv0 simulation for the year  
216 2017 to compare with a previous WRF-Chem simulation (Kumar et al., 2022). MUSICAv0 and  
217 the WRF-Chem simulation and the observational data used in this study are described in Section  
218 2. The MUSICAv0 model simulation results are evaluated against in situ observations and  
219 compared with satellite retrievals in Section 3. In Section 4, we provide an example application of  
220 MUSICAv0 over Africa – identifying key potential regions in Africa for future in situ observations  
221 and field campaign(s).

## 222 **2. Model and data**

### 223 **2.1 MUSICAv0**

224  
225 MUSICA is a newly developed framework for simulations of large-scale atmospheric  
226 phenomena in a global modeling framework, while still resolving chemistry at emission- and  
227 exposure-relevant scales (Pfister et al., 2020). MUSICA version 0 (MUSICAv0) is a configuration  
228 of the Community Earth System Model (CESM). It is also known as the Community Atmospheric  
229 Model with chemistry (CAM-chem) (Tilmes et al., 2019; Emmons et al., 2020) with regional  
230 refinement (RR) down to a few kilometers (Lauritzen et al., 2018; Schwantes et al., 2022). CAM-  
231 chem, and thus MUSICAv0, includes several choices of chemical mechanisms of varying  
232 complexity. This study uses the default MOZART-TS1 chemical mechanism for gas phase  
233 chemistry (including comprehensive tropospheric and stratospheric chemistry; Emmons et al.,  
234 2020) and the four-mode version of the Modal Aerosol Module (MAM4; Liu et al., 2016) for the  
235 aerosol scheme. The generation of desert dust particles in MUSICAv0 is calculated based on the  
236 Dust Entrainment and Deposition Model (Mahowald et al., 2006; Yoshioka et al., 2017). Dust  
237 emissions calculation is sensitive to the model surface wind speed. The dust aerosol processes in  
238 the MUSICAv0 simulation are simulated based on the MAM4 model (Liu et al., 2016). MAM4  
239 has 4 modes – Aitken, accumulation coarse, and primary carbon modes. Dust is mostly in the  
240 accumulation and coarse modes. The MUSICAv0 model source code and the model

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142 [documentation can be downloaded through](https://wiki.ucar.edu/display/MUSICA/MUSICA+Home)  
143 <https://wiki.ucar.edu/display/MUSICA/MUSICA+Home> (last access: 3 April 2023).

144 The MUSICAv0 users have the option to create their own model grid. MUSICAv0 is  
145 currently being developed and tested for applications over various regions globally  
146 (<https://wiki.ucar.edu/display/MUSICA/Available+Grids>), including North America, India, East  
147 Asia, South America, Australia, and Korea, among others. (e.g., Schwantes et al., 2022; Tang et  
148 al., 2022; Jo et al., 2023). In this study, we develop a model grid for applications in Africa  
149 (ne0np4.africa\_v5.ne30x4). As shown in Figure 1a, the horizontal resolution is ~111 km × 111 km  
150 (i.e., 1° latitude × 1° equatorial longitude) globally, and ~28 km × 28 km (i.e., 0.25° latitude ×  
151 0.25° equatorial longitude) within the region over Africa. Our simulation uses the default option  
152 for vertical layers (i.e., 32 layers from the surface to ~3.64 hPa).

153 Here we run MUSICAv0 with the model grid for Africa for the year 2017, saving 3-hourly  
154 output. We use the Copernicus Atmosphere Monitoring Service Global Anthropogenic emissions,  
155 (CAM5-GLOB-ANTH) version 5.1 (Soulie et al., 2023) for anthropogenic emissions and the  
156 Quick Fire Emissions Dataset (QFED) for fire emissions (Darmonov and da Silva, 2013). [CAM5-  
157 GLOB-ANTH version 5.1 emissions can be found at https://eccad3.sedoo.fr/data](https://eccad3.sedoo.fr/data) (last access: 3  
158 April 2023). QFED emissions can be found at  
159 <https://portal.nccs.nasa.gov/datashare/ies/aerosol/emissions/QFED/> (last access: 3 April 2023).  
160 CAM5-GLOB-ANT version 5.1 (Soulie et al., 2023) is one of the most widely used global  
161 inventories for anthropogenic emissions. CAM5-GLOB-ANT version 5.1 has been implemented  
162 in MUSICAv0, and evaluated in our previous studies (Tang et al., 2022, 2023; Jo et al., 2023).  
163 CAM5-GLOB-ANT version 5.1 does not include information from the Dynamics-Aerosol-  
164 Chemistry-Cloud Interactions in West Africa (DACCIWA) project, however, a future version of  
165 CAM5-GLOB-ANT is expected to include DACCIWA for Africa. In future work on this topic,  
166 we plan to make use of regional emissions inventories, such as the DACCIWA emission inventory.  
167 Plume rise climatology is applied to fire emissions following Tang et al. (2022). In addition, we  
168 also include open waste burning (<https://www.acom.ucar.edu/Data/fire/>; Wiedinmyer et al., 2014)  
169 emissions in the simulation. The model has the option of a free-running atmosphere or nudging to  
170 external meteorological reanalysis. In this simulation, only wind and temperature are nudged to  
171 the Modern-Era Retrospective analysis for Research and Applications, Version 2 (MERRA-2;  
172 Gelaro et al., 2017) with a relaxation time of 12 hours. [MERRA-2 data can be found at  
173 https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets?project=MERRA-2](https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets?project=MERRA-2) (last access: 3 April 2023).

174 We also added carbon monoxide (CO) tracers in the simulation to understand the source  
175 and transport of air pollution. CO tracers in CAM-chem/MUSICAv0 are described in detail by  
176 Tang et al. (2019). In this study we include tracers for 6 regions (North Africa, West Africa, East  
177 Africa, Central Africa, Southern Africa, and the rest of the world) and 3 emission sources  
178 separately (anthropogenic emissions, fire emissions, and open waste burning emissions). In total,  
179 there are 18 tagged CO tracers.

## 181 2.2 WRF-Chem

182 The Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model coupled with Chemistry (WRF-  
183 Chem) is a regional chemical transport model. It has been widely used for air quality studies in  
184 Africa. In this study we use model results from a WRF-Chem simulation described by Kumar et  
185 al. (2022). The WRF-Chem simulation has a grid spacing of 20 km, slightly higher than the  
186 MUSICAv0 simulation, and the model domain is highlighted in Figure 1a. The simulation has 36

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188 vertical levels from the surface to ~50 hPa. The WRF-Chem simulation uses the Model for Ozone  
189 and Related Tracers-4 (MOZART-4) chemical mechanism (Emmons et al., 2010) for tropospheric  
190 gas phase chemistry, and the Goddard Global Ozone Chemistry Aerosol Radiation and Transport  
191 (GOCART) model (Chin et al., 2002) for aerosol processes. The dust aerosol processes in the  
192 WRF-Chem simulation are simulated based on the Goddard Global Ozone Chemistry Aerosol  
193 Radiation and Transport (GOCART) model (Chin et al., 2002). Specifically, the dust emission  
194 scheme is following the GOCART emission treatment (Ginoux et al., 2001), which is a function  
195 of 10-m wind speed, soil moisture, and soil erosion capability. The atmospheric processes of dust  
196 are simulated based on the mass mixing ratio and size distribution that has been divided into 5 size  
197 bins with effective radii of 0.73, 1.4, 2.4, 4.5 and 8.0  $\mu\text{m}$ . The dust dry and wet depositions are  
198 also treated following the GOCART scheme (Chin et al., 2002). The European Centre for Medium  
199 Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) global reanalysis (ERA-Interim) fields are used for initial  
200 and boundary meteorology conditions, while another CAM-chem simulation is used for initial and  
201 boundary chemical conditions (Kumar et al., 2022). The WRF-Chem simulation used the global  
202 Emission Database for Atmospheric Research developed for Hemispheric Transport of Air  
203 Pollution (EDGAR-HTAP v2) for anthropogenic emissions and the Fire Inventory from NCAR  
204 version 1.5 (FINNv1.5) (Wiedinmyer et al., 2011) for fire emissions. The WRF-Chem output is  
205 saved hourly, however we only use 3-hourly output to match the MUSICAv0 simulation.

### 207 2.3 ATom

208 The Atmospheric Tomography mission (ATom; Thompson et al. 2022) was designed to  
209 study the impact of human-produced air pollution on greenhouse gases, chemically reactive gases,  
210 and aerosols in remote ocean air masses. ATom data (Wofsy et al., 2021) are available at  
211 <https://espoarchive.nasa.gov/archive/browse/atom> (last access: 3 April 2023). During the project,  
212 the DC-8 aircraft sampled the remote troposphere with continuous vertical profiles. There were  
213 four seasonal deployments from the summer of 2016 through the spring of 2018. Here we compare  
214 the MUSICAv0 simulation with observations from ATom-2 (January–February 2017) and ATom-  
215 3 (September–October 2017). Since the ATom flight tracks were mostly outside the WRF-Chem  
216 domain (Figure 1a), we do not compare the WRF-Chem simulation with ATom data. However,  
217 we compare chemical species from the MUSICAv0 simulation to the 2-minute merged ATom  
218 measurements globally to obtain a benchmark and broader understanding of MUSICAv0  
219 performance both within and outside the refined region. The model output is saved along the ATom  
220 aircraft flight tracks and with respect to the observational times at run time. Nitric oxide (NO) and  
221 ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) measurements from the NOAA Nitrogen Oxides and Ozone (NOyO3) instrument  
222 (Bourgeois et al., 2020, 2021) and the merged CO data (from Quantum Cascade Laser System and  
223 NOAA Picarro CO measurements) are used. As we use 2-minute merged ATom measurements,  
224 there are 2796 data points in ATom-2 (January–February 2017) and 3369 data points in ATom-3  
225 (September–October 2017).

### 227 2.4 IAGOS

228 The In-service Aircraft for a Global Observing System (IAGOS) is a European research  
229 infrastructure, and was developed for operations on commercial aircraft to monitor atmospheric  
230 composition (Petzold et al., 2015). IAGOS data are available at <https://www.iagos.org/iagos-data/>  
231 (last access: 3 April 2023). The IAGOS instrument package 1 measures CO, O<sub>3</sub>, air temperature,  
232 and water vapor (<https://www.iagos.org/iagos-core-instruments/package1/>). CO is measured by  
233 infrared absorption using the gas filter correlation technique (Precision:  $\pm 5\%$ , Accuracy:  $\pm 5$  ppb)

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234 while O<sub>3</sub> is measured by UV absorption at 253.7 nm (Precision: ±2%, Accuracy: ±2 ppb). We use  
235 airborne measurements of CO, O<sub>3</sub>, air temperature, and water vapor from IAGOS for model  
236 evaluation. The locations of the IAGOS flight tracks over Africa are shown in Figure 1b. The  
237 model results and IAGOS data comparisons are conducted separately for five African sub-regions  
238 (defined in Figure 1b). The IAGOS instruments are onboard commercial airliners and the sampling  
239 may not be representative of the whole sub-regions. For example, IAGOS data over southern  
240 Africa only covers the west part of southern Africa.

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## 2.5 Ozonesondes

243 The ozonesonde is a balloon-borne instrument that measures atmospheric O<sub>3</sub> profiles  
244 through the electrochemical concentration cell using iodine/iodide electrode reactions (Thompson  
245 et al., 2017), with records of temperature, pressure, and relative humidity from standard  
246 radiosondes. NASA/GSFC SHADOZ data are available at <https://tropo.gsfc.nasa.gov/shadoz/> (last  
247 access: 3 April 2023). We use ozonesonde data from Southern Hemisphere ADDitional  
248 OZonesondes (NASA/GSFC SHADOZ; Thompson et al., 2017; Witte et al., 2017, 2018).  
249 Specifically, ozonesonde data from four sites are used (Figure 1b): Ascension (Ascension Island,  
250 U.K.), Nairobi (Kenya), Irene (South Africa), and La Reunion (La Réunion Island, France). The  
251 average O<sub>3</sub> measurement uncertainty ranged from 5–9% for the ozonesonde data used in this study.

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## 2.6 WDCGG

254 Monthly surface CO measurements from the World Data Center for Greenhouse Gases  
255 (WDCGG; operated by the Japan Meteorological Agency in collaboration with the World  
256 Meteorological Organization) are used for model evaluation. WDCGG data are available at  
257 <https://gaw.kishou.go.jp/> (last access: 3 April 2023). Data from six sites are used (Figure 1b),  
258 namely (Ascension Island, U.K.), Assekrem (Algeria; remote site located in Saharan desert),  
259 Gobabeb (Namibia; located at the base of a linear sand dune, next to an interdune plain), Cape  
260 Point (South Africa; site exposed to the sea on top of a cliff 230 meters above sea level), Izana  
261 (Tenerife, Spain; located on the Island that is ~300 km west of the African coast), and Mare  
262 (Seychelles; near an international airport).

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## 2.7 Surface PM<sub>2.5</sub>

265 At the U.S. embassies, regulatory-grade monitoring data are collected with Beta  
266 Attenuation Monitors (BAMs), using a federal equivalent monitoring method, with an accuracy  
267 within 10% of federal reference methods (Watson et al., 1998; U.S. EPA, 2016). These instruments  
268 are operated by the U.S. State Department and the U.S. EPA, and data are available through  
269 AirNow (<https://www.airnow.gov/international/us-embassies-and-consulates/>). We use the  
270 measurements at the U.S. embassy locations in Addis Ababa Central (Ethiopia, 9.06° N, 38.76° E)  
271 and Kampala (Uganda, 0.30° N, 32.59° E) for the year 2017 as references (Malings et al., 2020)  
272 to match our simulations. The raw data are made available hourly and for this study we use daily  
273 mean PM<sub>2.5</sub> for comparison with model simulations. Djossou et al. (2018) presented PM<sub>2.5</sub>  
274 measurements from Feb 2015 to March 2017 at two cities in West Africa – Abidjan and Cotonou  
275 (Figure 1b). In Abidjan, there were three sites that are representative of traffic, waste burning at  
276 landfill, and domestic fires. The site in Cotonou is close to traffic emissions. The concentrations  
277 of PM<sub>2.5</sub> particles were measured at a weekly time step by the ambient air pumping technique  
278 (Djossou et al., 2018). We compare model results with the weekly PM<sub>2.5</sub> measurements from the  
279 sites in Abidjan and Cotonou for January–March 2017.

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## 2.8 MOPITT

The Measurements of Pollution in the Troposphere (MOPITT) instrument on board the NASA Terra satellite provides both thermal-infrared (TIR) and near-infrared (NIR) radiance measurements since March 2000. [MOPITT CO data can be accessed through https://search.earthdata.nasa.gov/search](https://search.earthdata.nasa.gov/search) (last access: 3 April 2023). Retrievals of CO column density and vertical profiles are provided in a multispectral TIR–NIR joint product which has sensitivity to near-surface as well as free tropospheric CO (Deeter et al., 2011; Worden et al., 2010). Here we use the MOPITT Version 9 Level 2 CO column product (Deeter et al., 2022) over Africa to evaluate the MUSICAv0 and WRF-Chem simulations. MOPITT Version 9 has significant updates to the cloud detection algorithm and NIR calibration scheme. The MOPITT satellite pixel size is ~22 km × 22 km, and the overpass time is ~10:30 am local time in 2017. When comparing model outputs to MOPITT the recommended data quality filter is applied and model outputs are interpolated to the MOPITT retrievals in space and time. To perform quantitative comparisons, the MOPITT averaging kernel and a priori are used to transform the model CO profiles to derive model column amounts.

## 2.9 OMI NO<sub>2</sub> (QA4ECV)

Tropospheric column NO<sub>2</sub> from the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) on board Aura is compared to the model in this study. Specifically, the NO<sub>2</sub> product from the quality assurance for the essential climate variables (QA4ECV) project is used (Boersma et al., 2017a; Compernelle et al., 2020). [OMI NO<sub>2</sub> data are available at https://www.temis.nl/qa4ecv/no2.html](https://www.temis.nl/qa4ecv/no2.html) (last access: 3 April 2023). The satellite pixel size is ~13 km × 25 km, and the overpass time is ~1:40 pm local time in 2017. A data quality filter was applied following the Product Specification Document (Boersma et al., 2017b; processing\_error\_flag = 0, solar\_zenith\_angle < 80, snow\_ice\_flag < 10 or snow\_ice\_flag = 255, amf\_trop/amf\_geo > 0.2, and cloud\_radiance\_fraction\_no20 <= 0.5). Model profiles were transformed using the provided tropospheric air mass factor (AMF) and averaging kernels.

## 2.10 OMI HCHO (QA4ECV)

We also use tropospheric column HCHO from OMI in this study. Similar to OMI NO<sub>2</sub>, we also use OMI HCHO product from QA4ECV (De Smedt et al., 2017a). [OMI HCHO data are available at https://www.temis.nl/qa4ecv/hcho.html](https://www.temis.nl/qa4ecv/hcho.html) (last access: 3 April 2023). A data quality filter was applied following the Product User Guide (De Smedt et al., 2017b; processing\_error\_flag = 0 and processing\_quality\_flag = 0). Model profiles were transformed using provided averaging kernels. We note that HCHO retrievals are subject to relatively large uncertainties compared to other satellite products used in this study. Therefore, the comparisons between model results and the OMI HCHO product only indicate the model-satellite discrepancies rather than determining model deficiencies. In addition, the WRF-Chem simulation from Kumar et al. (2022) does not include HCHO in the output and hence will not be compared.

## 2.11 MODIS AOD

The aerosol optical depth (AOD) product (550 nm) from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) on board Terra NASA Terra satellite is used. [MODIS AOD data can be accessed through https://search.earthdata.nasa.gov/search](https://search.earthdata.nasa.gov/search) (last access: 3 April 2023). Specifically, we used the MODIS Level 2 Collection 6.1 product (MOD04\_L2; Levy et al., 2017).

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333 Deep Blue Aerosol retrievals are used (Hsu et al., 2013; Levy et al., 2013) to include retrievals  
334 over the desert. The MODIS satellite pixel size is ~1 km × 1 km, and the overpass time is ~10:30  
335 am local time. East and Southern Africa have complex terrain due to mountains and rift valleys.  
336 This may lead to some uncertainties in MODIS AOD retrievals.

### 337 2.12 AERONET AOD

339 We use AOD measurements from the AErosol RObotic NETWORK (AERONET; Holben et  
340 al., 1998, 2001). AERONET data can be accessed through <https://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/>. We use  
341 Level 2 daily data (quality assured), with pre-field and post-field calibration applied and has been  
342 automatically cloud cleared and manually inspected. AOD at 675 nm from AERONET data are  
343 converted to AOD at 550 nm using provided Angstrom exponent to compare with modeled AOD  
344 at 550 nm.

### 345 2.13 SAAQIS

347 We also compare model results with PM<sub>2.5</sub>, CO, NO<sub>2</sub>, and O<sub>3</sub> measurements from South  
348 Africa Air Quality Information System (SAAQIS; Gwaze et al., 2018; Tshehla et al., 2019).  
349 SAAQIS is available at <http://saaqis.environment.gov.za/>. The data are hourly and we calculate  
350 daily average values before compare with model results. Similar to Zhang et al. (2021), we  
351 removed negative values and only calculate daily averages when 75% or more of the hourly data  
352 are available.

## 353 **3. Model comparisons with satellite data and evaluation with in situ observations**

354 Africa includes a wide range of environments and emissions source. Therefore, in this  
355 section we separate the continent in five sub-regions for analysis following Kumar et al. (2022).  
356 CO is a good tracer of anthropogenic and biomass burning emissions and modeled CO tracers are  
357 used in this section to understand sources. CO is a commonly used tracer in models with only one  
358 photochemical sink and an intermediate lifetime (e.g., Tang et al., 2019). CO tracers also allow  
359 clear identification of simulated anthropogenic and biomass burning contributions. Therefore,  
360 tagging CO is computationally efficient and tagged CO is relatively reliable as a tracer in models.  
361 Meteorology has a significant impact on the distributions of pollutants across the regions (e.g.,  
362 Gordon et al., 2023). The CO tracers in the model go through the same model processes (e.g.,  
363 transport) as CO. Therefore, the source contribution shown by the CO tracers is a result of both  
364 emissions and transport. Figure 2 shows the seasonal averages of CO column distributions over  
365 Africa from MOPITT along with the MUSICAv0 and WRF-Chem biases. The highest levels of  
366 CO in these maps are primarily associated with biomass burning, which moves around the  
367 continent with season. Both MUSICAv0 and WRF-Chem simulations underestimate the CO  
368 column compared to MOPITT (Figures 3a and 3b). Overall, MUSICAv0 agrees better with the  
369 OMI tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> column (Figure 3c) and MODIS AOD (Figure 3e) than WRF-Chem  
370 (Figures 3d and 3f). The MUSICAv0 simulation overall has lower tropospheric HCHO column  
371 than OMI in all regions and seasons (Figure 3g). Spatial distributions of model biases against the  
372 OMI tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> column, MODIS AOD, and OMI tropospheric HCHO column are included  
373 in Figures 4 and Figures S1–S2. In this section we compare the model results with satellite data  
374 and in situ observations over sub-regions in Africa and oceans near Africa (Figure 1b). AERONET  
375 data are overlaid with MODIS data in Figure 4. Overall, MODIS and AERONET AOD are  
376 consistent.

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380 **3.1 North Africa**

381 Over North Africa, both MUSICAv0 and WRF-Chem simulations underestimate the CO  
382 column during 2017 (Figures 2 and 3). As shown by the tagged model CO tracers (Figure 5), CO  
383 over North Africa is mainly driven by transport of CO from outside the continent and  
384 anthropogenic emissions. The model underestimation compared to the MOPITT CO column is  
385 consistent with the results of the comparisons with surface CO observations from WDCGG at the  
386 two sites located in North Africa (Assekrem and Izana; Figures 6a and 6c). At the two surface  
387 sites, the composition of source types and source regions are close to the composition of source  
388 types and source regions of the column average over North Africa (Figure 5, and Figures S3, and  
389 S4), hence the two sites are representative of the background conditions of North Africa.  
390 Compared to MODIS AOD, WRF-Chem has a mean bias of 0.36 whereas MUSICAv0's mean  
391 bias is 0.17 for 2017. The model AOD biases over North Africa are likely driven by dust. No  
392 comparison is made with IAGOS O<sub>3</sub> in North Africa due to data availability.

393  
394 **3.2 West Africa**

395 Over West Africa, fire and anthropogenic emissions are both important for CO pollutant  
396 and fire impacts peak in DJF (December, January, and February). Compared to the MOPITT CO  
397 column, the mean bias of MUSICAv0 and WRF-Chem for West Africa peak around February –  
398 the dry season of the Northern Hemisphere (Figure 3). In February, the MUSICAv0 mean bias is  
399  $-1.1 \times 10^{18}$  molecules/cm<sup>2</sup> and WRF-Chem mean bias is  $-7.5 \times 10^{17}$  molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>, which are likely  
400 driven by fire emission sources (Figure 5). Model comparisons with IAGOS CO also show a  
401 similar bias – both model simulations underestimate CO at all vertical levels. The underestimation  
402 peaks during DJF and below 600 hPa (Figure 7). As for MODIS AOD, WRF-Chem has the mean  
403 bias 0.69 whereas MUSICAv0's mean bias is 0.15, respectively. Similar to North Africa, the model  
404 biases in AOD over West Africa are also likely driven by dust and biomass burning. We also  
405 compare modeled O<sub>3</sub> with IAGOS O<sub>3</sub> observations (Figure 8).

406 Over West Africa, both models agree well with the IAGOS O<sub>3</sub> observations below 800 hPa  
407 (mean bias ranges from -1 to -4 ppb). Above 800 hPa over West Africa, WRF-Chem  
408 underestimates O<sub>3</sub> while MUSICAv0 overestimates O<sub>3</sub>. Overall, MUSICAv0 consistently  
409 overestimates O<sub>3</sub> above 800 hPa in all seasons while the direction of WRF-Chem bias changes  
410 with seasons (Figure 8). When MUSICAv0 overestimates O<sub>3</sub>, the bias is in general larger at the  
411 higher altitude of the troposphere. The concentration of the model stratospheric ozone tracer, O3S,  
412 is also larger at the higher altitude in DJF (Figure 10). The correlation of modeled O<sub>3</sub> and O3S is  
413 0.54, and the correlations of O3S and model O<sub>3</sub> bias (modeled O<sub>3</sub> minus IAGOS O<sub>3</sub>) is 0.35 over  
414 West Africa, implying the overestimation of O<sub>3</sub> in the upper troposphere could be partially driven  
415 by too strong stratosphere-to-troposphere flux of ozone. Previous studies also found impacts of  
416 stratosphere-to-troposphere flux of ozone over West Africa (e.g., Oluleye et al., 2013). Lightning  
417 NO emissions can also impact O<sub>3</sub> in the upper troposphere. The MUSICAv0 simulation has  
418 somewhat (~3 times) higher lightning NO emissions (Figure S5) compared to a standard CAM-  
419 chem simulation (not shown), therefore the high ozone in the upper troposphere may be due to an  
420 over-estimate of lightning NO. We also compared our modeled lightning NO emissions with a  
421 multi-year average climatology (2008-2015) from Maseko et al. (2021) over South Africa, and  
422 found that the seasonal cycle from MUSICAv0 and standard CAM-chem are consistent with the  
423 climatology. The magnitude of MUSICAv0 lightning NO emissions overall agree better with the  
424 climatology compared to that from standard CAM-chem simulation. Impacts of lightning NO  
425 emissions on upper troposphere O<sub>3</sub> in MUSICAv0 will be investigated and evaluated further in the

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438 future. A brief comparison with IAGOS measurements of air temperature and water vapor profiles  
439 over West Africa as well as other sub-regions shows that MUSICAv0 overall agrees well with  
440 these meteorological variables (Figure S6).

441 We compare the models with weekly PM<sub>2.5</sub> measurements at 3 sites in Abidjan  
442 (representing domestic fires emissions, waste burning at landfill, and traffic) and 1 site in Cotonou  
443 representing traffic emissions (Figure S7). Overall, both models underestimate PM<sub>2.5</sub> at the three  
444 Abidjan sites, especially near the domestic fire emissions where measured PM<sub>2.5</sub> exceeded 400  
445 ug/m<sup>3</sup>. We include open burning emissions in the MUSICAv0 simulation however the significant  
446 underestimation point to the possibility of missing emissions. Moreover, these three sites in  
447 Abidjan are within the same city and near strong emission sources and hence are challenging for  
448 both models to resolve. In fact, they fall into the same model grids and therefore model values at  
449 the three sites are the same for both models. This demonstrates the need of higher model resolution  
450 to resolve variabilities of air quality in a city.

### 452 3.3 Central Africa

453 Compared to MOPITT CO column, the mean bias of MUSICAv0 and WRF-Chem for  
454 Central Africa varies with seasons (Figure 3) but peaks during the dry season in September  
455 (MUSICAv0 mean bias of  $-1.0 \times 10^{18}$  molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>; WRF-Chem mean bias of  $-1.2 \times 10^{18}$   
456 molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>). The tagged model CO tracers show that in September, local fire emissions are the  
457 dominant driver of CO in Central Africa (Figure 5). Compared to the IAGOS CO profiles (Figure  
458 7), both models have the largest bias over Central Africa among the sub-regions in Africa – mean  
459 bias of MUSICAv0 and WRF-Chem are -46 ppb and -36 ppb, respectively. The high bias over  
460 Central Africa mainly occurs during the fire season. In central Africa, both models also  
461 underestimate NO<sub>2</sub> (mean biases of MUSICAv0 and WRF-Chem are  $-1.5 \times 10^{14}$  and  $-5.5 \times 10^{14}$   
462 molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>, respectively). The underestimations in both CO and NO<sub>2</sub> by the two model  
463 simulations are likely driven by the underestimation in fire emissions. Indeed, the emission  
464 estimates from the newest version of FINN (FINNv2.5; Wiedinmyer et al., 2023) are higher  
465 compared to both QFED (used in the MUSICAv0 simulation) and FINNv1.5 (used in the WRF-  
466 Chem simulation) in this region.

467 Model mean bias of HCHO ( $-1.3 \times 10^{16}$  molecules/cm<sup>2</sup> for the whole 2017) over Central  
468 Africa is the largest among the five regions (Figure 3). The spatial distribution of HCHO bias  
469 (Figure S2) largely co-locates with the vegetation (Figure 9). Over the barren or sparsely vegetated  
470 area in North Africa, HCHO biases are relatively small while over the vegetated area HCHO bias  
471 are relatively large. Over North Africa, the mean bias is  $-0.66 \times 10^{16}$  molecules/cm<sup>2</sup> for the whole  
472 2017 whereas over the other four regions, the mean bias ranges from  $-0.93 \times 10^{16}$  molecules/cm<sup>2</sup> to  
473  $-1.31 \times 10^{16}$  molecules/cm<sup>2</sup> for the whole 2017. This indicates that the negative bias in MUSICAv0  
474 HCHO could be due to underestimated biogenic emissions in the model. In addition, the  
475 underestimation of HCHO in Central Africa (Figure S2) co-locates with the underestimation of  
476 CO in time and space (Figure S1), implying that fire emissions that contributed to model CO biases  
477 may also contribute to the HCHO underestimation in MUSICAv0 during fire season. It is  
478 important to note that the uncertainty of OMI tropospheric HCHO column is relatively large  
479 compared to other satellite products. Here the averaged retrieval uncertainty (random and  
480 systematic) is ~120%.

481 When compared to the IAGOS O<sub>3</sub> profiles over Central Africa (Figure 8), both models  
482 agree well with the IAGOS O<sub>3</sub> observations below 800 hPa (mean bias ranges from -1 to -4 ppb).  
483 Above 800 hPa, WRF-Chem underestimates O<sub>3</sub> while MUSICAv0 overestimates O<sub>3</sub>. The

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493 correlation of modeled O<sub>3</sub> and O<sub>3</sub>S is 0.67, and the correlations of O<sub>3</sub>S and model O<sub>3</sub> bias is 0.50  
494 over Central Africa, indicating O<sub>3</sub> overestimation in Central Africa are more likely to be impacted  
495 by stratosphere-to-troposphere flux of ozone than that in West Africa.

### 497 3.4 East Africa

498 CO over East Africa is dominated by local emissions and inflow from outside the continent.  
499 Fire and anthropogenic emissions contribute approximately the same to CO over East Africa  
500 (Figure 5). Both MUSICAv0 and WRF-Chem simulations underestimate the CO column  
501 compared to MOPITT (Figure 3), and the WRF-Chem simulation also underestimate the  
502 tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> column compared to OMI. The biases in CO column and tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub>  
503 column peak in September. One possible driver could be fire emissions from other regions (Figure  
504 5), however, further studies will be needed to address this.

505 Compared to IAGOS O<sub>3</sub> profiles over East Africa, biases of MUSICAv0 below 600 hPa  
506 has a seasonal variation while over 600 hPa are consistently positive (Figure 8). The correlations  
507 of O<sub>3</sub>S and model O<sub>3</sub> bias against IAGOS data is 0.50 in the region. The correlations between O<sub>3</sub>S  
508 and model O<sub>3</sub> bias are highest over Central and East Africa compared to other regions, indicating  
509 stratosphere influence are strongest in these two regions among the sub-regions. Central and East  
510 Africa are relatively more mountainous therefore topography driven stratospheric intrusions might  
511 be expected. The Nairobi ozonesonde site is located in East Africa (Figure 1b). When comparing  
512 to the O<sub>3</sub> profiles from ozonesondes (Figure 10), MUSICAv0 overall overestimates O<sub>3</sub> in the  
513 troposphere at the four sites while WRF-Chem tends to underestimate O<sub>3</sub> in the free troposphere  
514 (below 200 hPa). The Nairobi site is an exception where both MUSICAv0 and WRF-Chem  
515 simulations significantly overestimate O<sub>3</sub> in all seasons (mean bias of MUSICAv0 and WRF-  
516 Chem below 200 hPa are 27 ppb and 20 ppb, respectively). Among the four ozonesonde sites,  
517 correlations of model bias of O<sub>3</sub> and O<sub>3</sub>S are highest at the Nairobi site (0.74) where the model  
518 significantly overestimates O<sub>3</sub>. The results of model-ozonesonde comparisons are consistent with  
519 the results of model-IAGOS comparisons and indicate a potential issue in modeled stratosphere-  
520 to-troposphere flux of ozone.

521 We compare the model results with PM<sub>2.5</sub> measurements from two surface sites in East  
522 Africa (Addis Ababa and Kampala; Figure 1b). Despite using different aerosol methods and  
523 emission inventories, both MUSICAv0 and WRF-Chem underestimate surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> when  
524 compared to observations at the two sites (Figure 11). The errors in PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations at the  
525 U.S. Embassy in Kampala are especially prominent. However, both models approximate the  
526 variation of the PM<sub>2.5</sub> in both locations. Many factors contribute to the inconsistency in the  
527 magnitude of modeled PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations. For instance, emission inventories in this region  
528 require additional improvement. In Uganda, increasing motor vehicle ownership and burning  
529 biomass for domestic energy use contribute to ambient PM<sub>2.5</sub> levels (Clarke et al., 2022; Petkova  
530 et al., 2013; Kinney et al., 2011). Detailed PM<sub>2.5</sub> composition measurements would also help to  
531 pinpoint the cause of inaccuracies (Kalisa et al., 2018). Model resolutions could also be a potential  
532 reason for the underestimation. Over Kampala, high spatial variability of PM<sub>2.5</sub> over the urban  
533 environment can contribute to model bias (Atuhairu et al., 2022), as also shown by the AirQo low-  
534 cost air quality monitors (Sserunjogi et al., 2022; Okure et al., 2022).

### 536 3.5 Southern Africa

537 Among the five regions, MUSICAv0 has the lowest mean bias in CO (-3.2×10<sup>17</sup>  
538 molecules/cm<sup>2</sup> annually) over Southern Africa (Figure 3). WRF-Chem also has low mean bias and

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551 RMSE in CO over Southern Africa except for the months of September, October, and November  
552 (SON) period where WRF-Chem has larger CO mean bias ( $-6.2 \times 10^{17}$  molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>) than  
553 MUSICAv0. Tagged model CO tracers indicate that CO over Southern Africa is significantly  
554 impacted by CO emissions from Central Africa, East Africa, Southern Africa, and inflow from  
555 outside the continent. As for the source types, anthropogenic and fire emissions are both important  
556 and fire impacts peak in September (e.g., Archibald et al., 2009, 2010; Archibald 2016). There are  
557 two WDCGG sites located in Southern Africa (Figure 1b; Gobabeb and Cape Point). When  
558 compared to surface CO observations from WDCGG, both models consistently underestimate CO  
559 by up to 40% at most sites. The Cape Point site in Southern Africa is an exception (Figure 6) where  
560 MUSICAv0 overestimates CO by 40 ppb (annual mean; and up to 78 ppb in May 2017). CO tracers  
561 in the model (Figures S3 and S4) show that the simulated CO at Cape Point is mainly driven by  
562 anthropogenic CO emissions from Southern Africa. Therefore, the overestimation of CO at Cape  
563 Point by MUSICAv0 may be due to an overestimation of emissions in South Africa. Note that the  
564 Cape Point measurement site is located on the tip of southern Africa and has a strong impact from  
565 clean marine air (Labuschagne et al., 2018), which the model likely cannot represent accurately.

566 As for NO<sub>2</sub>, WRF-Chem underestimates tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> column in most regions except  
567 for Southern Africa (Figure 3). Over Southern Africa, WRF-Chem overestimates NO<sub>2</sub> especially  
568 during June, July, and August (JJA). MUSICAv0 also tends to overestimate NO<sub>2</sub> at the same  
569 location in JJA however the bias is not as large as for WRF-Chem.

570 MUSICAv0 simulation overall has a lower mean bias (0.14 annually) than the WRF-Chem  
571 simulation (mean bias of 0.31 annually) compared to MODIS AOD with Southern Africa being  
572 the only exception (Figure 3). Over Southern Africa, MUSICAv0 overestimates AOD by ~0.21  
573 annually (Figure 3) and the bias peaks in January (mean bias=0.45). This overestimation in AOD  
574 over Southern Africa is not seen in WRF-Chem. It is likely that the MUSICAv0 overestimation in  
575 AOD over Southern Africa is also due to biases in modeled dust as the AOD bias is co-located  
576 with the only barren or sparsely vegetated area in Southern Africa (Figure 9 and Figure S2).

577 Over Southern Africa, MUSICAv0 tends to overestimate O<sub>3</sub> compared to IAGOS at all  
578 levels at all seasons in 2017 (Figure 8). The MUSICAv0 O<sub>3</sub> bias is 5-10 ppb below 800 hPa for  
579 the four seasons and 23-39 ppb at 225 hPa. The concentration of O<sub>3</sub>S over Southern Africa is  
580 higher than those over other regions. However, the correlation of O<sub>3</sub>S and model O<sub>3</sub> bias is lower  
581 than other regions (0.13) indicating stratosphere-to-troposphere flux of ozone may not be the main  
582 driver of O<sub>3</sub> bias over Southern Africa even though stratosphere-to-troposphere flux of ozone are  
583 relatively strong in the region (e.g., Leclair De Bellevue et al., 2006; Clain et al., 2009; Mkololo  
584 et al., 2020). The Irene ozonesonde site is located in Southern Africa (Figure 1b). Compared to the  
585 ozonesonde O<sub>3</sub> profiles at the Irene site, however, the sign of MUSICAv0 has a seasonal variation  
586 (Figure 10e-10h). For example, at 675-725 hPa, MUSICAv0 O<sub>3</sub> bias in MAM and JJA is 3-9 ppb  
587 whereas in SON and DJF it is -2 to -6 ppb. The IAGOS measurements and the Irene ozonesonde  
588 site are not co-located, so the difference is expected due to the different sampling locations and  
589 environment. Compared to other ozonesonde sites, the correlation of O<sub>3</sub>S and model O<sub>3</sub> bias over  
590 Southern Africa is lower (0.14) and MUSICAv0 agrees relatively well with observations, which  
591 is consistent with the comparison results with IAGOS data (Figure 8).

592 We further compare MUSICAv0 and WRF-Chem results with surface PM<sub>2.5</sub>, CO, NO<sub>2</sub>,  
593 and O<sub>3</sub> measurements from SAAQIS in South Africa (Figures S8-S11). Overall, the performance  
594 of MUSICAv0 and WRF-Chem compared to SAAQIS data are similar. Both models underestimate  
595 surface CO in most sites (consistent with the comparisons with satellites) with exceptions near  
596 Gauteng (industrialized and urbanized region). Compared to SAAQIS sites near Cape Point,

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Deleted: CO tracers in the model (Figures S4 and S5) show that CO at Cape Point is mainly driven by anthropogenic CO emissions from Southern Africa. Therefore, the overestimation of CO by MUSICAv0 should be due to the overestimation of anthropogenic emissions from Southern Africa used in the model.

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611 MUSICAv0 does not show overestimation which is opposite to the overestimation compared to  
612 WDCGG Cape Point site. The maximum value of monthly CO observations from WDCGG Cape  
613 Point site in 2017 is ~150 ppb whereas the seasonal mean values of SAAQIS CO measurements  
614 near Cape Point site can be up to 600 ppb. SAAQIS CO measurements near Cape Point shows  
615 relatively large spatial variability, indicating (1) that there may be a wide range of emission sources  
616 that are poorly captured by the model and (2) a large role of local sources and potentially complex  
617 meteorology. In addition, uncertainties in observations could also contribute to the difference. Both  
618 models tend to overestimate NO<sub>2</sub> near Gauteng, which may be related to local emissions. Both  
619 models can either overestimate or underestimate PM<sub>2.5</sub> and/or O<sub>3</sub> at different SAAQIS sites. The  
620 model bias in PM<sub>2.5</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> shows large spatial variability especially near Gauteng. Higher model  
621 resolution is needed to address the highly complex and diverse environment in the region. Lastly,  
622 it is worth pointing out that in South Africa, both models have evident bias in PM<sub>2.5</sub> near Gauteng  
623 (Figure S11) however modeled AOD from both models agree relatively well with MODIS and  
624 AERONET (Figure 4). More studies are needed to understand this feature.

### 625 3.6 Oceans near Africa

626 We compare the CO, NO, and O<sub>3</sub> from the MUSICAv0 simulation with measurements  
627 from ATom-2 and ATom-3 in 2017 (Figure 1a) to provide a global benchmark. Measurements  
628 made over the Atlantic Ocean and Pacific Ocean, and in January-February (Jan-Feb) and  
629 September-October (Sep-Oct) are compared separately (Figures 11 and 12). The comparison was  
630 made with data averaged into 10° latitude and 200 hPa bins. Overall, the model consistently  
631 underestimates CO globally in both seasons. The underestimation of CO is a common issue in  
632 atmospheric chemistry models and could be due to various reasons, including emissions,  
633 deposition, and chemistry (e.g., Fisher et al., 2017; Shindell et al., 2006; Stein et al., 2014; Tilmes  
634 et al., 2015; Tang et al., 2018; Gaubert et al., 2020). Specifically for our MUSICAv0 simulation  
635 in this study, the model bias in CO is relatively large (up to 52 ppb) over the Northern Hemisphere  
636 (especially at high latitude and near the surface) and small over the Southern Hemisphere (Figures  
637 11 and 12). Over the Atlantic Ocean, the bias in CO is larger in September-October than Jan-Feb  
638 in both the Northern Hemisphere (-30 ppb in Jan-Feb versus -34 ppb in Sep-Oct) and Southern  
639 Hemisphere (-11 ppb in Jan-Feb versus -14 ppb in Sep-Oct). Over the Pacific Ocean, however, the  
640 CO bias is similar for both time periods in the Northern Hemisphere (-30 ppb) while in the  
641 Southern Hemisphere, the CO bias changes significantly from -8 ppb in Jan-Feb to -16 ppb in Sep-  
642 Oct. The changes in CO bias over the Southern Hemisphere are likely due to seasonal change in  
643 fire emissions. Overall, the mean biases (Figures 11 and 12) suggest that the simulation agrees  
644 better with ATom observations in the Southern Hemisphere than in the Northern Hemisphere, and  
645 in Jan-Feb than in Sep-Oct (Figures 11 and 12), consistent with Gaubert et al. (2016).

646 In both seasons and both hemispheres, the model in general overestimates O<sub>3</sub> in the  
647 stratosphere/UTLS (upper troposphere and lower stratosphere) by up to 38 ppb (above 200 hPa).  
648 In the troposphere (below 200 hPa), the model overall agrees well with the ATom data over the  
649 Pacific Ocean in the Southern Hemisphere (in most cases the bias is less than ±5 ppb). However,  
650 over the Atlantic Ocean in the Southern Hemisphere, MUSICAv0 tends to overestimate O<sub>3</sub>,  
651 especially in Jan-Feb. In the troposphere of the Northern Hemisphere, MUSICAv0 consistently  
652 overestimates O<sub>3</sub> over both oceans and both seasons. The positive bias in O<sub>3</sub> decreases from the  
653 upper troposphere towards the surface, indicating that the overestimation of O<sub>3</sub> in the troposphere  
654 may be due to stratosphere-to-troposphere flux of ozone. This was also noted for other global  
655 models (Bourgeois et al. 2021). Thompson et al. (2014) found O<sub>3</sub> at the Irene site is also influenced  
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659 by long-range transport of growing pollution in the Southern Hemisphere, which could also  
660 contribute to the model bias. As for NO, the model tends to overestimate NO above 200 hPa  
661 (approximately the stratosphere and Upper Troposphere-Lower Stratosphere; UTLS) by up to 50  
662 ppt. Overall, the NO biases can be either positive or negative depending on location and season.  
663 The distributions of NO bias (Figures 11 and 12) do not show an overall spatial pattern, unlike  
664 those for CO (which changes monotonically with latitude) or O<sub>3</sub> (which changes monotonically  
665 with altitude).  
666

#### 667 4. Model application: identifying key regions in Africa for future in situ observations and 668 field campaign(s)

669 As a demonstration of the application of MUSICAv0, here we use the results of model-  
670 satellite comparisons to identify potential regions where the atmospheric chemistry models need  
671 to be improved substantially. More field campaigns and more in situ observations would not only  
672 provide observational benchmark dataset to understand and improve the modeling capability in  
673 the region, but would be also useful for the validation and calibration of satellite products. Here  
674 we use Taylor score to quantify model-satellite discrepancies. Taylor score (Taylor, 2001) is  
675 defined by

$$676 S = \frac{4(1+R)}{(\sigma_f/\sigma_o)^2(1+R_0)}$$

677 where  $\sigma_f$  is the ratio of  $\sigma_f$  (standard deviation of the model) and  $\sigma_o$  (standard deviation of  
678 observations), R is correlation between model and observations, and  $R_0$  is the maximum  
679 potentially realizable correlation (=1 in this study). Taylor score ranges from 0 to 1 and a higher  
680 Taylor score indicates better satellite-model agreement. To identify potential locations, we  
681 separate the Africa continent into 5° × 5° (latitude × longitude) pixels as shown in Figure 14. And  
682 for each pixel, we calculate Taylor scores of MUSICAv0 compared to the three satellite Level 2  
683 products (e.g., MOPITT CO column retrievals, OMI tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> column retrievals, and  
684 MODIS AOD) separately. Then three Taylor scores are summed up to obtain the total Taylor score  
685 for MUSICAv0 (ranges from 0 to 3) as shown in Figures 13a-13e. A similar calculation is  
686 conducted for WRF-Chem (Figures 13f-13j). Note that we did not include Taylor scores for HCHO  
687 in the total Taylor score due to that (1) WRF-Chem simulations did not save HCHO output, and  
688 (2) the HCHO retrievals have relatively high uncertainties (Taylor scores of MUSICAv0 compared  
689 to OMI tropospheric HCHO column retrievals are provided separately in Figure S12).

690 Overall, both MUSICAv0 and WRF-Chem have low total Taylor scores in the 30°E – 45°E,  
691 5°S – 5°N region in East Africa (a region of 15° longitude × 10° latitude) during MAM (March,  
692 April, and May), JJA (June, July, and August), and SON (September, October, and November), as  
693 highlighted in Figure 14, indicating relatively large model-satellite discrepancies in the region.  
694 Besides the 30°E – 45°E, 5°S – 5°N region highlighted in Figure 14, there are a few other regions  
695 with low Taylor scores for both MUSICAv0 and WRF-Chem such as 10°E – 20°E, -30°S – -20°N  
696 region and the east of Madagascar.

697 The 30°E – 45°E, 5°S – 5°N region (a sub-region in East Africa) is also the region where  
698 the Nairobi ozonesonde site and the Kampala surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> site are located (Figure 1b). As  
699 discussed above, both MUSICAv0 and WRF-Chem significantly overestimate O<sub>3</sub> (Figure 10) and  
700 largely underestimate PM<sub>2.5</sub> (Figure 11) in the region. More in situ observations or future field  
701 campaigns in the region can substantially help in the understanding model-satellite and model-in  
702 situ observation discrepancies and improving model performance.

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741 The 30°E – 45°E, 5°S – 5°N region (a sub-region in East Africa) is potentially a favorable  
742 location for future field campaign(s) not only because of the large model-satellite and model-in  
743 situ observation discrepancies, but also due to that the population density is high and landcover  
744 are diverse in the region (Figure 9). The relatively high population density in the region indicates  
745 that improved air quality modeling in the region can benefit a large population. A diverse landcover  
746 indicates more processes/environments can be sampled. CO tracers in the model (Figure 15) show  
747 that CO over the region is mainly driven by both anthropogenic and fire emissions. Anthropogenic  
748 emissions play a more important role in the 30°E – 45°E, 5°S – 5°N region compared to East  
749 Africa in general (Figures 4 and 14). In terms of source regions, emissions from East Africa and  
750 inflow from outside the continent are the dominant source, with some contributions from Central  
751 Africa. Note that the source analyses using model tracers may be subject to uncertainties in the  
752 emission inventories, in this case CAMSv5.1, QFED, and the waste burning inventory used here.  
753 As discussed above (e.g., Section 3.4), there might be missing sources in the region. In addition,  
754 emission factors used in many emission inventories are based on measurements outside the  
755 continent of Africa (e.g., Lamarque et al. 2010; Klimont et al., 2013; Pokhrel et al. 2021). It is not  
756 clear so far if these emission factors are applicable to emissions in Africa (e.g., Keita et al., 2018).  
757 Therefore, a field campaign in the region can help address these issues.

758 We would like to point out that in this analysis, the key area is selected using 3 satellite  
759 products/chemical species and two models. The Taylor score is a comprehensive measure of model  
760 performance that accounts for variance and correlation, however, other models and types of  
761 comparisons may provide different answers.

## 762 5. Conclusions

763 Africa is one of the most rapidly changing regions in the world and air pollution is a  
764 growing issue at multiple scales over the continent. MUSICA<sub>v0</sub> is a new community modeling  
765 infrastructure that enables the study of atmospheric composition and chemistry across all relevant  
766 scales. We developed a MUSICA<sub>v0</sub> grid with Africa refinement (~28 km × 28 km over Africa and  
767 ~110 km × 110 km for the rest of the world) and conducted the simulation for the year 2017. We  
768 evaluated the model with in situ observations including ATom-2 and ATom-3 airborne  
769 measurements of CO, NO, and O<sub>3</sub>, IAGOS airborne measurements of CO and O<sub>3</sub>, O<sub>3</sub> profiles from  
770 ozonesondes, surface CO observations from WDGCC, and surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> observations from two  
771 U.S. Embassy locations. We then compare MUSICA<sub>v0</sub> with satellite products over Africa, namely  
772 MOPITT CO column, MODIS AOD, OMI tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> column, and OMI tropospheric  
773 HCHO column. Results from a WRF-Chem simulation were also included in the evaluations and  
774 comparisons as a reference. Lastly, as an application of the model, we identified potential African  
775 regions for in situ observations and field campaign(s) based on model-satellite discrepancies  
776 (quantified by Taylor score), with regard to model-in situ observation discrepancies, source  
777 analyses, population, and land cover. The main conclusions are as follows.

779 (1) When comparing to ATom-2 and ATom-3, MUSICA<sub>v0</sub> consistently underestimates  
780 CO globally. Overall, the negative model bias increases with latitude from the Southern  
781 Hemisphere to the Northern Hemisphere. MUSICA<sub>v0</sub> also tends to overestimate O<sub>3</sub> in the  
782 stratosphere/UTLS, and the positive model bias overall decreases with altitude.

783 (2) The MUSICA<sub>v0</sub> biases in O<sub>3</sub> when compared to ATom, IAGOS, and ozonesondes are  
784 likely driven by stratosphere-to-troposphere fluxes of O<sub>3</sub> and lightning NO emissions.

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792 (3) Overall, the performance of MUSICAv0 and WRF-Chem are similar when compared  
793 to the surface CO observations from six WDCGG sites in Africa.

794 (4) Both models have negative bias compared to the MOPITT CO column, especially over  
795 Central Africa in September, which is likely driven by fires.

796 (5) Overall, MUSICAv0 agrees better with OMI tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> column than WRF-  
797 Chem.

798 (6) MUSICAv0 overall has a lower tropospheric HCHO column than OMI retrievals in all  
799 regions and seasons. Biogenic and fire emissions are likely to be the main driver of this  
800 disagreement.

801 (7) Over Africa, the MUSICAv0 simulation has smaller mean bias and RMSE compared  
802 to MODIS AOD than the WRF-Chem simulation.

803 (8) The 30°E – 45°E, 5°S – 5°N region in East Africa is potentially a favorable location for  
804 future field campaign(s) not only because of the large model-satellite and model-in situ  
805 observation discrepancies, but also due to the population density, landcover, and pollution  
806 source in this region.

807 Overall, the performance of MUSICAv0 is comparable to WRF-Chem. The  
808 underestimation of CO is a common issue in atmospheric chemistry models such as MUSICAv0  
809 and WRF-Chem. The overestimation of O<sub>3</sub> in MUSICAv0 is likely driven by too strong of  
810 stratosphere-to-troposphere fluxes of O<sub>3</sub> and perhaps an over-estimate of lightning NO emissions,  
811 however, future studies are needed to confirm and solve this issue. The significant underestimation  
812 in surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> at two sites in East Africa and the overall overestimation in AOD in Africa  
813 compared to MODIS imply missing local sources and an overestimation of dust emissions, and  
814 require further study. In addition, lack of data could also contribute to disagreement in model and  
815 in situ observations as one site in a city is not representative of the full city. Field campaigns and  
816 more in situ observations in 30°E–45°E, 5°S–5°N region in East Africa (as well as other regions  
817 in Africa) are necessary for the improvement of atmospheric chemistry model(s) as shown by the  
818 MUSICAv0 and WRF-Chem simulations.

819 Fire and dust are important sources of air pollution in Africa. The performance of  
820 MUSICAv0 is degraded during fire season and over dust regions. Uncertainties in emission  
821 estimates of fire and dust and in the model representation of atmospheric processes could  
822 potentially contribute to the model biases. Future studies on fire and dust in Africa are needed to  
823 address these uncertainties and air quality modeling over Africa.

824 Here we divided the continent into five sub-regions to show the overall performance of  
825 MUSICAv0 over sub-regions of Africa. This accounted for the diversity in atmospheric chemistry  
826 environment to some degree. However, each sub-region is not homogeneous. In fact, different  
827 cities in the same sub-region may have different emission characteristics. In the future when  
828 specific scientific questions are studied with MUSICAv0, we will use higher resolution to address  
829 the highly complex and diverse environment. We plan to conduct a model simulation for multiple  
830 years and develop additional model grids with potentially higher resolution in Africa sub-regions  
831 based on the current MUSICAv0 Africa grid. Higher resolution will benefit the comparisons of  
832 model and in situ observations. The future simulation will be conducted for years after 2017 as  
833 there are more in situ observations available in recent years.

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840 **Code and data availability**

841 [The model code used here can be accessed through https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8051435](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8051435). The  
842 [data produced by this study can be accessed through https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8051443](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8051443).

843

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859 chem/MUSICA weekly meeting for helpful discussions.

860

861 **Competing interests**

862 The contact author has declared that neither they nor their co-authors have any competing  
863 interests.

864

865 **Author contributions**

866 WT, LKE, HMW, and PL were involved in the initial design of this study. WT led the analysis.  
867 RK and CH conducted the WRF-Chem simulation. ZZ interpreted PM<sub>2.5</sub> results. BG, ST, SM  
868 and other coauthors provide discussions. RRB helped with QFED emissions. CG and AS produced  
869 CAMSv5.1 emissions. KM, BCD, JP, and CT conducted measurements during ATom. WT  
870 prepared the paper with improvements from all coauthors.

871

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**Moved up [1]:** The MUSICA<sub>v0</sub> model source code and the model documentation can be downloaded through <https://wiki.ucar.edu/display/MUSICA/MUSICA+Home> (last access: 3 April 2023). CAMS-GLOB-ANTH version 5.1 emissions can be found at <https://eccad3.sedoo.fr/data> (last access: 3 April 2023). QFED emissions can be found at <https://portal.nccs.nasa.gov/datashare/ies/aerosol/emissions/QFED/> (last access: 3 April 2023). MERRA-2 data can be found at <https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets?project=MERRA-2> (last access: 3 April 2023). ATom data are available at <https://espoarchive.nasa.gov/archive/browse/atom> (last access: 3 April 2023). WDCGG data are available at <https://gaw.kishou.go.jp/> (last access: 3 April 2023). IAGOS data are available at <https://www.iagos.org/iagos-data/> (last access: 3 April 2023). NASA/GSFC SHADOZ data are available at <https://tropo.gsfc.nasa.gov/shadoz/> (last access: 3 April 2023). The surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> data used in this study are available through data are available through <https://www.airnow.gov/international/us-embassies-and-consulates/> (last access: 3 April 2023). MOPITT CO and MODIS AOD data can be accessed through <https://search.earthdata.nasa.gov/search> (last access: 3 April 2023). OMI NO<sub>2</sub> and OMI HCHO data are available at <https://www.temis.nl/qa4ecv/no2.html> (last access: 3 April 2023) and <https://www.temis.nl/qa4ecv/hcho.html> (last access: 3 April 2023), respectively.<sup>†</sup>

**Moved up [2]:** CAMS-GLOB-ANTH version 5.1 emissions can be found at <https://eccad3.sedoo.fr/data> (last access: 3 April 2023). QFED emissions can be found at <https://portal.nccs.nasa.gov/datashare/ies/aerosol/emissions/QFED/> (last access: 3 April 2023). MERRA-2 data can be found at <https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets?project=MERRA-2> (last access: 3 April 2023). ATom data are available at <https://espoarchive.nasa.gov/archive/browse/atom> (last access: 3 April 2023). WDCGG data are available at <https://gaw.kishou.go.jp/> (last access: 3 April 2023). IAGOS data are available at <https://www.iagos.org/iagos-data/> (last access: 3 April 2023). NASA/GSFC SHADOZ data are available at <https://tropo.gsfc.nasa.gov/shadoz/> (last access: 3 April 2023). The surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> data used in this study are available through data are available through <https://www.airnow.gov/international/us-embassies-and-consulates/> (last access: 3 April 2023). MOPITT CO and MODIS AOD data can be accessed through <https://search.earthdata.nasa.gov/search> (last access: 3 April 2023).

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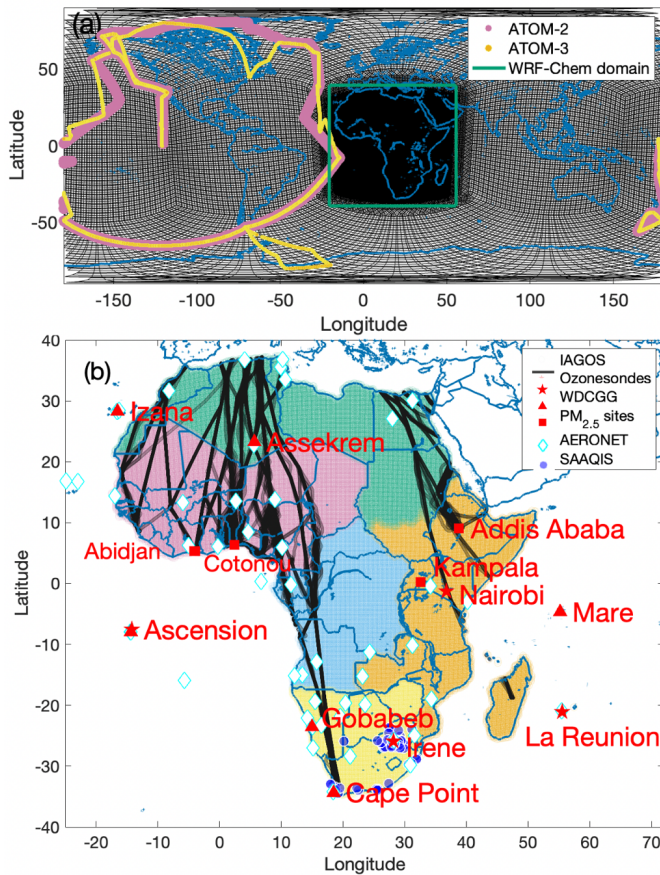
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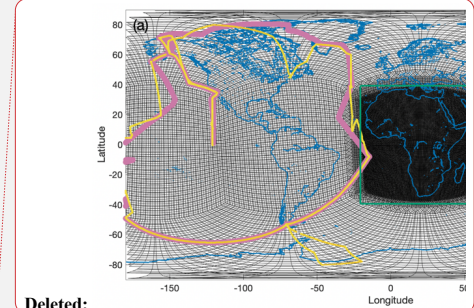
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 1432 **Figure 1.** Model grid, in situ observations used in this study, and sub-regions in Africa. (a)  
 1433 MUSICA<sub>v0</sub> model grid developed for Africa in this study (black), domain boundary of the WRF-  
 1434 Chem simulation compared in this study (shown by green box), observations from the  
 1435 Atmospheric Tomography Mission (ATom) field campaign 2 (ATom-2; 2017 Jan to 2017 Feb;  
 1436 pink) and ATom-3 (2017 Sep to 2017 Oct; yellow). (b) Sub-regions in Africa are shown, namely  
 1437 North Africa (green), West Africa (pink), East Africa (orange), Central Africa (blue), and Southern  
 1438 Africa (yellow). Location of in situ observations are labeled on the map. Flight tracks of the In-  
 1439 service Aircraft for a Global Observing System (IAGOS) are shown with black lines. Four  
 1440 ozonesonde sites are shown by pentagrams (Ascension, Irene, Nairobi, and La Reunion); six sites  
 1441 from the World Data Centre for Greenhouse Gases are shown by triangles (Assekrem, Cape Point,  
 1442 Izana, Gobabeb, Mare, and Ascension); surface sites for PM<sub>2.5</sub> are shown by squares (Addis Ababa  
 1443 and Kampala in East Africa; Abidjan and Cotonou in West Africa); AERONET sites are shown with  
 1444 diamond; South Africa Air Quality Information System (SAAQIS) sites are shown with blue circles.



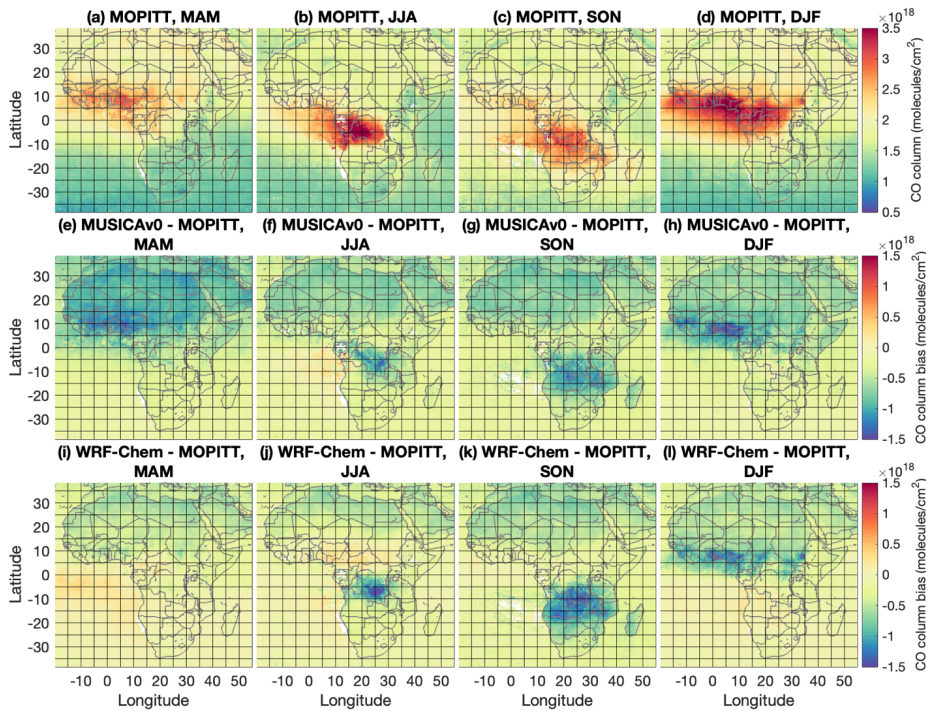
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1453 **Figure 2.** Comparisons of MUSICAv0 and WRF-Chem simulations to MOPITT CO column  
1454 (molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>) for each season of 2017. (a-d) Averaged MOPITT CO column: MAM (March,  
1455 April, and May), JJA (June, July, and August), SON (September, October, and November), and  
1456 DJF (December, January, and February). (e-h) MUSICAv0 model biases against MOPITT CO  
1457 column for MAM, JJA, SON, and DJF. (i-l) is the same as (e-h) but for WRF-Chem. All data are  
1458 gridded to 0.25 degree  $\times$  0.25 degree for plotting.  
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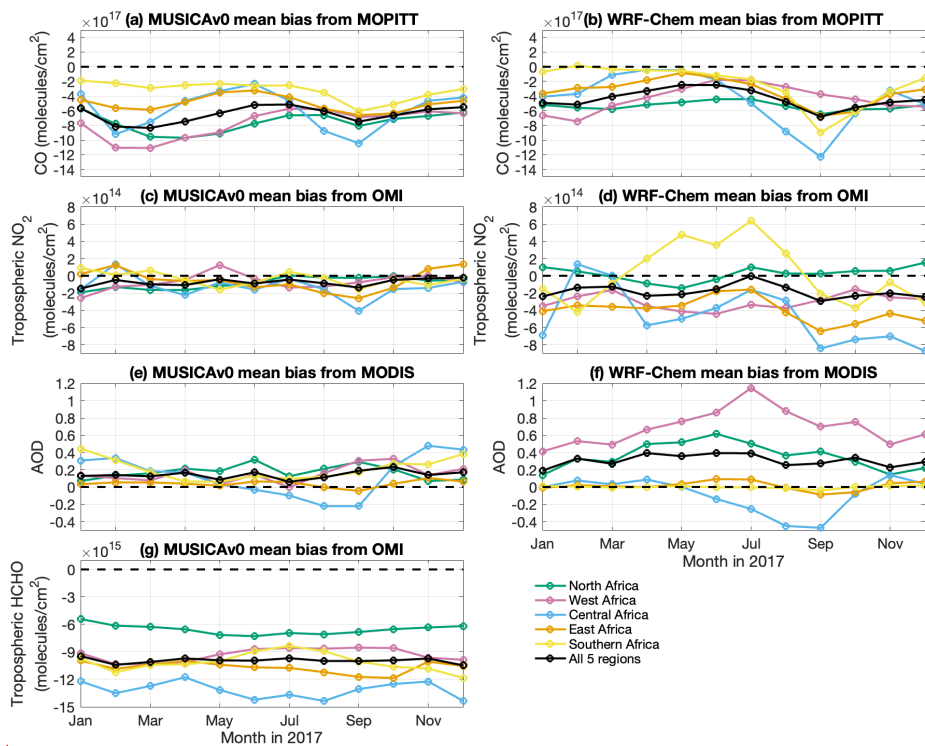
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**Figure 3.** Mean bias of MUSICAv0 and WRF-Chem simulations from satellite data. Monthly timeseries of mean bias of (a) MUSICAv0 and (b) WRF-Chem against MOPITT CO column (molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>) in 2017 over Africa (black), North Africa (green), West Africa (pink), East Africa (orange), Central Africa (blue), and Southern Africa (yellow). (c-d) are same as (a-b) but for mean bias against OMI tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> column (molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>). (e-f) are same as (a-b) but for mean bias against with MODIS (Terra) Aerosol Optical Depth (AOD). (g) is the same as (a) but for mean bias against OMI tropospheric HCHO column (molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>).

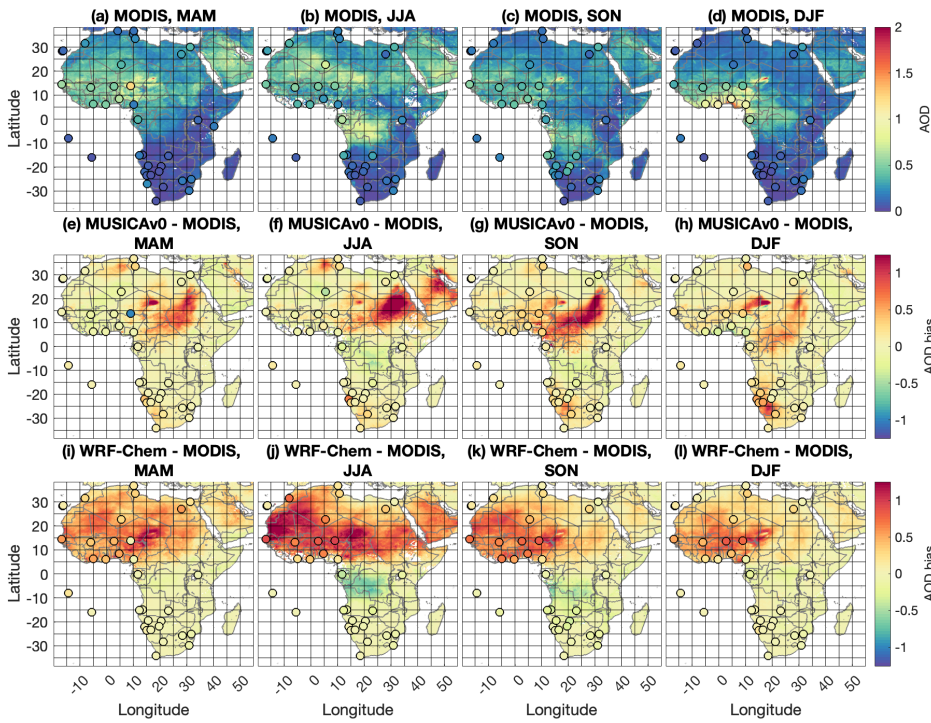
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**Figure 4.** Comparisons of MUSICAv0 and WRF-Chem simulations and MODIS and AERONET AOD at 550 nm in 2017. (a-d) Averaged MODIS and AERONET AOD in MAM (March, April, and May), JJA (June, July, and August), SON (September, October, and November), and DJF (December, January, and February). (e-h) MUSICAv0 model biases against MODIS and AERONET AOD in MAM, JJA, SON, and DJF. (i-l) is the same as (e-h) but for WRF-Chem. All data are gridded to 0.25 degree  $\times$  0.25 degree for plotting. AERONET AOD in (a-d) and model bias against AERONET AOD in (e-l) are shown by the circles overlaid on the map.

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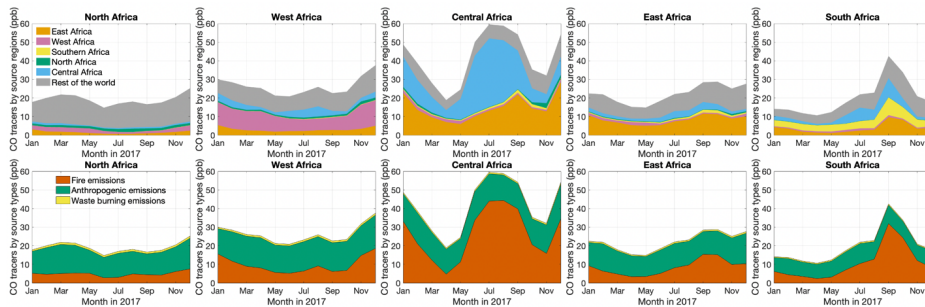
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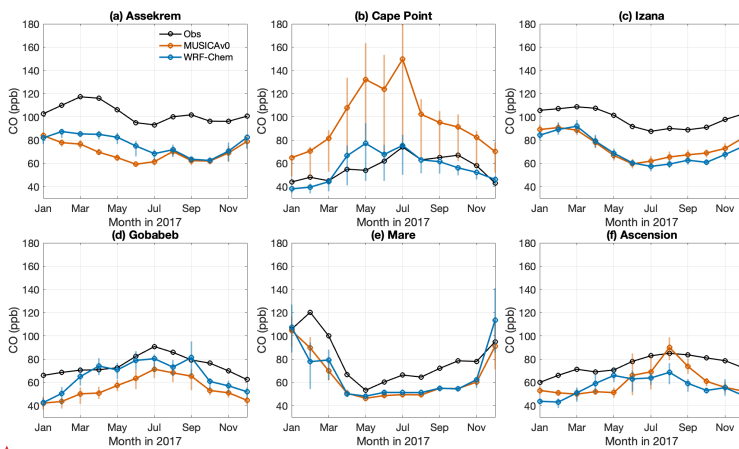
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1486 **Figure 5.** Monthly time series of column-averaged CO tracers in North Africa, West Africa, East  
 1487 Africa, Central Africa, and Southern Africa. Top panels show CO tracers of emissions from North  
 1488 Africa (green), West Africa (pink), East Africa (orange), Central Africa (blue), Southern Africa  
 1489 (yellow), and the rest of the world (grey). Bottom panels show CO tracers of fire emissions (red),  
 1490 anthropogenic emissions (green), and waste burning emissions (yellow).  
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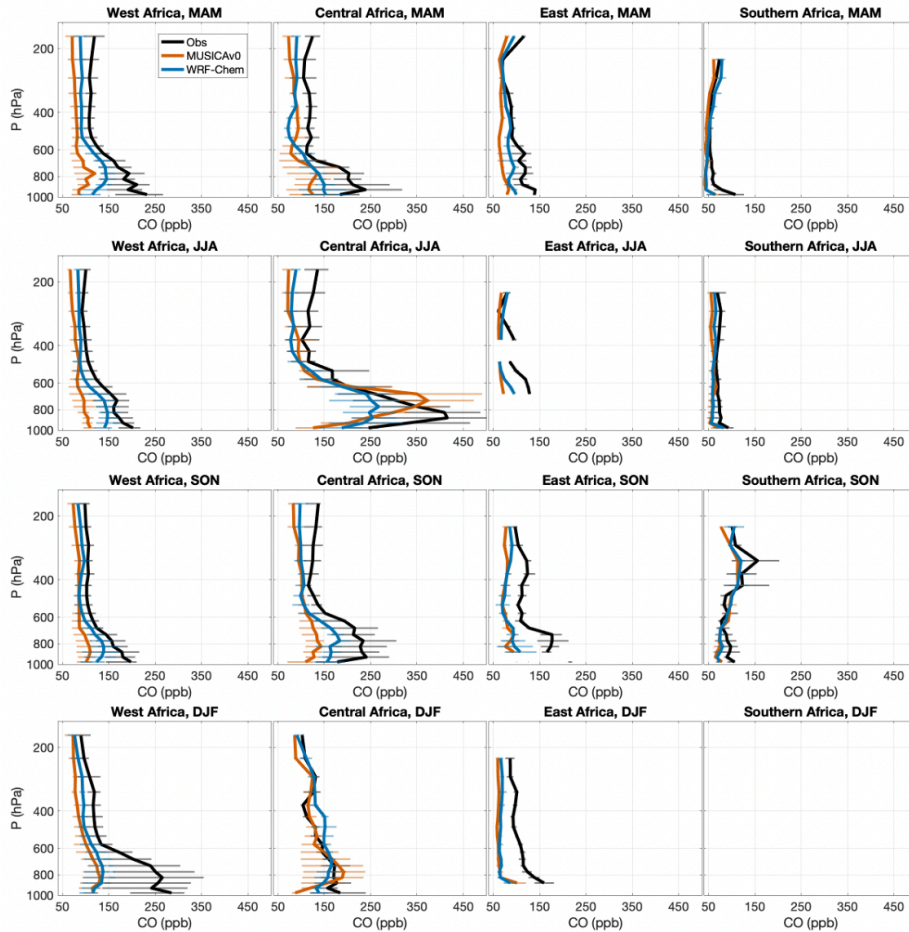
1494 **Figure 6.** Monthly mean CO (ppb) from in situ observations (black), MUSICA v0 (red), and WRF-  
 1495 Chem (blue) during 2017 at (a) Assekrem, (b) Cape Point, (c) Izana, (d) Gobabeb, (e) Mare and  
 1496 (f) Ascension (see Figure 1b for locations). Monthly means are calculated from 3-hourly data. The  
 1497 range for each data point shows the variation of the 3-hourly data on that day (25% quantile to  
 1498 75% quantile). Observational data are from World Data Centre for Greenhouse Gases (WDCCG).  
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1505 **Figure 7.** Vertical profiles of CO (ppb) from the In-service Aircraft for a Global Observing System  
1506 (IAGOS) measurements (black) and corresponding model output from MUSICAv0 (red), and  
1507 WRF-Chem (blue) during different seasons in 2017 over West Africa, Central Africa, East Africa,  
1508 and Southern Africa. North Africa is not shown due to data availability. Seasonal mean profiles  
1509 with the variation of the data in the pressure layer (25% quantile to 75% quantile) in MAM (March,  
1510 April, and May), JJA (June, July, and August), SON (September, October, and November), and  
1511 DJF (December, January, and February) are shown.  
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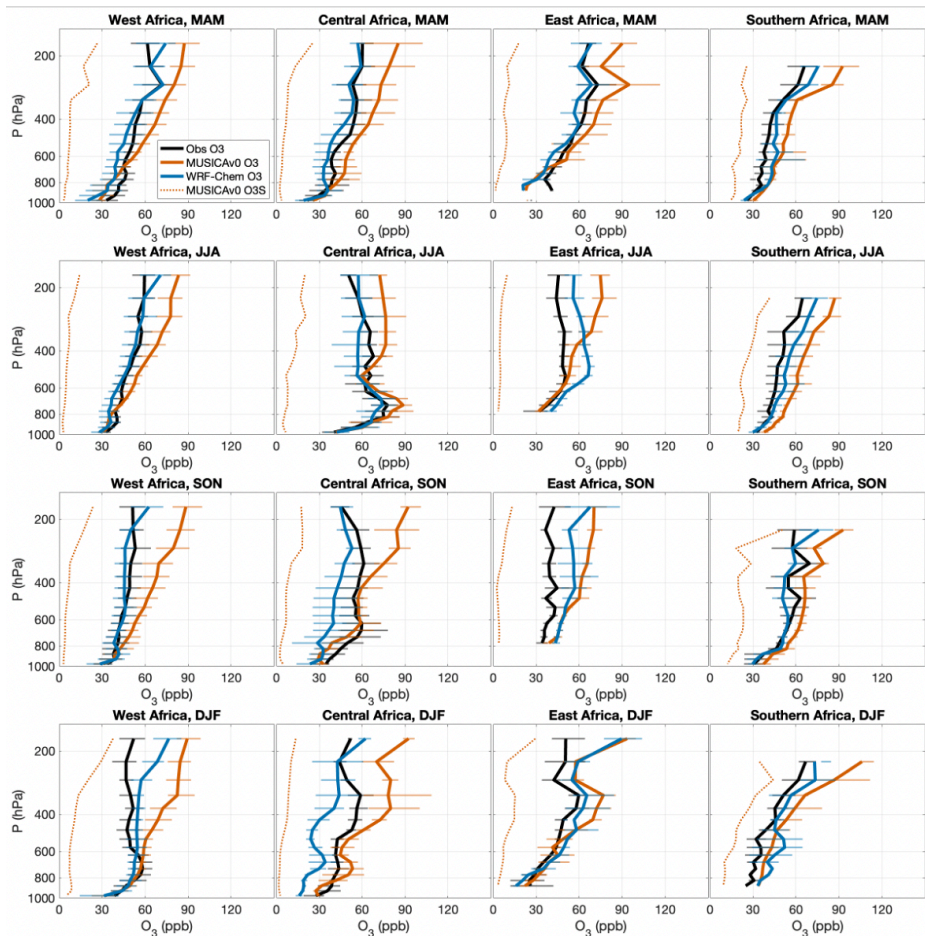
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 1516 **Figure 8.** Vertical profiles of O<sub>3</sub> (ppb) from the In-service Aircraft for a Global Observing System  
 1517 (IAGOS) measurements (black) and corresponding model output from MUSICAv0 (red), and  
 1518 WRF-Chem (blue) during different seasons in 2017 over West Africa, Central Africa, East Africa,  
 1519 and Southern Africa. North Africa is not shown due to data availability. Seasonal mean profiles  
 1520 with the variation of the data in the pressure layer (25% quantile to 75% quantile) in MAM (March,  
 1521 April, and May), JJA (June, July, and August), SON (September, October, and November), and  
 1522 DJF (December, January, and February) are shown. The dash red lines represent O3S  
 1523 (stratospheric ozone tracer) from the MUSICAv0 simulation.

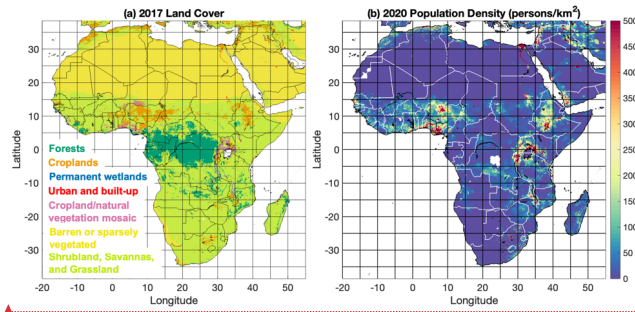
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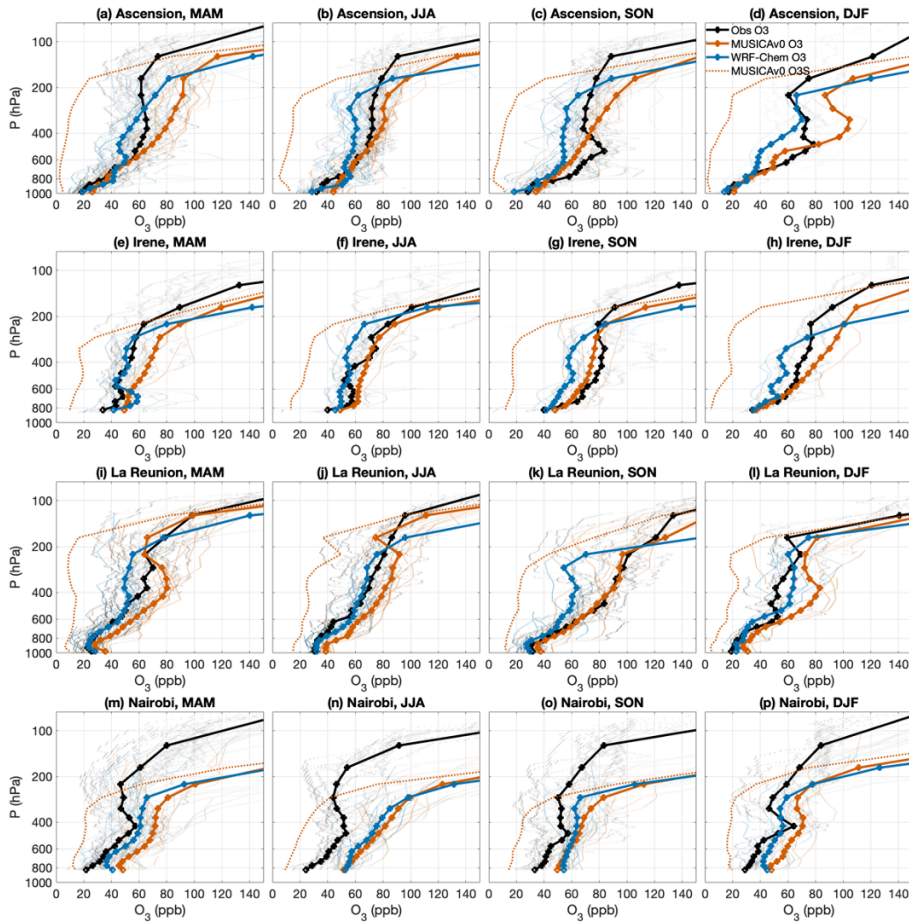
**Figure 2.** (a) Land cover in 2017 and (b) population density (persons/km<sup>2</sup>) in 2020 over Africa. Land cover data is from MODIS/Terra+Aqua Land Cover Type Yearly L3 Global product (resolution: 0.05 degree) (Friedl et al., 2022). Cropland/Natural Vegetation Mosaics means Mosaics of small-scale cultivation (40-60%) with natural tree, shrub, or herbaceous vegetation. Population density data is from the Gridded Population of the World, Version 4 (GPWv4), Revision 11 (CIESIN, 2018).

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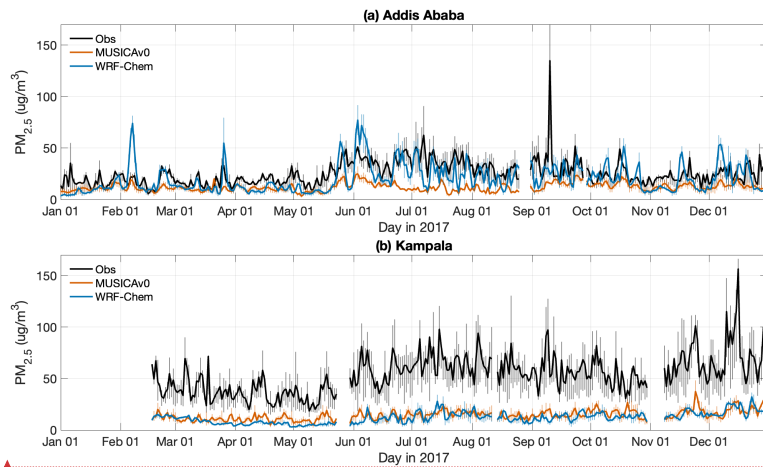
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 1536 **Figure 10.** Vertical profiles of O<sub>3</sub> (ppb) from Ozonesondes (black) and corresponding model  
 1537 output from MUSICAv0 (red), and WRF-Chem (blue) for each season of 2017. The thick lines  
 1538 denote the seasonal mean profiles and the thin lines denote the individual profiles. The dash red  
 1539 lines represent O3S (stratospheric ozone tracer) from the MUSICAv0 simulation. Ozonesonde data  
 1540 at Ascension in (a) MAM (March, April, and May), (b) JJA (June, July, and August), (c) SON  
 1541 (September, October, and November), and (d) DJF (December, January, and February) are shown.  
 1542 (e-h), (i-l), and (m-p) are the same as (a-d), except for Irene, La Reunion, and Nairobi, respectively.  
 1543 Locations of the sites are shown in Figure 1b.  
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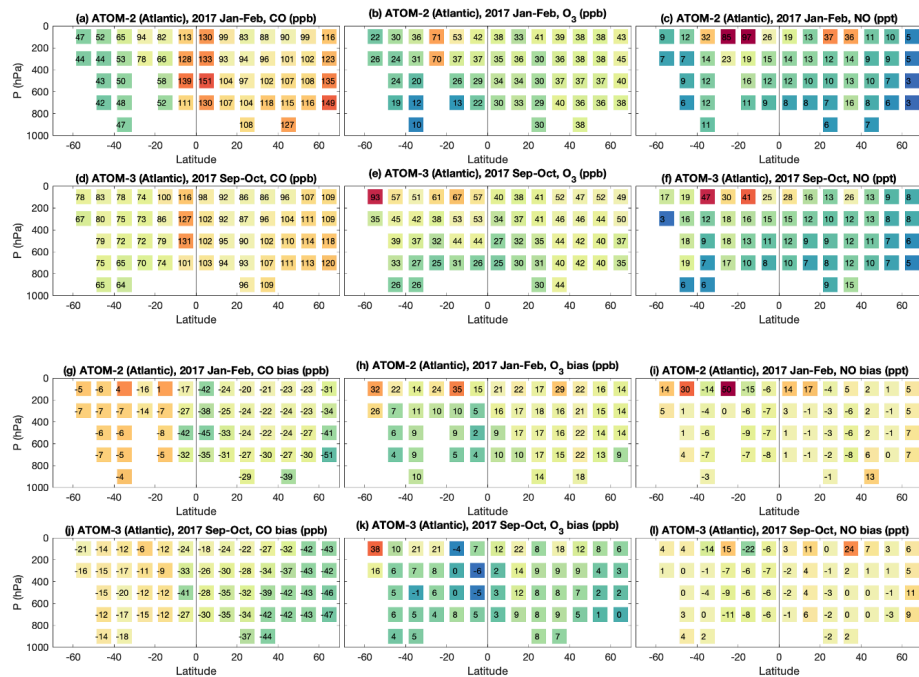


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**Figure 11.** Daily mean  $PM_{2.5}$  from in situ observations (black), MUSICAv0 (red), and WRF-Chem (blue) during 2017 at (a) Addis Ababa and (b) Kampala. Daily means are calculated from 3-hourly data. The shown range for each data point shows the variation on that day (25% quantile to 75% quantile). Locations of the sites are shown in Figure 1b.

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 1555 **Figure 12.** Observations of (a) CO (ppb), (b) O<sub>3</sub> (ppb), and (c) NO (ppt) over Atlantic Ocean  
 1556 during ATom-2 and ATom-3 (d-f). (g-l) corresponding model biases against ATOM observations.  
 1557 The ATom airborne measurements and corresponding MUSICA v0 model results are binned to 10-  
 1558 degree latitude and 200-hPa pressure bins. The values of mean biases for each latitude and pressure  
 1559 bin are labeled in the figure.  
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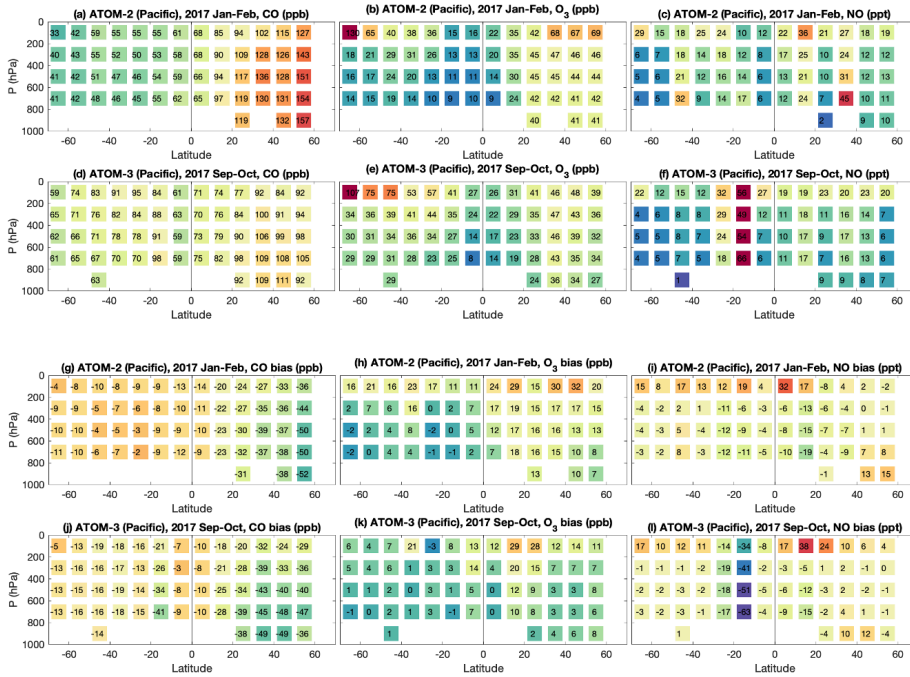
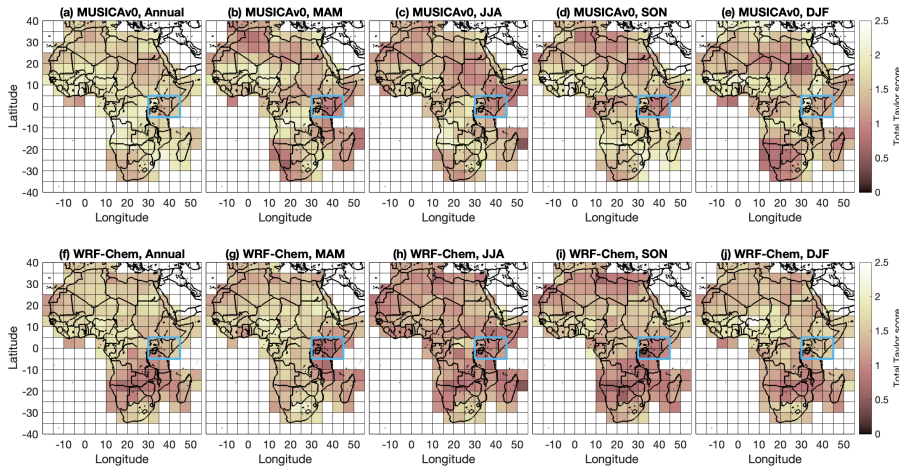


Figure 13. Same as Figure 9 but for over the Pacific Ocean.

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1569 **Figure 14.** Spatial distribution of total Taylor score of MUSICA v0 and (f-j) WRF-Chem compared  
 1570 to satellite retrievals. In each  $5^\circ \times 5^\circ$  (latitude  $\times$  longitude) pixel, Taylor scores of the model  
 1571 compared to three satellite products (e.g., MOPITT CO column retrievals, OMI tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub>  
 1572 column retrievals, and MODIS AOD) are calculated separately (as shown in Figure S12). Taylor  
 1573 score against each satellite product ranges from 0 to 1. And then three Taylor scores are summed  
 1574 up to obtain the shown total Taylor score (ranges from 0 to 3). Total Taylor score of MUSICA v0  
 1575 for (a) 2017, (b) MAM (March, April, and May), (c) JJA (June, July, and August), (d) SON  
 1576 (September, October, and November), and (e) DJF (December, January, and February) are shown.  
 1577 The blue box highlights a potential region for future field campaigns and/or in situ observations.  
 1578 (f-j) are similar to (a-e) except for WRF-Chem.  
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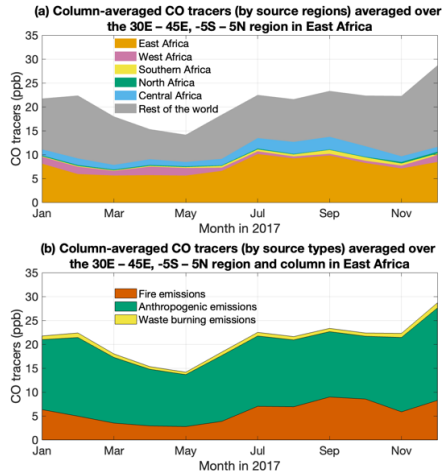
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**Figure 15.** Monthly time series of column-averaged CO tracers in the 30°E – 45°E, -5°S – 5°N region in East Africa. (a) CO tracers of emissions from North Africa (green), West Africa (pink), East Africa (orange), Central Africa (blue), Southern Africa (yellow), and the rest of the world (grey). (b) CO tracers of fire emissions (red), anthropogenic emissions (green), and waste burning emissions (yellow).

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