



1 **Residential burning is a significant source of soluble iron to the ocean**

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3 Rui Li,^{1,#,a} Haley E. Plaas,^{2,#,b} Yifan Zhang,^{1,3} Yizhu Chen,^{1,3} Tianyu Zhang,^{1,3} Yi Yang,⁴ Sagar

4 Rathod,⁵ Guohua Zhang,¹ Xinming Wang,¹ Douglas S. Hamilton,^{2,*} Mingjin Tang^{1,6,*}

5

6 ¹ State Key Laboratory Advanced Environmental Technology and Guangdong Key Laboratory
7 of Environmental Protection and Resources Utilization, Guangzhou Institute of
8 Geochemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Guangzhou, China

9 ² Marine, Earth, and Atmospheric Sciences, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, NC,
10 USA

11 ³ College of Earth and Planetary Sciences, University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing,
12 China

13 ⁴ Key Laboratory of Geographic Information Science of the Ministry of Education, School of
14 Geographic Sciences, East China Normal University, Shanghai, China

15 ⁵ Department of Atmospheric, Oceanic, and Space Sciences, University of Wisconsin-Madison,
16 Madison, WI, USA

17 ⁶ Institute of Surface-Earth System Science, School of Earth System Science, Tianjin
18 University, Tianjin, China

19

20 ^a Current affiliation: School of Public Health, MOE Key Laboratory of Coal Environmental
21 Pathogenicity and Prevention, Shanxi Medical University, Taiyuan, China



22 ^b Current affiliation: Columbia University, Center for Climate Systems Research, New York,

23 NY 10025, USA; NASA Goddard Institute for Space Studies, New York, NY, USA

24

25 **Correspondence:**

26 Mingjin Tang (mingjintang@126.com)

27 Douglas S. Hamilton (dshamil3@ncsu.edu)

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29 # The two authors contributed equivalently to this work.

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32 **Abstract**

33 Understanding the physicochemical processes that supply atmospheric aerosol iron (Fe) to the
34 ocean is crucial in our understanding of global biogeochemical cycles. Anthropogenic
35 emissions contribute significant fluxes of aerosol Fe to the atmosphere, the soluble fraction of
36 which can modulate marine primary productivity upon its deposition to the ocean surface.
37 However, aerosol Fe solubility remains poorly constrained, due in part to a lack of direct
38 measurements spanning a multitude of anthropogenic sources. We measured solubility of
39 aerosol Fe from several distinct anthropogenic combustion processes and fuel types. The
40 median Fe solubility varied widely by source, ranging from 0.03% for power plant coal fly ash
41 to 55.87% for biofuel burning; furthermore, residential coal burning aerosol possessed much
42 higher Fe solubility than industrial coal fly ash. Using new Fe solubilities reported herein, we
43 updated parameters for anthropogenic aerosol Fe within the Mechanism of Intermediate
44 complexity for Modeling Iron, an aerosol Fe module of the Community Earth System Model
45 v2. Such updates led to significant improvement in model performance over ocean regions
46 heavily influenced by anthropogenic emissions, and we identified residential burning as a
47 significant source of soluble aerosol Fe to the ocean. Our work underscores the need to further
48 refine understanding of physicochemical properties of aerosol Fe from a wide variety of
49 anthropogenic sources. In turn, this understanding will aid in characterizing the influences of
50 anthropogenic activities on past, present, and future atmospheric nutrient inputs to marine
51 ecosystems.

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53



54 **1 Introduction**

55 Anthropogenic activities have altered the atmospheric burden and deposition fluxes of
56 biogeochemically relevant trace metals, including iron (Fe) (Bergas-Massó et al., 2023;
57 Hamilton et al., 2020a). Fe availability in ocean waters plays a particularly important role in
58 modulating the spatiotemporal distribution of primary productivity in ocean ecosystems, which
59 has downstream impacts on marine fisheries and carbon sequestration (Ito et al., 2021;
60 Tagliabue et al., 2014; Tagliabue et al., 2017). Energy-production, transportation, shipping,
61 and manufacturing (e.g., steel production) are all characterized sources of anthropogenic
62 aerosol Fe (Ito and Miyakawa, 2023; Ito and Shi, 2016; Rathod et al., 2024). These differing
63 combustion fuel types possess distinct physicochemical properties that influence their impact
64 on radiative forcing and nutrient supply (Al-Abadleh et al., 2023; Ito et al., 2018; Matsui et al.,
65 2018; Rathod et al., 2020).

66 To assess the potential nutritional impact of atmospheric Fe deposition on ocean
67 ecosystems, atmospheric aerosol research primarily focuses on tracing the soluble Fe content
68 in aerosol (Baker et al., 2020; Ito et al., 2019; Mahowald et al., 2018). Soluble Fe content is
69 often expressed as the fraction of soluble to total Fe in aerosol and then reported as a percentage
70 solubility (Baldo et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022; Mahowald et al., 2009). Several key processes
71 control solubility of aerosol Fe over the course of its lifetime: 1) Fe mineralogy, 2) interactions
72 with acidic and organic species in aerosol and cloud water, and 3) particle size and surface area
73 to volume ratios (Bergas-Massó et al., 2023; Journet et al., 2008; McDaniel et al., 2019).
74 Anthropogenic combustion not only alters the magnitude and spatial distribution of Fe fluxes
75 to and from the atmosphere and surface ocean, but also influences the composition of the



76 atmosphere, that in turn, influences dissolution chemistry of aerosol Fe both directly and
77 indirectly. Mixing of aerosol Fe with acidic (e.g., sulfates or nitrates) and organic species (e.g.,
78 oxalate) co-emitted during anthropogenic combustion increases its solubility during transport
79 (Bergas-Massó et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2024; Itahashi et al., 2022; Li et al., 2017; Longo et al.,
80 2016). Furthermore, diverse technologies utilized during combustion processes (i.e., variable
81 combustion temperatures, boilers vs. furnaces, degree of emission control, and the fuel quality)
82 also influence the physicochemical properties of aerosol Fe beyond the composition of fuel
83 alone. As a result, study of how socioeconomic, technology, and policy driven changes to
84 anthropogenic fuel-burning, is needed to anticipate impacts on the global Fe cycle (Hamilton
85 et al., 2020a).

86 When compared to mineral dust, anthropogenic emissions of aerosol Fe are several orders
87 of magnitude lower at the global scale; however, anthropogenic Fe has a higher fractional
88 solubility (Ito et al., 2021) and source regions of dust and anthropogenic Fe are usually spatially
89 distinct (Hamilton et al., 2020a; Hamilton et al., 2019). Therefore, anthropogenic activity can
90 be a major contributor to Fe fluxes in many high nutrient low chlorophyll (HNLC) ocean
91 regions (Hawco et al., 2025; Liu et al., 2022).

92 Despite the importance of understanding anthropogenic Fe fluxes, the fractional solubility
93 of aerosol Fe, emitted from various anthropogenic sources, remains poorly understood
94 (Desboeufs et al., 2005; Li et al., 2022b; Oakes et al., 2012); consequently, Fe solubility
95 parameterizations in modeling studies for anthropogenic Fe vary widely (Ito et al., 2019;
96 Myriokefalitakis et al., 2018). Accordingly, in this work, we measured the Fe content and
97 solubility of aerosol emitted by several important anthropogenic sources (i.e. coal power plants,



98 steelwork industry, municipal water combustion, oil combustion, residential coal, and biofuel
99 burning). Then, using an Earth System Model, we applied novel observational findings by
100 updating Fe solubility parameters in distinct anthropogenic combustion fuel-sources. Modeled
101 Fe solubilities were validated against a global observational dataset at the regional scale. We
102 further used this model to quantify and bound uncertainties in emission and deposition fluxes
103 of soluble Fe under three anthropogenic combustion emission scenarios spanning past (pre-
104 industrial) to future (shared socioeconomic pathway 3-7.0) conditions.

105 **2 Methodology**

106 Experimental and modelling methods employed in our work are described in Sections 2.1
107 and 2.2, respectively.

108 **2.1 Experimental methods**

109 This work examined six types of anthropogenic combustion aerosol, which were classified
110 into two broad categories. The first category, fly ash, included power plant coal fly ash,
111 steelwork fly ash, municipal waste fly ash, and oil fly ash. The second category, residential fuel
112 sources, included residential coal and biofuel combustion. Biofuels examined in this work were
113 limited to straw, wood, grasses and leaves, and we did not examined other biofuels such as
114 dung. We also studied one oil bottom ash sample, in order examine whether Fe solubility is
115 significantly different between oil fly ash and bottom ash.

116 **2.1.1 Fly ash and bottom ash samples**

117 Power plant coal fly ash samples were obtained from electrostatic precipitators or
118 baghouse rows in coal power plants in 29 provinces in China (Li et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2021);
119 one coal power plant was selected in each province except for Guangdong and Shandong where



120 two coal power plants were selected for each province. As a result, 31 power plant coal fly ash
121 samples were examined in total. In addition, we examined 29 steelwork fly ash samples
122 collected from different iron and steel plants, three municipal waste fly ash samples, two oil
123 fly ash samples (Wu et al., 2018) and one oil bottom ash sample (Fu et al., 2012). Fly ash and
124 bottom ash samples were directly provided by these factories.

125 Fly ash and bottom ash samples (~10 mg for each sample) were digested and then
126 analyzed using inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) to determine their Fe
127 content. Experimental procedures for sample digestion and total Fe measurement can be found
128 elsewhere (Li et al., 2022c). Soluble Fe was leached and determined using the procedure
129 described in our previous work (Li et al., 2022b). In brief, fly ash and bottom ash samples (~20
130 mg for each sample) were individually leached in 20 mL sodium acetate buffer (5 mmol/L, pH
131 = 4.3) for 2 h, during which an orbital shaker (300 rpm) was used to stir the solution. The
132 aqueous mixture was centrifuged (3000 rpm) for 15 min, and a pH paper (range: 3.5-6.8;
133 precision: 0.3; Macherey-Nagel, Germany) was used to measure the pH of the solution and no
134 measurable pH change occurred after leaching. The aqueous solution was filtered through a
135 polyethersulfone filter (pore size: 0.22 μ m), acidified to contain 1% (v/v) nitric acid and then
136 analyzed by ICP-MS to measure soluble Fe. In this work, fractional solubility of Fe was
137 reported as the ratio (in %) of soluble Fe to total Fe.

138 **2.1.2 Residential coal and biofuel combustion aerosols**

139 Generation and collection of residential coal and biofuel combustion aerosols are detailed
140 in the supplement (Text S1). In brief, we burned coal and biofuel in a commercial cook stove
141 which is widely used in rural areas in China, and collected PM_{2.5} samples (aerosol particles



142 with aerodynamic particle diameters below 2.5 μm) onto pre-cleaned Whatman 41 (W41)
143 cellulose filters using a medium volume aerosol sampler (TH-150C, Tianhong Co.).

144 Our work examined three types of coal (anthracite, semibituminous coal, and bituminous
145 coal) and nine types of biofuel (wheat straw, rice straw, corn straw, rape straw, cogongrass,
146 China fir trunk, pine trunk, poplar trunk, and pine needle) commonly found in China. We
147 collected eight filter samples for each fuel type, except anthracite for which we only collected
148 two filter samples. We had to combine some filter samples in our experimental analysis to meet
149 the detection limit for soluble Fe; as a result, the number of effective filter samples (for which
150 Fe content and solubility were reported) were usually <8 for each fuel type.

151 After aerosol collection, the filters were individually placed in a pre-cleaned Petri dish
152 and then stored in a desiccator for 60 h to remove particle-associated water. The mass of filters
153 before and after aerosol collection were measured (accuracy of 0.1 mg), and the mass of
154 particles collected ranged from 2.5 to 432.7 mg. Each filter was then divided into two equal
155 parts. To determine the soluble Fe content, the first half of a filter was leached in 20 mL sodium
156 acetate buffer (5 mmol/L, pH = 4.3) for 2 h (Section 2.1.1) and analyzed using ICP-MS. Fe
157 concentrations in some leaching solutions were low; as a result, these leaching solutions (~ 15
158 mL for each solution) were combined for the same fuel type and then pre-concentrated to a
159 volume of 6 mL, in order to increase Fe concentration in the solution used for ICP-MS analysis.
160 The second half of a filter was digested and analyzed by ICP-MS to determine total Fe, and the
161 experimental procedure used can be found in our previous work (Zhang et al., 2022). If leaching
162 solutions were combined for the first parts of these filters, their second parts were also
163 combined and digested together to allow direct comparison.



164 **2.2 Model simulations**

165 **2.2.1. Atmospheric Fe model description**

166 Earth System Models can investigate the spatiotemporal distribution and fluxes of key
167 atmospheric nutrients under various climatological regimes (Hamilton et al., 2020a; Hamilton
168 et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2020). To test the impact of new soluble Fe parameters on modeled
169 fluxes of soluble aerosol Fe to the atmosphere and marine ecosystems, we used the Mechanism
170 of Intermediate complexity for Modeling Iron (MIMI). MIMI is an Fe aerosol-chemistry
171 module embedded within the atmospheric component (Community Atmosphere Model version
172 6, CAM6) of the Community Earth System Model version 2 (CESM2) (Danabasoglu et al.,
173 2020; Hamilton et al., 2019). Mineral dust, anthropogenic combustion, and wildfire emissions
174 are currently represented as sources of aerosol Fe in MIMI. The current dust emission scheme
175 within MIMI includes an updated soil moisture submodule within the land component of the
176 model that prognostically calculates dust aerosolization as a function of soil moisture (Li et al.,
177 2022a). The inclusion of these improvements to dust and updated anthropogenic Fe sources
178 represents a new working version of MIMI v1.1, as described herein.

179 A comprehensive overview of MIMI model details and parameters is provided in
180 Hamilton et al. (2019), and in brief, MIMI simulates the emission, atmospheric transport, and
181 deposition of Fe-containing aerosol within three distinct particle size modes (Aitken,
182 accumulation, and coarse modes). Within each source of aerosol Fe (dust, wildfire, and
183 anthropogenic combustion), both the insoluble and soluble fractions are carried as separate
184 tracers, and the soluble fraction of Fe for each aerosol source is assigned at the point of emission.
185 Prior to deposition and during atmospheric transport, Fe solubility is further modified via non-



186 reversible multiphase reactions with acidic and organic species. Acidic processing is a function
187 of aerosol pH and temperature, while organic processing is an aqueous phase chemistry
188 reaction that depends on oxalate concentrations which are calculated based on the
189 concentrations of secondary organic aerosol present (Johnson and Meskhidze, 2013; Scanza et
190 al., 2018).

191 The model is gridded in a 3-dimensional space at a resolution of 0.96×1.25 degrees
192 (latitude \times longitude) and includes 56 vertical pressure levels from the surface to 2 hPa at the
193 highest altitude. Meteorology is forced in all the simulations using Modern-Era Retrospective
194 analysis for Research and Applications Version 2 (MERRA-2), and a 1-year model spin up
195 was undertaken for all simulations.

196 **2.2.2 Global pyrogenic Fe emission inventories and input dataset development**

197 While dust Fe emissions are calculated prognostically within MIMI, anthropogenic and
198 wildfire (pyrogenic) emissions were prescribed using emissions inventories. To supply initial
199 anthropogenic Fe emission fluxes to the model, we used an annual mean emission inventory
200 for anthropogenic combustion Fe that was first developed in Rathod et al. (2020) and further
201 detailed in Rathod et al. (2024). In this inventory, Fe content in combustion aerosol was
202 empirically derived for the present day (PD; climatological year 2010) using the Speciated
203 Pollution Emissions Wizard (SPEW) (Bond et al., 2007; Bond et al., 2004) which characterized
204 anthropogenic emissions of particulate matter by fuel-source and combustion technology.
205 Soluble and insoluble Fe content in emissions were dependent on fuel-type and were
206 accordingly segregated by key sectors and fuels: 1) industrial fossil fuel (coal), 2) industrial
207 and vehicular fossil fuels (oil), 3) smelting operations (steel/iron), and 4) residential



208 cooking/heating (biofuel/biomass/wood) (Rathod et al., 2020). Industrial oil emissions were
209 separated by land- and sea-based emissions to distinguish terrestrial transportation from
210 shipping. Wildfire-Fe emission parameters are detailed in Hamilton et al. (2019), and in this
211 work we use the CMIP6 (Coupled Model Intercomparison Project phase six) fire emission
212 datasets for PD simulations (van Marle et al., 2017).

213 For the first time, we segregated anthropogenic coal Fe sources into industrial and
214 residential coal burning sources. In the dataset provided by Rathod et al. (2020), Fe from the
215 coal source was assumed to only stem from industrial activity, but here we isolate the
216 residential source. This segregation was achieved by applying a spatially resolved (on the Earth
217 System Model grid box co-ordinates) ratio of industrial-to-residential coal that was calculated
218 based on the ratio of industrial-to-residential black carbon (BC) emissions within the CMIP6
219 dataset (Hoesly et al., 2018), and this calculation assumed that the Fe-to-BC ratios were
220 matched between sources.

221 **2.2.3 Model simulations performed**

222 Ten model simulations were performed to evaluate the impact of changes to Fe solubility
223 of anthropogenic combustion aerosol (Section 2.1) on atmospheric soluble Fe fluxes to key
224 marine ecosystems (Table 1). For all simulations, we set the model climatology to present-day
225 (PD) conditions spanning 2009-2011. Simulations were distinguished as cases (with variable
226 Fe solubility parameterizations) within different emission scenarios (with variable
227 anthropogenic combustion emission fluxes).

228



Table 1. Description of model simulations performed using MIMI with emission scenarios and emissions inventory (database). PD = present day (2010 CE), PI = pre-industrial (1750 CE), SSP370 = shared socioeconomic pathway scenario 3-7.0, MID = midcentury (2040-2050 CE) and END = end century (2090-2100 CE). NA = assumed industrial activity is zero at 1750 CE.

Emissions Scenario	Simulation	BC Emissions database	BC Emission (Tg a ⁻¹)
PD	PD-BASE	CMIP6	6.46
PD	PD-RESI	CMIP6	6.46
PD	PD-BIOF	CMIP6	6.46
PD	PD-IND	CMIP6	6.46
PI	PI-BASE	NA	NA
PI	PI-RESI	NA	NA
FU (2050)	MID-SSP370-BASE	SSP3.70	8.30
FU (2050)	MID-SSP370-BIOF	SSP3.70	8.30
FU (2100)	END-SSP370-BASE	SSP3.70	6.33
FU (2100)	END-SSP370-BIOF	SSP3.70	6.33

233

Four PD simulations aimed to assess the impact of each new solubility parameter on the ability of the model to capture ship-based observations of total Fe, soluble Fe and Fe solubility. These simulations utilized the anthropogenic combustion emission inventory representing PD emissions as described in Section 2.2.2. The first PD case (PD-BASE) served as a baseline, i.e. no changes were made to anthropogenic Fe solubilities when compared to previous studies using MIMI to model global Fe fluxes (Rathod et al., 2020; Rathod et al., 2024). In the next three PD cases (PD-RESI, PD-BIOF, PD-IND), fractional solubility was updated incrementally for individual sectors to assess fuel-type specific impacts to soluble Fe fluxes, which are later detailed in Section 3.3. Information on model validation and constraint to ship-based observations of aerosol Fe is provided in Section 2.2.5.



244 Using both pre-industrial (PI; 1750 CE) and future (FU; 2050 and 2100 CE) anthropogenic
245 emissions scenarios, we performed six additional model simulations using the -BASE and -
246 BIOF solubility parameters applied during the PD simulations; these solubility cases were
247 selected based on model validation results as presented in Section 3.3. To isolate how changes
248 in soluble aerosol Fe fluxes responded to changes in emission parameterizations and
249 subsequent dissolution chemistry, PI and FU simulations were conducted with meteorological
250 and climatological conditions identical to PD (2009-2011). Emissions inventories (including
251 Fe) were modified to represent PI and future FU projections for atmospheric emissions.

252 PI-BASE and PI-BIOF served as a baseline for comparison to PD and FU simulations,
253 with minimal influence on the Fe cycle by anthropogenic emissions (Table 1). In the PI era, Fe
254 emissions were predominantly natural in source (e.g., dust and wildfire), and only residential
255 biofuel burning was represented as an anthropogenic source of Fe (Hamilton et al., 2020b). All
256 other anthropogenic sources of Fe were assumed to be zero.

257 MID-SSP370-BASE, MID-SSP370-BIOF, END-SSP370-BASE, and END-SSP370-
258 BIOF were conducted to evaluate the projected impact of socioeconomic changes to energy
259 production and fuel-usage in communities across the globe, as well as population increases.
260 We chose to utilize the emissions scenario detailed in the Shared Socio-economic Pathway
261 3-7.0 “regional rivalry ” (SSP370), which represents anticipated sociopolitical and
262 environmental changes resulting in an increase to radiative forcing by 3-7.0 W m⁻² by the year
263 of 2100 (Riahi et al., 2017). In this scenario, air pollutants sourced from anthropogenic activity
264 are projected to be highest when compared to alternative SSP scenarios (SSP126, SSP245, and
265 SSP585). Accordingly, model simulations using SSP370 can be leveraged to establish an upper



bound estimate for future soluble aerosol Fe fluxes from anthropogenic combustion emissions. Dust fluxes in future Fe emission scenarios were adjusted to account for dust-climate feedback using a scaling factor ranging between 1.0-1.1, as described in Hamilton et al. (2020b). Given that BC emissions are anticipated to peak in the midcentury (2040-2050) but return to PD-comparable emissions by 2100 (Turnock et al., 2020), we assessed projected changes to Fe emissions at both the mid-point (2050) and endpoint of the 21st century (2100).

2.2.4 Preindustrial (PI) and future (FU) Fe emission estimates

For PI simulations, we used a pre-developed Fe combustion emission inventory (Hamilton et al., 2020a). Only residential biofuel burning served as an anthropogenic source of Fe due to a presumable lack of industrialized anthropogenic emissions (i.e., fossil fuels and smelting); global emission was 0.7×10^{-3} Gg Fe a⁻¹ and only occupied the fine aerosol mode (i.e., sum of Aitken and accumulation modes). Details on the development of the PI Fe combustion emission inventory are provided in Hamilton et al. (2020a). The SimFire inventory, coupled to the LPJ-GUESS (Lund-Potsdam-Jena General Ecosystem Simulator) vegetation model, was used to prescribe wildfire-Fe emissions during the PI era (Hamilton et al., 2018; Hamilton et al., 2020a; Knorr et al., 2016).

For FU simulations, we developed two new Fe emissions datasets which were derived from our PD dataset and linearly scaled for all combustion sources according to projected changes in anthropogenic BC emissions via CMIP6 anthropogenic BC emission dataset (Hoesly et al., 2018; Riahi et al., 2017). In the CMIP6 BC inventory, emissions are segregated by the following sectors: agriculture, energy, industrial, terrestrial transportation, residential/commercial/other, solvents production and application, waste, and international



288 shipping. We treated ‘energy’ and ‘industrial’ sources together as industrial coal BC sources
289 and ocean-masked ‘international shipping’ with land-masked ‘terrestrial transportation’
290 together as oil BC sources. BC emissions labeled ‘residential, commercial and other’ were
291 separated into residential coal and residential biofuel sources of BC based on the grid-cell
292 specific ratios of residential coal Fe to residential biofuel Fe in our PD Fe emissions dataset.
293 BC emissions from smelting operations were not directly available for PI or FU projections;
294 therefore, they were set to 0 in the PI and maintained at PD levels in the FU.

295 Once FU BC emissions were organized according to combustion fuel-sources as
296 characterized herein, using a dynamic ratio of Fe-to-BC dependent on region, fuel-source
297 emission sector, and aerosol size fraction, we calculated scenario-specific Fe emissions in
298 individual grid cells using Eq. (1):

$$299 \quad \frac{[Fe_X]_{i,j,a,b}}{[BC_X]_{i,j,a,b}} = \frac{[Fe_{PD}]_{i,j,a,b}}{[BC_{PD}]_{i,j,a,b}} \quad (1)$$

300 where X denotes the emissions scenario (MID-SSP370 or END-SSP370), i and j represent the
301 longitudinal and latitudinal coordinates, a represents the aerosol mode (fine or coarse), b
302 represents the fuel-source (industrial oil, industrial coal, residential coal, residential biofuel, or
303 smelting), and [Fe] and [BC] represent the fluxes ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) of Fe and BC, respectively. Using
304 these gridded emissions, fuel-sources were then summed and segregated by soluble fraction to
305 generate six combustion-Fe tracers to be read into and transported within the model,
306 distinguished by aerosol size and solubility as calculated using Eqs. (2-3):

$$307 \quad [Fe_{insol}]_a = \sum \{ [Fe_X]_{i,j,a,b} * (1 - sol_b) \} \quad (2)$$

$$308 \quad [Fe_{sol}]_a = \sum ([Fe_X]_{i,j,a,b} * sol_b) \quad (3)$$



309 where *insol* represents the insoluble fraction, *sol* represents the soluble fraction, and *sol_b*
310 represents the fractional solubility for each fuel-source (*b*). As a final step, the fine mode was
311 split into accumulation and Aitken modes by applying a simple ratio of 9:1.

312 For wildfire-Fe emissions in FU scenarios, we used the CMIP6 fire emission datasets for
313 each respective simulation, i.e. MID-SSP370 and END-SSP370 (Bergas-Masso et al., 2025;
314 Hamilton et al., 2024).

315 **2.2.5 Model validation**

316 To evaluate model performance, we compared global observations of total Fe
317 concentration, soluble Fe concentration, and Fe solubility to modeled values for each PD
318 simulation, grouping data by key aerosol deposition and ocean biogeochemistry regions. The
319 observational dataset of Fe content in aerosol was reported in Hamilton et al. (2019) and
320 updated herein to include measurements published between 2021 and 2024 ($n = 1624$).
321 Observed Fe solubility in aerosol spans five orders of magnitude (Perron et al., 2024), and one
322 reason for this large range is due to differences in experimental procedures during
323 quantification (Tang et al., 2025). To facilitate a more direct comparison between modelled
324 and observed soluble Fe content, we removed observations from the global dataset that did not
325 measure soluble Fe directly. When multiple observations fell within a model grid cell, values
326 were aggregated to climatological averages, using medians to be most representative of
327 expected variations in Fe fluxes across time and space (final $n = 990$; Figure S3). For final
328 evaluation of the model capability in simulating surface Fe concentrations, both model and
329 observational data were grouped into key ocean regions (Figure 1), based on predominant



sources of atmospheric aerosol and phytoplankton nutrient limitation dynamics (i.e., HNLC regions) as revealed in Hamilton et al. (2019) and Hamilton et al. (2023).

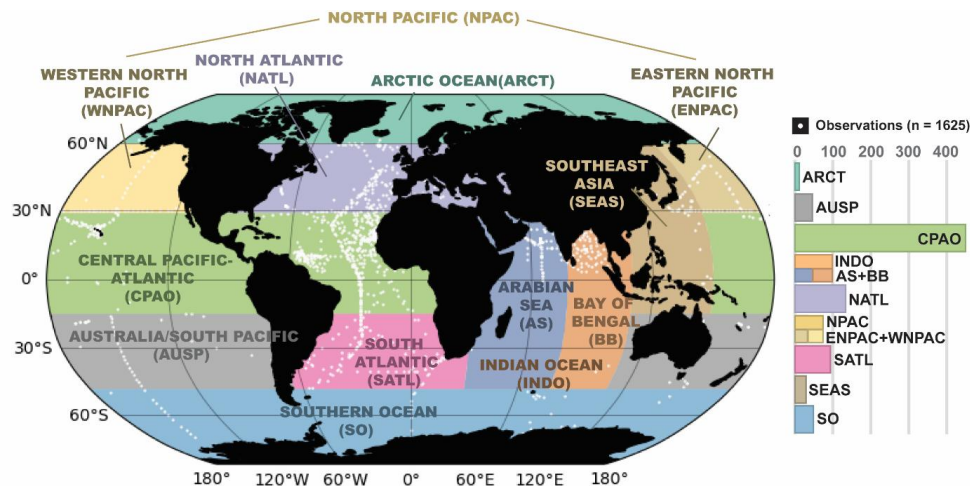


Figure 1. Regional groupings for model-observation comparisons of surface Fe concentrations (ship-based, in aerosol). The coordinates for individual Fe observations are indicated with a white circle. Number of soluble Fe observations within each region are provided by the histogram.

3 Results and Discussion

Sections 3.1 and 3.2 present Fe content and solubility measured in our experimental work, and modeling results are presented in Section 3.3.

3.1 Fe content by fuel type

This work quantified the Fe content in particles from six different combustion and anthropogenic sources, including power plant coal fly ash, residential coal combustion aerosol, steelwork fly ash, residential biofuel burning aerosol, municipal waste fly ash, and oil fly ash (Table 2; Fe content in individual samples is provided in Tables S1-S5).



346

347 **Table 2.** Summary of Fe content and solubility for power plant coal fly ash, residential coal
348 combustion aerosol, steelwork fly ash, biofuel burning aerosol, municipal waste fly ash, oil fly
349 ash and oil bottom ash examined in our work (*n*: number of samples examined in our work).

sample type	<i>n</i>	range	average	median
Fe content (mg/g)				
power plant coal fly ash	31	20.7-103.8	37.2±16.8	35.0
residential coal combustion aerosol	10	0.025-0.101	0.044±0.023	0.038
steelwork fly ash	29	5.8-918.9	312.6±246.1	346.5
biofuel burning aerosol	27	0.002-0.101	0.023±0.026	0.013
municipal waste fly ash	3	3.9-29.7	18.7±13.3	22.6
oil fly ash	2	9.1-18.3	13.7±4.6	13.7
oil bottom ash	1	-	191	191
Fe solubility (%)				
power plant coal fly ash	31	0.002-0.17	0.05±0.05	0.03
residential coal combustion aerosol	10	7.03-100	33.30±27.71	28.45
steelwork fly ash	29	0.007-10.64	1.37±2.77	0.07
biofuel burning aerosol	28	2.86-100	56.07±30.95	55.87
municipal waste fly ash	3	0.58-2.41	1.51±0.92	1.54
oil fly ash	2	11.70-13.43	12.56±0.87	12.56
oil bottom ash	1	-	25.47	25.47

350

351



3.1.1 Power plant coal fly ash

Fe content ranged from 20.7 to 103.8 mg/g for the 31 power plant coal fly ash samples examined in our work, with average and median values being 37.2 ± 16.8 and 35.0 mg/g, respectively. As shown in Table S6, Fe content ranged from 16.0 to 52.0 mg/g ($n = 3$) in one study (Baldo et al., 2022), with mean and median values being 33.0 ± 18.0 and 31.0 mg/g; in another study (Goodarzi, 2006), the median value of Fe content was determined to be 34.4 mg/g ($n = 7$). Fe content measured by these two studies (Baldo et al., 2022; Goodarzi, 2006) agreed well with our work. Some other studies (Dutta et al., 2009; Fu et al., 2012; Jankowski et al., 2006; Meij, 1994) found higher mean or median Fe content for power plant coal fly ash (Table S6), but the reported ranges overlapped with our work. For example, Fe content were found to range from 38.3 to 98.6 mg/g ($n = 7$) in one study (Li et al., 2022b), with mean and median values being 62.1 ± 26.7 and 43.2 mg/g; in another study (Moreno et al., 2005), Fe content were found to range from 18.2 to 112.0 mg/g ($n = 23$), with mean and median values being 57.8 ± 22.7 and 52.5 mg/g.

In summary, the mean or median Fe content reported in different studies are typically in the range of 30-70 mg/g for power plant coal fly ash, and this variability is likely due to difference in coal (Wang et al., 2015; Ward, 2016) and combustion conditions (Blissett and Rowson, 2012; Kutchko and Kim, 2006). Fe content in power plant coal fly ash was set to ~70 mg/g in some modeling studies (Luo et al., 2008; Rathod et al., 2020), being consistent with experimental results.



372 **3.1.2 Residential coal combustion aerosol**

373 For the 10 residential coal combustion aerosol samples (PM_{2.5}) we examined, Fe content
374 ranged from 0.025 to 0.101 mg/g (Table 2), with average and median values being 0.044 ±
375 0.023 and 0.038 mg/g, respectively. Only a few previous studies measured Fe content in
376 residential coal combustion aerosols (Table S6). The average Fe content was determined by
377 Patil et al. (2013) to be 0.048 ± 0.035 mg/g (n = 3) for PM_{2.5} and 0.061 ± 0.044 mg/g (n = 3)
378 for PM₁₀, being similar to or slightly higher than our result. In another two studies (Watson et
379 al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2012), the average Fe content was measured to be 0.671 ± 0.023 mg/g
380 (n = 4) and 0.7 ± 0.1 mg/g (n = 5), significantly higher than our result, and such differences
381 may be attributed to variations in coal types and combustion conditions. Overall, our and
382 previous studies suggest that the Fe content in residential coal combustion aerosols is very low,
383 typically below 1 mg/g. Fe content were set to 1 and 0.5 mg in previous modeling studies (Luo
384 et al., 2008; Rathod et al., 2020), being broadly consistent with experimental results.

385 Fe content in power plant coal fly ash is much higher than residential coal combustion
386 aerosols, primarily due to differences in combustion conditions (Rathod et al., 2020). Power
387 plant coal fly ash has very low carbon content and is mainly composed of metals and minerals
388 (Ahmaruzzaman, 2010; Li et al., 2022c; Patil et al., 2013); in contrast, residential coal
389 combustion aerosol particles contain a large fraction of carbonaceous materials due to
390 incomplete combustion, and thus the content of metals, including Fe, are much lower (Patil et
391 al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2012). Furthermore, combustion temperature typically ranges from 1200
392 to 1700 °C for coal-fired power plant, enabling Fe in coal to enter fly ash particles through
393 volatilization-condensation (Blissett and Rowson, 2012); residential coal combustion occurs at



394 much lower temperatures which are insufficient for Fe to enter aerosols through this process
395 (Rathod et al., 2020), also leading to lower Fe content.

396 **3.1.3 Steelwork fly ash**

397 For the 29 steelwork fly ash samples we examined, Fe content ranged from 5.8 to 918.9
398 mg/g, with mean and median values measured to be 312.6 ± 246.1 and 346.5 mg/g, respectively
399 (Table 2). As shown in Table S6, some previous studies have reported average Fe content to
400 be 358.9 (n = 1), 369.3 (n = 1), 312.2 (n = 1), and 329.1 ± 22.6 mg/g (n = 4) (Alizadeh and
401 Momeni, 2016; Silva et al., 2019; Souza et al., 2010; Vieira et al., 2013), in good agreement
402 with our results. Lower Fe content was also reported by previous work, with average values
403 being 86.0 (n = 1), 128.1 (n = 1), 150.8 (n = 1), 286.5 (n = 1), 284.6 (n = 1), 238.7 (n = 1), and
404 267.3 ± 4.8 mg/g (n = 4) (Al-Negheimish et al., 2021; Alsheyab and Khedaywi, 2016; Laforest
405 and Duchesne, 2006; Li et al., 2023; Loaiza et al., 2017; Stathopoulos et al., 2013; Xia and
406 Picklesi, 2000); in contrast, some previous studies also found the average or mean Fe content
407 to be around 400-500 mg/g (Machado et al., 2006; Patil et al., 2013; Ye et al., 2021), slightly
408 higher than our results.

409 Despite some variability in Fe content reported by our and previous studies (Table S6),
410 the mean or median Fe content are generally around 300–500 mg/g for steelwork fly ash. In a
411 recent modeling study (Rathod et al., 2020), the Fe content in steelwork fly ash was set to 440
412 mg/g (and the lower and upper bounds were set to 150 and 950 mg/g), being consistent with
413 experimental results.



414 **3.1.4 Biofuel burning aerosol**

415 Our work considered biofuel burning aerosols for nine types of biofuels, including four
416 types of crop straw, one type of wild grass, and four types of wood. Fe content in biofuel
417 burning aerosols ranged from 0.002 to 0.101 mg/g (Table 2), with average and median values
418 being 0.023 ± 0.026 and 0.013 mg/g, respectively. As shown in Table S6, the average Fe
419 content was determined to be 0.024 ± 0.017 mg/g ($n = 3$) for PM_{2.5} (Patil et al., 2013), very
420 close to our result; in another study (Hildemann et al., 1991), it was determined to be 0.090
421 mg/g for PM₂ ($n = 2$), higher than our result. In some other studies, average Fe content were
422 reported to be in the range of 0.162-0.440 mg/g for PM_{2.5} (Alves et al., 2011; Hedberg et al.,
423 2002; Watson et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2012) and 0.723 ± 0.661 mg/g for PM₁₀ (Schmidl et
424 al., 2008), much higher than our results.

425 Fe content in biofuel burning aerosols showed large variability in different studies, likely
426 due to variations in combustion conditions and biofuel types. For example, metal content in
427 biofuel burning aerosols depended greatly on biofuel types and regions where biofuel was
428 collected (Goncalves et al., 2010), and aerosol particles emitted by wild grass combustion
429 contained larger amounts of metal than wood combustion (Jahn et al., 2021). Modeling studies
430 have used a similar distribution of Fe content between 0.2 and 0.580 mg/g for biofuel burning
431 aerosols (Luo et al., 2008; Rathod et al., 2020).

432 **3.1.5 Municipal waste fly ash, oil fly ash and oil bottom ash**

433 For the three municipal waste fly ash samples we investigated, Fe content ranged from
434 3.9 to 29.7 mg/g, with average and median values being 18.7 ± 13.3 and 22.6 mg/g (Table 2).
435 Several previous studies measured Fe content in municipal waste fly ash (Table S6). For



example, the average Fe content were measured to be 18.0 ± 13.3 mg/g ($n = 3$) and 23.1 mg/g ($n = 1$) in two studies (Cobo et al., 2009; Raclavská et al., 2017), very similar to our results; another four studies (Funari et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2009; Wu and Ting, 2006; Wu et al., 2012) reported lower Fe content, ranging from 5.2 to 10.9 mg/g; some other studies (Bayuseno and Schmahl, 2011; Lin et al., 2003; Wan et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2011) also reported slightly higher Fe content, ranging from 27.1 to 34.3 mg/g. In summary, most studies suggest that Fe content in municipal waste fly ash are around 20 mg/g, and it has been set to 18.8 mg/g in a modeling study (Rathod et al., 2020), being consistent with experimental results.

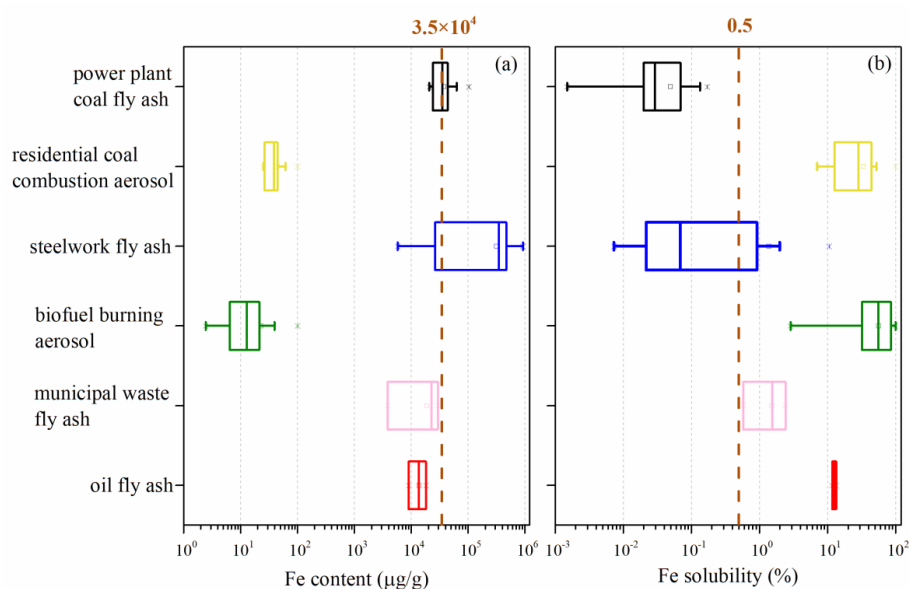
Fe content in the two oil fly ash samples we examined were measured to be 9.1 and 18.3 mg/g, and the average value was determined to be 13.7 ± 4.6 mg/g. The Fe content was measured to be 15.0 mg/g for one oil fly ash sample (Celo et al., 2015), close to the value we reported. In another two studies (Agrawal et al., 2008; Sippula et al., 2014), the average Fe content was measured to be 1.98 ± 0.35 ($n = 4$) and 1.60 ± 1.21 mg/g ($n = 14$), lower than our result. In a modeling study (Rathod et al., 2020), the Fe content was set to 10 mg/g for oil fly ash, being consistent with the experimental results reported by our work and Celo et al. In addition, in our work the Fe content was measured to be 191 mg/g for one heavy oil bottom ash sample, much higher than that for oil fly ash.

3.1.6 Fe contents: comparison of anthropogenic and dust Fe

Figure 2a displays Fe content for anthropogenic particles examined in our current study, and the brown dashed line represents the average Fe content of desert dust (35 mg/g) (Taylor and McLennan, 1995). Steelwork fly ash has very high Fe content (median: 346.5 mg/g), about one order of magnitude higher than desert dust. Power plant coal fly ash (median: 35.0 mg/g)



458 has similar Fe content to desert dust, while municipal waste fly ash (median: 22.6 mg/g) and
459 oil fly ash (median: 13.7 mg/g) have relatively lower Fe content than desert dust. Compared to
460 desert dust, Fe content were around three orders of magnitude lower for residential coal and
461 biofuel burning aerosol (median: 0.038 and 0.013 mg/g, respectively). The Fe content was
462 much lower for residential coal and biofuel burning aerosol, likely due to lower combustion
463 temperatures. When combustion occurs at lower temperature, the carbon content of emitted
464 particles is higher; in addition, lower combustion temperature is not sufficient to enable Fe in
465 the fuel to enter emitted particles via volatilization-condensation processes.



466

467 **Figure 2.** Fe content (a) and solubility (b) measured in our work for power plant coal fly ash,
468 residential coal combustion aerosol, steelwork fly ash, biofuel burning aerosol, municipal
469 waste fly ash and oil fly ash. The two brown dash lines represent (a) the Fe content (3.5×10^4
470 $\mu\text{g/g}$) and (b) Fe solubility ($\sim 0.5\%$) for desert dust, respectively.



471 **3.2 Fe solubility by fuel type**

472 **3.2.1 Power plant coal fly ash**

473 Fe solubility in acetate buffer (pH: 4.3) was found to range from 0.002% to 0.17% for
474 power plant coal fly ash (Table 2), with the average and median values being $0.05 \pm 0.05\%$ and
475 0.03%, respectively. A few previous studies measured Fe solubility of power plant coal fly ash
476 in weakly acidic or circumneutral solutions (Table S7). For example, Fe solubility was
477 measured to be 0.06% in deionized water (Oakes et al., 2012), similar to our result; it was
478 measured to be 0.2% in dilute sulfuric acid solution (pH: 4.7) (Desboeufs et al., 2005), slightly
479 higher than our result; the median Fe solubility was determined to be 0.13% in acetate buffer
480 (pH: 4.3) and 0.06% in deionized water (Li et al., 2022b), both higher than the median value
481 we obtained. Overall, our work and previous studies suggest that Fe solubility is low in weakly
482 acidic and circumneutral solutions for power plant coal fly ash, with mean or median values
483 around 0.1%.

484 Some studies also measured Fe solubility of power plant coal fly ash in highly acidic
485 solutions and found them to be much higher than those in weakly acidic and circumneutral
486 solutions. For example, Fe solubilities were found to be in the range of 20-25% at pH of 1-2
487 (Chen et al., 2012), 4.2-8.3% at pH of 2 (Fu et al., 2012), and >40% at pH of 2.1 (Baldo et al.,
488 2022). Although Fe solubility measured in strongly acidic solutions may not reflect initial Fe
489 solubility, these studies suggested that acid processing in the emission plume or wider
490 atmosphere could greatly increase Fe solubility for power plant coal fly ash.



491 **3.2.2 Residential coal combustion aerosol**

492 Fe solubility in acetate buffer (pH: 4.3) was determined to range from 7.03% to 100% for
493 residential coal combustion aerosol (Table 2), with the average and median values being 33.30
494 $\pm 27.71\%$ and 28.45%, respectively. To our knowledge, no previous study has measured Fe
495 solubility for residential coal combustion aerosol. Compared to power plant coal fly ash, Fe
496 solubility was much higher for residential coal combustion aerosol, and such difference can be
497 attributed to much higher temperature in power plant coal combustion than residential coal
498 combustion. Pyrite (FeS_2) is the major Fe-containing mineral in coal (Deng et al., 2015;
499 Oliveira et al., 2016; Rathod et al., 2020). In low-temperature combustion, pyrite is mainly
500 transformed to Fe sulfate (Bhargava et al., 2009) which has very high Fe solubility; as the
501 temperature increases to >1000 K, Fe sulfate is further transformed to hematite and magnetite
502 which exhibit very low solubility (Hu et al., 2006; Ram et al., 1995; Rathod et al., 2020). A
503 previous study (Rathod et al., 2020) used the relationship between combustion temperature and
504 Fe mineralogy in emitted particles to estimate Fe solubility for different combustion aerosols,
505 and Fe solubility was estimated to be as high as $\sim 32.5\%$ for residential coal combustion
506 aerosols, in good agreement with our experimental results.

507 **3.2.3 Steelwork fly ash**

508 Fe solubility in acetate buffer (pH: 4.3) was determined to range from 0.01% to 10.64%
509 for steelwork fly ash (Table 2), and the average and median values were $1.37 \pm 2.77\%$ and
510 0.07%, respectively. We note that Fe solubility was significantly higher (0.92%-8.59%) for 8
511 samples and very low ($<0.5\%$) for the other 21 samples (Table S3), most of which showed Fe
512 solubility below 0.1%. No previous work has measured Fe solubility for steelwork fly ash. Our



513 experimental results were supported by a modeling study (Rathod et al., 2020) which suggested
514 that the major Fe-containing species in steelwork fly ash were Fe oxides with very low Fe
515 solubilities.

516 **3.2.4 Biofuel burning aerosol**

517 For biofuel burning aerosol, Fe solubility in acetate buffer (pH: 4.3) ranges from 2.86%
518 to 100% with average and median values of $56.07 \pm 30.95\%$ and 55.87%, respectively (Table
519 2). Based on the relationship between combustion temperature and Fe-containing species in
520 emitted aerosols, Fe solubility was previously estimated at 35% for wood burning (i.e., biofuel)
521 aerosol (Rathod et al., 2020), in good agreement with our experimental results.

522 The biofuel examined in our experiment was burnt in a sealed stove and contained no
523 apparent local soil contamination. As such, these results are most representative of domestic
524 biofuel combustion for which the influence of soil-derived Fe can be expected to be negligible.
525 In contrast, wildfires represent dynamic open fire systems that emit aerosol Fe in both fine and
526 coarse fractions (Hamilton et al., 2019). During wildfire combustion, not only is the biofuel
527 (biomass) consumed, but local soils are also entrained into the smoke plumes (Hamilton et al.,
528 2022; Tegler et al., 2023). These soil-derived particles are typically larger (in particle size) and
529 less soluble than their biofuel-derived counterparts (Hamilton et al., 2022), resulting in a larger
530 mass of emitted Fe, albeit with a lower overall Fe solubility. Future studies would benefit from
531 capturing emissions from open burning scenarios to better characterize the properties of
532 wildfire-emitted Fe.



533 **3.2.5 Municipal waste fly ash, oil fly ash and oil bottom ash**

534 Fe solubility in acetate buffer (pH: 4.3) was determined to range from 0.58% to 2.41% for
535 municipal waste fly ash (Table 2), with average and median values being $1.51 \pm 0.92\%$ and
536 1.54%, respectively. Few previous studies measured Fe solubility for municipal waste fly ash.
537 Fe solubility was estimated to be $<2\%$ for municipal waste fly ash when combustion
538 temperature exceeded 1100 K (Rathod et al., 2020), agreeing with our experimental results.

539 Fe solubility in acetate buffer (pH: 4.3) was determined to be 11.70% and 13.43% for the
540 two oil fly ash samples we examined, with an average value of $12.56 \pm 0.87\%$. In previous
541 work, Fe solubility was measured to be 35.7% at pH of 4.7 (Desboeufs et al., 2005) and 70%
542 in deionized water (Schroth et al., 2009), both higher than our results. Although Fe solubility
543 measured in different studies showed some variations, all the studies suggested that oil fly ash
544 exhibited very high Fe solubility. Moreover, Fe solubility in acetate buffer (pH: 4.3) was
545 measured in our work to be 25.47% for one heavy oil bottom ash.

546 **3.2.6 Fe solubilities: comparison of anthropogenic and dust Fe**

547 Figure 2b compares our measured Fe solubility for six types of combustion and
548 anthropogenic particles with that for desert dust. Biofuel burning aerosols (median: 55.87%),
549 residential coal combustion aerosols (median: 28.45%), and oil fly ash (median: 12.56%)
550 exhibited very high Fe solubility. Compared to desert dust, for which Fe solubility is around
551 0.5% (Chuang et al., 2005; Li et al., 2022b; Ooki et al., 2009; Schroth et al., 2009; Shi et al.,
552 2011), Fe solubility was also higher for municipal waste fly ash (median: 1.54%) but lower for
553 steelwork fly ash (median: 0.07%) and power plant coal fly ash (median: 0.03%).



Overall, Fe solubility in emitted particles was significantly higher for low-temperature combustion (residential and biofuel burning aerosols) than high-temperature combustion (municipal waste fly ash, steelwork fly ash, and power plant coal fly ash). This is because Fe in emitted particles is mainly highly soluble Fe sulfates for low combustion (Bhargava et al., 2009; Rathod et al., 2020) but Fe oxides with very low solubility for high temperature combustion (Hu et al., 2006; Ram et al., 1995; Rathod et al., 2020). The outlier to this is oil fly ash which was emitted by high temperature combustion but showed high Fe solubility. This is probably because heavy oil has high sulfur content, leading to the formation of sulfuric acid in combustion that can condense onto co-emitted Fe oxide particles and form highly soluble Fe sulfate (Rathod et al., 2020; Sippula et al., 2009).

3.3 Modeling Results

Leveraging combustion Fe solubilities as measured in aerosol emitted from combustion of different fuel sources (residential coal, industrial coal, oil, and residential biofuel), as reported in Sections 3.1 and 3.2, we performed a series of Earth System Model simulations that tested variable anthropogenic Fe solubilities at the point of emission. To pair observed solubilities (Table 2) with fuel-types represented in the model, we updated Fe emission solubility in industrial coal from 0.2 to 0.05%, in residential coal from 0.2 to 33%, in residential biofuel burning from 10 to 56%, and in oil from 38 to 25% (Table 3). Smelting Fe solubility at point of emission was kept at 0.03%, since new experimental data do not suggest an alternative solubility. New solubility parameters were applied to both fine and coarse modes within MIM. A description of the fractional solubilities applied to each anthropogenic fuel type within each model simulation is provided in Table 3.



576

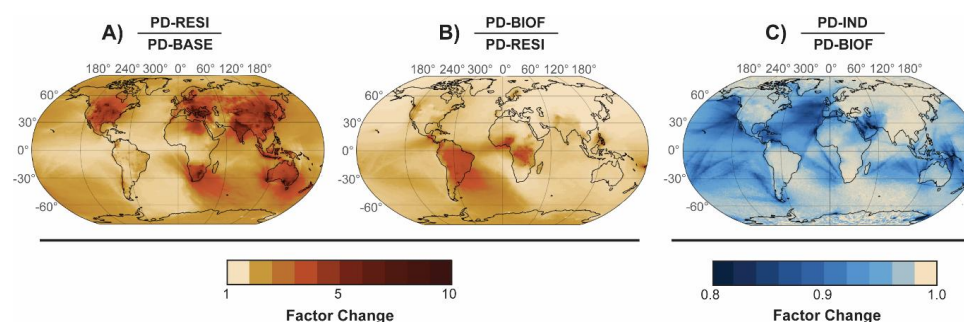
577 **Table 3.** Fractional Fe solubilities applied in each model simulation to reflect experimental
578 findings. Rows highlighted in gray indicate baseline simulations with no changes made to Fe
579 solubility from previous work using MIMI. To underscore modifications between simulations,
580 a dash (–) is provided where assigned solubility did not differ from the PD-BASE simulation.

Simulation	Fe solubility modifications by fuel-type (%)				
	Industrial Coal	Residential Coal	Oil	Residential Biofuel	Smelting
PD-BASE	0.2	0.2	38	10	0.003
PD-RESI	-	33	-	-	-
PD-BIOF	-	33	-	56	-
PD-IND	0.05	33	25	56	-
PI-BASE	NA	NA	NA	10	NA
PI-BIOF	NA	NA	NA	56	NA
MID-SSP370-BASE	0.2	0.2	38	10	0.003
MID-SSP370-BIOF	-	33	-	56	0.003
END-SSP370-BASE	0.2	0.2	38	10	0.003
END-SSP370-BIOF	-	33	-	56	0.003

581

582 3.3.1 Impacts on global soluble Fe distribution

583 By updating Fe solubility for four distinct anthropogenic fuel-types in MIMI, our model
584 simulations revealed a new range of potential soluble Fe fluxes to the modern ocean. When
585 compared to PD-BASE, in the PD-RESI case soluble Fe fluxes to the surface ocean increased
586 by 33 Gg a⁻¹ (92% increase) globally, with the largest increase in emissions stemming from
587 China, India, Australia, the USA, central Europe, and South Africa (Figure 3). These increases
588 follow previous reports of relatively large anthropogenic emissions from these regions when
589 compared to global averages (Rathod et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2015).



590

591 **Figure 3.** Relative changes to soluble Fe deposition fluxes following modifications to
592 anthropogenic Fe solubilities in MIMI: A) residential coal, B) residential biofuel, and C)
593 industrial (fossil fuels and oil). Note the difference in scales between A/B and C; red tones (A
594 and B) indicate relative increases and blue tones (C) indicate relative decreases.

595

596 When we increased Fe solubility for residential biofuel in the model (PD-BIOF), soluble
597 Fe fluxes to the ocean increased by an additional 11 Gg a⁻¹, totaling an increase of 44 Gg a⁻¹
598 compared to PD-BASE (Table 4). Changes to soluble Fe fluxes in this case were most
599 concentrated across the South Atlantic (Figure 3), likely due to elevated emissions (as high as
600 a factor of 4) along the eastern coast of South America and in sub-Saharan Africa where
601 biofuel-burning in cook stoves is a common residential practice (García-López et al., 2025;
602 Stoner et al., 2021). When both residential coal and biofuel Fe solubilities were increased (PD-
603 BIOF), we report a maximum change in soluble Fe fluxes, with deposition to the ocean
604 doubling from 40 to 80 Gg a⁻¹ at the global scale (123% increase relative to PD-BASE; Table
605 4). Both our minimum (PD-BASE) and maximum (PD-BIOF) estimates fell within previous
606 ranges of uncertainty as reported for anthropogenic Fe deposition fluxes to the ocean (Hamilton
607 et al., 2023; Ito and Miyakawa, 2023), suggesting that solubility modifications applied herein



aligns well with previous constraints for global soluble Fe fluxes by Earth System Models. Altering Fe solubility for industrial coal (PD-IND) had a much smaller impact on soluble Fe deposition fluxes to the ocean, only resulting in a 2.2 Gg a⁻¹ decrease (3% decrease) at the global scale. These losses in fossil-fuel based Fe emissions were distributed across multiple regions but most apparent within major shipping lanes (Figure 3).

Table 4. Global anthropogenic combustion Fe emission and deposition fluxes (Gg a⁻¹) in the preindustrial (PI), present day (PD), and Future (FU), as simulated by MIMI.

Emission Scenario	Model Simulation (case)	Fe Content	Global Emission	Global Deposition	Deposition to Ocean
PI (1750 CE)	PI-BASE	Total	0.8	0.8	0.3
		(Soluble)	(0.08)	(0.1)	(0.04)
	PI-BIOF	Total	0.8	0.8	0.3
		(Soluble)	(0.44)	(0.5)	(0.2)
PD (2010 CE)	PD-BASE	Total	2220	2220	590
		(Soluble)	(20)	(90)	(40)
	PD-BIOF	Total	2220	2220	590
		(Soluble)	(170)	(270)	(80)
FU (2050 CE)	MID-SSP370-BASE	Total	2400	2400	620
		(Soluble)	(20)	(90)	(40)
	MID-SSP370-BIOF	Total	2400	2400	620
		(Soluble)	(180)	(250)	(80)
FU (2100 CE)	END-SSP370-BASE	Total	1970	1970	510
		(Soluble)	(20)	(80)	(30)
	END-SSP370-BIOF	Total	1970	1970	510
		(Soluble)	(90)	(150)	(50)

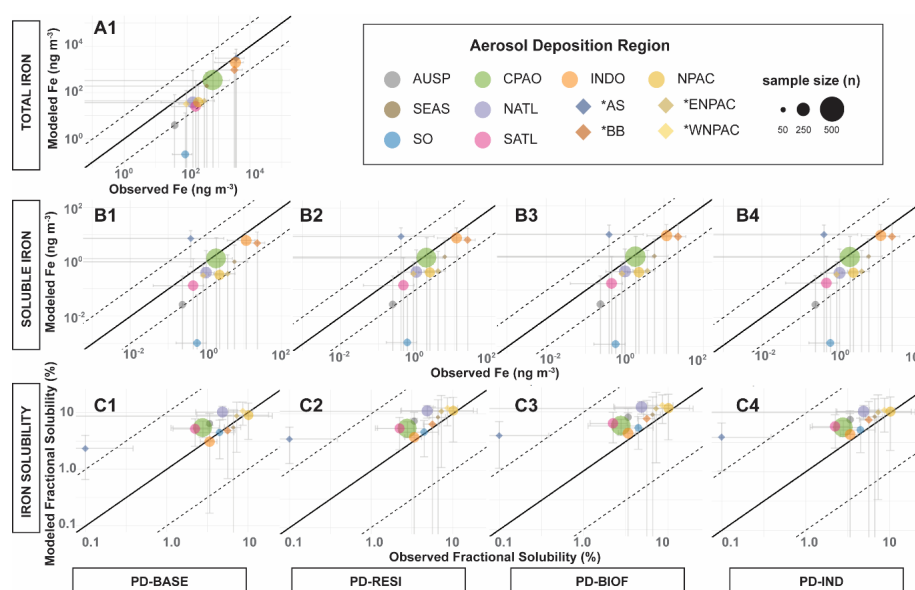
Modeled changes in residential coal emissions most impacted global soluble Fe fluxes when compared to other fuel-types, and this was likely attributed to the fact that residential coal Fe emissions (464 Gg a⁻¹) exceeded individual emissions from all other fuel types in our



621 PD emissions dataset (industrial coal: 305 Gg a⁻¹; oil: 34 Gg a⁻¹; residential biofuel: 72 Gg a⁻¹),
622 with the exception of smelting (1345 Gg a⁻¹). Furthermore, the solubility modification for
623 residential coal exceeded the relative changes to all other sectors (from 0.2% to 33%), resulting
624 in emission increase of soluble Fe by a factor of 10 in some regions (Figure 3).

625 3.3.2 Model-observation comparisons of total and soluble Fe concentrations

626 Comparison of modelled surface concentrations with regionally grouped, ship-based
627 observations revealed good agreement between modeled and observed total and soluble aerosol
628 Fe concentrations (Figure 4). Modeled total Fe concentrations fell slightly under observed
629 values but remained well within one order of magnitude for each ocean region, with the
630 exception of the Southern Ocean where total Fe was underestimated by several orders of
631 magnitude. Our underestimation of total aerosol Fe in the Southern Ocean aligns with previous
632 efforts to model global fluxes of total and soluble aerosol Fe using MIMI v1.0 and other Earth
633 System Models (Ito and Miyakawa, 2023; Ito et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2024). Current leading
634 hypotheses suggest that an Fe source, such as volcanism or mining, is not currently well
635 represented in models, or alternatively, that limited observations are not representative of
636 typical Fe conditions in the airshed of the Southern Ocean (Ito and Miyakawa, 2023; Liu et al.,
637 2024).



638

639 **Figure 4.** Comparison of modelling and observational data: A) total Fe, B) soluble Fe, and C)

640 Fe solubility; 1) PD-BASE, 2) PD-RESI, 3) PD-BIOF, and 4) PD-IND. Annual averages were

641 aggregated as medians and plotted by deposition region. Error bars represent spatiotemporal

642 variance within each region. The solid black line indicates a 1-to-1 relationship between

643 modeled and observed values and the dashed lines represent deviation by ± 1 order of magnitude.

644 Only PD-BASE is shown for total Fe as total Fe fluxes were not manipulated between model

645 cases.

646

647 In the PD-BASE case, for soluble Fe concentrations, regression analyses followed a

648 similar trend to total Fe, wherein for each deposition region, modeled averages were slightly

649 lower than observed values and fell within one order of magnitude, except for the Southern

650 Ocean and the Arabian Sea (Figure 4). In the PD-RESI and PD-BIOF cases, average soluble

651 Fe concentrations increased in every ocean region across the globe. At the global scale,



652 modifications made to anthropogenic Fe solubilities overall lessened the underestimation of
653 soluble Fe by MIMI (Figure 4). Increasing Fe solubility for residential coal burning emission
654 resulted in an average increase to modeled soluble Fe concentrations by $0.5 \pm 0.7 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ in
655 each ocean region (Table S8). Conversely, enhancing Fe solubility in residential biofuel
656 burning emission only improved model performance within the South Atlantic Ocean (Figure
657 4); solubility modifications to fossil fuel sources of Fe (industrial coal and oil emissions) did
658 little to improve model performance (Figure 4). Model performance improvements attributed
659 to soluble Fe in residential coal emissions were especially noticeable for Southeastern Asia, the
660 Bay of Bengal, the North Pacific, and the North Atlantic (Figure 4), likely because of the strong
661 source of residential coal combustion aerosol from China, India, and Europe (Figure 3).

662 Despite slight underestimations for total and soluble Fe by PD-BASE, Fe solubilities
663 calculated by the model were well aligned with observations for every region except for the
664 Arabian Sea, wherein solubility was overestimated by 1-2 orders of magnitude (Figure 4). In
665 previous MIMI-validation efforts (Hamilton et al., 2019), observational data from the Arabian
666 Sea and Bay of Bengal were aggregated as the Indian Ocean, but each basin has distinct
667 terrestrial sources of aerosol. While both receive a large source of anthropogenic emission from
668 India, the Arabian Sea has a much larger dust influence from the Middle East and the Bay of
669 Bengal is more strongly affected by anthropogenic emissions across Southeastern Asia (Bali et
670 al., 2019; Guieu et al., 2019).

671 In general, we found that ocean regions which are known to be influenced by dust Fe had
672 slightly higher overestimations for Fe solubility when compared to regions with less dust
673 deposition (Figure 4C). Specifically, Fe solubility in the South Atlantic (heavily influenced by



dust emitted from the Patagonia Desert), the Central Atlantic/Pacific and North Atlantic (Sahara Desert), Australia/South Pacific (Great Victoria Desert), and North Pacific (Gobi Desert), was overestimated when compared to other regions (Figure 4C). These findings suggest that soluble Fe in dust is slightly overrepresented in the current model scheme (Figure 4). However, it is important to highlight that use of the new soil scheme that includes how soil moisture changes impact dust emissions, as revealed herein, indicated an improvement from previous model simulations for dust Fe (Hamilton et al., 2019; Myriokefalitakis et al., 2018).

In regions with less dust Fe and stronger sources of anthropogenic Fe, Fe solubilities were slightly underestimated by the baseline simulation. In each of our modified solubility cases (PD-RESI, PD-BIOF, and PD-IND), Fe solubility for southeastern Asia, the Bay of Bengal, the North Pacific, and the Southern Ocean all increased, but the regions heavily impacted by dust remained relatively unchanged (Figure 4). This suggests that modifications to Fe solubility for anthropogenic combustion aerosol as applied herein improve the predictive capability of MIMI in regions with heavy anthropogenic influence.

3.3.3 Soluble Fe under PI and FU emission scenarios

PI model simulations serve as a valuable baseline in understanding the specific implications of anthropogenic perturbation on the Earth system. When comparing soluble Fe emitted in the PI and PD, we found increases in soluble Fe fluxes for most regions across the globe (Figure 5). Such increases were largely attributed to steadily growing anthropogenic combustion and industrial activity emissions over time. However, dust and wildfire Fe emissions were also distinct between the PI and PD, due to land-use changes and global warming induced feedbacks that have altered global precipitation patterns (Hamilton et al.,



2018; Kok et al., 2023; Li et al., 2019; Mahowald et al., 2010). Globally, we estimated that soluble Fe fluxes to marine ecosystems in the PD exceeded these during the PI era by 36-70 Gg a⁻¹, with the low estimate from PD-BASE and the high estimate from PD-BIOF case. We observed the largest differences between PI and PD soluble Fe fluxes in Southeastern Asia, the Bay of Bengal, and the North Atlantic. These differences were apparent for all the solubility parameterizations used and deposition regions (Figures 5 and S4), apart from the South Atlantic region where soluble Fe fluxes in the PI era exceeded PD fluxes by 5.6 Gg a⁻¹. This decrease was likely attributed to reduction in wildfire burned area over past decades, particularly in Africa (Andela et al., 2017; Jones et al., 2022). Previous work has suggested that wildfire activity during the PI era exceeded current wildfire regimes at the global scale (Hamilton et al., 2018), and our modeling work suggested larger wildfire Fe emission and deposition fluxes in every region during the PI era compared to PD. This signal was also most apparent in the South Atlantic where PD deposition fluxes of wildfire Fe were exceeded by a factor of 4 (Figure 5).

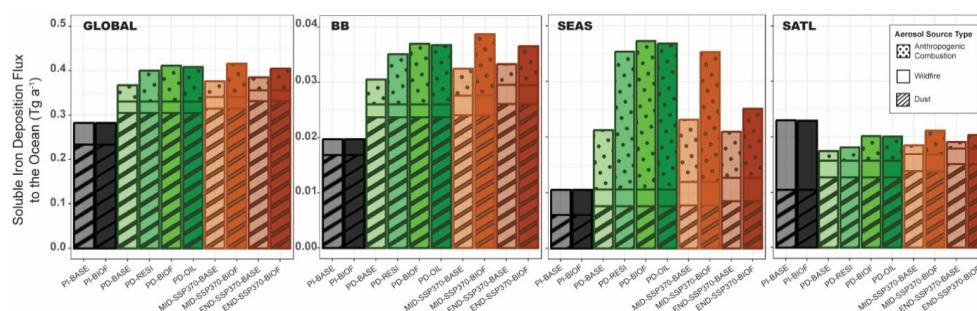


Figure 5. Deposition fluxes of soluble aerosol Fe to marine ecosystems: A) globally; B) Bay of Bengal (BB); C) Southeastern Asia (SEAS); D) South Atlantic (SATL). Deposition fluxes are source-apportioned (dust, wildfire burning, and anthropogenic combustion) and provided for each case with distinct solubility parameters. Plots for each regional grouping (as depicted



714 in Figure 1) are provided in the supplementary information (Figure S4).

715

716 New Fe solubility parameterizations for residential coal emission increased the delivery of
717 anthropogenic soluble aerosol Fe to marine ecosystems by a factor of 1.7 – 2.8 at the regional
718 scale (Figures 3 and 5). Increased fluxes were greatest for Australia/the Southern Pacific, the
719 Southern Atlantic, across Southeastern Asia, the Bay of Bengal, and the Southern Ocean. While
720 model performance showed the most significant improvement in the Bay of Bengal,
721 enhancements in other regions were generally modest, and changes in the Southern Ocean were
722 indiscernible (Figure 4). These regional discrepancies highlight the current limitations of ship-
723 based observations in capturing representative soluble Fe fluxes, particularly in the under-
724 sampled Southern Hemisphere. Future efforts should prioritize expanding the spatial coverage
725 of measurements in these regions to improve model accuracy and understanding of possible
726 anthropogenic influence on remote marine biogeochemistry.

727 Under the SSP370 future emissions scenario, anthropogenic Fe emissions are projected to
728 reach their maxima by 2050 for most deposition regions and then decrease to values at or below
729 current PD conditions by 2100 (Figure 5). However, this trend did not hold for the global south
730 (Australia/South Pacific, Central Pacific/Atlantic, and Southern Ocean) where soluble aerosol
731 Fe fluxes were projected to continually increase through the end of the century (Figure 5); this
732 was not due to anthropogenic combustion emissions directly, but rather because of dust as the
733 primary source of soluble Fe to the Southern Hemisphere (Figure 5).

734 By the end of the century under SSP370, model simulations suggested that soluble Fe
735 deposition to marine systems will decrease by a factor of 0.2-0.4 globally, compared to the



736 present day. In our base simulation (PD-BASE), losses of soluble Fe are projected to be 7 Gg a^{-1}
737 by the year 2100. However, in each of our test cases, the projected changes to soluble Fe fluxes
738 between PD/MID-SSP370 and MID-SSP370/END-SSP370 was more drastic, with midcentury
739 soluble Fe fluxes increasing by 6 Gg a^{-1} by 2050 but falling by up to 32 Gg a^{-1} by the year 2100
740 (Figure 5). Therefore, marine ecosystems could face a more significant deviation from current
741 soluble Fe supplies than has been previously represented in Earth System Models, and this
742 could largely be attributed to changes in residential sources of combustion aerosol.

743 At the regional scale, the largest changes to soluble Fe fluxes under SSP370 are
744 anticipated in the Bay of Bengal, the North Atlantic, the South Atlantic, and across
745 Southeastern Asia (Figures 5 and S4). Notably, in Southeastern Asia, anthropogenic
746 combustion exceeded both dust and wildfire Fe, constituting up to 72% of all soluble Fe fluxes
747 to marine ecosystems in this region. By 2100, soluble Fe fluxes were projected to decrease by
748 a factor of 0.2 in the base case (PD-BASE vs. END-SSP370-BASE; Figure 5). However, in the
749 -BIOF cases for these scenarios, fluxes decreased by a factor of 0.5, more than doubling the
750 projected reduction in soluble Fe fluxes. This would constitute a much larger disruption to
751 current biogeochemistry and external sources of Fe in key open ocean regions.

752 Projected losses in soluble Fe fluxes by 2100 under future emission scenarios, including
753 SSP370, have strong implications for the spatiotemporal distribution of net marine primary
754 productivity, especially in Fe limited regions. Recent work suggested that the atmospheric
755 supply of anthropogenic Fe has already shifted phytoplankton bloom dynamics in the open
756 ocean by accelerating the seasonal uptake of upwelled nitrogen in HNLC regions, such as the
757 North Pacific (Hawco et al., 2025). Such HNLC regions are anticipated to be especially



758 sensitive to changes in anthropogenic Fe given that they are historically limited by trace metals
759 including Fe (Bazzani et al., 2023; Moore et al., 2013; Nishioka and Obata, 2017).

760 Diverse lines of evidence suggest that half of the soluble Fe flux to the North Pacific
761 comes from Asian anthropogenic sources (Hamilton et al., 2019; Hamilton et al., 2020b;
762 Hawco et al., 2025; Rathod et al., 2020). Li et al. (2024) found that the magnitude of
763 chlorophyll-a response to Fe deposition off the coast of China was lowered by a factor of 4
764 during COVID-19 in March 2020 when anthropogenic emissions across East Asia were
765 substantially reduced. The authors speculated that a reduction in soluble Fe from anthropogenic
766 activities, either via the primary emission of soluble Fe or via a reduction in Fe solubilization
767 via co-emitted acidic species (e.g., SO_x), resulted in a lessened supply of soluble Fe delivered
768 during the deposition event. Moreover, using Fe isotopes to trace source origins of atmospheric
769 Fe, Hawco et al. (2025) recently showed that the springtime delivery of anthropogenic Fe could
770 be one major factor driving observed seasonal and geographic shifts to the North Pacific
771 transition zone, a highly productive boundary in the North Pacific. In particular, our findings
772 suggest that residential coal burning is an especially important source of soluble Fe to the North
773 Pacific and the South China Sea, and across southeastern Asia. Accordingly, we find that
774 projected losses of anthropogenic emissions over the course of this century will greatly
775 influence nutrient dynamics in these key marine ecosystems.

776 **4 Conclusions**

777 Anthropogenic activity has added a multitude of new aerosol Fe sources to the atmosphere.
778 Understanding how these new sources alter soluble Fe fluxes aids better understanding of
779 changes to marine primary productivity and ocean ecosystems within the Anthropocene.



780 However, estimating the contribution of anthropogenic emissions to soluble aerosol Fe fluxes
781 is challenging given the wide variety of sources, leading to large variation across different
782 modeling studies on the magnitude of the deposition fluxes. By measuring Fe content and
783 solubility of aerosol Fe from several important anthropogenic sources and including a first
784 assessment of the contribution from biofuels, we find that median Fe solubilities vary by greater
785 than three order of magnitude, from 0.03% for power plant coal fly ash to 55.87% for biofuel
786 burning aerosol.

787 To understand the impact of increasing source representation of fractional Fe solubilities
788 measured in this work, we refined Fe solubility parameters within an atmospheric Fe module
789 (MIMI) embedded within the CESM2. We found that current (PD) and projected (FU) fluxes
790 of soluble aerosol Fe to global marine ecosystems could exceed current modeled values by up
791 to a factor of 2, mainly driven by the new addition of a highly soluble biofuel Fe source,
792 highlighting residential burning as a significant source of soluble Fe to the ocean. The most
793 notable impacts were found in the Bay of Bengal, across Southeast Asia, and throughout the
794 North Pacific and North Atlantic (i.e., regions strongly influenced by nearby continental
795 anthropogenic activity). However, many shipborne observations of aerosol Fe have historically
796 been taken in regions outside of biofuel rich Fe plumes, limiting current capacity to constrain
797 model fluxes and highlighting a future research opportunity.

798

799 **Data availability.**

800 Experimental data can be found in the manuscript or the supplement. Modeling output
801 data, coding scripts, and emission inventories are available at:



802 <https://github.com/haleyplaas/CombustionFe>.

803 **Competing interests.**

804 At least one of the (co-)authors is a member of the editorial board of Atmospheric
805 Chemistry and Physics.

806 **Author contribution.**

807 MT initiated this study; MT and DSH designed this study and secured funding resources;
808 RL, YZ, YC and TZ conducted experimental work; HEP, SR and DSH conducted modeling
809 work; YY provided key samples used in this work and contributed to data analysis; RL and
810 HEP analyzed the results; RL, HEP, DSH and MT wrote the manuscript; all the authors
811 reviewed and approved the manuscript.

812 **Financial support.**

813 This work was sponsored by National Natural Science Foundation of China (42321003,
814 42277088 and 22361162668), International Partnership Program of Chinese Academy of
815 Sciences (164GJHZ2024011FN), Guangzhou Bureau of Science and Technology
816 (2024A04J6533), and Guangdong Foundation for the Program of Science and Technology
817 Research (2023B1212060049).

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