



Climate Models Underestimate Pre-Industrial Fire Emissions

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Key Points:

- Ice cores and climate models disagree on changes in black carbon from 1850 to 1980
- CMIP likely underestimated the magnitude of preindustrial fire emissions in many regions
- Changes in aerosol transport and processes are a secondary consideration after initial emissions



36 **Abstract**

37 An improved understanding of how fire regimes changed from the pre-industrial to the present-
38 day is required to reduce uncertainty in anthropogenic aerosol radiative forcing. Direct
39 observations of pre-industrial fires are scarce so here we evaluate assumptions about historical fire
40 regime change using black carbon data from polar and alpine ice core records and global climate
41 model simulations from the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP6) and the
42 Large Ensemble Community Project (LENS). Black carbon is a tracer of both natural and
43 anthropogenic combustion, enabling comparison of fire and industrial combustion emission
44 changes from the pre-industrial (1850 CE) to the present day (1980 CE). Polar ice core records
45 indicate relatively modest increases in mean and median 1980 CE/1850 CE black carbon ratios of
46 1.27 and 1.15, compared with 2.89 and 2.64 in the CMIP6 ensemble, respectively. Alpine ice cores
47 record larger increases (mean 2.31; median 1.93), compared with even larger increases simulated
48 in CMIP6 in alpine regions (mean 3.59; median 2.50). We tested three possibilities to explain the
49 difference between black carbon simulated by models and recorded in observations: (1) pre-
50 industrial fire emissions are too low in models; (2) changes in aerosol transport over the Industrial
51 Era using data from LENS; and (3) differences in modelled aerosol properties and deposition
52 parameterizations using CESM2 data. Analysis of these different drivers revealed that the most
53 effective method to reconcile the model-observation disparity is to increase pre-industrial fire
54 emissions in the models and that transport or aerosol properties are of secondary consideration.

56 **Plain Language Summary**

57 Ice cores preserve changes in landscape fires and human-caused combustion. In this study, we
58 compared ice core data from every continent, except Oceania, to computer model simulations of
59 fire. We found a large disagreement in the 1850 CE to 1980 CE black carbon ratio. After exploring
60 changes in emissions, transport, and aerosol microphysical processes as potential reasons for this
61 disagreement, our results suggested that fire emission input datasets for climate models are the
62 primary cause.



63 1 Introduction

64 Earth System models (ESM) are powerful tools used to construct the history and future of Earth's
65 climate through the simulation of key land-atmosphere-ocean processes, including the influence
66 of landscape fire and other open burning practices on climate, radiative forcing, and atmospheric
67 composition. To do so, ESMs can either use an interactive fire model embedded within a land-
68 vegetation model framework or use prescribed gas and aerosol emission datasets that represent
69 how fire regimes change over a time period of interest. For climate studies, it is important to
70 understand how fire (defined here as the sum of all natural landscape and anthropogenic open
71 burning fires) shapes both the pre-industrial (PI) atmospheric state and how changes in fire alter
72 the atmospheric burden of aerosol and gases over the Industrial Era to the present day (PD)
73 (Carslaw et al., 2013; Hamilton et al., 2018). The Sixth Coupled Model Inter-Comparison Project
74 (CMIP6) experiment is an ensemble of ESMs that produced historical simulated climate relevant
75 data. The experiment defines 1850 CE as 'pre-industrial', corresponding to the start of large-scale
76 industrialization (Eyring et al., 2016).

77 A wide variety of processes can change the energy balance of the atmosphere over time,
78 including human driven perturbations such as changing greenhouse gas concentrations or aerosol
79 emission rates. Quantification of human activity's influence on the atmospheric energy balance is
80 termed 'anthropogenic radiative forcing.' However, assessment of this forcing often excludes
81 changes to natural aerosol and gas emission sources, including information about fire regimes
82 (Mahowald et al., 2024). Including a representation of changes in fire over the historical period is
83 critical for calculating aerosol radiative forcing. Fire helps establish both a PI atmospheric
84 composition baseline and is a key component of calculating the PI to PD aerosol radiative forcing
85 (Carslaw et al., 2017; Hamilton et al., 2018; Simpkins, 2018; Wan et al., 2021).

86 Fires emit a multitude of gases and aerosols during combustion (Andrea 2017). Fire
87 aerosols can either absorb or scatter solar radiation in the atmosphere, leading to heating or cooling
88 effects (Rap et al., 2013; Collins et al., 2017). Fire aerosols also function as cloud condensation
89 nuclei (CCN), affecting the atmospheric energy balance by changing cloud drop concentrations
90 and by initiating a series of cloud adjustments that affect cloud albedo (Ackerman et al., 2000;
91 Andreae & Rosenfeld, 2008; Cozic et al., 2007, 2008; Koch & Del Genio, 2010). Furthermore,
92 certain fire aerosols such as black carbon (BC) can also change Earth's energy balance when
93 deposited on snow and ice by decreasing surface albedo, and thus, increasing snow and glacial
94 melt rates by absorbing more solar radiation compared to pure ice or snow (Gabbi et al., 2015;
95 Hadley & Kirchstetter, 2012; Hansen & Nazarenko, 2004; Jacobson, 2004; Lee et al., 2013; Skiles
96 et al., 2018).

97 Due to the impacts of BC aerosol load, a product of incomplete combustion from both
98 natural and anthropogenic sources (Bond et al. 2013), on both the atmospheric and terrestrial
99 energy balance, it is especially important to understand how BC concentrations have changed over
100 time. In the absence of anthropogenic industrial activity, landscape fires were the major BC aerosol
101 emission source (Hamilton et al., 2018). Over one hundred years later, at the turn of the 21st
102 century, fire had become a minor contributor to BC emissions in a more polluted, anthropogenic



103 emission dominated, atmosphere (e.g., Bond et al., 2007; van der Werf et al., 2017). Over this time
104 period, changes in fire regimes were influenced by both climate and non-climate factors, including
105 increasing population density, and human land use and land cover change (Foley et al., 2005; Jones
106 et al., 2022; Mollicone et al., 2006; Pausas & Keeley, 2014; Rudel et al., 2009).

107 Drivers of fire regimes vary regionally and include changes in climate, vegetation, human
108 population, and land use management (e.g., Aragão et al., 2018; Archibald et al., 2010; Baker &
109 Spracklen, 2019; Cahoon et al., 1992; Giglio et al., 2018; Jones et al., 2022; Nikonovas et al.,
110 2020; Staal et al., 2018). While precipitation and other climatic controls historically played a
111 dominant role in regulating fire occurrence and severity, the human influence on the landscape has
112 increasingly shaped fire regimes since the PI period (Pechony & Shindell, 2010). The relationship
113 between human population and fire activity is generally considered non-monotonic: at low
114 population densities, increased ignitions tend to enhance fire occurrence, whereas at higher
115 population densities, land fragmentation, agropastoral land conversion, and active fire suppression
116 increasingly limit fire spread (Andela et al., 2017; Archibald et al., 2012; Kelley et al., 2019;
117 Pechony & Shindell, 2010). As a result, global burned area has declined over the late 20th and
118 early 21st centuries (Andela et al., 2017; Ward et al., 2012). However, the complexity of these
119 human-driven changes in fire regimes is not always fully represented in ESMs (Li et al., 2019) or
120 the fire emission inventories used by them (Hamilton et al., 2018). Failure to capture the human-
121 driven decline in burned area since the PI can propagate into overestimates of the radiative cooling
122 effect of anthropogenic aerosol emissions (Hamilton et al., 2018), with implications for estimates
123 of climate sensitivity (Mahowald et al., 2024). Improving reconstructions of historical BC and
124 other fire-related emissions is therefore critical for reducing uncertainty in PI to PD aerosol
125 radiative forcing (Bellouin et al., 2020; Bender, 2020).

126 Hamilton et al. (2018) was the first study to evaluate the use of CMIP fire emission datasets
127 against ice core data in an attempt to quantify how uncertainty in historical fire regime change
128 contributes to the uncertainty in PI to PD aerosol radiative forcing. The authors compared 4
129 Northern Hemisphere (i.e., the hemisphere in which anthropogenic aerosol radiative forcing is
130 largest) ice core records of BC against global aerosol model simulations. Results suggested that
131 fire emissions were likely to be between 2x to 4x higher in the PI than was estimated in the CMIP6
132 emission dataset. Revised modeling that included the higher fire emission reconstruction resulted
133 in reductions of the PI to PD cloud albedo forcing between 35% and 91% compared to using
134 CMIP6 emission data. The authors then followed this aerosol focused study by exploring the
135 impacts of fire emissions on ozone radiative forcing, finding that the revised fire inventories
136 decreased PI to PD ozone radiative forcing by up to 29% (Rowlinson et al., 2020). A follow-on
137 study by Liu et al. (2021) focused on the Southern Hemisphere ice core record, including 14
138 Antarctic ice cores and 1 central Andean core from Illimani, Bolivia. Their results supported
139 Hamilton et al. (2018)'s findings that PI fire emissions were likely to be higher in the PI compared
140 to the PD and that the decline in Southern Hemisphere fire BC emissions from 1750 to 2000 CE
141 was large enough to offset anthropogenic aerosol radiative forcing over the same period. Other
142 recent studies include Moseid et al. (2022) who found that cores in the European Alps and



Greenland have a pre-1950 BC maxima, agreeing with the charcoal record, while most CMIP6 models suggest a post-1950 maxima (Moseid et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2024). Faïn et al., (2025) discovered that the growth rate of Northern Hemisphere carbon monoxide (CO) records (another proxy of combustion) and 7 Aerosol Chemistry Model Intercomparison Project (AerChemMIP) models diverge from 1920 to 1980. Charcoal record studies have also long supported these ice record based conclusions by being the first to suggest that global burned area has decreased from the PI to the PD (e.g., Arora & Melton, 2018; Marlon et al., 2008).

Investigating the discrepancies between PI to PD BC changes in CMIP and observational ice core records is of timely importance, given CMIP7 emission datasets are in development (Durack et al., 2025). In this study we investigate, for the first time, all three potential sources of uncertainty in the disagreement between climate model-simulated and ice core-recorded changes in BC over the Industrial Era: (1) aerosol emissions; (2) aerosol mass and deposition processes; and (3) aerosol transport pathways (Table S1). To explore each of these potential sources of uncertainty, this study builds on previous work by assembling a comprehensive ice core dataset of combustion proxy data (a total of 37 ice cores; 36 of BC and 1 of levoglucosan) and then comparing the ice core data to three ESM ensembles of simulated BC: CMIP6, the Large Ensemble Community Project (LENS1; that uses CMIP5 emission data), and also the CESM2 subset of CMIP6. Finally, we tested the sensitivity of our results to the choice of definition of what year constitutes the “PI” baseline (Table S2).

2 Data and Methods

2.1 Ice Core Data

Ice core records of BC deposition provide an observational record of natural and anthropogenic combustion and are therefore useful tools for validating ESMs’ modeled history of BC deposition (McConnell, 2010). Ice cores are dated with various, and often multiple, methods to minimize errors in constructing data time series. Water isotopes, trace elements, major ions and BC often exhibit seasonal variations that can be used to annually date ice cores (Andersen et al., 2006; Sigl et al., 2016). Independent age markers such as tritium concentrations, beta radioactivity, Cs¹³⁷ and Pb²¹⁰ and ¹⁴C are used to constrain ice core depth-age scales (e.g., Pinglot et al., 2003; Fang et al., 2023). Due to the use of multiple, independent dating techniques the typical dating age uncertainty for our study period (i.e., from the mid-19th century to the late 20th century) ranges from ±0.5 to ±2 years, per dated layer (Andersen et al., 2006; Eichler et al., 2000), meaning that uncertainty does not significantly differ across the ice core depths analyzed in this study.

Data from a total of 37 ice cores (36 BC records and 1 levoglucosan record) were assembled from the literature for this study (Figure 1 and Table S3). For simplicity, we count the levoglucosan record as a “BC record” herein when discussing global averages, as levoglucosan is a biomass



178 burning marker derived from combusting cellulose in plants and therefore also traces past fire
179 activity. Ice cores were selected for analysis if they met the following two criteria:

180

181 1. Provided a record of fire (normally BC) within the Industrial Era (defined here as post
182 1850 CE to follow CMIP6 protocols)

183 2. The difference between the most recent and oldest years was at least 100 years.

184

185 These criteria resulted in at least one ice core being identified within every continent except
186 Oceania (Figure 1). Core 9 in Africa used levoglucosan data as an indicator of burning, instead of
187 BC, because it is the only ice core record of fire in Africa available to the authors at this time. Due
188 to the high variability in levoglucosan records, a LOESS smoothing with a parameter of 0.2 was
189 used to smooth the data prior to analysis (Figure S1).

190 We compared the compiled BC ice core dataset with climate model BC output (Section
191 2.3) at the geographic locations of the ice cores. In both the ice core records and the climate model
192 emission data and subsequent simulation outputs, total BC represents the combined contribution
193 of fire and anthropogenic combustion sources. Accordingly, comparisons between the ice core
194 observations and modeled BC reflect the relative evolution of these two major BC source
195 categories: fire and anthropogenic emissions.

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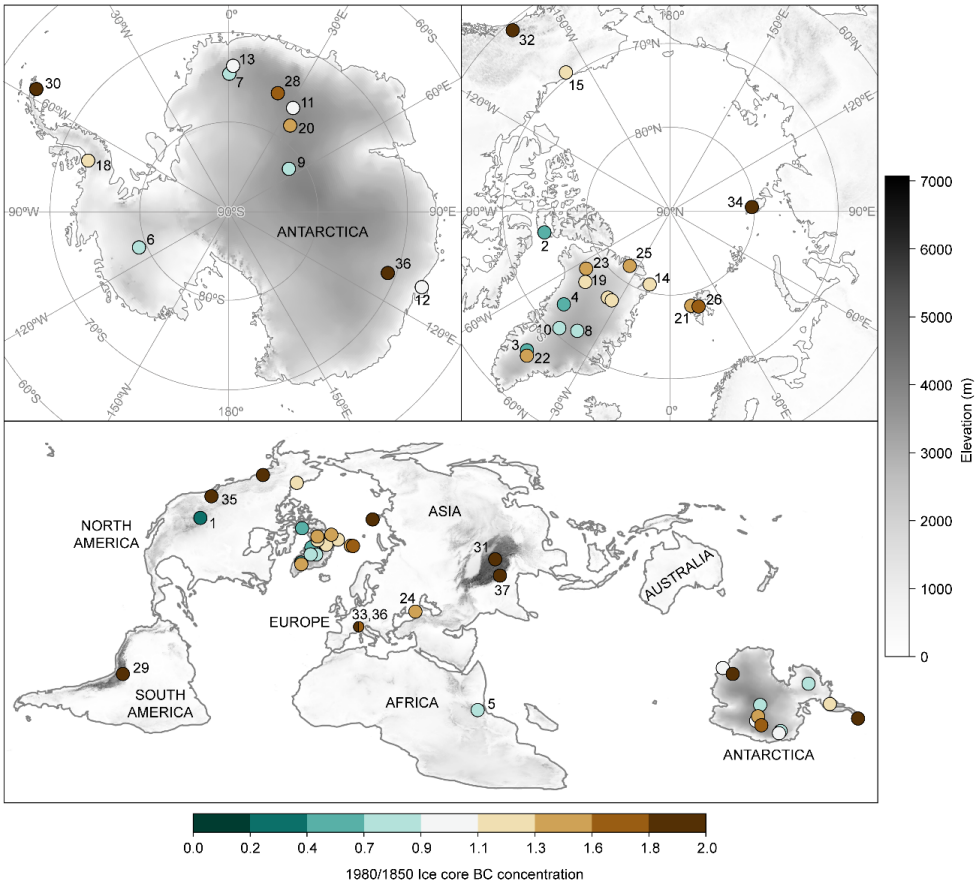


Figure 1. Location of all 37 ice core records used in this study. Ice core colors represent present day (PD; 1980 CE) / pre-industrial (PI; 1850 CE) black carbon (BC) ratios (or levoglucosan in the case of the African ice core) where blue and brown represent lower and higher BC concentration in the PD relative to the PI, respectively. A white color represents an ice core with little to no change in BC from the PI to the PD. Ice core numbers are ordered according to their PD/PI BC ratio where #1 has the lowest ratio (0.40) and #37 has the highest ratio (6.78). Elevation is shown in greyscale. Extended information on the ice cores including their exact location, dating methods, and common naming abbreviations is reported in Table S3.

2.2 Defining the Pre-Industrial (PI) and Present Day (PD)

To assess the uncertainty associated with the choice of PI baseline year, we evaluated how different PI definitions affect ice core-derived changes in BC (Section 3.5). Specifically, PI was alternatively defined as 1750 CE, 1800 CE, 1850 CE, and 1900 CE. The CMIP6 historical experiment has a start date of 1850 CE (Eyring et al., 2016). We therefore defined the PI as the



212 25-year mean after 1850 CE (inclusive) for the main results within this study because that is the
213 earliest date with model results from CMIP6 and LENS.

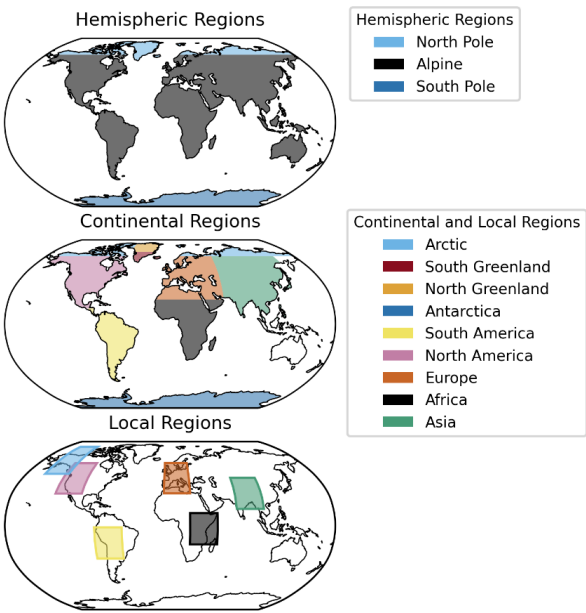
214 The most recent values in the ice core dataset are limited by the year they were drilled and
215 the thickness of firn that was unsuitable for analysis. In the compiled dataset ice core end date
216 values ranged from 1950 CE to post 2010 CE. Herein, the PD was defined as the 25-year mean
217 preceding 1980 CE (inclusive) because it represented the most recent date where nearly all (36/37)
218 ice cores contained sample data within 5 years of 1980 (Figures S2, S3). 1980 CE also represents
219 a scientific transition point to a new satellite data era, making assessments of post-1980 changes
220 in atmospheric composition more robust with the advent of a global remote sensing view.
221 Averaging windows from 5 to 30 years were considered for the PI and PD. A 25-year averaging
222 window was ultimately chosen for analysis because it provided the lowest standard deviation
223 across ice core data and captured fire regimes with longer (decadal scale) return intervals (Figure
224 S4).

225

226 **2.3 Defining Local, Continental, and Hemispheric Study Regions**

227

228



229

230 **Figure 2.** Definitions of each hemispheric, continental, and local emission region used in this
231 study. Hemispheric and continental regions are color coded and defined in the legend.



This study defines hemispheric regions for broader spatial analysis, including the “North Pole”, “South Pole”, and “Alpine” regions corresponding to ice cores above 66.6° North latitude, within Antarctica, and all other regions combined, respectively (Figure 2 and Table S4).

Continental regions were defined according to standard continent definitions with the exception of the Arctic (Figure 2). The Arctic continental region was defined by latitudes within the Arctic circle (i.e., greater than 66.6° latitude) and excluded Greenland; a total of five ice cores were identified to be located within the Arctic region. Greenland was separated for individual analysis due to the large data collection ($n = 11$) efforts there. Northern and southern Greenland exhibit differences in seasonal aerosol deposition types and aerosol sensitivities; north Greenland is influenced by high rates of dry deposition during winter months while south Greenland is influenced by high rates of summer wet deposition (Li & Flanner, 2018). Furthermore, differences in mean glacier size and cloud cover fraction between northern and southern Greenland have been shown to produce different snowmelt rates and surface energy fluxes given the same change in aerosol load (Ward et al., 2018). For these reasons, Greenland was divided into two continental regions for this study: north and south. The Greenland divide falls along 71.5° latitude, the median between Greenland's lowest latitude (60.0°) and highest latitude (83.0°). Similarly to Greenland, previous work has suggested that the East and West Antarctic ice sheets can be considered separately because BC deposition between ice sheets can be uncorrelated and each sheet has been observed to have different BC sources (Bisiaux et al., 2012; Stohl & Sodemann, 2010). However, after testing every possible binary regional division of Antarctic ice cores, the maximum mean PD/PI BC ratio difference was 0.1 (Figure S5). In this study Antarctica was therefore kept as a single continuous region for analysis (Figure 2).

To further understand how emission sources have changed, continental region ice core PD/PI BC ratios were compared to local upwind PD/PI BC emission ratios within their local region (Figure 2).

2.3 Climate Model Data

Three ESM ensembles were assembled for analysis: the sixth version of the Climate Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP6), the Large Ensemble Community Project version 1 (LENS), and a subset of CMIP6 simulations from the Community Earth System Model version 2 (CESM2). Data from the CMIP6 historical experiment were used because they provide model data from 1850 to 2014 and represents the most recent IPCC (AR6) assessment. The comparison of CMIP6 ESMs to ice core BC required first identifying those models that provided BC data; seven were identified consisting of CESM2 (Kay et al., 2015), CanESM5 (Swart et al., 2019), MIROC (Kawamiya et al., 2020), EC-Earth3 (Döscher et al., 2022), MRI (Yukimoto et al., 2019), CNRM (Roehrig et al., 2020), and IPSL (Boucher et al., 2020). In addition to contributing to CMIP6, the CESM2 (and sister ESM models based on it) were separately analyzed because they provided additional data on snow and atmospheric burden BC variables (termed soot_{sn} and load_{bc}, respectively). LENS is an



272 initial-condition perturbed ensemble of CESM2 simulations initialized with tiny differences in air
273 temperatures (Kay et al., 2015). There is no difference in the CESM2 model versions in any of the
274 LENS ensemble members, so the differences between each run only represent changes in
275 atmospheric transport induced from a perturbed initial condition. Despite only small initial
276 condition differences, some LENS ensemble members have been reported to produce unrealistic
277 temperature profiles (Kay et al., 2015); therefore, comparison of LENS data to ice cores is
278 undertaken with the full LENS ensemble dataset (i.e., no individual LENS ensemble member is
279 isolated for detailed analysis).

280 Within CMIP6 models, the wet and dry BC deposition variables were the most common,
281 and so deposition forms the main CMIP6 comparison variable under investigation. The only BC
282 indicator available in LENS was aged BC concentrations at the surface. As most ice cores are
283 located far from fire emission sources, we assume that the omission of hydrophobic (or freshly
284 emitted BC) data is minimal in the analysis of LENS data. In addition to comparing all models to
285 each other, 4 model variables within the CESM2 subset were also compared: BC in air column
286 (loadbc), BC in surface air (mmrbc), BC deposition (drybc-wetbc), and BC in snow (sootsn). A
287 complete list of individual models used and the ensembles, subsets, and comparisons they belong
288 to, can be found in Table S5.

289 The CMIP6 experiment used two emission datasets to prescribe the history of aerosol and
290 gas emissions from PI to PD: a biomass burning emission dataset (van Marle et al., 2017) and an
291 anthropogenic emission dataset (Hoesly et al., 2018). The biomass burning dataset was constructed
292 by combining post-1980 satellite-based estimates of fire emissions from the Global Fire Emissions
293 Database version 4s (GFED4s) with a pre-1980 reconstruction based on the charcoal record, World
294 Meteorological Organization (WMO) visibility observations in South America and Indonesia, and
295 the average of six fire models from the Fire Model Intercomparison Project (FireMIP) (Rabin et
296 al., 2017). The anthropogenic emission dataset was constructed by combining historical fuel use
297 and manufacturing data calibrated against existing emissions inventories, and was organized by
298 year, country, and sector.

299

300 **2.4 Comparison of the Pre-Industrial and Present Day**

301 The PD/PI BC ratio was calculated using a 25-year mean in each time period (Equation 1
302 and Figure S3). The data output from ESMs is organized into grid cells using cartesian coordinates
303 and so the PD/PI BC ratio was calculated using the grid cell coordinate that included an ice core's
304 latitude and longitude location. Emissions dataset PD/PI ratios were calculated using an emission
305 mean calculated across each square region as defined in Figure 2 (See Sections 2.2 and 2.5). To
306 represent BC in the surface air, only the surface level concentration was used from the vertically
307 distributed model data. No meaningful difference was found between these methods and
308 alternative grid box averaging or vertical level methods for the LENS ensemble (Tables S6 and
309 S7).

310



$$\frac{PD}{PI} = \frac{\overline{[BC]_{1955-1980}}}{\overline{[BC]_{1850-1875}}} = \frac{\frac{1}{25} \sum_{yr=1955}^{1980} [BC]_{yr}}{\frac{1}{25} \sum_{yr=1850}^{1875} [BC]_{yr}}$$

Equation 1. Definition of the PD/PI ratio where 25-year means are taken around the pre-industrial “PI” (1850-1875) and the present day “PD” (1965-1980). “[BC]” represents the black carbon (BC) analog under investigation (i.e., BC concentration, levoglucosan concentration, or various model BC variables).

To determine if ESM regional means are larger than ice core means globally, a paired T-test was used with “ice core mean > ESM mean” set as the alternative hypothesis. The T-test was reported as significant if the resulting P value was below 0.05 (Virtanen et al., 2020).

2.5 Comparing CMIP6 Biomass Burning vs. Anthropogenic BC Emission Sources

In CMIP6 biomass burning sources are defined as the sum of all natural and anthropogenic open burning fires, while anthropogenic combustion is defined as the sum of fossil fuel, industrial, commercial, and residential burning. All CMIP6 models are forced with biomass burning emissions from van Marle et al. (2017) and anthropogenic emissions from Hoesly et al. (2018). These two CMIP6 emission datasets are used here to compare the contribution of historical estimates of BC from biomass burning and anthropogenic activity to the total BC recorded in alpine ice cores. Data from each emission source (biomass burning or anthropogenic) were converted into PD/PI BC ratios (Equation 1). In many locations anthropogenic PI emissions were lower than $10^{-25} \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, skewing PD/PI ratios high with such a low dominator (Figure S6). To account for this, while preserving the temporal change in anthropogenic emissions, PI biomass burning emissions were added to both the PD and PI anthropogenic values in results labeled “Anthropogenic+BiomassBurning_{PI}” and subsequently compared to the sum of the two datasets labeled “Anthropogenic+BiomassBurning”.

3 Results and Discussion

After BC aerosol is emitted to the atmosphere, it undergoes three sequential processes that can result in its preservation in snow and ice layers: transport, deposition, and incorporation in snow and ice layers. Each of these processes is a potential source of disagreement between ESMs and ice core observations; the following results present investigations into each of them. We compare



342 PD/PI BC ratios from three different sources and to aid comprehension during comparison denote
343 them in the text herein as:

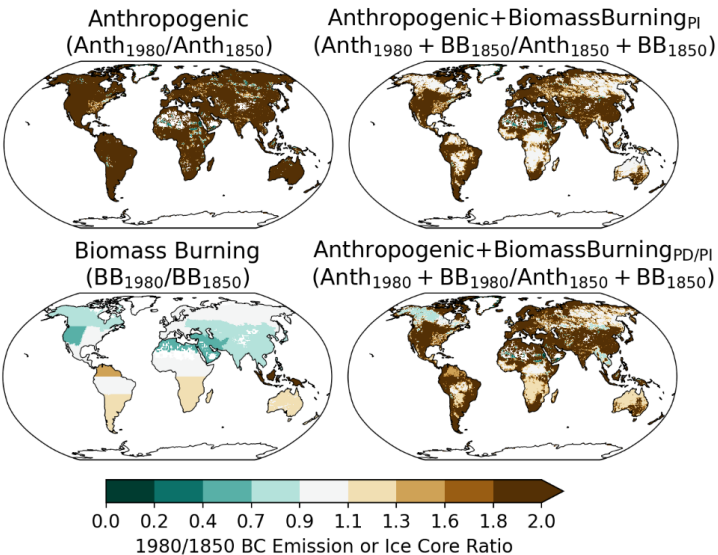
- 344 1. Ice cores: PD/PI_{ice}
345 2. BC emission datasets: PD/PI_{emiss}
346 3. Global climate / Earth System models: PD/PI_{ESM}

347

348 **3.1 Change in CMIP6 Biomass Burning vs. Anthropogenic emissions from 1850 CE to 1980**
349 **CE**

350 The contributions of CMIP6 emission datasets of anthropogenic, fire (defined as “biomass
351 burning” by CMIP6) and total PD/PI_{emiss} BC ratios were examined individually before
352 investigating simulated ESM BC variables. As to be expected, anthropogenic BC emissions have
353 globally high PD/PI_{emiss} ratios due to the large increases in anthropogenic activity producing BC
354 emissions occurring after 1850 CE (Figure 3). The mean PD/PI_{emiss} ratio in anthropogenic BC
355 emissions is greater than 100 in all six regions analyzed (Figure S7). In contrast, the PD/PI_{emiss}
356 ratio in biomass burning emissions is only greater than a factor of 2 within Equatorial Asia, falling
357 between 0.4 and 1.1 in the Northern Hemisphere and between 0.9 and 2.0 in the Southern
358 Hemisphere (Figure 3). To investigate whether anthropogenic PD/PI_{emiss} BC ratios were being
359 skewed by very low PI values between 1850 CE and 1875 CE, PI biomass burning BC emissions
360 were added to the anthropogenic PD and PI BC emission values individually (Figure 3). The
361 combined BC PD/PI_{emiss} ratio in fire affected regions, including high latitude forests, Central and
362 Southwest Africa, Australia, parts of the Amazon, and Southeast Asia, falls closer to 1 as a result.
363 However, within heavily industrialized, populated, or farmed regions the PD/PI_{emiss} ratio remains
364 greater than 2.

365



366



Figure 3. Changes in CMIP6 emission black carbon (BC) data (1980 CE /1850 CE ratios) from anthropogenic (Hoesly et al., 2018) and biomass burning (van Marle et al., 2017) sources (top left and bottom left, respectively), and two combinations of the datasets (bottom right, and top right, respectively). The equations used to calculate each emission dataset's ratio are given in parenthesis above each plot title. Biomass burning ratios all fall below 1.6 while most anthropogenic ratio values are above 2.

373

To evaluate how CMIP6 BC emission datasets, from biomass burning and anthropogenic combustion sources, compare with BC recorded in ice cores, PD/PI_{emiss} BC ratios were compared with the range of PD/PI_{ice} BC ratios measured from alpine ice cores due to their relative proximity to anthropogenic sources (Figure 4). We assume that changes in emissions of BC from both natural and anthropogenic sources within the vicinity of each alpine core region (Figure 2; local regions) are reasonably captured by the corresponding local ice core record. Although BC may at times be transported away from, rather than toward, the ice core site, we assume that averaging over a 25-year mean across all six sites captures the climatological signal. This comparison therefore serves as a first-order assessment of CMIP6 BC emission dataset performance, prior to the more detailed analyses presented in subsequent sections.

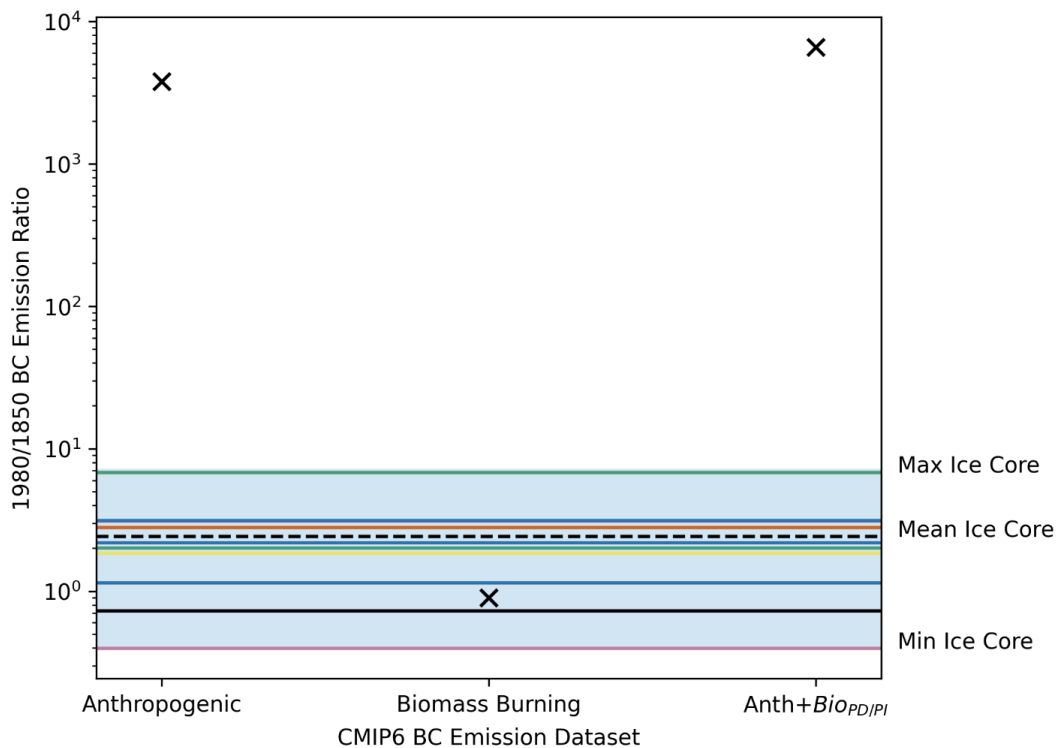
The anthropogenic BC emissions dataset, as well as the combined Anthropogenic+Biomass $_{PD/PI}$ BC emission dataset, both have a mean PD/PI_{emiss} BC ratio greater than 100 (Figures 4 and S7). Anthropogenic BC emission estimates can be expected to have a much lower uncertainty than biomass burning BC emission estimates because PI anthropogenic BC emissions are near zero and PD anthropogenic BC emissions are generally more well documented than historical emissions. One exception to this assumption is biofuel emissions, which were a non-zero BC emission source in the PI. Because the global human population was relatively low in the 19th century (Goldewijk, 2005), biofuel's contribution to uncertainty in Figure 4 is assumed to be small-to-negligible compared to the PD. For biomass burning emissions, PD emissions are expected to have a lower uncertainty than PI emissions because satellite data and other high spatial resolution datasets are more readily available to develop and benchmark emissions against (Chen et al., 2023).

The relatively more well constrained nature of PD/PI_{emiss} anthropogenic BC ratios and biomass burning PD emission values therefore suggests that PI biomass burning emissions are currently underestimated (Figure 4). This conclusion can be come to through the following stepwise analysis:

399



- 400 1. Anthropogenic BC emissions increase several orders of magnitude from the PI to the PD
401 in the emission inventories.
- 402 2. Biomass burning BC emissions change very little between the PI and PD, with a mean
403 ratio of ~0.9 across our examined regions.
- 404 3. Ice core PD/ PI_{ice} BC ratios, which reflect the combined influence of biomass burning
405 and anthropogenic sources, closely resemble the derived ratio from the biomass burning emission
406 dataset.
- 407 4. When taken together, the relatively small change in PI to PD biomass burning emissions
408 is insufficient to reconcile the total PD/ PI_{emiss} BC emission change with the measured PD/ PI_{ice}
409 ratio range from alpine ice cores. This implies that PI biomass burning emissions are highly likely
410 to be underestimated.
- 411



412 **Figure 4.** Comparison of CMIP6 anthropogenic and biomass burning black carbon (BC) emission
413 dataset present day (PD; 1980 CE) / pre-industrial (PI; 1850 CE) ratios relative to ice core PD/ PI_{ice}
414 BC ratios in the near vicinity. Each X represents the spatial mean of the CMIP6 modeled BC
415 PD/ PI_{ESM} emission ratio calculated across all the bounding boxes in the vicinity of an alpine ice
416 core region (Figure 2). Horizontal colored lines represent individual alpine ice core ratios with the
417 line's color matching the bounding box color in Figure 2. Light blue shading represents the
418 minimum to maximum range across all six examined alpine ice core regions.

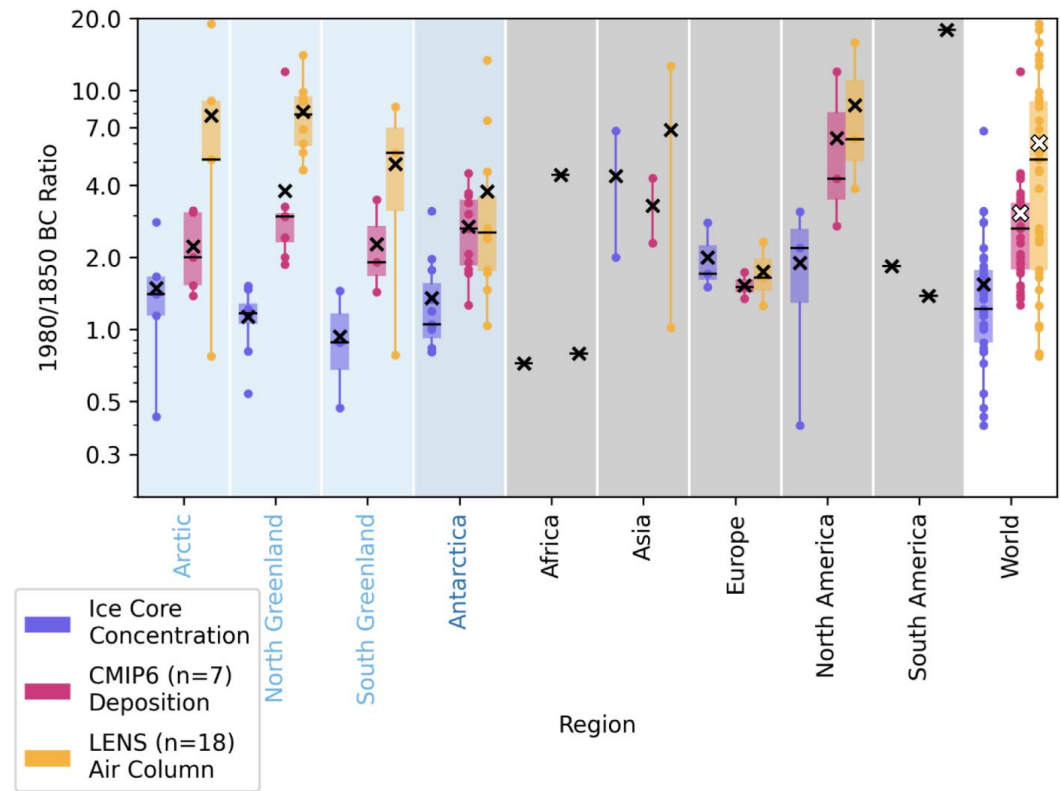
419



3.2 CMIP Models Overestimate PD/PI BC Ratios in Nearly Every Region of the World

The previous section investigated CMIP6 emission datasets and analysis herein shifts to simulated BC variables within ESMs. A comparison of BC ice core ratios to emission dataset ratios does not account for the aerosol transport and depositional processes that will alter the PD/PI_{ESM} ratios in downstream ESM variables. To understand if either transport or depositional processes alter the result found in the emissions datasets that PI fire emissions are too low, CMIP6 and LENS (CMIP5) modeled PD/PI_{ESM} BC deposition ratios were compared to ratios obtained from the ice cores, producing a clear result that both CMIP6 and LENS models overestimated the PD/PI_{ESM} BC ratio in nearly every region of the world (Figure 5).

Globally, the mean PD/PI_{ice} BC ratio across all ice cores is 1.55 while model ratios are significantly higher: CMIP6 PD/PI_{ESM} ratio = 3.08 and LENS PD/PI_{ESM} BC ratio = 5.80. Furthermore, CMIP6 medians and means in 30/37 ice cores analyzed are above the ice core inter quartile range, both CMIP6 and LENS’s modeled ratios at many ice core locations are above 3, and in many regions the lowest modeled ratio is higher than the highest ice core ratio. The difference between ESM results and ice core data is statistically significant at the global scale and supports the hypothesis that PI fire emissions are currently underestimated across CMIP experiments.





438

439 **Figure 5.** Modeled and observed pre-industrial / present day (1980 CE/1850 CE) black carbon
440 (BC) ratios across different regions of the world. The ice core ratio is based on measured BC
441 concentrations within each set of cores, the CMIP6 ratio is based on simulated BC deposition
442 fluxes from both natural and anthropogenic sources, and the LENS ratio is based on the simulated
443 BC column burden from both natural and anthropogenic sources. Each data point represents either
444 a measured ice core PD/PI_{ice} ratio or the modeled PD/PI_{ESM} ratio within the grid cell containing an
445 ice core's location. Medians, means, and data points are represented by black horizontal lines, X's,
446 and colored points, respectively. Whiskers extend to the farthest data point within 1.5 times the
447 inter-quartile range. Background bar colors denote if the region is in the Arctic, Antarctic, or
448 neither (light blue, dark blue, and grey, respectively). Regions with two data points show only the
449 two points connected by a line and their mean value. Regions with a single data point are
450 represented by a colored X and a black line. Global model mean X's are internally colored white
451 to highlight a statistically significant difference ($P < 0.05$) between model and ice core means.

452

453 In North Greenland, ice core BC ratios have a PD/PI_{ice} mean and median of 1.13 and 1.17,
454 respectively, and a narrow first to third quartile range of 1.06 to 1.28. CMIP6 and LENS have
455 much larger North Greenland PD/PI_{ESM} BC ratio medians of 2.96 and 7.94, respectively, resulting
456 in no modeled BC ratio falling within North Greenland ice core's first to third quartile range of
457 the ice cores or overall range (0.54 to 1.52). In South Greenland, ice core PD/PI_{ice} BC ratios have
458 slightly lower PD/PI mean and median ratios compared to their northern counterparts at 0.93 and
459 0.88, respectively, and a narrow first to third quartile range of 0.68 to 1.17. CMIP6 and LENS have
460 much larger mean and median PD/PI_{ESM} ratios at 4.93 and 5.48, respectively, resulting in only one
461 single modeled ratio in LENS falling within the ice cores first to third quartile range. Both ice core
462 and model data exhibit lower ratios in South Greenland compared to North Greenland. Greenland's
463 latitude-based differences in ice core PD/PI_{ice} ratios can be further seen in Figure S8 where PD/PI_{ice}
464 ratios have a weak correlation with latitude of $R^2 = 0.24$, agreeing with previous findings that a
465 latitude based difference in Greenland's BC aerosol deposition seasonality and sensitivity likely
466 exists (Li & Flanner, 2018; Ward et al., 2018).

467

468 In the Arctic, which consists of the 5 remaining ice core locations that are both above the
469 Arctic circle and outside of Greenland, PD/PI_{ice} ratios have a mean and median value of 1.49 and
470 1.41, respectively, a range from 0.43 to 2.82, and a first to third quartile range from 1.14 to 1.67.
471 Although not as inflated as Greenland, CMIP6 mean and median PD/PI_{ESM} ratios are once more
472 above ice core values at 2.23 and 2.00, respectively, with 2/5 CMIP6 ratios falling within the ice
473 core first to third quartile range. LENS displays a larger range in the Arctic than in any other
474 examined region with a min and max ratio of 0.77 and 19.02, respectively, representing a factor of
475 25 uncertainty across ensemble simulations. The large range observed in the Arctic represents the
476 potential for transport deviations created by tiny initial temperature differences (Section 3.4) rather
than any unique property of the Arctic (Figure S9).



477 Although Antarctica represents BC deposition from different Southern Hemisphere source
478 regions, the differences between ice core and model ratios are similar to those found in the Arctic
479 regions. Antarctic ice cores have PD/PI_{ice} ratio means and medians of 1.36 and 1.05, respectively,
480 and a first to third quartile range from 0.92 to 1.56, respectively. CMIP6 has one PD/PI_{ESM} ratio
481 within the ice core range, and a mean and median ratio of 2.70 and 2.64, respectively. LENS shows
482 2 PD/PI_{ESM} ratios within the Antarctic ice core range and 3.78 and 2.54 for its mean and median,
483 respectively. The general similarity in the ice core-model differences of Antarctica and the Arctic
484 regions suggests that there is a global fire emission bias.

485 Alpine ice core records are sparse with fewer sites per region compared to their polar
486 counterparts. Alpine ice cores show more varied ratios than at high latitudes. In Africa, where only
487 a single ice core record was available, the CMIP6 and LENS PD/PI_{ESM} ratio is 4.42, and 0.80,
488 respectively, compared to the ice core value of 0.72. Asia is one of two regions that show good
489 agreement between ice core and model ratios. Asian ratio means for CMIP6, LENS, and ice cores
490 are 3.29, 6.83, and 4.51, respectively (we do not calculate the ratio median in Asia because only
491 two ice cores are available). Europe is the second region with good agreement and means of 1.53,
492 1.74, and 2.0 for CMIP6, LENS, and ice core records, respectively. In North America, ice cores in
493 the region have a first to third quartile range of 1.29 to 2.65, while CMIP6 and LENS have median
494 values much higher at 6.31 and 8.67, respectively. In South America, the single ratio for the ice
495 core record, CMIP6, and LENS are 1.84, 1.39, and 17.93, respectively. Overall, the CMIP6 and
496 LENS in Europe and CMIP6 alone in South America are only regions where modeled medians are
497 lower than ice core values.

498 Changes in land use from the PI to PD can possibly help explain the range of alpine ice
499 core-model ratio differences. By 1850 CE, Europe had already experienced much of the land use
500 transition that was likely responsible for many of the high PI BC ice core values in other regions
501 (Kaplan et al., 2017). In contrast, extensive colonial land clearing in North America resulted in
502 increased combustion during the PI period (Ryan et al., 2013). The timing of European and North
503 American land use transitions suggests that the human modification of fire regimes is a key process
504 to include in reconstructing fire emission datasets.

505 Results in Figure 5 support previous findings, including that CMIP6 underestimated
506 historical fire emissions (Hamilton et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2021; Moseid et al., 2022; Zhang et al.,
507 2024), that there is a 1901 CE to 1978 CE decrease in fire (Guo et al., 2025), as well as a post-
508 1850 CE North American decline in fire found in inverse modeling studies (Eckhardt et al., 2023;
509 Guo et al., 2025).

510

511 **3.3 Comparison of Aerosol Concentration and Deposition PD/PI ratios**

512 When suspended in the atmosphere, BC has a residence time of between a few days to a
513 couple of weeks (Cape et al., 2012). During its atmospheric lifetime BC can be chemically
514 transformed, including transitioning from an initial hydrophobic phase to a hydrophilic one, and
515 transported long distances by several mechanisms such as low altitude transport, transport with
516 ascent at the Arctic front, or ascent at the emission source (Stohl, 2006). Ultimately, all BC aerosol



emitted to the atmosphere is deposited back to the Earth’s surface through either wet deposition, involving precipitation, or dry deposition, involving gravitational settling, Brownian motion, impaction, or interception (Seinfeld & Pandis, 2016). Uncertainty in BC concentrations therefore lies not only in the uncertainty of each of these post-emission aerosol processes (Browse et al., 2012), but also in how these processes may have changed over time, and ESM abilities to simulate them and their change.

To investigate how individual modeled aerosol processes relate to the discrepancy between modeled and observed ratios, a series of key aerosol process variables from the CESM2 (a subset of CMIP6) were investigated (Figure 6). CESM2 is used because it was the only CMIP6 model dataset that contained each of the 4 variables under investigation: (1) BC in air column (model variable name: loadbc); (2) BC in surface air (model variable name: mmrbc); (3) BC deposition (model variable names: drybc and wetbc); and (4) BC in snow (model variable name: sootsn). Their presented order in Figure 6 corresponds to how closely each variable is generally expected to physically represent BC measured within an ice core, where BC in the air column is the furthest and BC in snow is the closest to BC in an ice core (Table S8). It should be noted however that the CMIP6 variable “sootsn” (i.e., BC in snow) is defined as “soot_content_of_surface_snow” (van den Hurk et al., 2016) and so this variable does not directly correspond to measurements of ice core BC because firn densification processes can alter BC concentrations by up to three orders of magnitude between fresh snow and granulated ice (Kang et al., 2020; Schmitt et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2012). As densification rates depend on the rate of snow precipitation (Herron & Jr, 1980), BC ratios can further change because of differing PD and PI rates across regions (Zuo & Qian, 2022).

In general, median PD/PI_{ESM} CESM2 ratios from BC in the air column, BC deposition to snow, BC in surface air, and BC in snow are all more similar to each other than to the ice core ratio (Figure 6). Regional ice core PD/PI_{ice} ratio medians range from 1.05 to 1.93 and the corresponding values from model variables are 1.91 to 3.90. A complete list of medians is given in Table S8. Every model variable’s median PD/PI_{ESM} ratio in every region is above the ice core’s PD/PI_{ice} third quartile in the corresponding region. All variable means except BC in snow are significantly ($P < 0.05$) larger than ice core values in polar regions, and BC in air column is also significantly larger in alpine regions. BC in air column and BC in surface air show median ratios with each other’s first to third quartile range in the North Pole and South Pole, while BC deposition to snow and BC in surface air share that property in alpine regions. In the North Pole and South Pole, modelled variables show the same relative relationship where BC deposition to snow, BC in air column, BC in surface air, and BC in snow have decreasing ratio medians in that order. Figures S10 and S11 show ratios between modeled variables across the globe.

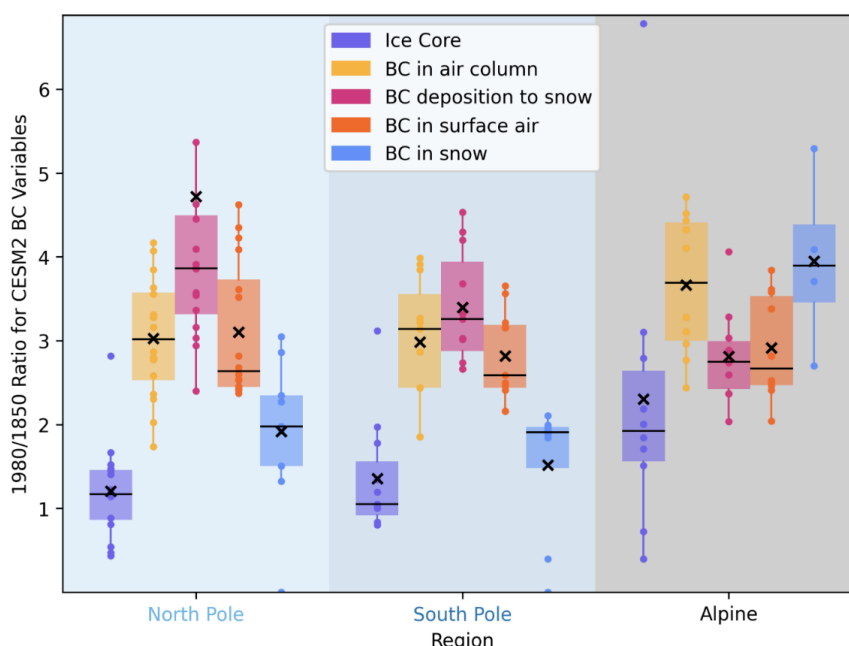
To date, previous studies have generally investigated the spatial-temporal variability associated with the magnitude of “in air” model variables separately from “in snow” model variables. The most representative variable to ice core BC in CMIP6 models could be argued to be sootsn, but the uncertainty in CMIP6 sootsn has only been evaluated by two studies. Chen et al. (2022) found that spatial-temporal patterns of CMIP6 sootsn agreed well with snow BC concentration observations from 1980 to 2014, with generally increasing trends over the study



period, although there were considerable disagreements between models (CESM2, CESM2-FV2, CESM2- WACCM, CESM2- WACCM-FV2, NorESM2-LM, NorESM2-MM, and TaiESM1), especially in Europe and Asia which showed standard deviations of 200 ng g^{-1} (corresponding to a relative standard deviation of 300%). Chen et al. (2024) found that CMIP5 and CMIP6 models struggled to reproduce inter decadal variability in global snow BC concentrations, especially in Antarctica where CMIP6 overestimated snow BC radiative forcing by 144%. The authors identified post-depositional snow processes as the primary sources of large-scale model errors, rather than other land components of models, which show good agreement with observations (Chen et al., 2024; Ma & Wang, 2024).

Although BC in snow is the only variable that is not significantly ($P < 0.05$) greater than ice core ratios, it is not as well evaluated as BC in the air column, and can contain downstream uncertainties from other processes such as meteorology (Zhang et al., 2022). Additionally, BC in snow is only available in model grid cells that have a substantial fraction of their landcover covered in snow, which is why the variable has fewer datapoints in all three regions shown in Figure 6. For these reasons, BC in snow may not actually represent a good agreement between ice cores and ESMs. These sources of uncertainty can explain some of the difference between soot_{sn} and the other model variables, but the persistent discrepancy between all four model variables and the ice core values in each of the hemispheric regions supports the proposition that the major bias lies in fire emission datasets rather than any physical process being modeled by an ESM.

576



577

578 **Figure 6.** Simulated PD/ PI_{ESM} black carbon (BC) variable ratios from CESM2 compared to
579 measured ice core BC PD/ PI_{ice} ratios. Each data point represents either an observed or modeled



PD/PI BC ratio at one ice core's location in one of three regions. Medians, means, and data points are represented by black horizontal lines, black Xs, and colored points respectively. The box represents the range from the first quartile to the third quartile, and the whiskers extend to the farthest data point within 1.5 times the inter-quartile range.

3.4 Influence of Transport on Modelled Deposition Ratios

An alternative explanation for the discrepancy between modeled and ice core BC ratios is that BC atmospheric transport pathways, from aerosol emission to deposition, over the Industrial era are significantly different from what is being simulated by ESM models. To explore the role of aerosol transport we used the LENS ensemble (Figure 7). LENS is an ensemble of CESM2 runs, identical in all respects except for a very small variation in the initial atmospheric temperature on the order of 10^{-14} K. These small perturbation to the initial condition results in variations in meteorology (Kay et al., 2015), and therefore in aerosol transport pathways. Combined, the 17 LENS ensemble members can then be used to describe the possible distribution of potential transport pathways and assess how differences in transport may affect PD/PI_{ESM} BC ratios.

We found that there was limited agreement between the LENS ensemble-mean BC ratio and the ice core BC ratio (Figure 7, top panel and third row). Only three of the 37 ice core locations fall within ± 0.25 (absolute ratio difference) of the ensemble-mean LENS values, underscoring the extent to which the ensemble mean fails to reproduce the spatial variability captured in the ice core record. Examination of individual ensemble members (fourth to last columns) shows that members #19 and #25 yield ratios most similar to the ice core values. However, even for these members, substantial discrepancies remain: 7/37 and 6/37 locations, respectively, exhibit BC ratios exceeding 9.0, well above the maximum observed ice core ratio of 6.8. Thus, even the ensemble members exhibiting the closest overall agreement systematically overestimate BC ratios at a significant fraction of sites. This behavior implies that discrepancies are unlikely to be resolved by either averaging across internal transport variability or identifying one single "optimal" transport ensemble member alone.

The symmetric bias factor (SBF) analysis reinforces this conclusion (Figure 7; bottom vertical bar). Across the LENS individual runs, only a limited fraction (18.2%) of site-ensemble comparisons fall within the low-bias category ($|\text{SBF}| \leq 0.5$, approximately within a factor of two). Conversely, a substantial proportion (70.3%) instead lies in the high ($|\text{SBF}| > 1$) bias category, indicating deviations exceeding a factor of three at least. Notably, high-bias cases are dominated by positive SBF values, consistent with the prevalence of ratios exceeding the observational upper bound.

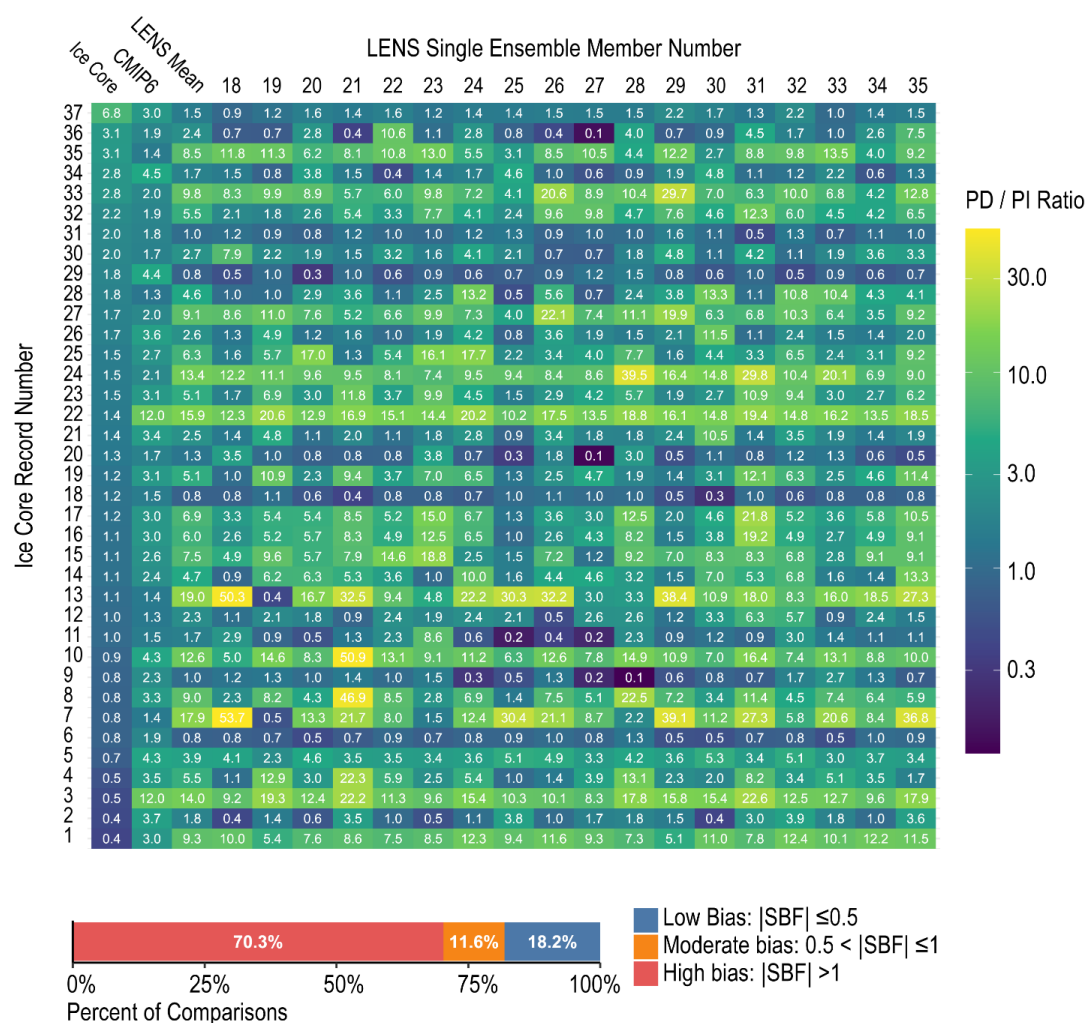
Taken together, the raw ratio comparisons and SBF distribution demonstrate that the mismatch is not confined to a few extreme outliers but rather reflects a systematic tendency toward elevated simulated PI to PD BC ratios across the LENS ensemble relative to the ice core record. The spread of the ensemble therefore appears to represent internal aerosol transport variability superimposed on an underlying structural bias, rather than variability centered on the observational constraint. In other words, while individual LENS ensemble members do occasionally approach



620 observational values at specific sites, the ensemble as a whole does not bracket the observational
621 constraint.

622

623



624

625 **Figure 7.** Heatmap comparing the pre-industrial (1850 CE) to present day (1980 CE) change in
626 black carbon between the 17 LENS transport scenarios investigated (18 through 35) and ice core
627 data (top; ice core data shown in the left most column with modeled data to the right). Also
628 included is the CMIP6 mean (Figure 5) and the LENS ensemble mean. Rows are sorted by ice core
629 indexes defined in Figure 1. Summary of bias between ice core observation (O) and 17 ensemble
630 models (M) (bottom). Bias categories are defined using an absolute symmetric bias factor ($|SBF|$)
631 metric: $|SBF| = |O/M - 1|$ (or the symmetric equivalent). $|SBF| \leq 0.5$ corresponds approximately to



agreement within a factor of two; $0.5 < |\text{SBF}| \leq 1$ corresponds to deviations between factors of two and three; $|\text{SBF}| > 1$ corresponds to deviations greater than approximately a factor of three.

634

635 **3.5 Defining the Pre-Industrial End Year**

636 Previous work has shown that altering the definition of what constitutes “the PI” changes
637 the probability of the world meeting goals like the Paris Climate accord. For example, the chance
638 of exceeding 1.5°C warming by 2100 varies between 61% to 88% when the amount of late
639 nineteenth century’s warming varies by 0.2°C (Schurer et al., 2017). However, the effect of choice
640 in what year is used to define the PI on fire emissions, and the related aerosol forcing baseline, has
641 yet to be explored.

642 The probability distributions in Figure 8 show that as the PI definition year increases from
643 1750 CE to 1900 CE the median PD/PI_{ice} BC ratio varies in response. Two trends become apparent
644 as the definition of PI year moves closer to the PD: (1) the relative probability distribution narrows,
645 indicating more constrained values; and (2) ratio values greater than 1 become more frequent for
646 pre-20th century definitions of the PI, confirming that fire regimes experienced large-scale changes
647 between 1750 CE and 1850 CE (Barker et al., 2021; Brugger et al., 2021; Chellman et al., 2017;
648 Knorr et al., 2014; Legrand & De Angelis, 1996; McConnell et al., 2007; Thevenon et al., 2009;
649 Whitehair et al., 2018; Whitlow et al., 1994; Zhang et al., 2024). As climate warming can be
650 assumed to be insignificant during this time, the change can be more readily attributed to land use
651 and land cover change than shifts in fire weather. One other important point to note is that when
652 using 1900 CE as the PI reference year the ratio peak shifts to become more similar to the 1750
653 CE distribution peak, likely due to an Industrial era BC increase in both biofuel and industrial
654 emissions in the early decades of the 20th century (Faïn et al., 2025; Guo et al., 2025; Hamilton et
655 al., 2018; Liu et al., 2021; Moseid et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2024). While not evident in the global
656 mean ice core analysis, the influence of such peaks varies regionally due to differences in the
657 timing of industrialization. For example, parts of Western Europe such as the United Kingdom
658 were already highly industrialized by around 1850 CE, whereas industrialization across much of
659 Asia occurred later within the 20th century, altering the timing and magnitude of BC increases
660 recorded in alpine ice core data (e.g. Kaspari et al., 2020).

661 Different definitions of the PI represent different BC (and other co-emitted species)
662 baselines for radiative forcing estimates. Although the exact definition of the PI does change ice
663 core PD/PI ratios, these changes are smaller than differences in simulated PD/PI_{ESM} ratios (Figure
664 5) and thus do not alter the overall conclusion that PI fire emissions are underrepresented in current
665 CMIP emission datasets.

666

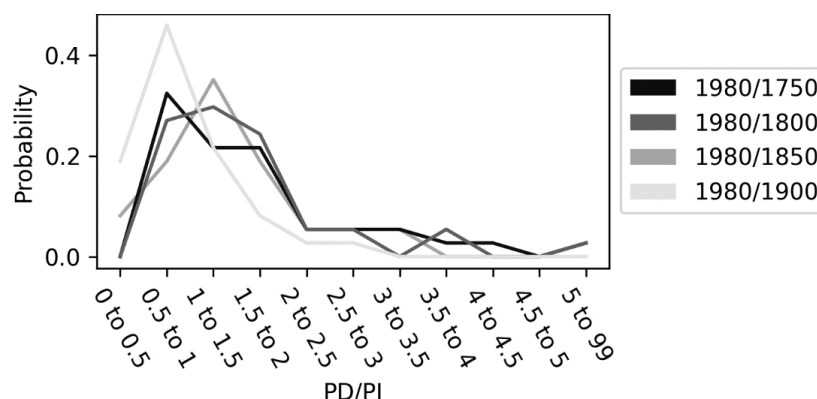


Figure 8. Differences in the distributions of ice core PD/PI_{ice} ratios based on the definition of the PI year.

4 Improving Fire Emission Reconstructions

For models to better reproduce the PI to PD change in BC observed in ice cores, the major processes involved in moving BC aerosol from emission source to final deposition location need to be understood at a higher level of detail than present. Here we highlight three sources of uncertainty to be reduced that can improve the simulation of fire BC (and other co-emitted aerosol) over the historical period: (1) aerosol properties; (2) deposition processes; and (3) post-deposition processes.

The main conclusion of this work is that the sources of global BC, namely fire compared to industrial combustion, have changed significantly from the PI to the PD. In the case of fire this change is a reduction from the PI to the PD, a trend that is counter to current and past CMIP emission datasets. In addition to changing the aerosol burden, the physicochemical properties of BC have likely also changed over the Industrial Era. How such changes to aerosol properties then propagate to variations in aerosol transport and deposition location, over time, remains relatively unknown. Several physicochemical properties of aerosol, including particle size, hygroscopicity, optical properties, and chemical makeup, can depend on the source of the aerosol (Blanco-Donado et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022). A shift in aerosol properties can then alter aerosol transport distance (Seinfeld & Pandis, 2016). For example, in the Community Atmosphere Model version 6 (CAM6)'s Modal Aerosol Module (MAM4) BC aging has been suggested to be too fast when compared to experimental results, resulting in overestimates of surface BC concentration in some regions, and conversely, underestimates in others (Shen et al., 2023). If BC aerosol ages quickly, and precipitates out nearer to source, it may not reach higher latitudes (Browse et al., 2012). The question would then be if the hygroscopicity or the aging rate of BC has changed over time, and how such changes may alter results presented here if not adequately captured by models.

Deposition, where aerosol settles out of the air back to the surface, either through wet or dry deposition processes, is a key uncertainty in climate modelling. Dry deposition describes four processes (gravitational settling, impaction, interception, and Brownian motion) as opposed to the precipitation based scavenging processes that define wet deposition (Liu et al., 2020; Seinfeld &



Pandis, 2016). Climate models parameterize these processes to make them computationally efficient, with the exact parameterization evolving over time. However, aerosol deposition measurements are challenging to acquire, especially on the spatial and temporal scales needed for ESM parameterization constraints (Farmer et al., 2021). This can lead to potential overestimates in the deposition of accumulation and Aitken mode particles and/or underestimates of coarse mode deposition (Emerson et al., 2020). Changing deposition rates also affects atmospheric aerosol lifetimes, with the most pronounced effects often simulated in remote polar regions (Vignati et al., 2010a).

When BC aerosol deposition occurs over a glaciated region, BC deposited on the seasonal snowpack or on glacier surfaces can undergo post-depositional processes. During this transition, melting, sublimation, and the re-freezing of ice can all lead to vertical redistribution of BC particles relative to the surrounding ice pack (Ginot et al., 2001; Liou et al., 2011; Schwarz et al., 2013). Multiple studies have found that surface snow melt and runoff can increase the concentration of hydrophilic BC particles at the surface of ice cores and at the bottom of the snowpack (Doherty et al., 2013; Ginot et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2012). Under high BC concentrations, migration to the bottom of the snowpack dominates (Conway et al., 1996). Post-depositional processes can alter BC concentrations within melt seasons by between a factor of 5 to 10 (Doherty et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2012). However, even when significant post-depositional processes occur, temporal trends in ice core BC timeseries remain primarily driven by source emission changes because vertical migration is largely limited to the uppermost layers of snow (Osmont et al., 2018). Despite the body of literature investigating post-depositional processes, no CMIP6 ESM includes any post-depositional processes for BC deposited to snow. Current analytical methodology used to measure BC concentrations cannot differentiate differences in the physical properties of BC particles that may give insight into their source type (McConnell et al., 2007). To help overcome this, some studies have used alternative or additional methodologies to help identify the sources of BC in ice core records. Jenk et al. (2006) analyzed samples from an alpine ice core using radiometric techniques to quantify the relative amount of anthropogenic and biomass burning Elemental Carbon (EC) and organic carbon (OC). They found that the fraction of anthropogenic EC and OC grew significantly from 1870 CE to 1980 CE, with unexpectedly high anthropogenic fractions of pre-1850 EC values consistently near 50% and attributed to contributions from mineral dust. Wang et al. (2025) used radiocarbon analysis of a Himalayan ice core and found that the anthropogenic fraction of BC has decreased slightly from 76 to 70% from 1990 to 2012, while the biomass burning fraction was highly correlated with South Asian fires. Despite the existence of viable techniques, as shown in these two studies, these additional source characterization steps are rare, making a global analysis of trends challenging.

5 Conclusions

We compared 36 ice core records of BC and 1 record of levoglucosan, covering all continents except Oceania, to ESM model simulations of BC at ice core locations. We found that the PI to PD BC ratio simulated by ESMs, using either the CMIP5 or the CMIP6 BC emission inventories,



were overestimated compared to ice cores. Globally, simulations of BC change are significantly ($P < 0.05$) larger than ice core measurements. Regionally, the multi-model mean PI to PD BC ratio was found to be outside of the inter-quartile range of the corresponding ice core PI to PD BC ratio in three quarters of polar regions (3 out of 4) and two-thirds of continental regions (6 out of 9). We explored three sources of possible model-observation discrepancy: emission, transport, and aerosol processes, finding that an underestimate of PI fire emissions in CMIP emission inventories to be the primary reason for model-observation discrepancies.

Our results call for continued efforts to reevaluate fire emission data, especially given the importance of aerosol for future radiative forcing estimates within CMIP or related activities such as AerChemMIP. To aid this initiative we present four areas of potential future development:

1. Continued reevaluation of pre-industrial to present-day fire emission inventories, including multiple paleoenvironmental archives (e.g., ice cores, tree rings, charcoal, speleothems).
2. Inclusion of post-depositional aerosol processes in cryosphere components of future ESM development.
3. The constraint of fire models with ice core (and ideally other records of burning) data in coupled ESM simulations.
4. Further develop, and expand the use of, methodology that can identify anthropogenic vs. biomass burning BC aerosol in ice core records (e.g., Jenk et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2025).

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Author Contributions

CS, KC, DSH designed the study. NK, CB, EB, PG, RZ, LT and SK provided data. NLB and DSH analyzed data. NLB and DSH drafted the manuscript which was then developed and edited by all authors. NLB developed all Figs except Figure 7 developed by DSH.

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773 All data used in this study are publicly available. Table S3 lists all ice core publications. Table S9
774 incorporates all data used in the publication.

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