



Unveiling Sulfate Aerosol Persistence as the Dominant Control

of the Systematic Cooling Bias in CMIP6 Models: Quantification 2

and Corrective Strategies

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Abstract

Including sophisticated aerosol schemes in the models of the sixth Coupled Model 18 Inter-comparison Project (CMIP6) has not improved historical climate simulations. In particular, the models underestimate the surface air temperature anomaly (SATa) when anthropogenic sulfur emissions increased in 1960~1990, making the reliability of the CMIP6 projections questionable. Biases in cooling among the models are correlated 22 with sulfate burden and the deposition of sulfur is the process responsible. We show that the lifetime of atmospheric sulfur, defined by a new global index for sulfur 24 deposition (an "Effective Sulfur Retention Timescale" (ESRT)), determines the cooling biases. Reducing the biases to within the observational uncertainty is consistent with a physically plausible ESRT of around one day, whereas the CMIP6 models overestimate this timescale. Based on targeting a reduction of ESRT, post-CMIP6 improvements to two models are shown to greatly improve SATa reproduction.

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1. Introduction

Atmospheric aerosols have rapidly increased since the Industrial Revolution. Over 32 this time period, the total aerosol effective radiative forcing (ERF) was dominated by 33 the sulfate cooling effect, and offset a substantial portion of global-mean forcing from 34 well-mixed greenhouse gases (IPCC, 2023). Without this historical aerosol ERF, the 35 Paris Agreement's target of limiting global warming to 1.5°C above pre-industrial 36 37 levels would have already been missed in 2015 (Hienola et al., 2018). Similarly, stopping all present-day anthropogenic aerosol emissions is estimated to induce a 38 39 global-mean surface heating of 0.5~1.1°C (Samset et al., 2018). The year 2024 has been 40 confirmed as the hottest year in human history, and was the first year to breach the 41 1.5°C warming limit (Bevacqua et al., 2025). Moreover, recent years have seen temperature trends accelerate, which may be due to reductions in atmospheric aerosols, 42 especially aerosols produced by commercial shipping (Hansen et al., 2025). Hence, it 43 has been suggested that even small emissions in relatively pristine air have substantial 44 effects, and better constraining the ability of global-climate models to predict aerosol 45 effects may be crucial to obtaining reliable projections. 46 The observed temporal evolution of historical surface air temperature (SAT) is one 47 of the major metrics used for evaluating the performance of climate models. However, 48 the SAT anomalies in the CMIP6 models are systematically lower than was observed 49 for the 1960~1990 period, whereas the CMIP5 models on average track the 50 instrumental record quite well (e.g., Flynn and Mauritsen, 2020). The 1960~1990 51 period is referred to as the "pothole cooling period" (PHC) in our previous study (Zhang 52 53 et al., 2021a), due to the 'pot-hole' shaped dip in SAT at that time, and in this study 54 hereafter. The PHC period is coincident with the so-called Great Acceleration period, in which the human enterprise was boosted remarkably and led to global-scale impacts 55 56 on Earth System functioning (Steffen et al., 2007). Recent studies hypothesized that aerosol forcing in CMIP6 is stronger than in CMIP5 and is responsible for the 57 suppressed late 20th-century warming (Dittus et al., 2020; Smith and Forster, 2021). 58





ESMs or the emissions data (Hardacre et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021). Considering the importance of the sulfur cycle in historical aerosol ERF, we examine the sulfur related processes in eleven CMIP6 models with aerosol schemes in this study. All the models are forced with CMIP6 historical anthropogenic aerosol emissions (Hoesly et al., 2018), and therefore differences in their sulfate burdens are mainly due to different representations of the sulfur cycle in the models.

We will identify the key processes that determine sulfate-burden in these models, and introduce a simple metric for measuring the level of activity in the sulfur cycle in the models on the global scale. This metric (an effective timescale for global cycling of atmospheric sulfate) can be easily calculated from time series of global means only, without the need for complex diagnostics of the sulfur-cycle processes. We show that our timescale is strongly correlated with sulfate burden and anomalous cooling and has a clear physical interpretation that allows each model's sulfur cycle to be calibrated using historical temperature biases.

2. Results

2.1 SAT and sulfate burden

The historical evolutions of near-global mean (60°S to 65°N) SATa in the eleven CMIP6 models with interactive aerosol schemes are shown in Fig. 1a. All the models tend to underestimate SATa since the 1950s. The cooling bias is most pronounced from 1960 to 1990, i.e., the PHC period. The SATa in PHC is about 0.34°C in the observations. However, the multi-model mean (MMM) SATa in the models is about 0.3°C lower with a large model spread. The SATa ranges from -0.24°C in EC-Earth3-AerChem to 0.19°C in GFDL-ESM4 and MIROC6. The cooling is noticeable at the mid to high latitude in the Northern Hemisphere (NH, as shown in the attached SATa map in Fig.1a). The sudden drop in SATa in the early 1960s and 1990s may be due to the stronger model responses to large volcanic eruptions, Mount Agung in 1963 and Mount Pinatubo in 1991, than in the observations (Chylek et al., 2020). The anomalous





cooling biases gets smaller later in the simulations, which is related to the generally high sensitivity of the models to GHG forcing (Smith and Forster, 2021).

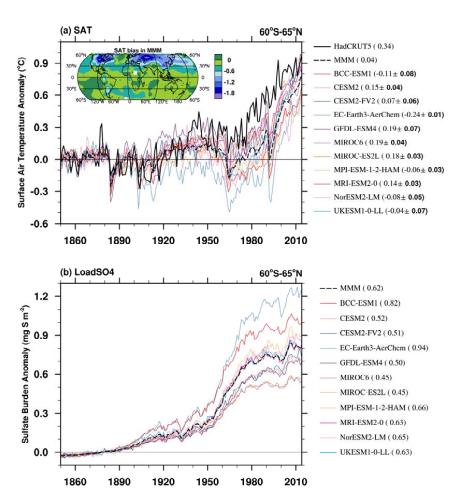


Figure 1. (a) Historical surface air temperature anomalies (SATa) relative to 1850~1900 mean for HadCRUT5 (thick black line), the ensemble mean for each CMIP6 model (solid color lines), and multi-model mean (MMM, dashed black line). The numbers in brackets are the mean results during the pothole period (1960~1990) together with the inter-member spread for each model. Panel (b) is the same as panel (a) but for sulfate burden anomalies for the first realization from each CMIP6 model (solid color lines) and MMM (dashed black line).

Global emissions of SO₂ grew steadily after the 1950s and peaked in the 1970s at





180Tg yr⁻¹, which is about 3.6 times the 1950s' emissions (Hoesly et al., 2018). As the main precursor of sulfate, the growing emission of SO₂ led to the accumulation of sulfate in the atmosphere, which interrupted a decades-long warming trend via the cooling effects of sulfate aerosols on climate, even though carbon-dioxide emissions continued to rise (Wilcox et al., 2013). Because of the emission control policies in Europe and North America (Hand et al., 2012; Vestreng et al., 2007), such as the Gothenburg Protocol (Eb, 1999) and the 1990 Clean Air Act Amendments in the U.S. (Likens et al., 2001), global anthropogenic SO₂ emissions were suppressed after the 1980s and SAT started to increase rapidly in the observations (Aas et al., 2019). However, anthropogenic SO₂ emission continued to increase over Asia due to industrial developments, although they have also decreased since 2006 in East Asia (Wang et al., 2021). Some of this decrease in SO₂ emissions at the beginning of the 21st century is not well represented in the CMIP6 emission inventory. But it is outside of the PHC period and the impact on SAT reproduction is beyond the scope of this paper.

In the 11 CMIP6 models, sulfate concentrations increased rapidly during the PHC period (Fig.1b). The intensified emission of anthropogenic SO₂ mainly comes from industries and the energy-transformation sector (e.g., Ohara et al., 2007; Vestreng et al., 2007). The SAT anomalies simulated by CMIP6 models are systematically lower than observations during the PHC period, indicating an excessively strong sulfate-induced cooling effect in CMIP6 models. The sulfate burden is the lowest in MIROC models (0.45 mg S m⁻²) with the smallest cooling bias (-0.15°C lower than HadCRUT5), and is doubled in EC-Earth3-AerChem (0.94mg S m⁻²) with the largest cooling (-0.58°C lower than HadCRUT5). Generally, the models with higher sulfate burdens anomalies also tend to underestimate SAT anomalies the most. As shown in Fig. 2a, the correlation coefficient between anomalous sulfate burden and SAT during the PHC is -0.91, significant at the 1% level using a Student's *t*-test. Interactive chemistry may have an impact on sulfate formation and affect the sulfate aerosol burdens in the atmosphere (Mulcahy et al., 2020). As shown in Fig.2a, models with interactive chemistry (color dots) seem to have higher sulfate burden anomaly and lower SATa than models without





(color circles). However, the relationship between sulfate burden and SATa is consistent among models with and without interactive chemistry (i.e., there is no obvious difference in relationship between loadSO4 and SATa for models with and without interactive chemistry).

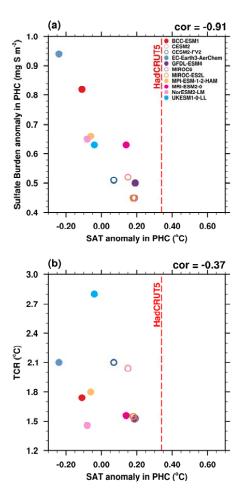


Figure 2. Scatter plots of SATa in PHC period (x-axis, °C) versus (a) sulfate burden anomaly in PHC period (y-axis, mg S m⁻²) in historical experiments, and (b) the transient climate response (TCR, °C) for each model calculated by 1pctCO2 experiments. The corresponding correlation coefficient (COR) is shown at the top-right corner of each panel. The anomalies are relative to 1850~1900 mean. Models with and without interactive chemistry are marked by color dots and color circles, respectively.





Greenhouse gases (GHGs) also show a rapidly increasing trend in the PHC period. However, TCR, which can generally indicate the impact of GHGs, is insignificantly correlated with SAT anomalies in CMIP6 models and the correlation coefficient is even slightly negative (Fig.2b). Therefore, the biases of atmospheric sulfate burden and the associated sulfate aerosol cooling effects play an essential role in the anomalous-cooling biases in the CMIP6 models.

2.2 Sulfur deposition and a metric for the activity of the global sulfur cycle (ESRT)

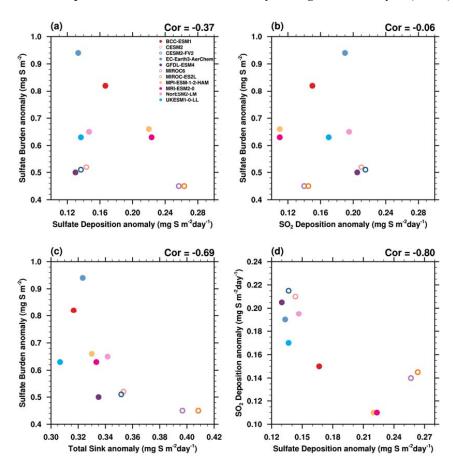


Figure 3. Sulfate burden anomaly in PHC period (mg S m⁻², y-axis) versus (a) sulfate deposition anomaly, (b) SO₂ deposition anomaly, and (c) total sulfur sink (sulfate and SO₂ deposition) anomaly in PHC period. (d) sulfate deposition anomaly (x-axis) versus SO₂ deposition anomaly (y-axis) in PHC period. Unit for deposition anomaly is mg S m⁻² day⁻¹.

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sulfur as anomalies in the PHC period relative to a baseline period of 1850~1900. As shown in Fig.3a, the sulfate burden anomaly is negatively correlated with sulfate deposition anomaly but the correlation is not significant, partly because of the presence of a group of 5 models which prevent a robust linear fitting of the remaining models by having both slow sulfate deposition rates and low sulfate concentrations. There is no clear statistical relationship between sulfate burden and SO₂ deposition (Fig. 3b). However, the correlation between sulfate burden and total sulfur sink (deposition of sulfate and SO₂) increases to -0.69, significant at the 5% level using a Student's t-test (Fig.3c). In particular, most of the 5 models with low anomalous sulfate deposition rates and low sulfate burden have higher than average SO2 deposition, which influences their total sulfur sink enough for a correlation to emerge. We can hypothesize that in these 5 models' oxidation of precursors to sulfate proceeds slower than in the other models. This is reflected by their larger SO₂ deposition rates, and leads to less sulfate in the atmosphere. That is, both the sulfate deposition and the SO₂ deposition (via its relationship with oxidation rates) are responsible for the sulfate burden anomalies, although the relative ratio of both deposition processes is different among the models. Further examination indicates that the anomalous SO₂ deposition rate among the models is highly negatively correlated with the anomalous sulfate deposition rate with correlation coefficient of -0.80 (Fig.3d). The total sulfur sink is examined and discussed hereafter. Considering the importance of anomalous total sulfur sink to sulfate burden, Fig.4a examines their relationship during the PHC period in each model. Generally, the anomalous sulfate burden and total sink are positively correlated and co-vary almost linearly in all the models. We further examine the ratio between sulfate burden and total sink instead of their anomalies in Fig.4b, i.e., Effective Sulfur Retention Timescale (ESRT), defined by Eq. (1) in Appendix A1. The ESRT is also approximately constant during the PHC. Comparisons indicate that the ratios between anomalous sulfate burden and anomalous total sink are highly correlated with ESRT (Fig.4c). However, the ESRT

Fig. 3 shows comparisons of the global mean total sulfate burdens versus sinks of





is independent of preindustrial mean state and will be practically more useful. The ESRT is generally longer in models with interactive chemistry (color dot in Fig.4c) than without (color circle), which is consistent with the results demonstrated by two UK models with and without interactive chemistry (Mulcahy et al., 2020). In the two UK models sharing the same aerosol scheme, sulfate lifetime is 5.57 days in UKESM1-0-LL (which has interactive chemistry) but shorter in HadGEM3-GC3.1 (which uses prescribed concentrations for oxidants).

2.3 The recommended ESRT value

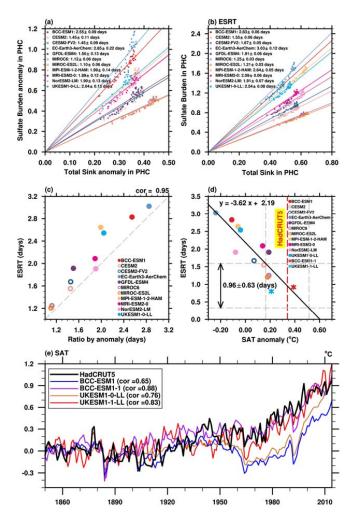


Figure 4. (a) Scatter plots of yearly total sulfur sink (x-axis) versus sulfate burden anomaly (y-axis)





in PHC period in relative to 1850~1900 mean. Number in legend shows the mean and standard deviation of ratio between sulfate burden anomaly and total sulfur sink anomaly in PHC period, units: days. (b) is the same as (a), but for sulfate burden and total sulfur sink. Number in legend shows the ratio defined as ESRT, units: days. (c) the ratio calculated in (a) versus ESRT in (b). (d) The SATa (°C, x-axis) versus ESRT (days, y-axis) in PHC period for each model. The black solid line is the linear fitting. SAT anomaly in HadCRUT5 and its 0.175°C boundaries are shown by the red solid line and parallel gray dashed lines, respectively. The constraint range for ESRT based on HadCRUT5 is 0.96±0.63 days. The red and blue asterisks are the results in the two post-CMIP6 models BCC-ESM1-1 and UKESM1-1-LL, respectively. (e) Evolutions of SAT anomalies relative to 1850~1900 mean for HadCRUT5, BCC-ESM models, and UKESM models. The numbers in legend are the corresponding correlation coefficients with HadCRUT5.

The ESRT varies from 1.21 days in MIROC6 to 3.03 days in EC-Earth3-AerChem (Fig. 4b). The standard deviation of ESRT for each model ranges from 0.03 to 0.12 days, about 3.0% of the ESRT. That is, although the sulfate burden increased significantly in the PHC period, the ESRT hardly changed. This is an important sign that ESRT is a robust index for evaluating the sulfur cycle in model development. Our finding that a single value of ESRT is capable of characterizing the anomalous cooling for each model, makes it a convenient target for model tuning. Focusing on a single, representative parameter can make tuning more efficient and help to reduce the computation cost, especially when the model resolutions become relatively high. Moreover, because ESRT has a clear physical interpretation as a globally defined efficiency factor for sulfur removal processes, tuning based on ESRT can give confidence that SAT biases are reduced for a 'right' (i.e., physically sensible) reason.

Tuning based on ESRT requires an empirical best-estimate ESRT value to aim for. Therefore, a further question is how to estimate the reasonable values for ESRT. Here we try to constrain the ESRT using the SATa in observations. Fig. 4d shows the ESRT and SATa in PHC in each model. The SATa is highly correlated with ESRT with a correlation coefficient of -0.85. The SAT anomaly in PHC is 0.34°C, shown by the vertical red dash line (HadCRUT5). Considering the internal variability in the climate system and the uncertainty in observation, the observed uncertainty is suggested to be 0.175°C (the vertical gray dash line parallel with the red dash line). The observed





averaged SAT in HadCRUT5 from 1850 to 2014 after removing the least squares linear 226 trend. After the constraint, the ESRT is suggested to be 0.33 to 1.59 days. As shown in 227 the figure, most of the models have longer ESRT than expected. The ESRT in CESM2, 228 MIROC6 and MIROC-ES2L, ranging from 1.21 to 1.55 days, is at the higher end of 229 the suggested ESRT values, associated with their relatively low SATa. That is, the SO2 230 oxidation or deposition terms in CMIP6 models may need to be modified. 231 Here we use this metric to modify the sulfur cycle in BCC-ESM1, more 232 specifically we quadruple the SO₂ dry deposition over land and multiply the SO₂ dry 233 234 deposition over the ocean by 1.5. This effect is similar to that in UKESM1-0-LL by modifying SO₂ dry deposition parameterization (Hardacre et al., 2021; Mulcahy et al., 235 2023). The impact of changes to the SO₂ dry deposition parameterization in UKESM1-236 0-LL is an increase of SO₂ dry deposition by a factor of 2 to 4. As shown by the red 237 asterisk in Fig.4d, the ESRT reduced from 2.83 days to 0.92 days in updated BCC-238 ESM1 (BCC-ESM1-1), falling right within the recommended estimations. The new 239 ESRT is 36% of its previous values. Accordingly, the SATa in PHC falls within the 240 reasonable range, rising from -0.11°C to 0.39°C. We also examine the ESRT in 241 UKESM1-1-LL with modified SO₂ dry deposition parameterization. The ESRT is 242 shortened from 2.54 days to 0.80 days, also falling within the recommended ESRT 243 range. Accordingly, the SATa in PHC period increases by about 0.25°C. As shown by 244 the global mean SATa in BCC-ESM and UKESM models (Fig.4e), the BCC-ESM1-1 245 and UKESM1-1-LL on average tracked the instrumental record quite well with higher 246

uncertainty is estimated as the standard deviation of observed annual mean globally

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3. Conclusions and discussion

historical surface temperature observations.

Aerosol cooling effect is considered to be the second most important anthropogenic forcing over the 20th Century. Our study, based on the 11 CMIP6 models with aerosol

correlation coefficients with observation. That is, in both models the improvements to

the sulfur sink processes has reduced the ESRT and improved the representation of





schemes, demonstrates that the anomalous cooling bias in the PHC period is closely related to the sulfate burden changes in the atmosphere. Sulfate burden in the models, and hence the strength of the anomalous cooling, is determined by sulfur deposition. We introduce a metric, called the ESRT index, which incorporates the effects of sulfur removal processes on sulfate concentration. The index is highly correlated with cooling, and can be used to constrain sulfur removal processes in models, on a global scale. In particular, we show that most models overestimate ESRT, compared to residence timescale that would be consistent with near-zero temperature biases during the PHC period. A constraint on ESRT, derived using observed SATa, is used to inform a choice of tunable parameters for deposition in BCC-ESM1 and UKESM1-0-LL. Modifying sulfur deposition properties leads to an improved ESRT in BCC-ESM1-1 and UKESM1-1-LL, as well as SATa reproductions.

Given that CMIP6 models overestimate the cooling effects of sulfate during the PHC period, when emissions were rising, it is reasonable to assume that they will underestimate the rate of warming during periods when sulfur emissions are falling. This has potential implications for the use of CMIP6 in scenarios that incorporate cleanair measures to inform the Paris Agreement goals of limiting warming to below 2 or 1.5°C, i.e., SSP1-2.6 and SSP1-1.9 in CMIP6 (O'neill et al., 2016). To improve the reliability of projections for such scenarios, sulfur cycle processes in models should be improved. The ESRT metric introduced in this paper provides a physically meaningful measure of the activity of the sulfur cycle, at a global scale, which we have shown can be used to improve modeled sulfur processes.

Appendix A: Methods and Data

A1 The Effective Sulfur Retention Timescale (ESRT) index

Atmospheric sulfate concentrations are determined by the emission and oxidation of sulfate precursors, as well as deposition processes. Together these processes make up the atmospheric part of the Earth's sulfur cycle. Anthropogenic SO₂ emissions are





the major source of sulfate aerosol over land in polluted regions. Given that the same anthropogenic SO₂ emissions are used in all the CMIP6 models, most of the differences in simulated atmospheric sulfate concentrations occur due to oxidation of SO₂ and sulfate deposition processes. Since much of the loss of SO₂ occurs locally to its emission source by oxidation and deposition, faster SO₂ deposition is associated with weaker SO₂ oxidation. Hence, for sulfate itself, the faster the sulfate deposition rate, the less the sulfate will reside in the atmosphere. That is, both the SO₂ deposition and sulfate deposition are important for the sulfate concentrations in the atmosphere, directly or indirectly.

Here we define the Effective Sulfur Retention Timescale (ESRT) index. This is calculated as the ratio between sulfate burden and sulfur deposition. The sulfur deposition combines the deposition rate of sulfate and its major precursor sulfur-dioxide gas (SO₂):

ESRT = loadSO₄/(Dso₄+Dso₂), (1),

A2 The transient Climate Response (TCR) index

The transient Climate Response (TCR) index is calculated as the mean SAT anomaly of a 1pctCO2 simulation in a 20-year period centered on year-number 70, by which a doubling CO2 concentration has occurred. It is an important metric representing CO2-related historical warming and has been widely used for model evaluations and comparisons (Bevacqua et al., 2025; O'neill et al., 2016).

where loadSO4 is total sulfate loading (i.e., the sulfate burden) in the atmosphere, Dso4

and Dso₂ denote the total deposition (wet deposition and dry deposition) of sulfate and

A3 CMIP6 models datasets.

SO₂, respectively.

Table A1. Information of the eleven CMIP6 models with aerosol schemes.





Model	Country	Interactive Chemistry	Members	Reference
BCC-ESM1	China	Yes	3	Wu et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021b
CESM2	US	No	11	Danabasoglu et al. (2020)
CESM2-FV2	US	No	3	Danabasoglu et al. (2020)
EC-Earth3-AerChem	European consortium	Yes	2	Döscher et al. (2021)
GFDL-ESM4	US	Yes	3	Dunne et al. (2020)
MIROC6	Japan	No	50	Tatebeet al. (2019)
MIROC-ES2L	Japan	No	30	Hajima et al. (2020)
MPI-ESM-1-2-HAM	Germany	Yes	3	Mauritsen et al. (2019)
MRI-ESM2-0	Japan	Yes	10	Yukimoto et al. (2019)
NorESM2-LM	Norway	Yes	3	Seland et al. (2020)
UKESM1-0-LL	UK	Yes	19	Sellar et al. (2019)

Eleven CMIP6 climate models with interactive aerosol schemes are utilized in this study, including seven models with interactive chemistry and four without (Table A1). The outputs from two CMIP6 experiments are used: (1) the historical experiment of climate change over the period 1850~2014, forced by time-varying external forcings that are based on observations of natural processes (e.g., solar activity, volcanic eruptions) and human-induced changes (e.g., greenhouse gas, aerosol emissions, landuse changes). All the available realizations for each model were used to minimize the uncertainty from internal variability in the climate system; (2) the 1pctCO2 simulations, in which CO2 is gradually increased at a rate of 1% per year. The 1pctCO2 experiment is designed for studying model responses to CO2 and is somewhat more realistic than rapidly increasing CO2 such as in the abrupt-4×CO2 experiment.

Model outputs used in this study include surface air temperature (SAT) and the





322 following five sulfur-cycle variables: total atmospheric burden of sulfate (loadSO4), sulfate wet deposition and sulfate dry deposition, SO2 wet deposition and SO2 dry 323 deposition. Uncertainty of the five sulfur cycle related variables is relatively smaller 324 325 than SAT uncertainty among different members. For example, the standard deviation of loadSO4 in PHC among 11 CESM2 members is 4% of the interannual variability, 326 whereas the value for SAT is about 21%. Similar results are also evident in 19 327 UKESM1 members, 3% for sulfate burden and 32% for SAT. Therefore, we use the 328 first realization of historical simulations and neglect the inter-member differences for 329 sulfur cycle related variables. 330 331 A4 HadCRUT 332 The monthly mean SAT from the Met Office Hadley Centre/Climatic Research 333 Unit global surface temperature (HadCRUT) data version 5 from 1850 to 2014 is used 334 for model evaluations (Morice et al., 2021). Considering the lack of long-term reliable 335 observations in polar regions, we focus on SAT changes between 60°S to 65°N and the 336 'global' mean is calculated as the area-weighted mean in this latitudinal belt. 337 338 Code availability 339 340 All data processing codes are available if a request is sent to the corresponding authors. 341 Data availability 342 343 The HadCRUT5 dataset is accessible through Met Office Hadley Centre observations 344 database (https://www.metoffice.gov.uk/hadobs/hadcrut5/). All the model data can be freely downloaded from the Earth System Grid Federation (ESGF) nodes 345 (https://aims2.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/). 346 347





349 **Author contributions** The main ideas were formulated by J.Z. and K.F. J.Z. wrote the original draft. The 350 results were supervised by K.F. and S.T.T. All the authors discussed the results and 351 contributed to the final manuscript. 352 353 **Competing interests** 354 The authors declare no competing financial and/or non-financial interests. 355 356 357 Acknowledgements We acknowledge all data developers, their managers, and funding agencies for the 358 datasets used in this study, whose work and support are essential to us. 359 360 Financial support 361 This work was jointly supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China 362 (Grant no. 42230608) and the UK-China Research and Innovation Partnership Fund 363 through the Met Office Climate Science for Service Partnership (CSSP) China as part 364 of the Newton Fund. 365 366





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