# **Evaluation of CMIP6 model simulations of PM2.5 and its**

## 2 components over China

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- 31 Abstract. Earth system models (ESMs) participating in the latest Coupled Model Intercomparison
- 32 Project Phase 6 (CMIP6) simulate various components of fine particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) as major climate
- 33 forcers. Yet the model performance for PM<sub>2.5</sub> components remains little evaluated due in part to lack of
- 34 observational data. Here, we evaluate near-surface concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub> and its five main components
- 35 over China as simulated by fourteen CMIP6 models, including organic carbon (OC, available in 14
- 36 models), black carbon (BC, 14 models), sulfate (14 models), nitrate (4 models), and ammonium (5
- 37 models). For this purpose, we collect observational data between 2000 and 2014 from a satellite-based

38 dataset for total  $PM_{2.5}$  and from 2469 measurement records in the literature for  $PM_{2.5}$  components. Seven 39 models output total PM2.5 concentrations, and they all underestimate the observed total PM2.5 over eastern 40 China, with GFDL-ESM4 (-1.5%) and MPI-ESM-1-2-HAM (-1.1%) exhibiting the smallest biases 41 averaged over the whole country. The other seven models, for which we recalculate total  $PM_{2.5}$  from the 42 available components output, underestimate the total PM2.5 concentrations, partly because of the missing 43 model representations of nitrate and ammonium. Concentrations of the five individual components are 44 underestimated in almost all models, except that sulfate is overestimated in MPI-ESM-1-2-HAM by 12.6% 45 and in MRI-ESM2-0 by 24.5%. The underestimation is the largest for OC (by -71.2% to -37.8% across 46 the 14 models) and the smallest for BC (-47.9% to -12.1%). The multi-model mean (MMM) reproduces 47 fairly well the observed spatial pattern for OC (R = 0.51), sulfate (R = 0.57), nitrate (R = 0.70) and ammonium (R = 0.74), yet the agreement is poorer for BC (R = 0.39). The varying performances of 48 49 ESMs on total PM<sub>2.5</sub> and its components have important implications for the modeled magnitude and 50 spatial pattern of aerosol radiative forcing.

### 51 1 Introduction

52 Fine particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) influences air quality, human health and climate change. Exposure to near-53 surface PM2.5 is associated with millions of global premature deaths each year (Zhang et al., 2017; World 54 Health Organization, 2021). PM<sub>2.5</sub> affects the radiative budget of the climate system directly through 55 scattering and absorption and indirectly via clouds. The effects of atmospheric aerosols on cloud droplet 56 concentrations, cloud distributions and radiative properties pose large uncertainties in the estimating 57 radiative forcing (Carslaw et al., 2013; Seinfeld et al., 2016). Earth system models (ESMs) are essential 58 tools for studying global climate change. The accuracy of PM2.5 simulations in ESMs exhibits a crucial 59 constraint on the reliability of these models in climate change simulation and projection. The Coupled 60 Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP6) provides an opportunity to evaluate simulated PM<sub>2.5</sub> 61 and its components by the current-generation ESMs, which implement interactive aerosol and 62 atmospheric chemistry (Turnock et al., 2020). A total of 21 ESMs participating in CMIP6 provide total 63  $PM_{2.5}$  and/or several component simulations, although the aerosol component species vary across these 64 models. Fourteen models include organic aerosol (OA, converted to organic carbon (OC) in this study 65 by assuming OA / OC = 1.6), black carbon (BC), sulfate, dust (DST), and sea salt (SSLT). Four of these

66 14 models also include nitrate and five include ammonium (Table S1).

67 Aerosol optical depth (AOD) during 2000-2014 simulated in CMIP5 and CMIP6 are in broad agreement 68 with satellite retrievals over most parts of Europe, North America, and India (Zhang et al., 2022a; Cherian 69 and Quaas, 2020). CMIP6 models better capture satellite-based AOD trends in western North America 70 and eastern China, whereas CMIP5 models failed to reproduce the trends in AOD (Mortier et al., 2020; 71 Cherian and Quaas, 2020). Studies have emerged over recent years to assess the CMIP model 72 performance of individual aerosol components. An assessment of CMIP5 dust aerosol simulations using 73 independent data from 1851 to 2011 over North Africa shows a common underestimate (Evan et al., 74 2016). Another analysis of CMIP3 and CMIP5 models suggests sea salt aerosols over the tropical Pacific 75 to be significantly underestimated (Chen et al., 2020). Evaluation of the vertical distribution of BC in 76 CMIP5 models based on aircraft measurements shows an overestimate in the upper troposphere 77 especially over the Central Pacific (Allen and Landuyt, 2014). Several CMIP5 models produce high 78 sulfate burdens over eastern China, the Indian Peninsula and the northern Indo-Chinese Peninsula, 79 although the transport difference among these models results in distinctive spatial distributions (Li et al., 80 2020). Overall, global climate models struggle to accurately reproduce observed aerosol component 81 concentrations over different world regions.

82 China is a major region with heavy aerosol pollution, dense population and complex climate, and thus it 83 is critical to understand the performance of ESMs for aerosol simulations over this country. Several 84 studies have evaluated total PM2.5 simulations of CMIP models over China, using AOD data from 85 satellite retrievals (Sockol and Small Griswold, 2017; Michou et al., 2020) and ground-based aerosol 86 networks (Mortier et al., 2020). They find that CMIP5 models reproduce the spatial pattern of AOD 87 reasonably well over eastern China, but with a tendency to underestimate AOD magnitudes (Liu and 88 Liao, 2017; Park et al., 2014; Allen et al., 2013). GFDL-CM3 performs best among CMIP5 models in 89 simulating AOD over eastern China, partly because it includes nitrate and ammonium that most models 90 lack (Li et al., 2020). Other studies suggest that CMIP6 models simulate the magnitude of annual mean 91 AOD better than CMIP5 over eastern China, in part due to the notable increase in sulfate (Cherian and 92 Quaas, 2020; Fan et al., 2018a). Nonetheless, the CMIP6 models fail to capture the seasonal north-south 93 shift of AOD maximum center over China during 2000–2014 (Li et al., 2021) and the observed dipole 94 pattern of AOD trends between China and India during 2006–2014 (Wang et al., 2021b).

95 Different PM<sub>2.5</sub> components exhibit distinctive radiative effects, thus understanding the performance of 96 ESMs in simulating individual  $PM_{2.5}$  components is important. Due to the absence of publicly available 97 observational component data over China, only a few studies target single aerosol components (such as 98 sulfate and dust) over a large region of the country, or different PM2.5 components over a short period or 99 a small region (Pu and Ginoux, 2018; Zhao et al., 2022). For example, model evaluation based on the 100 Acid Deposition Monitoring Network in East Asia (EANET) suggests that sulfate concentrations 101 simulated by CMIP5 and CMIP6 show a rising trend similar to observations (Mulcahy et al., 2020), but 102 the simulations are still lower than observed concentrations (Fan et al., 2018b; Mortier et al., 2020). A 103 recent study compares PM2.5 components (dust, sea salt, BC, OC and sulfate) in CMIP6 models with the 104 Modern Era Retrospective analysis for Research and Applications Aerosol Reanalysis (MERRAero) in 105 Asia from 2005 to 2020 (Su et al., 2022; Buchard et al., 2016). The study shows that CMIP6 model 106 uncertainties of total PM2.5 over East Asia are mainly attributable to sulfate and mineral dust simulations. 107 However, the model biases may in part come from other components (nitrate and ammonium) that are 108 not analyzed in their study; and the MERRAero data might contain errors as well (Ma et al., 2021; 109 Mahesh et al., 2019).

110 In this study, we evaluate near-surface concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub> and its five main components (OC, BC, 111 sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium) from 2000 to 2014 over China simulated by fourteen CMIP6 models 112 driven by historical emissions. For this purpose, we employ a satellite-based dataset for total PM<sub>2.5</sub> 113 concentrations and a self-compiled PM2.5 component dataset from 221 ground stations during 2000-2014 114 collected from the literature. Section 2 introduces CMIP6 model simulations, satellite-based total PM2.5 115 concentration data, and literature-based PM<sub>2.5</sub> component data. Section 3 assesses the performance of 116 CMIP6 models for total PM<sub>2.5</sub>. Section 4 evaluates the simulated PM<sub>2.5</sub> components. Section 5 discusses 117 the climate implications of the inadequacies in total PM2.5 and its components in CMIP6 models. Section 118 6 concludes the study.

### 119 **2 Data and method**

### 120 **2.1 CMIP6 simulations**

121 Near-surface concentrations of total PM<sub>2.5</sub> and its components can be converted from dry aerosol mass 122 mixing ratios (MMRs) in CMIP6 models. Monthly mean near-surface MMRs (in the lowest model layer) of PM2.5 and its main components are taken from fourteen CMIP6 models to assess the performance of 123 124 ESMs over China (Table S1). Data are obtained from the "Historical" experiments covering 1850–2014, 125 which serve as the entry cards for participating in CMIP6 (Eyring et al., 2016). They are coupled 126 atmosphere-ocean simulations that include all CMIP6 historical forcings, and are well suited for quantifying and understanding model characteristics. The ensemble mean is taken for each model by 127 128 averaging all available ensemble members. For GISS models, the ensemble members use two physics 129 configurations with drastically different aerosol parameterizations. We average the ensemble members 130 using the same physics configurations in GISS models, named GISS-E2-1-OMA (physics-version = 3) 131 and GISS-E2-1-MATRIX (physics-version = 5) respectively (Bauer et al., 2020). Simulation results over 132 2000-2014 are selected and re-gridded to  $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$  for comparison with available satellite- and ground-133 based data.

134 The anthropogenic emission data (ver. 2016-07-26) to drive "Historical" CMIP6 simulations is produced 135 by the Community Emissions Data System (CEDS) (Hoesly et al., 2018). An updated version of CEDS 136 (ver. 2017-05-18) corrected several errors in the spatial distribution within each country, but does not 137 change total emissions by country and sector (Feng et al., 2020). The CEDS emissions (ver. 2016-07-26 138 and ver. 2017-05-18) of OC, BC, CO, NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> in China after 2000 are higher than those in the 139 Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China (i.e., MEIC) (Paulot et al., 2018; Zheng et al., 2018) and 140 the Peking University (PKU) inventory (Wang et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2015; Tao et al., 2018) which 141 use more detailed Chinese data. This difference in China has been reduced when CEDS was used to 142 derive future SSP scenarios in CMIP6 simulations (published on ESGF on 28 June 2018 on https://esgf-143 node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6), and has been included in a post-CMIP6 version of CEDS (McDuffie et al., 144 2020).

Of the fourteen models, all output the MMRs of OA, BC, sulfate, dust and sea salt, five output ammonium,
and four output nitrate (Table S1). Seven models output the MMRs of total PM<sub>2.5</sub>, as the sum over all

147 components with suitable particle sizes. The MMRs are converted to mass concentrations ( $\mu g m^{-3}$ ) based 148 on air density in each model. In evaluating  $PM_{2.5}$  components (Sect. 4), the evaluation of dust and sea 149 salt concentrations is excluded due to the lack of available ground-based observations. We compare OC, 150 BC, sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium simulations with the observed data available for these components. 151 Modeled OA is converted to organic carbon (OC) to be comparable with the observational dataset. 152 Modeled OA refers to total organic aerosol, including primary organic aerosol (POA) and secondary 153 organic aerosol (SOA). For the GFDL-ESM4 model, the "mmroa" variable for OA only includes POA; 154 thus we calculate the total OA of GFDL-ESM4 as mmroa plus mmrsoa. The OA/OC ratios in the 155 literature range from 1.4 to 2.1 (Bürki et al., 2020; Lin et al., 2016). We choose an OA/OC ratio of 1.6, 156 which is the same as the ratio used in converting near-surface OA observations to OC. This ratio is 157 slightly higher than the value of 1.4 recommended by CMIP6 for POA, but it does not affect the relative 158 (percentage) model bias found in this study because the same ratio is used for models and observations.

- For the seven models that do not output total  $PM_{2.5}$ , we follow the previous work to estimate total  $PM_{2.5}$
- 160 concentrations (Eq. 1) (Turnock et al., 2020). Here, OA, BC, sulfate and certain portions of sea salt (SSLT,
- 161  $a_1$ ) and dust (DST,  $a_2$ ) are assumed to be present in fine particles (diameter < 2.5  $\mu$ m).

162 
$$PM_{2.5} = OA + BC + SO_4^{2-} + a_1 \times SSLT + a_2 \times DST$$
 (1)

For most models, specific values of  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  are provided by model developers (Table S2). BCC-ESM1 does not provide the coefficients. Instead, the model outputs concentrations in four size bins for each of dust (DST01: 0.1–1.0 µm, DST02: 1.0–2.5 µm, DST03: 2.5–5.0 µm, and DST04: 5.0–10 µm) and sea salt (SSLT01: 0.2–1.0 µm, SSLT02: 1.0–3.0 µm, SSLT03: 3.0–10 µm, and SSLT04: 10–20 µm) (Su et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2019). Thus, the first two bins are assumed to belong to PM<sub>2.5</sub>. Ammonium and nitrate are not available in most of these six models (except GISS-E2-1-MATRIX) and are thus not included in Eq.1.

### 170 2.2 Satellite-based total PM<sub>2.5</sub>

171 We take satellite-based near-surface total  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations from the V4.CH.03 product of the

172 Washington University Atmospheric Composition Analysis Group (Hammer et al., 2020). The dataset is

173 constructed by combining multiple satellite products of AOD with simulations from a chemical transport

174 model (GEOS-Chem) to predict PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and then constraining these estimates by ground-level PM<sub>2.5</sub> 175 monitoring. The GEOS-Chem aerosol simulations include primary and secondary carbonaceous aerosols, 176 sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, mineral dust, and sea salt. The dataset provides the annual average PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations during the period 2000–2014 with a high spatial resolution of  $0.01^{\circ} \times 0.01^{\circ}$  (~1 × 1 km<sup>2</sup>). 177 178 The adjusted satellite-derived PM2.5 concentrations over Asia are compared with surface PM2.5 179 observations collected from the Global Burden of Disease (GBD) collaborators during the period 2008-2013 (Mean<sub>satellite</sub> =  $61.5 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$  versus Mean<sub>obs</sub> =  $59.1 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$ ) (van Donkelaar et al., 2016) and from the 180 181 China National Environmental Monitoring Center (CNEMC) during the period 2015-2019 (Meansatellite 182 = 45.9  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup> versus Mean<sub>obs</sub> = 43.4  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>) (van Donkelaar et al., 2021). Detailed data descriptions are 183 provided elsewhere (van Donkelaar et al., 2019; van Donkelaar et al., 2016). Here the satellite-based total PM<sub>2.5</sub> data are re-gridded to  $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$  for model evaluation purposes. 184

### 185 2.3 Ground-based PM<sub>2.5</sub> components data

186 Since national-scale continuous measurements of near-surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> components are unavailable in 187 China, we collect observational PM<sub>2.5</sub> component data from the literature. Our collected dataset includes 188 2469 component records of OC, BC, sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium nationwide (627, 66, 645, and 1131 189 records in western regions, Northeast China, North China, and Central and South China, respectively), 190 as shown in Figure 1. Here a record represents one measured PM2.5 component at the specific sample site 191 and period. These records cover 30 provinces (including provinces and provincial-level municipalities) 192 and multiple land use types (urban, rural, near the road, and industrial park, etc.). The dataset does not 193 cover Ningxia, Guizhou, Heilongjiang, and Taiwan. A total of 472, 459, 518, 519, and 501 records are 194 available for OC, BC, sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium over China, respectively. The site locations, 195 sampling periods, data sources, and other information are summarized in the Supplement.

At a given site, the records are not continuous in time. These records cover varying sampling periods ranging from a few days to several years, although most are monthly data. We treat a record as seasonal if its data length is equal to or shorter than a season, or as annual when its data length is longer than 6 months. The records are not evenly scattered across years and are more available in later years in general. From 2000 to 2008, the numbers of records range from 50 to 150 per year, except for 2003 (207 records); while from 2009 to 2014, the numbers of records vary between 150 to 550 per year (Fig. S1). To compare

202 with CMIP6 simulations, we calculate for each site the multi-year mean PM2.5 component concentrations 203 by averaging over the seasonal or annual observational records. If there are more than one sites in a given 204 model grid cell, we average data from all sites in that grid cell. To consider the effect of interannual 205 variability (caused by incomplete temporal match in data availability between models and observations), 206 we compute for each CMIP6 model the average and maximum of annual mean values during 2000-2014 207 from all grid cells with available observational data, and then compare with the multi-year averaged 208 observations from these grid cells. As detailed in Section 5, the model biases are not caused by imperfect 209 model-observation matching in time.

## 210 **3 Evaluation of near-surface total PM2.5**

#### 211 **3.1 Spatial distribution**

212 The spatial distribution of satellite-based annual mean total PM2.5 concentrations (Fig. 2 p) exhibits high 213 values over populous and industrial North China (including Beijing, Tianjin, Hebei, Shandong, and Shanxi provinces, 52.6 µg m<sup>-3</sup>) and eastern Sichuan (60.9 µg m<sup>-3</sup>). Central and South China exhibits 214 215  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations (46.5 µg m<sup>-3</sup>) lower than North China, due to lower emissions, higher vegetation 216 coverage, better ventilation conditions and more precipitation. PM2.5 concentrations are modest over 217 dusty southern Xinjiang (33.6  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>). Low PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations (< 8  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>) are distributed over the 218 plateaus or forested regions with small populations, such as Tibet and northern Heilongjiang. Overall, 219 PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations in the south and coastal regions are lower than in the northern and inland regions.

220 Among the seven models that directly output total PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations (Fig. 2 a-g), GFDL-ESM4 and 221 MPI-ESM-1-2-HAM show similar patterns and magnitudes to satellite data with small national average 222 biases (-1.5% and -1.1%, respectively) because of better performance in BC, sulfate, and ammonium 223 simulations (Fig. S4-S7), which are related to the aerosol-chemistry-climate schemes within CMIP6 224 models (Turnock et al., 2020). Over the eastern regions (including Northeast China, North China, and 225 Central and South China), all models exhibit spatially averaged negative biases ranging from by -47.9% 226 to -3.3% (Fig. S2). Nevertheless, the spatial pattern over the eastern regions is well simulated by four 227 models (GFDL-ESM4, GISS-E2-1-OMA, MIROC-ES2L, and MPI-ESM-1-2-HAM) (R > 0.9, as shown 228 in Table S2) with the maximum center over North China correctly reproduced. Over the western regions, 229 four models (GFDL-ESM4, MRI-ESM2-0, NorESM2-LM, and NorESM2-MM) reproduce the

maximum center over southern Xinjiang, although each of the seven models can underestimate oroverestimate the peak values substantially.

232 For the seven models with total PM<sub>2.5</sub> derived from Eq.1, their simulated PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations 233 underestimate the satellite-based data by -65.5% to -48.0% averaged over the country (Fig.2 h-n). The 234 negative biases are in part because nitrate and ammonium are not included. About 15.1–20.6% and 11.4– 235 14.6% of PM<sub>2.5</sub> are nitrate and ammonium in the models that do contain them, as shown in Table S3. 236 Over the eastern regions, HadGEM3-GC31-LL and UKESM1-0-LL exhibit the least underestimation, 237 and they also capture the observed maximum center over North China. Five of these seven models do 238 not reproduce the PM<sub>2.5</sub> peaks over dusty regions in the west, pointing to model deficiencies in dust 239 simulations (Zhao et al., 2022).

#### 240 **3.2 Trend and interannual variability**

241 Over the eastern regions (Northeast China, North China, and Central and South China), data from satellite  $(0.72 \ \mu g \ m^{-3} \ yr^{-1})$  and all models  $(0.32-1.14 \ \mu g \ m^{-3} \ yr^{-1})$  exhibit significant increases (*p*-value < 0.05) 242 243 in annual mean total PM2.5 concentrations over 2000-2014, with temporal correlation between 0.63 and 244 0.87 (Fig. 3 a and Table S2). The positive trend of satellite data over the eastern regions is consistent 245 with findings from previous studies (de Leeuw et al., 2022; Geng et al., 2021), as caused mainly by 246 emission changes (Hoesly et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2022). GFDL-ESM4 and MPI-ESM1-2-HAM exhibit 247 annual average  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations and trends similar to the satellite data since 2004. Regionally, the 248 fourteen models capture the interannual variations of satellite  $PM_{2.5}$  over Northeast China (R > 0.9) and North China (R > 0.8) (Fig. 4). The temporal consistency reflects that the models capture the temporal 249 250 changes in anthropogenic emissions over these polluted regions, although the models might not align 251 with natural (meteorology-driven) variability.

Over the western regions where natural dust dominates the aerosol loadings, satellite-based  $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations experience no significant trend over 2000–2014, whereas 11 models increase significantly ranging from 0.10–0.28 µg m<sup>-3</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) (Fig. 3 b). There is a notable decline over 2000–2005 in satellite data (-1.12 µg m<sup>-3</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, at the significance level of 0.1) consistent with the previous studies that use dust aerosol optical depth (DOD) and ground-based observations of dust storm (Wang et al., 2021a; Song et al., 2016). However, the dramatic drop is not captured by any model, reflecting large uncertainties and
inter-model diversities in dust simulations stemming from many factors such as the driving mechanisms,
dust particle size, and model structural differences (Zhao et al., 2022). Over 2000–2014, NorESM2-LM,
NorESM2-MM, and MPI-ESM-1-2-HAM show large interannual variations whereas other models do
not. The models do not align with the yearly changes found in the satellite data, with modestly positive,
low or even negative correlation coefficients (–0.6 to 0.6, Fig. 4). The inaccuracy in aerosol trend and
variability might exert erroneous forcing upon the climate system.

#### 264 4 Evaluation of near-surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> components

### 265 4.1 Organic carbon and black carbon

266 Ground-based observations of carbonaceous aerosols (OC and BC) are mostly available in the eastern regions. The national average multi-year mean observed OC concentration reaches 15.9 µg m<sup>-3</sup>. 267 268 Observed OC concentrations peak over North China (> 25  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>) and are also high over Central and South China  $(5-25 \,\mu g \, m^{-3})$  (Fig. 5 a). The national average of the 14-model mean (6.5  $\mu g \, m^{-3}$ , normalized 269 mean bias (NMB) = -59.0%), which is spatially coincidently sampled with the ground-based 270 271 observations (i.e., model values are obtained from grid cells with available observations), severely 272 underestimates the observations, especially over parts of North China with the bias reaching  $-40 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$ 273 (Fig. 5 b). Nevertheless, the spatial pattern of OC observations is captured by the 14-model mean 274 modestly well with a correlation coefficient of 0.51. Further, a negative bias exceeding -50% occurs in 275 11 models, even though they can simulate the spatial pattern moderately well (R ranges from 0.40 to 276 0.58, Fig. S4).

The national average multi-year mean observed BC concentration is 4.3 µg m<sup>-3</sup>. Observed BC 277 278 concentrations are high (> 10  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>) over parts of North China with mining and other heavy industries, 279 such as Hebei and Shanxi province (Fig. 5 d). However, the 14-model mean (3  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>) does not capture 280 the spatial pattern very well (R = 0.39) and it underestimates the observations (NMB = -27.2%). The 14model mean presents the largest negative bias over Shanxi (-15.2 µg m<sup>-3</sup>) and the greatest positive bias 281 over Shandong (3.9 µg m<sup>-3</sup>, Fig. 5 e); both provinces are in North China. Twelve of the 14 models 282 underestimate the BC observations (by -47.9% to -12.1% for national average), whereas two models 283 284 (HadGEM3-GC31-LL and UKESM1-0-LL) exhibit positive biases (by 21.1% and 26.2%, respectively) (Fig. 6 and Fig. S5). Most models produce high concentrations of BC over the whole North China,
including Beijing and Shandong that exhibit relatively low observational values. The spatial distributions
of carbonaceous aerosol concentrations are mainly influenced by CEDS emissions used in models, with
higher spatial correlation coefficients greater than 0.85 (Fig. S3).

289 The underestimation of carbonaceous aerosol concentrations might be associated with anthropogenic 290 emissions, chemical mechanisms, and meteorological conditions. For China, the CEDS emission data 291 (ver. 2016-07-26) used in CMIP6 historical simulations are about 3.8-31.3% higher than those in MEIC 292 inventory except for  $NO_x$  emissions (Fan et al., 2022). However, the positive bias in emissions cannot 293 explain the model underestimation of OC and BC concentrations. The model inadequacies in chemical 294 processes (e.g., using simplified aerosols and chemistry schemes, which tends to underestimate aerosol 295 formation (Turnock et al., 2020)) might lead to underestimated secondary organic aerosols (SOA, as a 296 component of OC), especially over Central and South China (Chen et al., 2016). The inter-model 297 discrepancies of OC and BC peak over North China and eastern Sichuan (Fig. 5 c). The large absolute 298 discrepancies are in part due to the higher air pollutant concentrations in these regions. Furthermore, 299 many differences exist among CMIP6 models in PM2.5 component simulations, including the 300 representation of aerosol size distribution; the simplification of chemical processes with photolytic, 301 kinetic and heterogeneous reactions (e.g., 33 photolytic reactions in BCC-ESM1 but 43 in GFDL-ESM4) 302 (Turnock et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2020b; Dunne et al., 2020); the treatment for transport of gaseous tracers 303 and aerosols by advection and vertical convection; and the dry deposition and wet scavenging schemes 304 (Su et al., 2022; Digby et al., 2024).

305 Meteorological conditions, including temperature, precipitation and surface wind simulations, have 306 critical impacts on local aerosol concentrations. Temperature simulations over the eastern regions of 307 China by CMIP6 models are very close to the observed data (Yang et al., 2021). Over the western regions, 308 a notable warm bias over Xinjiang in most CMIP6 models (Zhang et al., 2022b) may contribute to higher 309 planetary boundary layer height (Yue et al., 2021) and stronger vertical mixing, partly explaining the 310 underestimation of OC and BC concentrations near the surface (Fig. 5); whereas the pronounced cold bias over the Tibetan Plateau (Zhu and Yang, 2020) might contribute to overestimated near-surface 311 312 aerosol concentrations over there. Precipitation affects aerosol concentrations through wet scavenging;

313 and it is overestimated (wet bias) in CMIP6 models over North China and Northeast China but close to 314 observations over Central and South China (Yang et al., 2021). The model performance in precipitation 315 may partly explain the more severe underestimation of OC concentrations over North China than over 316 Central and South China. But the overestimation of BC over North China suggests that other factors 317 offset the influence of local wet bias. Over the western regions, most models exhibit wet bias, except 318 over northern Xinjiang where local temperature (warm bias) and precipitation (dry bias) have opposite 319 effects on near-surface aerosol concentrations. Furthermore, the overall underestimation of surface wind 320 speed over China in CMIP6 (Wu et al., 2020a) is conducive to the accumulation of near-surface aerosol 321 concentrations around the anthropogenic emission source regions, which may induce a negative 322 contribution to the underestimation of OC and BC concentrations.

#### 323 4.2 Sulfate, nitrate and ammonium

324 This section evaluates the model performance of secondary inorganic aerosols (sulfate, nitrate, and 325 ammonium; SIOA). Sulfate aerosol in CMIP6 models is dependent on SO<sub>2</sub> emissions (the main sulfuric acid precursor), chemical conversion of SO<sub>2</sub> to sulfate, and loss through wet scavenging (Wu et al., 2020b; 326 327 Tegen et al., 2019). Some models also explicitly simulate nitrate and ammonium aerosols using the 328 sulfate-nitrate-ammonia thermodynamic equilibrium. For instance, EC-Earth3-AerChem, GISS-E2-1-329 MATRAX and GISS-E2-1-OMA use the Equilibrium Simplified Aerosol Model (EQSAM) (Metzger et 330 al., 2002; Bauer et al., 2020; van Noije et al., 2021), while GFDL-ESM4 treats ammonium and nitrate 331 aerosols with ISORROPIA (Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007; Paulot et al., 2016; Dunne et al., 2020).

332 The national average multi-year mean of observed sulfate concentrations reaches 14.6  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>, the second 333 largest value among the five PM2.5 components (following OC). The observed sulfate concentrations exceed 15  $\mu g~m^{-3}$  over most of North China and eastern Sichuan, as well as cities over Xinjiang with 334 335 large population and petroleum industry (Fig. 5 g). The 14-model mean, whose national average is 9.3 µg m<sup>-3</sup>, has the greatest underestimation over North China and Xinjiang (Fig. 5 h). The 14-model mean 336 337 agrees modestly well with the observations in spatial pattern (R = 0.57). Among the 14 models, the 338 national average model biases range from -66.1% (GISS-E2-1-OMA) to 24.5% (MRI-ESM2-0); and 339 five models better capture the observed spatial pattern with correlation coefficients exceeding 0.6 (Fig. 340 6). The cross-model discrepancy in sulfate (2  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup> in national average) is larger than those for the other four components (0.4–0.9  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>), particularly over Central and South China (Fig. 5 i).

The national average multi-year mean of observational nitrate concentrations is 8.7  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>. The observed 342 343 spatial pattern of nitrate is similar to sulfate, with high values over North China, eastern Sichuan and 344 populous cities of Xinjiang (Fig. 5 j). Only four models (GFDL-ESM4, GISS-E2-1-OMA, GISS-E2-1-345 MATRIX, and EC-Earth3-AerChem) include nitrate simulations. The 4-model mean has a national 346 average of 5.5  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>, with a NMB of -36.5%; but it captures the observed spatial pattern very well with 347 a correlation coefficient reaching 0.7. All the four models exhibit negative NMBs ranging from -41.4% 348 to -25.4%; they reproduce high values over the eastern regions but have underestimation over Xinjiang 349 (Fig. S7).

350 The observed multi-year mean ammonium concentrations have a national average value of 6.7  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>. 351 The observational values peak over North China (>  $10 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$ ), particularly over the agricultural regions 352 from which ammonia emissions are the greatest (Fig. 5 m). Five models perform ammonium simulations. The 5-model mean, with a national average of 3.4  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>, has negative and positive biases between – 353 12.2 and 1.5 µg m<sup>-3</sup> at different locations (Fig. 5 n). The 5-model mean captures the observed spatial 354 pattern of ammonium (R = 0.74) better than for other components (R = 0.39-0.70). The five models 355 356 exhibit varying performances in magnitude and spatial pattern. The NMBs range from -89.0% to -13.6%357 across these models. Four models simulate the spatial patterns of ammonium well with high correlation 358 coefficients between 0.67 to 0.76, although the spatial agreement is poor for CESM2-WACCM (R =359 0.21).

360 Emissions, meteorological conditions and chemical processes affect the formation and loss of secondary 361 inorganic aerosols. As explained in Sect. 4.1, the potentially overestimated CEDS emissions over China, 362 the cold bias over the Tibetan Plateau, and the dry bias over northern Xinjiang tend to overestimate 363 aerosol concentrations, which are in contrast with the negative model biases over the respective regions. 364 On the other hand, the warm bias over northern Xinjiang and the wet bias over North China and Northeast 365 China are in line with the underestimation of aerosol concentrations. Furthermore, the formation of 366 nitrate from nitric acid depends on the amount of residual ammonia left from the formation of ammonium 367 sulfate. Over the regions where ammonia is not sufficient to neutralize both nitric acid and sulfuric acid 368 (such as Shanxi and Shandong), decreased sulfate formation might promote nitrate formation with the

released ammonium (Zhai et al., 2019; Zhai et al., 2021). This partly explains why the underestimation
of nitrate simulations is less than sulfate over these regions.

#### 371 5 Discussion

Over the eastern regions, the concentrations of total  $PM_{2.5}$  and its five components are underestimated by the 14 models in general. The slight underestimation of three models (GFDL-ESM4, MPI-ESM-1-2-HAM, and MRI-ESM2-0) can be traced to positive biases in sulfate simulations partly offsetting the negative biases in OC and BC. Over the western regions, most models underestimate the total  $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations dominated by dust aerosols, whereas three models (GFDL-ESM4, NorESM2-LM, and NorESM2-MM) produce overly high values over Xinjiang due to overestimated dust concentrations. Meanwhile, all models underestimate the five  $PM_{2.5}$  components over the west.

Figure 7 shows little difference between the maximum and average annual concentrations over 2000– 2014 for national mean PM<sub>2.5</sub> components simulated by individual models. Furthermore, we average over all seasonal and annual observational records to compare with annual mean model results. A test using the seasonal (annual) model results to match seasonal (annual) observational records shows very similar comparison results (Fig. S8). These tests suggest that the model underestimation cannot be attributed to imperfect temporal matching between models and observations or the potential mis-phase (or variability) in models.

386 Among the five PM<sub>2.5</sub> components evaluated, absorbing aerosol (BC) and four scattering aerosols (OC, 387 sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium) have opposite direct radiative forcing at the top of atmosphere (TOA). 388 The underestimation of BC is less than for the other four scattering aerosols. If this difference persists in 389 the troposphere, the underestimated PM<sub>2.5</sub> components might cause an underestimation of negative 390 radiative forcing at TOA. The underestimation of BC and scatter aerosols might result in more solar 391 radiation reaching the ground (Chen et al., 2022; Tang et al., 2022). This is consistent with the 392 overestimation of maximum daily maximum temperature over the eastern regions (Zhu et al., 2020), 393 likely serving as a positive feedback between negative aerosol biases and overestimated surface 394 temperature.

395 The spatial biases in aerosols might also serve as an important limiting factor for the performance of

396 meteorological/climate simulations. The observed PM<sub>2.5</sub> and its five components are characterized by 397 high concentrations over the east and low values over the west (except northern Xinjiang). In a few 398 models, the large overestimation of  $PM_{2.5}$  over Xinjiang of the west (dominated by dust) with 399 underestimated  $PM_{2.5}$  (dominated by anthropogenic aerosols) over the east might exert an incorrect west-400 east asymmetric climate forcing. The spatial pattern of resulting climate response might include cold-401 warm biases of surface temperature (cold bias over the west and warm bias over the east). The difference 402 in the spatial pattern of model bias between BC and scattering aerosols might have additional impacts on 403 the climate. Future work is needed to examine how the model errors in PM2.5 and its components might 404 affect climate simulations through aerosol-climate feedback.

#### 405 6 Summary

406 In this study, we evaluate the performance of 14 CMIP6 ESMs in simulating total near-surface  $PM_{2.5}$  and 407 its five components over China during 2000–2014, and discuss the likely causes for model errors, and 408 their climate implications. Our assessment helps to understand the capability of the current-generation 409 models in the simulation of aerosols and aerosol-climate interactions, towards further improvement of 410 climate predictions and projections. Our findings are summarized as follows:

411 (1) Twelve of the 14 CMIP6 models tend to underestimate the total  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations over China 412 (NMB = -65.5% to -1.1%) and the other two models overestimate them (NMB = 17.0% - 39.2%), as 413 compared to a satellite-based dataset. The seven models that output total PM2.5 concentrations exhibit 414 underestimation between -47.9% and -3.3% over the eastern regions, although four of them capture the 415 observed spatial pattern (R > 0.9). Over the western regions, four of these seven models reproduce the 416 maximum center over southern Xinjiang. The seven models, for which we calculate the total PM<sub>2.5</sub> 417 concentrations from outputted components, underestimate the observed PM2.5 by -65.5% to -48.0% 418 averaged over the country, in part due to missing nitrate and ammonium in the models.

419 (2) Over the eastern regions, all models simulate significant increasing trends of total  $PM_{2.5}$  (0.32–1.14 420  $\mu g m^{-3} yr^{-1}$ ) over 2000–2014 that are close to satellite-based data (0.72  $\mu g m^{-3} yr^{-1}$ ). The models also 421 capture the interannual variability of satellite  $PM_{2.5}$  over Northeast China and North China. Over the 422 western regions, 11 models simulate growing  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations at rates of 0.10–0.28  $\mu g m^{-3} yr^{-1}$ , in 423 contrast to no significant trends in satellite data.

424 (3) The 14-model mean captures the spatial pattern of observed OC modestly well (R = 0.51), but it 425 exhibits severe underestimation nationwide (NMB = -59.0%), with negative biases exceeding -50% in 426 11 models. The 14-model mean shows a poor capability in capturing the BC spatial pattern (R = 0.39), 427 and it also underestimates the BC observations (NMB = -27.2%). Two models exhibit positive biases in 428 BC, while the other 12 models exhibit negative biases.

429 (4) Fourteen, four and five models output the sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium, respectively. The 14-430 model mean of sulfate exhibits modest spatial correlation and bias (R = 0.57, NMB = -36.5%); and there 431 exist large discrepancies among these models, with biases ranging from -66.1% to 24.5%. The 4-model 432 mean of nitrate captures the spatial pattern well (R = 0.7), although it still underestimates concentrations 433 nationwide (NMB = -36.5%). The 5-model mean of ammonium has the best performance in reproducing 434 the spatial pattern (R = 0.74) but with a negative bias in magnitudes (NMB = -46.5%).

435 (5) The overall underestimation of  $PM_{2.5}$  and its components are associated with imperfectness in 436 emissions as input, modeled meteorology and chemistry. The underestimated PM2.5 and its components 437 might cause an overall underestimated cooling effect at TOA and stronger warming at the surface in the 438 models. The model performance in spatial pattern differs between BC and scattering aerosols; and a few 439 models also exhibit strong positive biases over the west (associated with dust) but negative biases over 440 the east. Together, the errors in spatial pattern might have additional consequences for the modeled 441 climate. Further studies are warranted to quantify how model errors in the magnitude and spatial pattern 442 of aerosols affect the regional and global climate, for example, through the Regional Aerosol Model 443 Intercomparison Project (RAMIP) (Wilcox et al., 2022).

As a final note, those causes for aerosol underestimation may also affect ozone, and the underestimated aerosol concentrations might also further affect the ozone simulation through radiative or heterogeneous chemical processes (Jacob, 2000; Lin et al., 2012; Li et al., 2019). In addition, as CMIP6 models are also used to study the health impacts of aerosols (Xu et al., 2022; Shim et al., 2021), the aerosol underestimation needs to be corrected to allow a more reliable estimate of health consequences.

#### 449 Data availability

CMIP6 data are available on the Earth System Grid Federation (ESGF) and can be freely downloaded via the website interface https://esgf-data.dkrz.de/search/cmip6-dkrz/ (last access: 8 September 2020, WCRP, 2020). Satellite-derived surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration products can be accessed from the Washington University Atmospheric Composition Analysis Group website as version V4.CH.03 at https://sites.wustl.edu/acag/datasets/surface-pm2-5/. Observational data used in this paper are provided in the SI, with raw data available upon request to the corresponding author Jintai Lin (linjt@pku.edu.cn).

#### 456 Author contributions

457 JL led the study. FR and JL designed the study, analyzed the results, and wrote the paper. CX provided 458 the map data of four regions in China. JA collected observation data of PM<sub>2.5</sub> components from the 459 literature. JW helped to analyze the evaluation results. RM, AD and MH provided satellite-derived data 460 of total PM2.5. ST performed UKESM1-0-LL and HadGEM3-GC31-LL simulations. NO performed 461 MRI-ESM2-0 simulations. JZ performed BCC-ESM1 simulations. SB and KT performed GISS-E2-1-OMA and GISS-E2-1-MATRIX simulations. ØS performed NorESM2-LM and NorESM2-MM 462 463 simulations. PN performed CNRM-ESM2-1 simulations. DN performed MPI-ESM1-2-HAM 464 simulations. GS performed CESM2-WACCM simulations. TN and PS performed EC-Earth3-AerChem simulations. LH performed GFDL-ESM4 simulations. TT performed MIROC-ES2L simulations. All 465 466 authors commented on the manuscript.

### 467 **Competing interests**

468 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interests.

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Figure 1. Observational records of PM<sub>2.5</sub> components during 2000–2014 collected from the literature. (a) The map
depicts individual provinces in four regions, including the western regions in red colors, Northeast China in purple,
North China in blue, and Central and South China in green. The provinces without observational records are in gray.
The number denotes each province. (b) Provincial observation records in China. The number in the upper x-axis and





Figure 2. Multi-year mean annual average near-surface total PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations over China during 2000–2014.
(a-g) Model outputted PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations in seven models. (h-n) Calculated PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations in the other
seven models according to Eq. 1. (o) Multi-model mean. (p) Satellite-based total PM<sub>2.5</sub> dataset. R stands for spatial
correlation, and NMB stands for normalized mean bias.



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Figure 3. Time series of annual mean regional average total PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations. (a) Over the eastern regions

768 (including Northeast China, North China, and Central and South China). (b) Over the western regions. The bold

- 769 black lines denote satellite-based PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations, and the bold red lines denote multi-model mean (MMM)
- concentrations.



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Figure 4. Spatial distribution of correlation coefficients between modeled and satellite-based data for interannual

- variations of annual mean total PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations during 2000–2014. Black dots indicate a significance level of
- 0.05.



Figure 5. Spatial distribution of multi-year averages of modeled PM<sub>2.5</sub> components during 2000–2014. (First column)
 The multi-model mean PM<sub>2.5</sub> component concentrations, overlaid with average ground-based observations in filled
 circles. (Second column) The bias of multi-model mean concentrations. (Third column) The standard deviation of
 PM<sub>2.5</sub> component simulations among the CMIP6 models.



Results for total PM2.5 refer to the comparison against the satellite-based dataset, and those for components are

relative to the observations compiled from the literature. The red dotted lines denote multi-model mean (MMM).

The black dotted lines denote the spatial correlation coefficient value of 0.5.





Figure 7. Maximum and average concentrations over 2000-2014 for simulated national mean PM2.5 components

