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Uncertainty in aerosol radiative forcing impacts the simulated global monsoon in the 20th century

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Key Points:

- The impacts of the uncertainty in present-day aerosol radiative forcing on global monsoon rainfall are tested using historical simulations.
- Uncertainty in aerosol radiative forcing results in a difference of 2–3% in global monsoon area and intensity since 1950.
- Uncertainty in aerosol forcing translates to uncertainty in the sign of trends in global monsoon area and intensity between 1950 and 1980.

19 **Abstract**

20 Anthropogenic aerosols are dominant drivers of historical monsoon rainfall change. However,
21 large uncertainties in the radiative forcing associated with anthropogenic aerosol emissions, and
22 the dynamical response to this forcing, lead to uncertainty in the simulated monsoon response.
23 We use historical simulations in which aerosol emissions are scaled by factors from 0.2 to 1.5 to
24 explore the monsoon sensitivity to aerosol forcing uncertainty (-0.3 W m^{-2} to -1.6 W m^{-2}).
25 Hemispheric asymmetry in emissions generates a strong relationship between scaling factor and
26 both hemispheric temperature contrast and meridional location of tropical rainfall. Increasing the
27 scaling from 0.2 to 1.5 reduces the global monsoon area by 3% and the global monsoon intensity
28 by 2% over 1950–2014, and changes the dominant influence on the 1950–1980 monsoon rainfall
29 trend from greenhouse gas to aerosol. Regionally, aerosol scaling has a pronounced effect on
30 Northern Hemisphere monsoon rainfall.

31

32 **Plain Language Summary**

33 Greenhouse gas (GHG) and human-induced aerosol emissions have opposing effects on global
34 monsoons, which supply water to billions of people: GHGs strengthen them; aerosols weaken
35 them. This competition has been important in recent decades due to large aerosol emissions and
36 will continue to be important in future until aerosol emissions are reduced.

37 Unfortunately, the effect of aerosols on global climate is very uncertain, leading to a range of
38 temperature and rainfall patterns in model simulations of the last few decades and casting doubt
39 on the magnitude of future climate change. Here, we investigate the effect of this uncertainty on
40 monsoon rainfall using model simulations of the 20th century in which human-induced aerosol
41 emissions are scaled by various factors, the range of which spans uncertainty in present-day
42 aerosol radiative effect.

43 The uncertainty in the effects of human-induced aerosol emissions on global monsoon rainfall is
44 profound. At its weakest, the impact of aerosol is overpowered by GHG and monsoon rainfall
45 increases in the late 20th century. At its strongest, aerosol dominates over GHG, leading to
46 reduced monsoon rainfall, particularly from 1950–1980. Our work emphasises the urgent need to
47 reduce uncertainty in aerosol radiative effects to increase our confidence in future climate
48 projections.

49

50 **1 Background**

51 Monsoon systems provide rainfall for billions of people, many of whom are dependent on the
52 monsoon rains for survival. It is therefore important to understand the effects of climate change
53 on the global monsoon, both in the past and future. Projections show a future increase in global
54 monsoon area, rainfall amount and rainfall intensity (Hsu et al., 2012, 2013). In contrast, studies
55 have reported a decline in global monsoon rainfall in the latter half of the 20th century (Hsu et
56 al., 2011; Wang & Ding, 2006; Zhou et al., 2008). The decline is generally stronger in Northern
57 Hemisphere (NH) monsoons (Zhou et al., 2008).

58

59 Bollasina et al. (2011), Polson et al. (2014), Salzmann et al. (2014) and Guo et al. (2015) have all
60 shown that increasing emissions of anthropogenic aerosols (AA) and their precursors have

61 played an important part in driving regional and global monsoon rainfall decrease during the
62 mid-20th century. A key factor is the hemispheric asymmetry in AA emissions. In contrast to the
63 global warming effect of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, AA emissions have a more regional
64 impact and induce cooling, primarily in the NH, giving them a strong control on hemispheric
65 temperature gradients (e.g., Wilcox et al., 2013). Changes to the hemispheric contrast in
66 temperature have been shown to have profound effects on the climate system (Haywood et al.,
67 2016; Stephens et al., 2016), including the strength of the Hadley circulation (Friedman et al.,
68 2013) and location of the intertropical convergence zone (ITCZ; Broccoli et al., 2006; Voigt et
69 al., 2017), both important elements of the monsoon systems. A weakening of the Hadley
70 circulation was reported to be associated with the mid-20th-century reduction in monsoon
71 rainfall (Guo et al., 2015; Polson et al., 2014), while a southward shift of the ITCZ was also
72 identified (Allen et al., 2015; Hwang et al., 2013).

73
74 The observed reduction of Asian monsoon rainfall during the mid-20th century has been mainly
75 attributed to the weakening Hadley circulation (Bollasina et al., 2011) and a reduction of
76 available water vapour (Salzmann et al., 2014). However, local effects are also important:
77 localised AA-induced cooling can oppose GHG-induced warming effects (Ramanathan et al.,
78 2005; Ramanathan & Feng, 2009), leading to a slackening of temperature contrasts between land
79 and sea via various mechanisms, resulting in weaker monsoon circulation (Lau & Kim, 2017).
80 Remote aerosol emissions can also play a part in the changing monsoons – both Cowan and Cai
81 (2011) and Dong et al. (2016) have shown that aerosols emitted remotely (outside the Asian
82 region) can have similar magnitude impacts on the Asian summer monsoon to those emitted
83 locally (albeit via different mechanisms).

84
85 In short, the impact of AA emissions on the global monsoon is a complex combination of local,
86 remote and hemispheric effects, compounded by the heterogeneous distribution of emissions
87 across the NH. In addition, there is also uncertainty in the total radiative effect of AA in the
88 present day. According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, present day top-of-
89 atmosphere aerosol effective radiative forcing is -0.9 W m^{-2} , with a 5%-to-95% confidence
90 interval spanning -1.9 W m^{-2} to -0.1 W m^{-2} (Myhre et al., 2013). Future reductions in AA
91 emissions have the potential to cause increases in global precipitation comparable to those
92 resulting from moderate GHG increases (Rotstayn et al., 2013), with the largest increases
93 anticipated over East and South Asia (Levy et al., 2013; Westervelt et al., 2015). Rotstayn et al.
94 (2013) found the magnitude of future precipitation increase to be correlated with historical
95 effective radiative forcing. Uncertainty in the magnitude of aerosol forcing, and the monsoon
96 response to it, is compounded in climate projections, where potential aerosol emission pathways
97 are diverse. In the Asian region in particular, there is great variety in future emission trends
98 across the Shared Socio-Economic Pathways (Samset et al., 2019).

99
100 In this study, we quantify the effects of the uncertainty in aerosol radiative forcing on the global
101 monsoon system using a set of simulations produced as part of the SMURPHS (“Securing
102 Multidisciplinary Understanding and Prediction of Hiatus and Surge Events”) project (Dittus et
103 al., 2019). The SMURPHS ensemble consists of a set of historical climate simulations with AA
104 emissions scaled by various factors, allowing us for the first time to investigate the sensitivity of
105 the climate system to the strength of the forcing in a single climate model without structural or
106 parametric uncertainty arising from the use of single-forcing simulations from a multi-model

107 ensemble (such as the AA-only simulations from CMIP5; Taylor et al., 2012). We introduce the
108 ensemble and experimental design in more detail in Section 2. The effect of the aerosol scaling
109 in terms of temperature contrasts across hemispheres, and between land and sea, is examined in
110 Section 3. Section 4 presents the effects of scaling on standard metrics of the global and regional
111 monsoons. We summarise and conclude in Section 5.

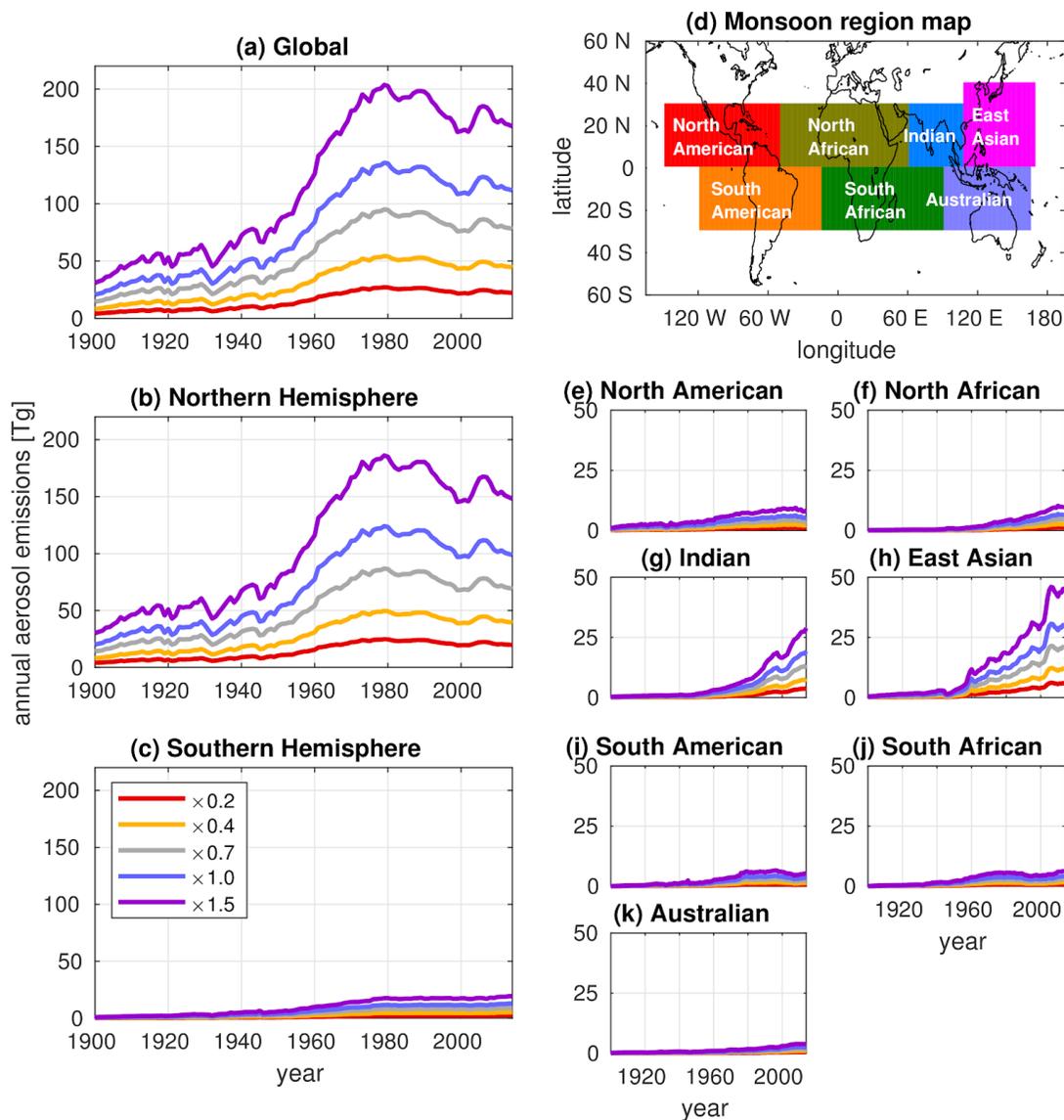
112 **2 SMURPHS ensemble and aerosol emission data**

113 The SMURPHS dataset consists of historical climate simulations run over the period 1850–2014
114 using a fully coupled version of HadGEM3-GC3.1 at resolutions of N96 and 1° in the
115 atmosphere and ocean respectively (Kuhlbrot et al., 2018; Williams et al., 2018). The model
116 version used here is a development version towards the UK submission to CMIP6 (Dittus et al.,
117 2019; Hardiman et al., 2019). Four ensemble members are run for each of five experiments in
118 which the historical aerosol emissions are scaled by a constant factor. This factor is applied to
119 emissions of all species of anthropogenic aerosol and precursors, and at all locations throughout
120 the historical emissions dataset. Five scaling factors were selected: $\times 0.2$, $\times 0.4$, $\times 0.7$, $\times 1.0$ and
121 $\times 1.5$, with the $\times 1.0$ scaling corresponding to the standard CMIP6 historical protocol. The scaling
122 factors have been chosen to span the range of uncertainty in present-day aerosol radiative forcing
123 according to Myhre et al. (2013), with the $\times 0.2$ scaling corresponding to a forcing of
124 -0.35 W m^{-2} and the $\times 1.5$ scaling corresponding to a forcing of -1.6 W m^{-2} . More detail on the
125 SMURPHS ensemble is presented by Dittus et al. (2019).

126
127 The SMURPHS simulations use the same aerosol emission dataset as CMIP6 (Hoesly et al.,
128 2018), which contains emissions data from 1750–2014 for sulphur dioxide, black carbon and
129 organic carbon. Emissions from 1900 onwards are shown in Figure 1. In the early 20th century,
130 emissions increase gradually, but then ramp up from 1950 to 1980. Since 1980, emission
131 mitigation efforts in North America and Europe have been balanced by continued increases in
132 Asia, causing global emissions to level off. The hemispheric asymmetry in AA emissions is
133 clear, with the NH contributing approximately 90% of the global total throughout the 20th
134 century (Figures 1b, 1c). Most monsoon regions show a gradual increase in emissions in the 20th
135 century, with pronounced increases since 1970 in the Indian and East Asian sectors (Figures 1g,
136 1h).

137
138 In this study, we use all four members from each of the five experiments, but include years from
139 1900 onwards, to allow 50 years for the model to adjust to the scalings (after Dittus et al., 2019).
140 When considering climatological quantities, we consider the ensemble mean for each experiment
141 to be the model estimate of the climate system under those scaling conditions and indicate
142 uncertainty across ensemble members in terms of inter-member standard deviation. Where
143 quantities are averaged over areas, a cosine-based latitude weighting is applied.

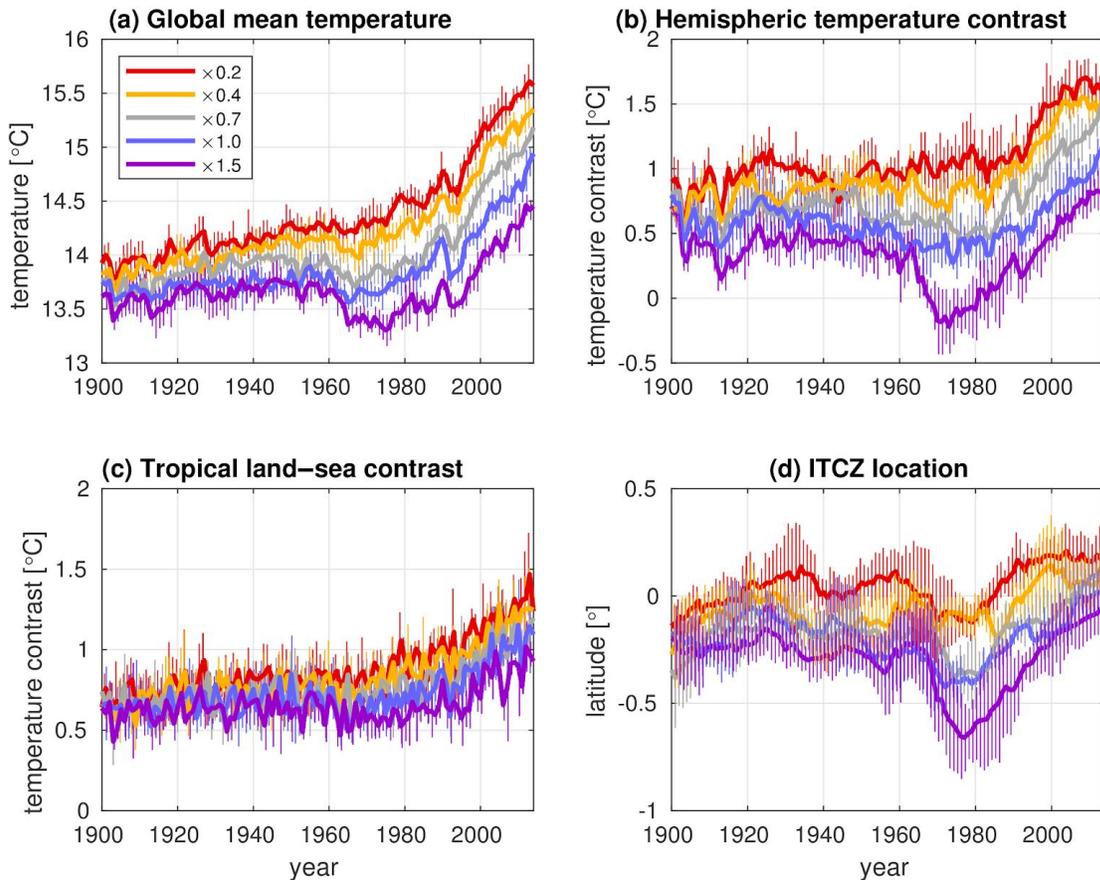
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 146 **Figure 1.** Sulphur dioxide emissions used in SMURPHS on (a) global, (b, c) hemispheric and (e–k)
 147 regional scales, in Tg yr⁻¹. Organic and black carbon emissions are scaled in the same way. Monsoon
 148 regions are as defined in panel (d).

149 3 Temperatures and contrasts

150 The effect of AA on global mean temperature is clear (Figure 2a). Higher aerosol scalings lead to
 151 cooler global temperatures, and by the 1970–2014 period there is little overlap in global
 152 temperature between scalings. We also see evidence of the control by AA emissions on the mid-
 153 20th-century hiatus (the period 1950–1980), in agreement with the findings of Wilcox et al.
 154 (2013) and Jones et al. (2013). The higher scalings lead to a stronger hiatus; the lower scalings
 155 lead to a much weaker hiatus. In the ×0.2 experiment, a hiatus is barely discernible. These results
 156 echo those of Dittus et al. (2019).



157
 158 **Figure 2.** Time series of various atmospheric properties from the SMURPHS simulations: (a) global
 159 mean surface air temperature; (b) hemispheric temperature contrast (NH minus SH); (c) tropical land–sea
 160 temperature contrast, calculated in the summer months (November–March in SH, May–September in NH)
 161 for latitudes within 30° S and 30° N only; (d) global mean ITCZ location, calculated following **Shonk et**
 162 **al. (2018)**. All values are ensemble means; vertical error bars indicate one standard deviation across the
 163 four ensemble members.

164

165 The hemispheric asymmetry of AA emissions leads to a much greater degree of cooling in the
 166 NH, so the strength of the forcing has a control on the hemispheric temperature contrast (HTC),
 167 defined NH minus SH (Chang et al., 2011; Wilcox et al., 2013). Lower scalings reduce the
 168 degree of NH cooling and therefore increase the HTC (Figure 2b). The NH is, on average,
 169 warmer than the southern hemisphere (SH; for example, Kang et al., 2015) although, under the
 170 highest scaling ($\times 1.5$), the HTC reverses in sign during the 1970s and 1980s.

171

172 This shift in HTC is reflected in the location of the ITCZ. We calculate ITCZ location using the
 173 method of Shonk et al. (2018), the ITCZ at a given longitude being defined as the latitude
 174 centroid of the region of rainfall that exceeds 50% of the maximum value at that longitude. The
 175 ITCZ location presented here (Figure 2d) is the zonal mean value (note that the general location
 176 of the ITCZ south of the equator is caused by the inclusion of the Southern Pacific and Atlantic
 177 Convergence Zones). Lower scalings, associated with a warmer NH and stronger HTC, lead to
 178 an ITCZ location that is further north, consistent with Hwang et al. (2013), Allen et al. (2015)
 179 and Chung and Soden (2017).

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Table 1. Mean monsoon-related properties, as defined in Sections 3 and 4, averaged over the period 1950 to 2014 (during which global aerosol emissions increased), and all four ensemble members. The difference column is the change from $\times 0.2$ (lowest scaling) to $\times 1.5$ (highest scaling), expressed as a percentage where indicated.

	$\times 0.2$	$\times 0.4$	$\times 0.7$	$\times 1.0$	$\times 1.5$	Difference
Global mean temperature [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	14.65	14.45	14.18	13.99	13.71	-0.94
Hemispheric temperature contrast [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	1.19	1.03	0.78	0.58	0.29	-0.91
ITCZ location (latitude) [$^{\circ}$]	0.07	-0.03	-0.16	-0.23	-0.34	-0.40
Tropical land-sea contrast [$^{\circ}\text{C}$]	0.98	0.91	0.82	0.77	0.68	-0.30
GMA [Mm^2]	126.7	126.0	125.0	124.5	122.8	-3.04%
HMA (NH) [Mm^2]	66.7	66.0	65.5	65.0	63.9	-4.23%
HMA (SH) [Mm^2]	60.0	59.9	59.5	59.6	59.0	-1.72%
GMI [mm d^{-1}]	7.77	7.74	7.68	7.66	7.61	-2.01%
HMI (NH) [mm d^{-1}]	7.69	7.65	7.56	7.54	7.48	-2.78%
HMI (SH) [mm d^{-1}]	7.86	7.84	7.81	7.78	7.76	-1.24%

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Monsoon strength is also influenced by changes in the land-sea temperature contrast (LSTC), both on regional (Lau & Kim, 2017) and global (Fasullo, 2012) scales. While weaker than the effect on HTC, there is a degree of control of the aerosol scaling on the LSTC, albeit with a larger overlap between ensemble members (Figure 2c). Higher scalings result in cooler land surfaces with respect to the surrounding oceans, hence the LSTC is reduced, and the monsoon is weakened.

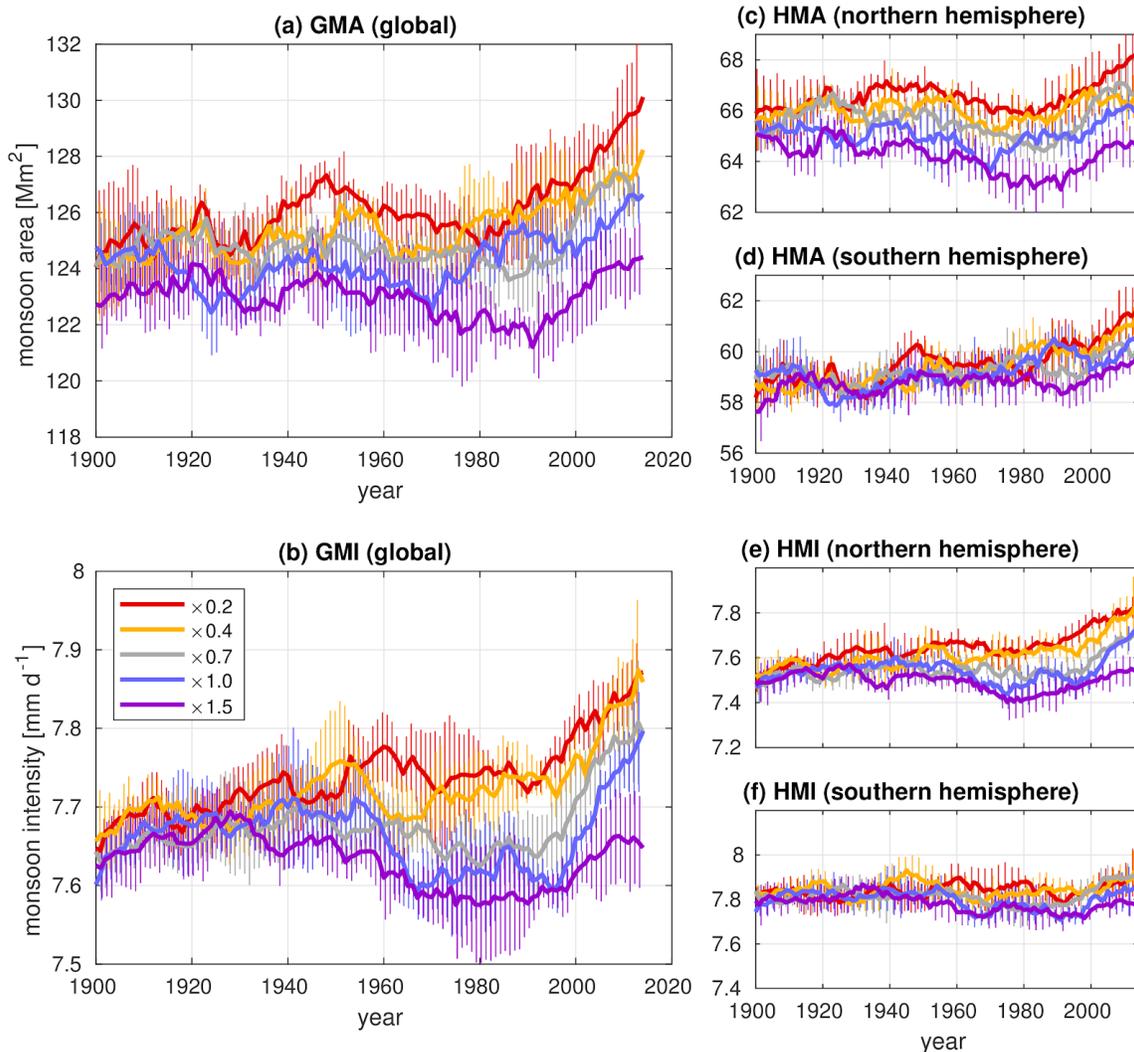
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The control of the aerosol forcing on the properties presented in this section is demonstrated quantitatively in the top section of Table 1 in terms of means over the 1950–2014 period, when most changes in anthropogenic aerosol have occurred. All properties vary monotonically and roughly linearly across the range of scalings used in SMURPHS, with higher scalings resulting in a cooler global temperature, a weaker HTC, an ITCZ situated further south, and a weaker LSTC. The impact of the uncertainty in present-day forcing on these properties is presented in the rightmost column of Table 1 as the differences between the lowest and highest scalings ($\times 1.5$ minus $\times 0.2$). Changing the forcing from lowest to highest value lowers global temperature by nearly 1°C and reduces the HTC from 1.19°C to 0.29°C . The zonal-mean ITCZ location shifts southwards by 0.40° of latitude, and the LSTC reduces by just over 30%, from 0.95°C to 0.65°C .

208 4 Monsoon area and rainfall

209 We evaluate the effects of aerosol scaling on the monsoon via Global Monsoon Area (GMA) and
 210 Global Monsoon Intensity (GMI). These properties are defined following Liu et al. (2009), Hsu
 211 et al. (2011) and others: a gridbox is within the GMA if the difference in summer and winter
 212 rainfall (May to September and November to March, depending on hemisphere) is greater than
 213 2 mm d^{-1} , and more than 55% of the rain falls in the summer months. The total GMA is
 214 calculated as the sum of the area of all gridboxes within the GMA region. GMI is then calculated
 215 as the total rainfall within the GMA, divided by the area of the GMA. We also define
 216 hemispheric equivalents (HMA and HMI) – these are the GMA and GMI calculated separately
 217 for each hemisphere.

218



219 **Figure 3.** Time series of (a) global monsoon area (GMA) and (b) global monsoon intensity (GMI) for
 220 each experiment. Panels (c, d) and (e, f) show the hemispheric equivalents (HMA and HMI) for NH and
 221 SH. The ensemble mean is shown, with an 11-year running mean applied. The vertical error bars indicate
 222 the standard deviation across the four members. GMA is in Mm^2 , where $1 \text{ Mm}^2 = 1 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$.
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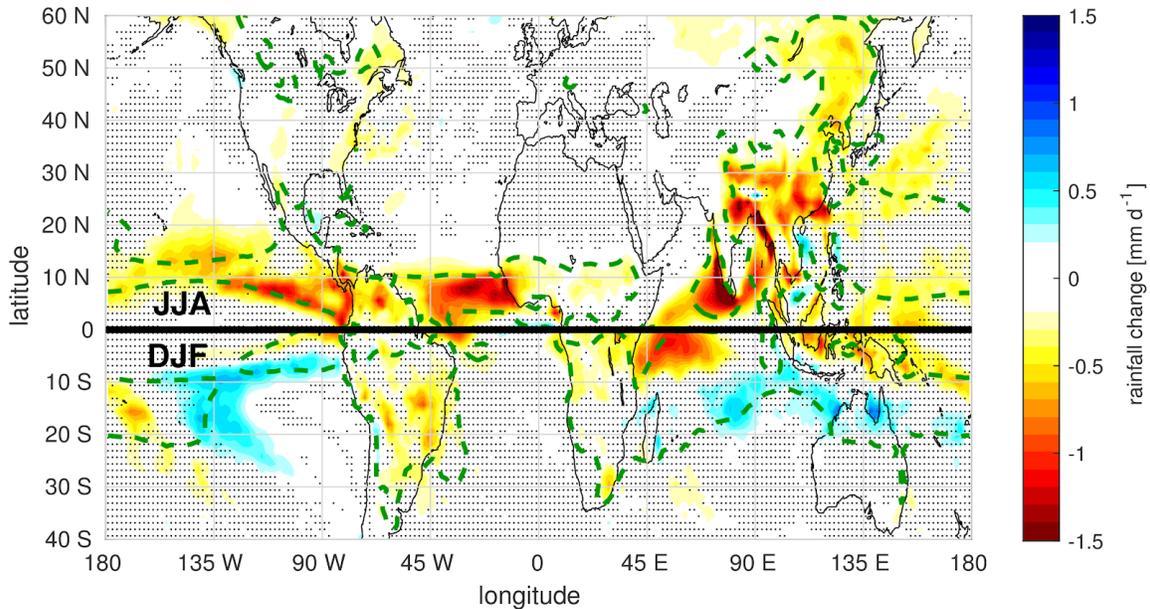
225 Both GMA and GMI show a dependence on AA forcing (Figures 3a, 3b), with a higher scaling
 226 leading to a reduction of both intensity and area. This is consistent with the effects of the scaling

227 on global temperature, HTC and LSTC, which are also reduced at higher scalings. This
 228 dependence is clearest in GMI from 1950–1980: during this period, higher scalings produce a
 229 greater weakening of the GMI than lower scalings. This suggests a switch between GHGs and
 230 AAs dominating the influence on the monsoon from 1950–1980 across the range of uncertainty
 231 in aerosol forcing. The dependence is also clear in GMA, although the timing, duration, and
 232 strength of the GMA reduction after 1950 vary across scalings. This is most likely associated
 233 with natural variability across the four ensemble members.

234

235 Despite this variability, the effect of the scalings on GMA and GMI when averaged over 1950–
 236 2014 is also monotonic and roughly linear with scaling factor across the experiments (Table 1).
 237 The effect of the uncertainty in aerosol radiative forcing on GMA and GMI is a reduction of
 238 3.0% and 2.0% respectively, when increasing the scaling across its range. For context, Hsu et al.
 239 (2013) found that 1 °C of warming in CMIP5 models resulted in multi-model mean increases of
 240 1.9% and 1.3% in GMA and GMI (see their Figure 5). The sensitivities identified here are higher
 241 (about 3.3% and 2.1% per °C), although lie well within the range of sensitivities presented by
 242 Hsu et al. (2013).

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245 **Figure 4.** The difference in monsoon rainfall (in mm d^{-1}) across the range of the scaling factors ($\times 1.5$
 246 minus $\times 0.2$). The summer months are shown in each hemisphere (June–August in the NH, December–
 247 February in the SH); the thick black line marks the equator. Averaged over the period 1950–2014, and
 248 across all ensemble members. The green dotted line indicates the mean GMA in the $\times 1.0$ experiment.
 249 Spots indicate regions where the rainfall difference is insignificant with respect to variability across years
 250 and members.

251

252 The effects of aerosol scaling on both GMA and GMI are dominated by the NH, with a weak
 253 dependence on the scaling found in the SH (Figures 3c–3f). The effect of uncertainty in aerosol
 254 radiative forcing has substantial effects on the rainfall in the regional monsoons (Figure 4), with
 255 the greatest rainfall changes in the NH monsoons. The North American and North African
 256 monsoon experience a marked reduction, while the decrease in the Asian monsoon is even
 257 greater (consistent with the much larger aerosol emissions originating there; see Figures 1g, 1h).

258 The effect of the scaling on the SH monsoons, in contrast, is much more variable, reflecting the
259 much smaller aerosol forcing there. The effect of the aerosol forcing uncertainty on HMA and
260 HMI from 1950 onwards in the NH is more than twice that in the SH (Table 1).
261

262 **5 Summary and conclusions**

263 The observed reduction in global monsoon area and intensity since 1950 has been widely
264 attributed to a rapid increase in emissions of anthropogenic aerosols and their precursors. The
265 cooling associated with these emissions is concentrated in the Northern Hemisphere, and
266 opposes the warming effect of greenhouse gases and reduces the temperature contrast between
267 hemispheres and between land and sea. This has been shown to weaken the monsoon
268 circulations, resulting in a reduction of monsoon rainfall. Understanding the interplay between
269 aerosol forcing and monsoon properties in past simulations is important in order to constrain
270 future monsoon projections, where anthropogenic aerosol reductions are likely to strengthen the
271 monsoon, in addition to the strengthening anticipated in response to further increases in
272 greenhouse gases.
273

274 We explored the sensitivity of the global monsoon to uncertainty in aerosol radiative forcing
275 using an ensemble of historical simulations in which anthropogenic aerosol and precursor
276 emissions from 1850–2014 are scaled by factors ranging from $\times 0.2$ to $\times 1.5$ (corresponding to a
277 present-day aerosol effective radiative forcing range of -0.35 W m^{-2} to -1.6 W m^{-2}). When
278 averaged over 1950–2014, increasing the scaling factor across this range results in a $0.94 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$
279 cooling of global temperature, a 75% reduction in hemispheric temperature contrast, a 30%
280 reduction in land–sea temperature contrast, and a southward shift of the ITCZ by 0.4° of latitude.
281 The global monsoon area is reduced by 3% and the intensity of the rainfall within this region is
282 reduced by 2%. Regionally, much of the reduction in monsoon area and intensity arises in the
283 Northern Hemisphere monsoons, particularly the Asian sector, where emission changes are
284 greatest.
285

286 Long-term monsoon variability since 1950 has very different characteristics across the scaling
287 factors. In the $\times 1.5$ experiment, an overall negative trend in monsoon rainfall intensity is found,
288 dominated by strong aerosol forcing; in the $\times 0.2$ experiment, greenhouse gases are able to
289 dominate and monsoon intensity increases. Reducing uncertainty in the radiative forcing
290 associated with anthropogenic aerosol would provide more reliable estimates of the future
291 evolution of global and regional monsoons as anthropogenic aerosol and precursor emissions
292 decline.
293

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302 The data are currently being archived at the UK Centre for Environmental Data Analysis and
 303 will be available by the publication date. All authors declare that they have no conflicts of
 304 interest.

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