



1 **A model study of the pollution effects of the first three**
2 **months of the Holuhraun volcanic fissure**

3

4 **B. M. Steensen¹ and M. Schulz¹ and N. Theys² and H. Fagerli¹**

5 [1]{Norwegian Meteorological Institute, Postbox 43 Blindern, 0313 Oslo, Norway }

6 [2]{Belgian Institute for Space Aeronomy, Ringlaan-3-Avenue Circulaire, B-1180 Brussels,
7 Belgium }

8 Correspondence to: B. M. Steensen (birthems@met.no)

9

10 **Abstract**

11 The volcanic fissure at Holuhraun, Iceland started at the end of August 2014 and continued
12 for six months to the end of February 2015. Lava floated onto the Holuhraun plain associated
13 with large SO₂ emissions. In this paper we present results from EMEP/MSC-W model
14 simulations where we added 750 kg/s SO₂ emissions at the Holuhraun plain from September
15 to November. The emission amounted to approximately 4.5 times the daily anthropogenic
16 SO₂ emitted from the 28 European Union countries, Norway, Switzerland and Iceland. Model
17 results are compared to satellite observations and European surface measurements. The
18 dispersion but also the ambiguity of the satellite data, due to what is assumed in the retrieval
19 as a priori SO₂ profile, is further explored with model sensitivity runs using different emission
20 height distributions from the volcano. Satellite-comparable adjusted model vertical column
21 densities are calculated for the different sensitivity runs where the SO₂ mixing ratios from
22 different vertical layers are weighted with the averaging kernel. The results show the
23 importance of using the averaging kernel when comparing the model to satellite column
24 loads, the maximum column densities over 10 DU in the original model data are reduced by
25 around 50 % due to the weighting. For most days the satellite retrievals have higher mass
26 burdens values than the adjusted model when summed up over the North Atlantic area. The
27 discrepancies are explained by the unrealistic constant emission term in the model
28 simulations, and because the area used for the summation is dependent on the satellite data
29 detection limit, and the correct position of the model SO₂ plume. Surface observations in



1 Europe showed peak type increases of SO₂ concentrations from volcanic plumes passing by
2 and lasting only for a short time. Three well identified episodes are documented for more
3 detail. For all the events the timing of the observed concentration peaks compared to the
4 model quite well. For the first episode presented, the model concentrations are only about
5 10% to 40% of the observed concentrations. The transport of SO₂ to Europe during this event
6 is found to contribute to very high measured and modelled concentrations at the stations. For
7 the later plumes, the observed and model concentrations at the stations compare better in
8 magnitude. The overall changes in the European SO₂ budget due to the volcanic fissure are
9 estimated. SO_x three monthly wet deposition in the 28 European Union countries, Norway
10 and Switzerland is found to be more than 30 % higher in the control model simulation with
11 Holuhraun emission compared to a model simulation with no Holuhraun emission. The
12 biggest increases, apart from Iceland, are found on the coast of Northern Norway, a region
13 with frequent precipitation during westerly winds. The total deposition levels in this region
14 become equal to the most polluted regions over Europe and the average model deposition for
15 Norway is doubled the level it was back in 1990. For SO₂ and PM_{2.5} concentrations, there is
16 only a ten and six percent increase over Europe between the two model simulations,
17 respectively. Although the percent increase of PM_{2.5} concentration is highest over
18 Scandinavia and Scotland, an increase in PM exceedance days is found over Ireland and the
19 Benelux region. Especially the Benelux region is already very polluted, so that a small
20 increase in pollution leads to an increase in exceedances days. Although there was a large
21 increase in total daily emission of SO₂ over Europe due to the eruption, Iceland is located too
22 far away to make a large impact on average pollution levels in the European countries, except
23 in Iceland itself.

24

25 **1 Introduction**

26 Increased seismic activity in the Bárðarbunga volcano was recorded by the Icelandic Met
27 Office from the middle of August 2014 (<http://en.vedur.is/earthquakes-and-volcanism/volcanic-eruptions/holuhraun/>). The activity continued in the volcano but some
28 tremors appeared also towards the Holuhraun plain, a large lava field north of the Vatnajökull
29 ice cap, the latter covering the Bárðarbunga and Grimsvötn volcano. On August 31 a
30 continuous eruption started at Holuhraun with large amounts of lava pouring onto the plain
31 and large amounts of sulphur dioxide (SO₂) emitted into the atmosphere (Sigmundsson et al.
32



1 2015). Thordarson and Hartley (2015) estimated SO₂ emissions from the magma at
2 Holuhraun to be around 30 kt/d to 120 kt/d over the first three months of the eruption, with a
3 maximum during the first two weeks of September. Schmidt et al. (2015) also found that
4 among several model simulations with different emission fluxes, the model simulations with
5 the largest emission (120 kt/d) compared best with satellite observations at the beginning of
6 September. In comparison, Kuenen et al. (2009) estimated the daily anthropogenic emission
7 from the 28 European Union countries for 2009 to be 13.9 kt/d, while the 2013 estimate is 9.8
8 kt/d (EMEP, 2015). The eruption ended in February 2015 and during the 6 months of eruption
9 a total of approximately 11 (± 5) Tg SO₂ may have been released (Gislason et al. 2015). It is
10 of interest to investigate the impact of these volcanic emissions on current SO₂ levels in
11 Europe. In the last decades, measures have been taken to reduce SO₂ emissions, triggered by
12 the Convention on Long-range Transboundary Air Pollution (LRTAP), in Europe. Significant
13 reductions of 75% in emission between 1980 and 2010 are confirmed by observations
14 (Torseth et al., 2012). The impact of volcanic eruptions with SO₂ emissions can thus perturb
15 the European atmospheric sulphur budget to a larger extent than before and potentially lead to
16 new acidification of lakes and soils if the eruption would last over a long time period.

17 For comparison, the big 1783 Icelandic Laki eruption lasted eight months and released a total
18 amount of estimated 120 Tg of SO₂ over eight months. The resulting sulphuric acid caused a
19 haze observed in many countries of the northern hemisphere and increased mortality in
20 Northern Europe (Grattan et al., 2003, Thordarson and Self, 2003, Schmidt et al., 2011). The
21 fissure at Holuhraun was much weaker than the Laki fissure, both in terms of amount of SO₂
22 released and probably also the height of the eruptive column. Thordarson and Self (1993)
23 estimated that the Laki erupted at emission heights up to 15 km, while the observations of the
24 Holuhraun eruptive cloud saw the plume rising up to 4.5 km (vedur.is). Ground level
25 concentrations exceeded the Icelandic hourly average health limit of 350 µg/m³ over large
26 parts of Iceland (Gislason et al. 2015). The World Health Organization (WHO) has a 10
27 minute limit of 500 µg/m³ and a 24-hour limit of 20 µg/m³. High hourly mean surface
28 concentrations of SO₂ were measured in Ireland (524.2 µg/m³), but then also in Austria (247.0
29 µg/m³) and Finland (180 µg/m³) (Schmidt et al. 2015, Ialango et al. 2015).

30 A climate impact of high SO₂ emissions may be suspected, such as a cooling of climate due to
31 an increase in aerosol loadings. Gettelman et al. (2015) using a global climate model found a
32 small increase in cloud albedo due to the Holuhraun emissions resulting in -0.21 Wm⁻²



1 difference in radiative flux on the top of the atmosphere. If the event had happened earlier in
2 the summer a larger radiative effect could be expected (-7.4 Wm^{-2}). Understanding the
3 atmospheric sulphur budget associated to such events is thus of great interest also for climate
4 science. The Holuhraun eruption can also serve as a prototype to study ash transport from an
5 Icelandic volcano. Unlike the two previous big eruptions in Iceland, Eyjafjallajökull in 2010
6 and Grímsvötn in 2011, this eruption did not emit ash that disrupted air traffic. However,
7 uncertainties in source estimates, time varying emissions from a point source, dependence of
8 transport on initial injection height, transport and removal processes from Iceland to Europe
9 are similar problems for SO_2 and ash plumes. Despite Moxnes et al. (2014) showing that SO_2
10 and ash can have different eruption heights, proven capability of modelling the transport of a
11 SO_2 plume can be useful for judging future eruption scenarios where ash can cause a problem.

12 This study will focus on simulated air quality effects and the perturbed sulphur budget due to
13 the volcanic SO_2 emissions during the first three months, the first two covered also by satellite
14 observations. Several stations in Europe reported high concentrations of SO_2 during this time
15 and case studies are chosen to evaluate simulated plume development over Europe. The
16 transport is modelled with the EMEP/MSC-W chemical transport model, one of the important
17 models used for air quality policy support in Europe during the last 30 years (Simpson et al.
18 2012). Both station and satellite data are compared to model results to understand the
19 amplitude and magnitude of the sulphur budget perturbation. A big uncertainty for any
20 volcanic eruption modelling is the emission term, both with respect to height and magnitude
21 of the plume. The impact of the height distribution of the emissions is studied through
22 sensitivity simulations. Finally the perturbed European sulphur budget, as simulated by the
23 EMEP/MSC-W model, is documented and discussed.

24

25 **2 Methods**

26 **2.1 Model description**

27 The model simulations of the transport of the SO_2 Holuhraun emissions are done with the 3-D
28 Eulerian chemical transport model developed at the Meteorological Synthesizing Centre-West
29 (MSC-W) for the European Monitoring and Evaluation Programme (EMEP). The
30 EMEP/MSC-W model is described in Simpson et al. (2012). Sulphate production from SO_2 in
31 both gas phase and aqueous phase are accounted for. The dry deposition in the model is



1 parameterized for different land types. Both in-cloud and sub-cloud scavenging are
2 considered for wet deposition.

3 The simulations use the EMEP-MACC (Monitoring Atmospheric Composition and Climate)
4 model configuration. The horizontal resolution of the model simulations is 0.25° (longitude) x
5 0.125° (latitude). There are 20 vertical layers up to about 100 hPa, with the lowest layer
6 around 90 meters thick. The model is driven by meteorology from the European Centre of
7 Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) in the MACC model domain (30° west to 45°
8 east and 30° to 76° north). Iceland is in the upper northwestern corner of the domain, which
9 implies losses of sulphur from the regional budget terms in sustained southerly and easterly
10 flow regimes. The meteorology fields used have been accumulated in the course of running
11 the MACC regional model ensemble forecast of chemical weather over Europe (<http://macc-raq-op.meteo.fr>), of which the EMEP/MS-CW model is part of. For our hindcast type
12 simulations here, only the fields from the first day of each forecast are used. The meteorology
13 is available with a three hourly interval. All model simulations are run from September
14 through November 2014.

16 Emission from the Holuhraun fissure is set to a constant 750 kg/s SO_2 (65 kt/d) for the entire
17 simulation. For all model runs the anthropogenic emissions are as standard for our EMEP
18 MACC model configuration. Table 1 shows an overview of the four different model runs that
19 are used in this study. For the control run called ctrl_hol, volcanic emissions at Holuhraun are
20 distributed equally from the ground up to a 3 km emission column height. To test the
21 sensitivity towards emission height, two additional model simulations are done, low_hol and
22 high_hol. To derive the impact purely due to the emissions from Holuhraun, a simulation with
23 no Holuhraun fissure emissions is used, called no_hol.

24 Anthropogenic SO_2 emissions in the model are described in Kuenen et al. (2014). There is a
25 yearly total SO_2 emission of 13.2 Tg/a corresponding to 2009 conditions, the same year that is
26 used in the reference MACC model configuration. The difference to actual 2014 conditions is
27 assumed to be unimportant here. The inventory includes 2.34 Tg/a SO_2 in yearly ship
28 emissions over the oceans. Over the continents the yearly emissions are 5.08 Tg/a SO_2 for the
29 28 EU countries, and 5.53 Tg/a SO_2 for the non-EU countries in the MACC domain
30 (including Iceland) covered by the MACC domain.



1 2.2 Observations

2 The satellite data used in this study stem from the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI)
3 aboard NASA AURA (Levelt et al., 2006). The satellite was launched in July 2004 as part of
4 the A-train earth observing satellite configuration and follows a sun-synchronous polar orbit.
5 The OMI measures backscattered sunlight from the Earth atmosphere with a spectrometer
6 covering UV and visible wavelength ranges. Measurements are therefore only available
7 during daytime. The background SO₂ concentrations are often too low to be observable, but
8 increases in SO₂ from volcanic eruptions can produce well distinguishable absorption effects
9 (Brenot et al. 2014). Pixel size varies between 13 km x 24 km at nadir and 13 km x 128 km at
10 the edge of the swath. OMI satellite data are affected by “row anomalies” due to a blockage
11 affecting the nadir viewing part of the sensor, which affects particular viewing angles and
12 reduces the data coverage. The zoom-mode of OMI reduces the coverage on some days. The
13 coverage is also reduced by missing daylight, e.g. winter observations from high latitudes are
14 absent. Therefore data from only the two first months from September until the end of
15 October are used in this study.

16 The retrievals are described in Theys et al. (2015). The sensitivity of backscatter radiation to
17 SO₂ molecules varies with altitude (generally decreasing towards the ground level) and
18 therefore the algorithms use an assumed height distribution for estimating the integrated SO₂
19 column density. Since often little information is available at the time of eruption and the
20 retrievals produce results daily (even for days with no eruption) an assumed a priori profile is
21 used for the vertical SO₂ distribution. The satellite retrievals used here assume an a priori
22 profile with a plume thickness of 1 km that is centred at 7 km, similar to the method described
23 in Yang et al. (2007). This may be too high for the Bardarbunga eruption, since our
24 simulations indicate that the plume was often situated much lower in the troposphere.
25 Retrieved SO₂ column densities may thus be too low. To compare the vertical column density
26 (VCD) from the model to the one from satellite retrievals, the averaging kernel from the
27 satellite has to be used. Each element of an averaging kernel vector defines the relative weight
28 of the true partial column value in a given layer to the retrieved vertical column (Rodgers
29 2000). Cloud cover also changes the averaging kernel and a spatio-temporally changing
30 kernel is part of the satellite data product (an averaging kernel is provided for each satellite
31 pixel).



1 To apply the averaging kernel on model data, the satellite data are regridded to the model grid
2 so that those data from satellite pixels nearest to any given model grid point are used for that
3 grid point. A smaller area than the whole model domain was chosen to study and compare to
4 the satellite data, 30° west to 15° east and 45° to 70° north (red boxes in Figure 1). The Aura
5 satellite does five overpasses over the domain during daytime, swaths are partly overlapping
6 in the northern regions. For the grid cells where the swaths overlap, the satellite observations
7 are averaged to produce daily average fields. There are also regions that are not covered by
8 satellite observation that will not be taken into account in the model data postprocessing. To
9 make comparable daily averages of the model data, the closest hour in the hourly model
10 output are matched to the satellite swath time and only grid points that are covered by satellite
11 are used. The profiles for the averaging kernel in the satellite product are given on 60 levels,
12 the values from these levels are interpolated to model vertical levels. The new adjusted model
13 VCD is then calculated by multiplying the interpolated averaging kernel weights to the SO₂
14 concentration in each model layer, integrating all layers with the height of each model layer.

15 Because of noise in the satellite data small retrieved VCD values are highly uncertain. A
16 threshold limit is sought to identify those regions that have a significant amount of SO₂.
17 Standard deviation for the satellite data is calculated over an apparently SO₂ free North
18 Atlantic region (size 10 x 15 degrees lat lon respectively), and is found to be around 0.13 DU.
19 Effects of varying cloud cover are ignored. An instrument detection limit is three times the
20 standard deviation of a blank, so we assume that with a threshold value set to 0.4 DU we
21 exclude satellite data below detection limit. Any grid point with a value over this threshold in
22 the satellite data is used along with the corresponding model data. Daily mass burdens for the
23 North Atlantic region are calculated by summing up all the SO₂ VCD in the grid cells above
24 the threshold. One DU is $2.69 \cdot 10^{20}$ molecules per square metre, which corresponds to a
25 column loading of 28.62 milligrams SO₂ per square meter (mg/m²).

26 Station data of SO₂ surface concentrations are collected by the European Environment
27 Agency (EEA) through the European Environment Information and Observation Network
28 (EIONET). We make use of two preliminary subsets of this data, one obtained from work
29 within the MACC project to produce regular air quality forecasts and reanalysis, and a second
30 one obtained from EEA as so called up-to-date (UTD) air quality data base, state spring 2015.
31 The two different subsets cover observation data from different countries, and have not yet
32 been finally quality assured at the time of writing this paper. We use only station data, which



1 contain hourly data, however there are missing data and some stations have instruments with
2 high detection limits making it difficult to create a continuous measurement series with good
3 statistics. Therefore, in this study some outstanding episodes with high concentrations of SO₂
4 are analysed. Model data are picked consistently from gridded hourly data at model surface
5 level.

6 **3 Results**

7 **3.1 Comparison to satellite data**

8 Observations by satellite provide information about SO₂ location and column density.
9 Figure 1a shows as an example the VCD from the OMI satellite overpasses on 24 September,
10 Fig. 1b and Fig. 1c show the modelled and the adjusted VCD from the control run (hol_ctrl).
11 The observed satellite SO₂ cloud and the model simulated SO₂ cloud show similar shape and
12 location. The adjusted model column densities are smaller than the original model VCDs.
13 More weight is given by the averaging kernel to model layers higher up, close to the reference
14 height of 7km, where there is less SO₂ in our case, with emissions and transport happening in
15 the lower part of the troposphere. The reduced column densities are more comparable to the
16 column densities observed by the satellite, there are however some differences of where the
17 maximum column densities are located.

18 A quantitative comparison is attempted here by integrating all satellite - and corresponding
19 model data - above the North Atlantic, between Iceland and Europe, into daily mean column
20 loads. Figure 2 shows time series from September to October of daily satellite coverage and
21 daily mass burdens considered over the area where satellite VCD values exceed the 0.4 DU
22 detection limit as explained above. The area covered by satellite observations at the beginning
23 of the period is around 70 percent of the domain used here (red boxes in Fig. 1). Towards the
24 end of the period, the satellite coverage is only around 40 percent because of the increasing
25 solar zenith angle (a satellite zenith angle cutoff of 75° is used for the satellite data). On some
26 days, the satellite cover is even lower because of the OMI zoom mode. The percentage of the
27 satellite data that is above the detection limit is low over the entire two month period, only
28 reaching around ten percent at the end of September and at the beginning of October.

29 On most days, the satellite daily mass burdens are above the model value, not including the
30 days where the zoom mode minimizes the coverage. The average mass burden adjusted to the
31 7 km reference height for satellite data are 11.17 kt SO₂ for satellite and 8.72 kt SO₂ for the



1 model. The highest values are at the beginning of the period, decreasing over time, for both
2 observed and model mass burdens. Especially during October the values are declining. At the
3 same time the satellite coverage is decreasing. To further investigate whether the increasing
4 solar zenith angle is responsible for the increasing bias of the simulated versus observed
5 VCDs, a new domain further south is used. All that area where satellite observations may be
6 possible until the end of October (61.25° north) is used to calculate another set of daily
7 column loads for satellite and model data (see Fig. 2c). Satellite coverage in this southerly
8 domain is not decreasing over time, but it is also not covering Iceland, so the SO_2 from
9 Holuhraun needs to be transported south to be detected. The plume is transported south four
10 times over the two-month period as the peaks in column load values show. In this southerly
11 area the daily accumulated mass burdens are similar in September and in October, supporting
12 the idea that the decrease in mass burden in Fig. 2b is due to reduced satellite coverage.
13 Taking into the account the area in which the satellite observed SO_2 above detection limit, the
14 satellite average column loads are calculated as around 70 mg/m^2 for the start of the period
15 and on 19 September, model values are lower. Also the peaks in the middle of October in
16 Figure 2b have a satellite average column value at 62 mg/m^2 .

17 Percentile values from the distribution of the daily mass burden in September and October
18 2014 from all the three model simulations, original and kernel weighted are shown in Fig. 3.
19 The kernel weighted model data can be directly compared to the percentile characterisation of
20 the satellite data. As illustrated in Fig. 1, there is a clear decrease in the column load values
21 before and after the averaging kernel is applied, because the SO_2 plume was found much
22 below 7 km altitude. The differences between the three model simulations however change
23 before and after the satellite kernel is applied. For the original model data, the model
24 simulation with emissions in the lowest kilometre (low_hol) has the highest daily mass
25 burden values, while the run with the emission highest in the atmosphere (high_hol) exhibits a
26 lower mass burden than the two other. The higher values in the low_hol simulation can be
27 explained by less wind and dispersion at low altitudes and thus a more concentrated SO_2
28 cloud than in the two other model simulations. After the averaging kernel is applied to the
29 model data, the high_hol model simulation has the highest daily values compared to the other
30 two model simulations. High values in satellite data, and model data with kernel profiles
31 applied reflect high concentrations and/or volcanic SO_2 at high altitudes.



1 Comparing the satellite data to the kernel weighted model data; the satellite 75th percentile is
2 higher than the model 75th percentile. The median for the ctrl_hol, low_hol and high_hol daily
3 mass burden are 7.38 kt, 4.43 kt and 8.34 kt respectively, for satellite the mass burden median
4 value is 7.03 kt. The satellite data therefore have higher maximum values that results in the
5 higher average values and the 75th percentile, most of the satellite daily mass burden values
6 are however around the model data for the ctrl_run. From all the model simulations, with
7 different emission heights, the ctrl_run is the most similar to the satellite data.

8 **3.2 Surface concentrations**

9 SO₂ from the volcanic eruption on Hólhúraun was measured at several surface stations during
10 the period. Three different episodes with clear peaks in observed concentrations at stations
11 around Europe are described in the following paragraphs. Exemplary comparisons are shown
12 and additional comparisons at other stations are available in the supplementary material.

13 Figure 4 shows hourly time series for two stations over Great Britain and France from 20
14 September to 26 September. On 21 September 16 UTC, high SO₂ concentrations were
15 measured at the station in Great Britain. The station is situated in Manchester near the west
16 coast of Britain. None of the three model simulations exhibits exactly the same values as
17 observed. Although the model simulations do not reach the observed maximum values, the
18 model field shows areas south of the station nearby Manchester, where the SO₂ concentrations
19 only due to the volcanic eruption are around 50 µg/m³. Interestingly, the agreement of the
20 model derived volcanic SO₂ time series is better in agreement with measurements than the
21 total simulated SO₂ concentration (grey curve), indicating that the model may not resolve
22 transport from nearby pollution sources and that the station for these days is rather
23 representative of long range transported SO₂. The next day, the plume has moved further
24 south over France. The French station is situated on the west coast of France in Saint-Nazaire.
25 The measurements show three peaks over three days, with the highest one measured 12 UTC
26 23 September. All the three model simulations have the peak concentrations earlier than the
27 observed, and the concentrations from the model are lower than observed. The three
28 simulations do however show increased concentrations at the site due to the volcanic eruption
29 over the three days. The map shows that large parts of France had an increase in SO₂ surface
30 concentrations during this time.



1 Figure 5 shows the time series for three stations over Scotland and Germany a month later,
2 from 20 to 26 October. The high_hol simulation shows low concentrations over the Scottish
3 Grangemouth station, but the ctrl_hol and low_hol have a plume with high concentrations
4 over the station on 20 October. There are no measurements at this time to compare the model
5 values to. The timing of the second plume 21 October for the two models is a few hours early
6 and the modelled concentrations higher than the observed, especially for the low_hol
7 simulation. The map shows a narrow plume from Iceland south to Scotland and the station
8 lies on the edge of this plume. On 22 October, the volcanic SO₂ is measured at stations in
9 Germany. Figure 5d shows the plume reaching from Iceland into the North Sea, transported
10 east and south compared to the situation from the day before. The two stations Kellerwald and
11 Bremerhaven experience the plume differently. While for Bremerhaven the peak is short the
12 peak lasts for one day at Kellerwald. The map show that the plume is narrow for all three
13 stations, and the gradient between where there is no Holuhraun contribution and the
14 maximum concentration is strong. At Kellerwald station, the low_hol simulation has the
15 highest concentrations at the beginning of the plume and the high_hol simulation is highest at
16 the end of the plume. The ctrl_hol simulation has the most comparable concentrations to the
17 observed ones, although all the models runs have values that are too high. For the
18 Bremerhaven station, the observed peak is earlier than the modelled, but all the model runs
19 match the last hours of the plume.

20 A third plume is illustrated in Fig. 6 over Northern Europe, occurring from the end of October
21 to the beginning of November. Figure 6a shows the measured SO₂ concentrations at a station
22 in Oslo, Norway. There are four peaks measured from 29 October to 31, the highest one on 29
23 October. The models runs show contribution from Holuhraun SO₂ over the same three days,
24 but do not reach the high measured concentrations, especially the first plume is
25 underestimated. On October 30, the plume is transported south east to Poland. The Polish
26 station in Sopot experiences a short peak that the model simulates to happen a few hours
27 earlier. The ctrl_hol simulation has the most comparable concentrations.

28 Transport to Europe is caused by northerly and north-westerly winds. For the first plume,
29 where the model shows low concentrations compared to the observations, there had been
30 southerly winds a time before strong northerly winds transported the SO₂ cloud south over
31 Great Britain and France. Compared to the other two episodes, the SO₂ surface concentration
32 due to Holuhraun are higher over a larger area during this episode. The difficulty of the model



1 to simulate the SO₂ transport correctly depends on the uncertainty in the emission term, the
2 meteorology fields, the chemical reactions and deposition. Overall the comparison at the
3 stations and with the satellite data indicates, that the ctrl_hol simulation, with the assumption
4 that emissions occurred between 0 to 3 km, performs best.

5 **3.3 Effects of the eruption on European pollution**

6 The results above show that, although the Holuhraun eruption released large amounts of SO₂,
7 the stations in Europe often measured the increase in SO₂ concentrations as short peaks. The
8 model makes it possible to find a more general view of the impact in the European air quality
9 due to the volcanic emissions. Table 2 summarizes the model results for Europe. Only grid
10 cells covering one of the 31 countries are considered when calculating the results shown in
11 the table, the emission (from anthropogenic sources), concentration and deposition over the
12 oceans are not studied. Since a large part of the deposition and concentration increase occurs
13 downwind and close to the emission point, the deposition and concentrations over Iceland is
14 given in brackets.

15 The Holuhraun emission estimate used in this study releases over 4.5 times the anthropogenic
16 emission from the 31 countries (not including ship emissions). The anthropogenic emissions
17 from Iceland are only 18 kilotons, the SO₂ emissions from Iceland increase by over 300 times.

18 Over the three months, there is 1.32 times more SO_x wet deposition for the control run with
19 Holuhraun emission than the MACC reference with no Holuhraun emission. The wet
20 deposition over Iceland and the rest of Europe is dependent on the emission height. The
21 simulation with the emission highest in the atmosphere (high_hol) has the highest
22 contribution to the rest of Europe, while less than half of the wet deposition falls on Iceland
23 compared to the other two runs. For dry deposition, the ten percent increase over Europe is
24 about the same for all the three model simulations with Holuhraun emissions. For Iceland
25 however, the SO_x dry deposition is very dependent on emission height.

26 Figure 7 shows the total deposition over Europe for the standard MACC model simulation
27 with no Holuhraun emission (no_hol), the control model simulation (ctrl_hol), and the percent
28 increase for these two model runs. For the no_hol simulation, the highest depositions are over
29 central and Eastern Europe, while the areas with the lowest deposition are over Iceland,
30 northern Scandinavia and over the Alps. These are also the areas that experience the highest
31 percent increase in addition to the northern part of Scotland. Due to the Holuhraun emissions



1 Iceland has the highest SO_x deposition in Europe, and the coast of northern Norway shows
2 depositions on the same level as Eastern Europe.

3 The averaged SO₂ surface concentration over Europe is under normal condition higher than
4 over Iceland. For the simulations with Holuhraun emission the increase over the rest of
5 Europe is around the same for all three simulations. The ctrl_hol and ctrl_low simulation give
6 high increases over Iceland, while for the high_hol simulation, the average concentration over
7 Iceland is close to the rest of Europe.

8 The increases in PM_{2.5} concentrations are due to increased sulphate production from volcanic
9 SO₂. Dry production is due to SO₂ reacting to OH, while wet production occurs in cloud
10 droplets. PM_{2.5} concentrations are a collection of all aerosol under 2.5 μm, and sulphur is only
11 a part of the aerosol mass. For PM_{2.5} concentrations, the table shows that Iceland has a lower
12 average than the rest of Europe for all the four runs, even though Iceland is the contributor to
13 the increase in pollution levels. The high_hol model simulation has a higher increase in PM_{2.5}
14 concentration than the two other simulations. Especially the low_hol simulations have high
15 deposition on Iceland, and possibly over the ocean, that will lead to a lower contribution to
16 the PM_{2.5} increase.

17 The distribution of PM_{2.5} from the no_hol and ctrl_hol simulation, plotted in Figure 8, shows
18 the same polluted and clean areas as in Fig. 7. The percent increase is not as high as for the
19 deposition, but the areas are similar. There is a high increase over north-west Norway and
20 northern Norway, where the increase is over 100 percent. Figure 8b still shows that although
21 the percentage increase is high, the PM_{2.5} concentrations in these areas are among the least
22 polluted in Europe. The high deposition levels in this region indicate that the PM_{2.5} is
23 scavenged out.

24 WHO recommends a 24 hourly average mean concentration level of 25 μg/m³ for PM_{2.5} not to
25 be exceeded over three days over a year (WHO,2005). Figure 9a shows that over the Benelux
26 region, Northern Germany and Northern Italy this limit value is exceeded by up to ten days
27 during the three months studied. As the previous plot showed, these are regions with high
28 average PM_{2.5} concentrations. Because the daily concentrations are already high, any increase
29 in days in the model ctrl_hol simulation due to the Holuhraun emissions is also occurring in
30 these regions. The Figure also shows that Northern Ireland experienced up to two exceedance
31 days due to the volcanic eruption.

32



1 4 Discussion

2 The variances between the satellite model data and the satellite observations can be due to
3 several factors. a) The model emissions flux may be under or overestimated compared to the
4 real emissions, model VCDs are therefore too low / too large compared to the observed ones.
5 b) The areas within which the column mass are constructed depend on the threshold VCD
6 value and the satellite data, so the values in the model depend on the position of the observed
7 SO₂ cloud. If the simulated plume is displaced into an area where the satellite does not show
8 any useful signal, then this part of the model plume is ignored and may lead to underestimates
9 of the model. c) The presence of clouds can increase the uncertainty of the satellite retrieval.
10 d) The unknown real height of the SO₂ plumes may introduce additional bias between model
11 and satellite VCDs.

12 Our Holuhraun emission term in the three model simulations is constant throughout the
13 simulations both with respect to emission height and emission flux. Maximum fluxes of 1300
14 kg/s were reported by Barsotti (2014), and Gislason et al. (2015) estimated a 2.5 times the
15 average emission term during the first two and a half weeks of the eruption. The assumption
16 of a constant emission term is thus certainly a simplification. The emission height is also
17 variable, dependent on initial volcanic eruption characteristics and meteorological conditions
18 like wind speed and stratification (Oberhuber et al. 1998). A better source estimate for the
19 eruption is beyond the scope of this study; however the fluctuations in flux magnitude and
20 emission height can explain some of the differences between observed and simulated
21 concentrations, especially at the beginning of September.

22 Ialango et al. (2015) found that the SO₂ plume from Holuhraun was detectable with a Brewer
23 instrument in Finland and compared the measurements to satellite observations from OMI
24 (Ozone Monitoring Instrument) and OMPS (Ozone Mapping Profiler Suite). From comparing
25 the ground measured SO₂ to the satellite data, the satellite products with an a priori profile
26 placing the SO₂ in the planetary boundary layer gave the best agreement. The reduction in
27 column loads from applying the averaging kernel seen in this study leading to reasonable
28 agreement with the satellite VCDs also shows that the SO₂ was situated well below the 7 km
29 altitude. Further comparison of the modelled SO₂ vertical distribution to measured one, e.g.
30 from IASI, is needed to understand the impact of any bias in modelled vertical distribution on
31 the comparison to satellite derived VCDs. Our sensitivity runs indicate considerable
32 sensitivity of the estimated amount of SO₂ in the North Atlantic area to the vertical



1 distribution of the SO₂. This essentially prevents us from using the satellite data to make a
2 more quantitative inverse judgement on the emission strength.

3 Schmidt et al. (2015) presents a comparison between model, satellite and ground observations
4 for September. Mass burdens from OMI are derived using observed plume heights from the
5 IASI (Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer) instrument on the MetOp satellite. The
6 model NAME (Numerical Atmospheric-dispersion Modelling Environment), a Lagrangian
7 model, is run for September with sensitivity runs testing both emission height and emission
8 flux. Comparing with the two satellite data sets, the model simulation with doubled emission
9 flux (~1400 kg/s) matches well with the OMI satellite data for the first days, while for the rest
10 of September the model simulation with emission consistent with this paper matches better
11 (~700 kg/s). The satellite comparison presented here shows that although the satellite data
12 have higher daily mass burden values for most of the first days, it is not evident that the
13 emission term on average is too small. The observed plume height presented in Schmidt et al.
14 (2015) by IASI measurements also supports our ctrl_run emission height distribution between
15 the ground and 3 km.

16 Surface concentration comparisons presented in this study and in the supplementary material
17 show that the volcanic SO₂ was observed as short singular peaks lasting from a few hours to
18 several peaks over a short set of days. The biggest difference for the three studied plumes is
19 for the first one during September over UK and Western Europe, with up to a factor of four
20 differences between simulated and measured concentrations at several of the stations. But
21 both the measured and simulated concentrations during the September event were higher than
22 the two later events, pointing to a different transport of SO₂ in the first event, and not only
23 higher emissions. Schmidt et al. (2015) also presented a model comparison of observed and
24 model concentration for these days, and the results show the same as seen in this study. Even
25 for the NAME model simulation with double emission show smaller concentrations at the
26 stations presented in Schmidt et al. (2015).

27 The results in this study show that the sulphur depositions from September to November over
28 Northern Norway were at the same levels as the most polluted regions in Europe. Emission
29 ceilings aim set by the Gothenburg Protocol was to reduce the SO_x emissions by 63 % by
30 2010 compared to the 1990 levels (EMEP, 2015). Most countries have accomplished these
31 reductions, and the sulphur deposition levels over Europe have decreased. The Holuhraun
32 eruption changed the picture in some areas. Comparing observed deposition levels at



1 Tustervatn station in central Norway, the simulated deposition is higher than the yearly
2 observed averages since 1980. Monthly observed values at this station during the 2011
3 Grimsvötn eruption show almost as high values as the ctrl_hol simulation. The increase in
4 SO_x deposition at Birkenes station in Southern Norway is negligible. Northern Norway is
5 more susceptible for volcanic impact because of the geographical position, in addition to high
6 frequency of precipitation on the western coast of Norway. Comparing the mean deposition
7 levels over the three months in 2014 over Norway to model simulations with emissions from
8 previous years, they are double to the early 1990s (EMEP, 2015). Southern Norway
9 experienced a sulphur deposition decrease of 40 % from 1980 to 1995 due to emission
10 abatement in Europe (Berge et al. 1999). The highest contributors to high deposition levels
11 over Southern Norway were the UK and Germany (18 % and 15 % respectively). Norway
12 also experienced in 2014 a high percent increase in PM_{2.5} concentrations. The PM_{2.5} levels
13 over Scandinavia are low, and a small increase in the concentrations leads to high percent
14 increases. The increase over land shows a similar pattern as the results found in Schmidt et al.
15 (2011) for a hypothetical Laki eruption. Even though the highest increase is over Scandinavia
16 and Scotland, the concentrations are too low to exceed the 25 µg/m² limit. Already polluted
17 regions like the Benelux region experience more days with exceedances as well as North
18 Ireland.

19 **5 Conclusions**

20 The increase in SO₂ caused by the volcanic eruption at Holuhraun were observed by satellite
21 and detected at several stations over Europe. Model simulations with the EMEP/MSC-W
22 model with emissions from Holuhraun over the period from September to November have
23 been done to investigate the model capability to simulate such events, and also to study the
24 impact of the increased emissions on concentrations and depositions over Europe.

25 The first two months of the model simulations are compared to satellite retrievals from OMI.
26 The retrievals use an assumed plume height of 7 km. Averaging kernels from the satellite data
27 are applied on the model data to compare the model data to the satellite. Because of the
28 weighting, the satellite retrieved mass burden values are dependent on both vertical placement
29 and amount of SO₂. Two sensitivity model simulations with different Holuhraun emission
30 height are compared to the satellite data together with the control simulation. The results
31 show the importance of weighting the model data with the averaging kernel when comparing
32 the model to satellite VCD. The combined uncertainty in emission strength and height impact



1 when comparing the satellite data to the model simulations makes it difficult to conclude
2 which emission height is most realistic.

3 The model simulations are compared to observed concentrations at stations over Europe for
4 three different events with high concentrations measured at the stations due to the Holuhraun
5 emissions. For all the events, the timing of the model peaks is well compared to the observed
6 peaks in concentration. For the two model simulations with emissions distributed lowest in
7 the atmosphere, a better timing can be seen than for the sensitivity run with the highest
8 emission height. Due to the transport of SO₂ during the first event, both the model data and
9 measurements are higher than during the two latter events. The biggest difference in
10 concentration between observed and simulated values is also seen during this first plume
11 reaching Europe. Uncertainties in the model simulations increase by the length of transport,
12 and some near misses of the narrow plumes can clearly explain differences between model
13 and observation. Also, to make a better estimate of the model performance during the whole
14 volcanic eruption, better quality checked station data is needed.

15 The change in pollution levels over Europe due to the increase in emissions due to the
16 volcanic fissure is studied. Of the parameters studied, SO_x wet deposition showed the highest
17 increase. For the control simulation there is 32 % times more sulphate wet deposition than the
18 model simulation with no Holuhraun emission over the 28 European Union countries,
19 Norway and Switzerland. The regions that have the highest increase, apart from Iceland, are
20 Northern Scandinavia and Scotland, regions that are among the least polluted in Europe.
21 Especially the coast of Northern Norway, with a percent increase in total deposition of over
22 1000%, has levels in 2014 equal to the most polluted regions in Europe. Compared to
23 measurements, the levels are higher than the yearly averaged measured ones at Tustervatn
24 (Central Norway) since 1980. Compared to model simulations with meteorology and emission
25 from previous years, the mean deposition levels over Norway are double that of 1990.

26 The difference in SO₂ concentrations over Europe between the no_hol and model simulations
27 with Holuhraun emission are around 13 percent over the same 30 countries and increases
28 occurs as short peaks in concentration levels from a few hours to some days. For PM_{2.5}
29 concentration, the increase is six percent. The biggest difference in percent increase are seen
30 over Scandinavia and Scotland, however these regions are among the cleanest in Europe, also
31 with the added sulphur caused by the Holuhraun emissions. A lot of the sulphur is also
32 deposited out over these regions by frequent precipitation. The areas that show increase in



1 days with over $25 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^2$ $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations are already polluted. Even though with high
2 emission from the volcanic fissure at Holuhraun, the increases in pollution levels are low over
3 Europe.

4 **Acknowledgements**

5 Most of the work done for this paper is funded by the Norwegian ash project financed by the
6 Norwegian Ministry of Transport and Communications and AVINOR. Model and support is
7 also appreciated through the Cooperative Programme for Monitoring and Evaluation of the
8 Long-range Transmission of Air Pollutants in Europe (No: ECE/ENV/2001/003). The
9 observations are made available through the EEA UTD database
10 (<http://fme.discomap.eea.europa.eu/fmedatastreaming/AirQuality/AirQualityUTDExport.fmw>
11) and the MACC project (MACC III project number 633080) obtained with the much
12 appreciated help of Álvaro Valdebenito. This work has also received support from the
13 Research Council of Norway (Programme for Supercomputing) through CPU time granted at
14 the super computers at NTNU in Trondheim.
15



1 **References**

- 2 Barsotti, Sara. "100 Days of Gas Release at Holuhraun." *Vedur.is*, 11 Dec. 2014. Web. 8 Apr.
3 2015.
- 4 Berge, E., Bartnicki, J., Olendrzynski, K. & Tsyro, S. (1999): Long-term trends in emissions
5 and transboundary transport of acidifying air pollution in Europe. *J. Environ. Manage.*, 57, 31
6 - 50.
- 7 Brenot, H., Theys, N., Clarisse, L., van Geffen, J., van Gent, J., van Roozendaal, M., van der
8 A, R., Hurtmans, D., Coheur, P., Clerbaux, C., Valks, P., Hedelt, P., Prata, F., Rason, O.,
9 Sievers, K. & Zehner, C. (2014): Support to Aviation Control Service (SACS): an online
10 service for near-real-time satellite monitoring of volcanic plumes. *Nat. Hazard Earth Sys.*, 14,
11 1099-1123.
- 12 Bukowiecki, N., Zieger, P., Weingartner, E., Jurányi, Z., Gysel, M., Neiningner, B., Schneider,
13 B., Hueglin, C., Ulrich, A., Wicher, A., Henne, S., Brunner, D., Kaegi, R., Schwikowski, M.,
14 Tobler, L., Wienhold, F. G., Engel, I., Buchmann, B., Peter, T. & Baltensperger, U. (2011):
15 Ground-based and airborne in-situ measurements of the Eyjafjallajökull volcanic aerosol
16 plume in Switzerland in spring 2010. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 11, 10011-10030.
- 17 EMEP MSC-W (2015): Transboundary acidification, eutrophication and ground level ozone
18 in Europe 2013. EMEP Status Report 1/2015
- 19 Gettelman, A., Schmidt, A. & Kristjánsson, J. E. (2015): Icelandic volcanic emissions and
20 climate. *Nat. Geosci*, 8, 243-243.
- 21 Gíslason, S.R., Stefánsdóttir, G., Pfeffer, M.A., Barsotti, S., Jóhannsson, Th., Galeczka, I.,
22 Bali, E., Sigmarsson, O., Stefánsson, A., Keller, N.S., Sigurdsson, Á., Bergsson, B., Galle, B.,
23 Jacobo, V.C., Arellano, S., Aiuppa, A., Jónasdóttir, E.B., Eiríksdóttir, E.S., Jakobsson, S.,
24 Guðfinnsson, G.H., Halldórsson, S.A., Gunnarsson, H., Haddadi, B., Jónsdóttir, I.,
25 Thordarson, Th., Riishuus, M., Högnadóttir, Th., Dürig, T., Pedersen, G.B.M., Höskuldsson,
26 Á., Gudmundsson, M.T. (2015) Environmental pressure from the 2014–15 eruption of
27 Bárðarbunga volcano, Iceland. *Geochem. Persp. Let.* 1, 84-93.
- 28 Grattan, J., Durand, M. & Taylor, S. (2003): Illness and elevated Human Mortality in Europe
29 Coincident with the Laki Fissure eruption. *Vocanic Degassing: Geol. Soc, SP 213. The*
30 *Geological Society of London* , pp. 410-414.



- 1 Ialongo, I., Hakkarainen, J., Kivi, R., Anttila, P., Krotkov, N. A., Yang, K., Li, C., Tukiainen
2 S., Hassinen, S. & Tamminen, J. (2015): Validation of satellite SO₂ observations in northern
3 Finland during the Icelandic Holuhraun fissure eruption. *Atmos. Meas. Tech.*, 8, 2279-2289
- 4 Levelt, P.F., van den Oord, G.H.J., Dobber, M.R., Maikki, A., Visser, H., de Vries, J.,
5 Stammes, P., Lundell, J., and Saari H. (2006), The Ozone Monitoring Instrument, *IEEE*
6 *Trans. Geosci. Remote Sens.*, 44(5), 1093–1101, doi:10.1109/TGRS.2006.872333.
- 7
- 8 Kuenen, J. J. P., Visschedijk, A. J. H., Jozwicka, M. & Denier van der Gon, H.A.C. (2014)
9 TNO-MACC_II emission inventory; a multi-year (2003–2009) consistent high-resolution
10 European emission inventory for air quality modelling. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 14, 10963-
11 10976.
- 12 Moxnes, E. D., Kristiansen, N. I., Stohl, A., Clarisse, L., Durant, A., Weber, K. & Vogel, A.
13 (2014) Separation of ash and sulphur dioxide during the 2011 Grimsvötn eruption. *J. Geophys.*
14 *Res-Atmos*, 119, 7477-7501.
- 15 Oberhuber, J. M., Herzog, M., Graf, H. & Schwanke, K. (1998): Volcanic plume simulation
16 on large scales. *J. Volcanol. Geoth Res*, 87, 29 - 53.
- 17 Rodgers, C. D. (2000): *Inverse Methods for Atmospheric Sounding: Theory and Practice.*
18 World Sci. Singapore.
- 19 Schmidt, A., Ostro, B., Carslaw, K. S., Wilson, M., Thordarson, T., Mann, G. W. &
20 Simmons, A.J. (2011): Excess mortality in Europe following a future Laki-style Icelandic
21 eruption. *PNAS*, 108, 15710-15715.
- 22 Schmidt, A., Leadbetter, S., Theys, N., Carboni, E., Witham, C.S., Stevenson, J.A., Birch,
23 C.E, Thordarson, T., Turnock, S., Barsotti, S., Delaney, L., Feng, W., Grainger, R.G., Hort,
24 M.C., Höskuldsson, Á., Ialongo, I., Ilyinskaya, E., Jóhannsson, T., Kenny, P., Mather, T.A.,
25 Richards, N.A.D., and Shepherd, J. (2015), Satellite detection, long-range transport, and air
26 quality impacts of volcanic sulphur dioxide from the 2014–2015 flood lava eruption at
27 Bárðarbunga (Iceland), *J. Geophys. Res. Atmos.*, 120, doi:10.1002/2015JD023638.
- 28 Sigmundsson, F., Hooper, A., Hreinsdóttir, S., Vogfjörð, K. S., Ofeigsson, B. G., Heimsson,
29 E. R., Dumont, S., Parks, M., Spaans, K., Gudmundsson, G. B., Drouin, V., Arnadóttir, T.,
30 Jonsdóttir, K., Gudmundsson, M. T., Hognadóttir, T., Fridriksdóttir, H. M., Hensch, M.,
31 Einarsson, P., Magnusson, E., Samsonov, S., Brandsdóttir, B., White, R. S., Agustdóttir, T.,



- 1 Greenfield, T., Green, R. G., Hjartardottir, A. R., Pedersen, R., Bennet, R. A., Geirsson, H.,
2 La Femina, P. C., Bjornsson, H., Palsson, F., Sturkell, E., Bean, C. J., Mollhoff, M., Braiden,
3 A. K. & Eibl, E.P.S. (2015): Segmented lateral dyke growth in a rifting event at Barðarbunga
4 volcanic system, Iceland. *Nature*, 517, 191-195.
- 5 Simpson, D., Benedictow, A., Berge, H., Bergström, R., Emberson, L. D., Fagerli, H.,
6 Flechard, C. R., Hayman, G. D., Gauss, M., Jonson, J. E., Jenkin, M. E., Nyiri, A., Richter,
7 C., Semeena, V. S., Tsyro, S., Tuovinen, J., Valdebenito, A. & Wind, P. (2012): The EMEP
8 MSC-W chemical transport model: technical description. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 12, 7825-
9 7865.
- 10 Theys, N., I. De Smedt, J. van Gent, T. Danckaert, T. Wang, F. Hendrick, T. Stavrou, S.
11 Bauduin, L. Clarisse, C. Li, N. Krotkov, H. Yu, H. Brenot, and M. Van Roozendael (2015),
12 Sulphur dioxide vertical column DOAS retrievals from the Ozone Monitoring Instrument:
13 Global observations and comparison to ground-based and satellite data. *J. Geophys. Res.*
14 *Atmos.*, 120, 2470–2491. doi: 10.1002/2014JD022657.
- 15 Thordarson, T. & Self, S. (1993): The Laki (Skaftar Fires) and Gri-msvötn eruptions in 1783-
16 1785. *B. Volcanol.*, 55, 233-263.
- 17 Thordarson, T. & Self, S. (2003): Atmospheric and environmental effects of the 1783-1784
18 Laki eruption: A review and reassessment., *J. Geophys. Res. Atmos.*, 108, AAC 7-1-AAC 7-
19 29.
- 20 Thordarson, T. & Hartley, M. (2015): Atmospheric sulphur loading by the ongoing
21 Nornahraun eruption, North Iceland. , EGU General Assembly Conference Abstracts 17,
22 10708.
- 23 Tørseth, K., Aas, W., Breivik, K., Fjæraa, A. M., Fiebig, M., Hjellbrekke, A. G., Lund Myhre,
24 C., Solberg, S., and Yttri, K. E.: Introduction to the European Monitoring and Evaluation
25 Programme (EMEP) and observed atmospheric composition change during 1972–2009,
26 *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 12, 5447-5481, doi:10.5194/acp-12-5447-2012, 2012.
- 27 Yang, K., Krotkov, N. A., Krueger, A. J., Carn, S. A., Bhartia, P. K. & Levelt, P.F. (2007):
28 Retrieval of large volcanic SO₂ columns from the Aura Ozone Monitoring Instrument:
29 Comparison and limitations. *J. Geophys. Res. Atmos.*, 112, D24S43,
30 doi:10.1029/2007JD008825.



- 1 WHO (2005): Air quality guidelines. Global update 2005. Particulate matter, ozone, nitrogen
- 2 dioxide and sulphur dioxide, URL
- 3 http://www.who.int/phe/health_topics/outdoorair/outdoorair_aqg/en/, World Health
- 4 Organisation, European Centre for Environment and Health Bonn Office, ISBN 92 890 2192



1 Table 1. Overview of model runs and the Holuhraun emission height assumptions and flux.

Model run name	Holuhraun layer into which SO ₂ was injected in the model simulation	Holuhraun flux
ctrl_hol	0 - 3 km	750 kg/s
low_hol	0 - 1 km	750 kg/s
high_hol	3 - 5 km	750 kg/s
no_hol		0

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

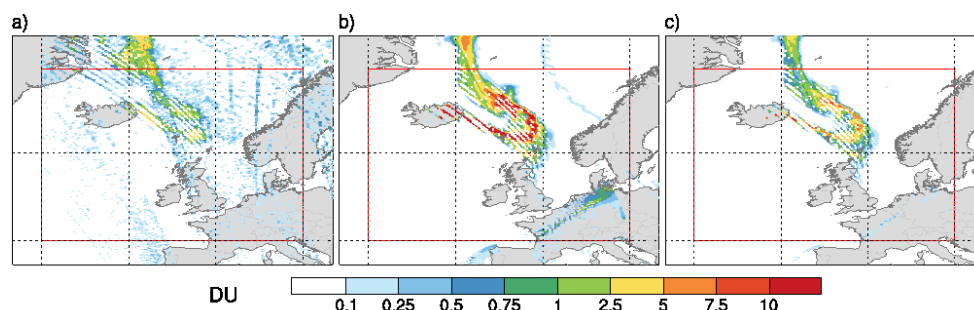
19



1 Table 2. Emissions, depositions and concentrations for the 28 European Union member states,
 2 Norway and Switzerland for the three months (September, October, November). Emissions
 3 and depositions are total over the three month period, concentrations are the mean over the
 4 period for the 31 countries. Numbers in brackets are the contribution from Iceland, for
 5 emission and deposition, the number represents the sum over Iceland. For concentration, the
 6 number represents the average over Iceland.

	no_hol	ctrl_hol	low_hol	high_hol	ctrl_hol/no_hol
Emissions SO ₂ (kilotons)	1 257	1 257	1 257	1 257	1
	(18)	(5 980)	(5 980)	(5 980)	(5.68)
SO _x Wet deposition	1 043	1 382	1 285	1 465	1.32
(kilotons)	(11)	(1 122)	(1 491)	(472)	(2.37)
SO _x Dry deposition	481	529	524	526	1.10
(kilotons)	(4)	(151)	(409)	(8)	(1.40)
SO ₂ Surface conc.	1.39	1.58	1.56	1.56	1.13
(mean µg/m ³)	(0.59)	(38.95)	(105.91)	(1.81)	(66.17)
PM _{2.5} Surface conc.	5.86	6.20	6.09	6.28	1.06
(mean µg/m ³)	(0.82)	(2.50)	(3.13)	(1.12)	(3.06)

7

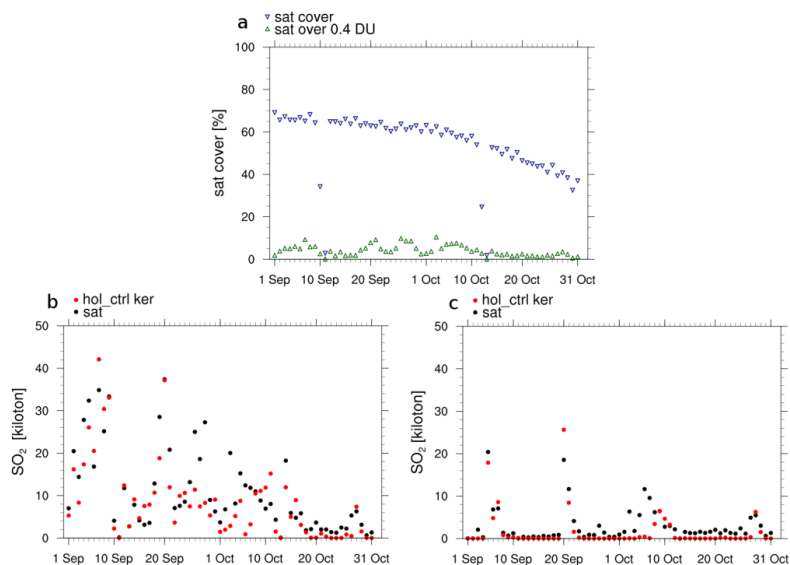


1

2

3 Figure 1. SO_2 column density for a) the satellite swaths on 24 September, b) corresponding
4 model data from 24 September, and c) model data with averaging kernel applied from satellite
5 data. The red box indicates the area where the satellite statistics in fig.2 are done.

6



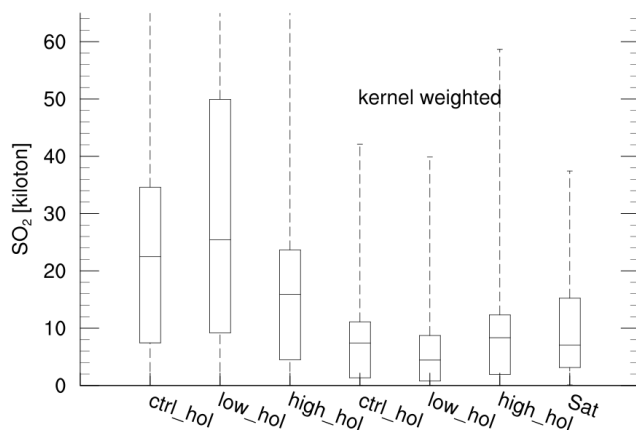
7

8

9 Figure 2. a) Daily time series of satellite observed area coverage (blue triangles) in percent of
10 the total area of the domain used for the statistics (30 W - 15 E and 45 - 70 N, see fig 1).



- 1 Green triangles show the percent of the area where satellite derived SO₂ is above 0.4 DU. b)
- 2 Daily time series of mass burdens from satellite data (black dots) and from model control run
- 3 (red dots) with averaging kernel applied, accumulated in consistent area. c) Shows the same
- 4 as b) but over a smaller area just south of 61.15 degrees north.
- 5
- 6



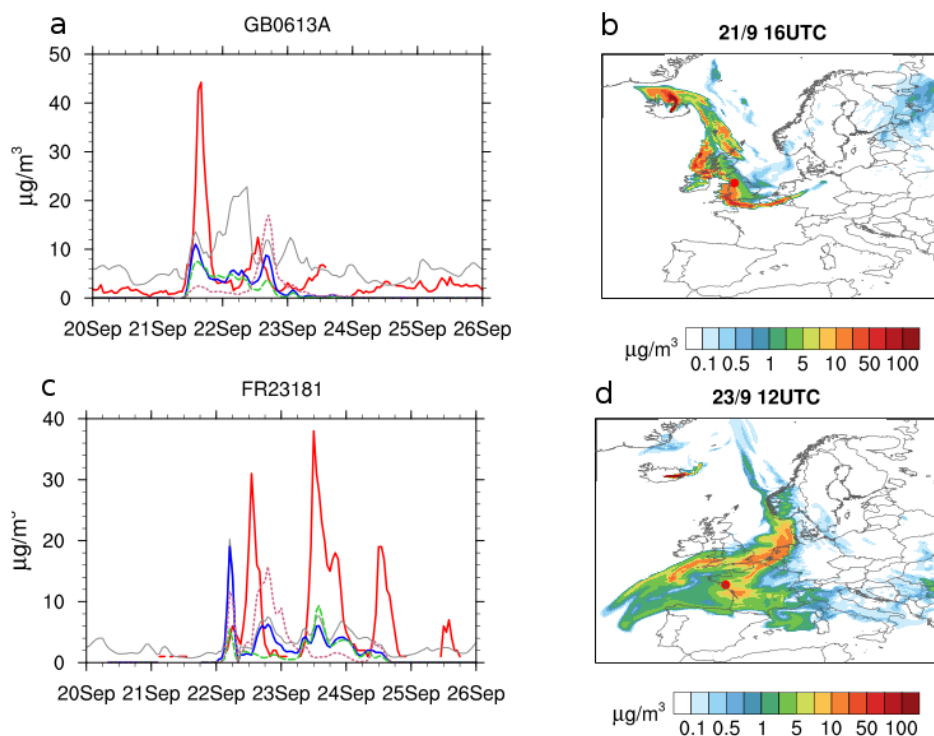
1

2

3 Figure 3. Distribution of mass burden derived from the 61 daily values (see fig 2) for the
4 three model simulations, one for each of the three kernel weighted and the satellite data, in the
5 area where satellite derived SO_2 exceeds 0.4 DU. The boxes shown represent the 25th
6 percentile, the median, and the 75th percentile values, lower whiskers the minimum value and
7 upper whiskers the maximum value.

8 Percentile statistics derived from the 61 daily mass burden values (see fig 2) for the three
9 model simulations, each of the three kernel weighted and the satellite data, in the area where
10 satellite derived SO_2 exceeds 0.4 DU. Boxes show 25th percentile, median, and 75th percentile
11 values, lower whiskers the minimum value and upper whiskers the maximum value.

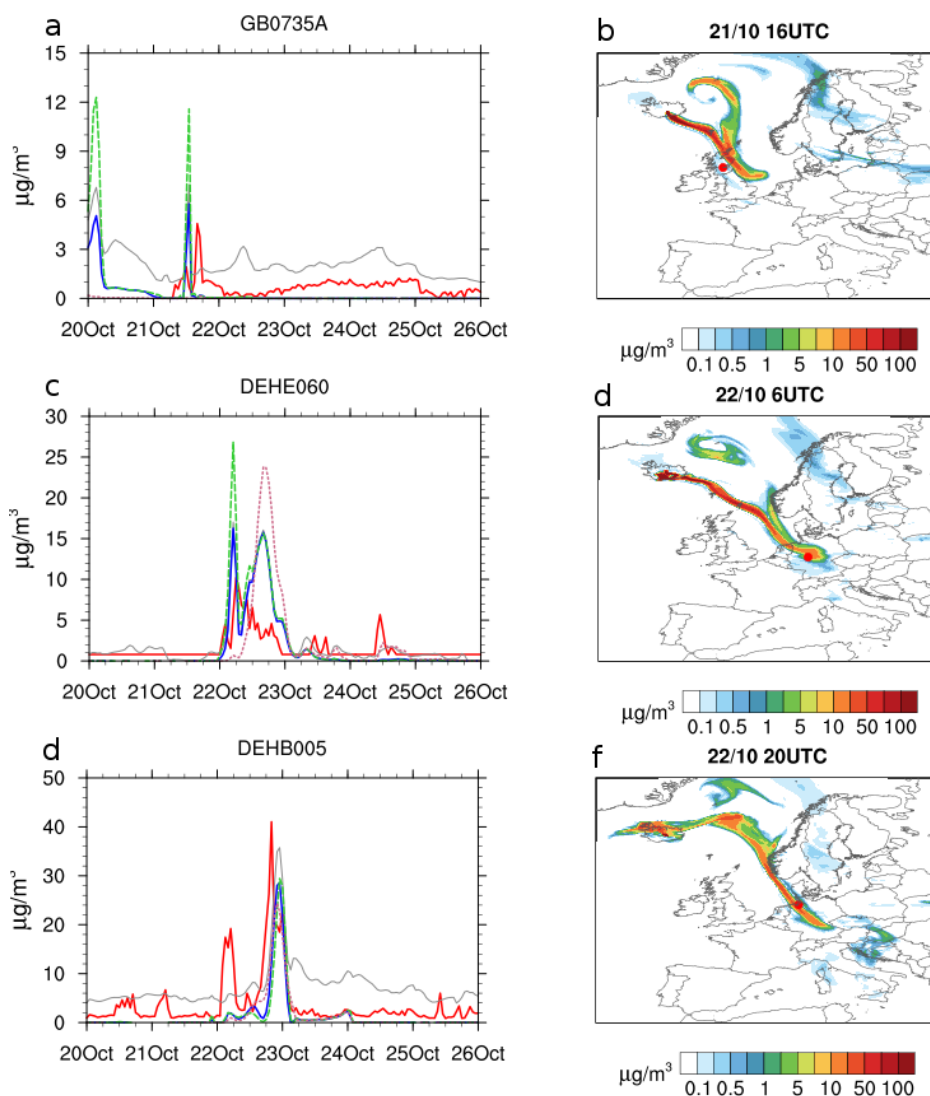
12



1

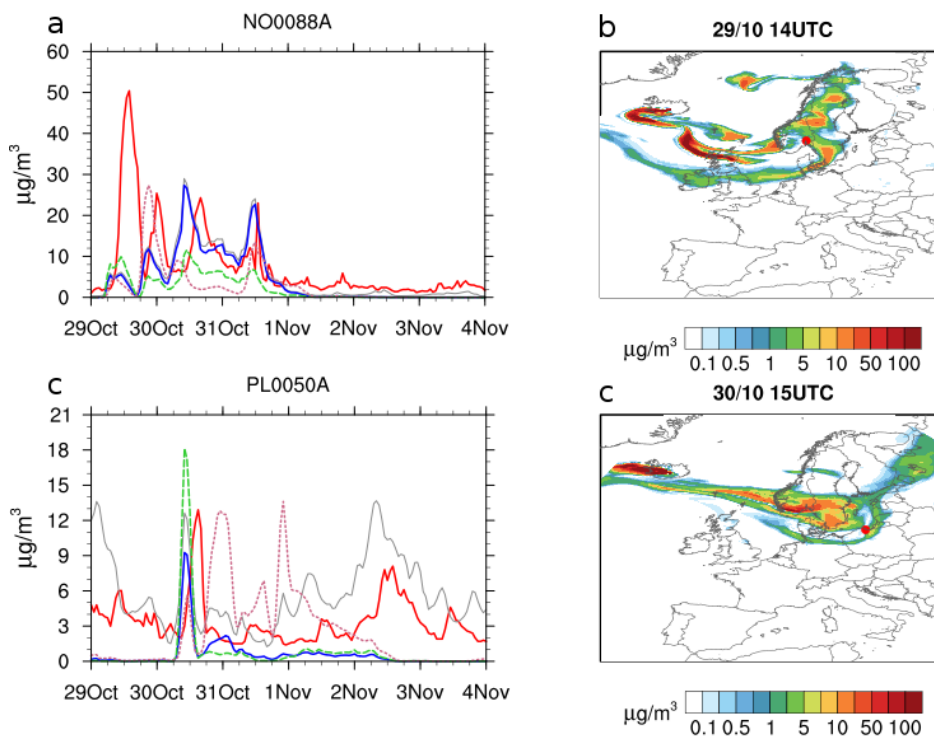
2 Figure 4. Left: Time Series from 20 to 26 September 2014 for two stations, GB0613A in
3 Manchester and FR23181 in Saint-Nazaire. The red line shows the measured ground
4 concentrations, the grey line represents the modelled ground concentration with `ctrl_hol`. By
5 subtracting the ground concentrations from the `no_hol` simulation the concentration due to
6 volcanic eruption for the `ctrl_hol`, `low_hol` and `high_hol` calculated and are shown in the blue,
7 green and pink line respectively. Right: Ground concentration due to the volcanic eruption
8 from `ctrl_hol`, corresponding to the blue line in the time series, for the time of the maximum
9 observed concentration. The red dot on the map marks the position of the station.

10



1

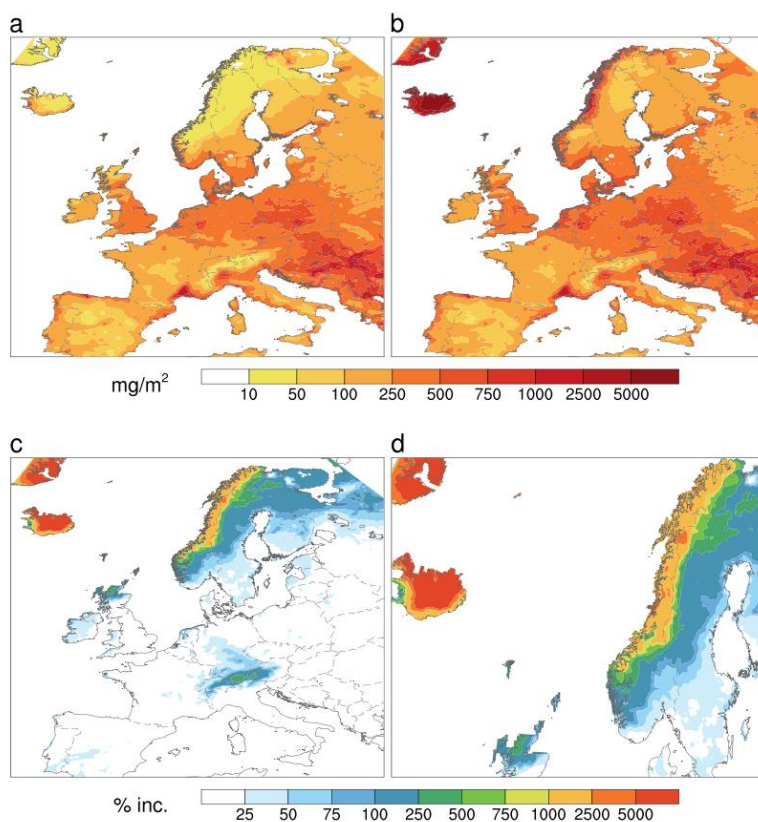
2 Figure 5. The same as Figure 1, but from 20 to 26 October 2014 for three different stations
3 GB0735A Grangemouth in Scotland, DEHE060 Kellerwald and DEHB005 Bremerhaven in
4 Germany.



1

2 Figure 6: The same as the two previous figures but from 29 October to 4 November 2014 for
3 NO0088A Oslo, Norway and PL0050A in Sopot Poland.

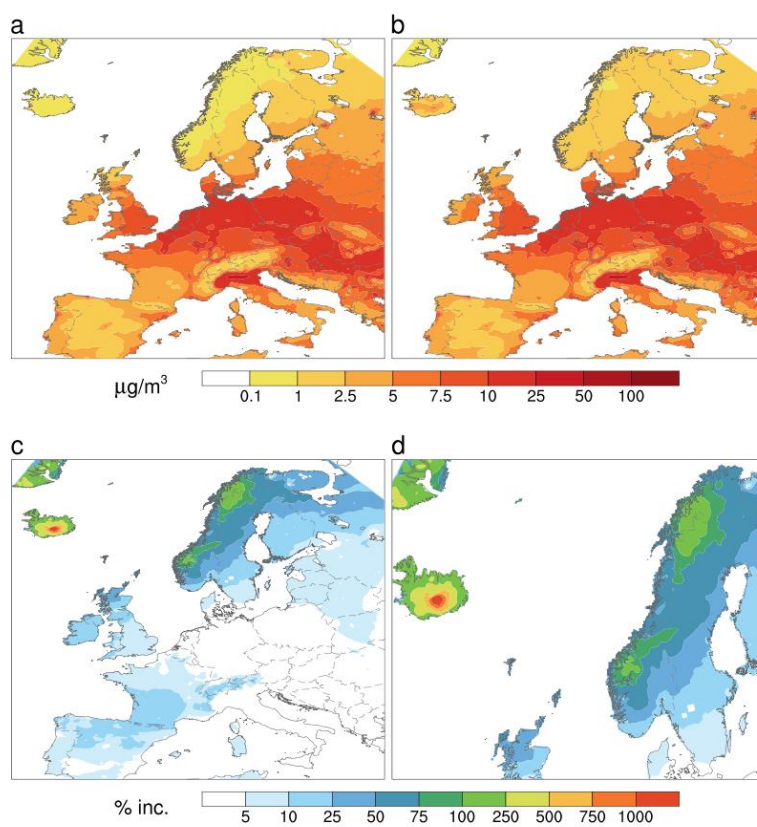
4



1

2 Figure 7. Total deposition of SO_x (wet and dry) over Europe from September to November
3 for no_hol (a) and ctr_hol (b) simulations and the percent increase due to the Holuhraun
4 emissions (c). d) Shows the same as c) but zoomed into Norway and Northern Europe.

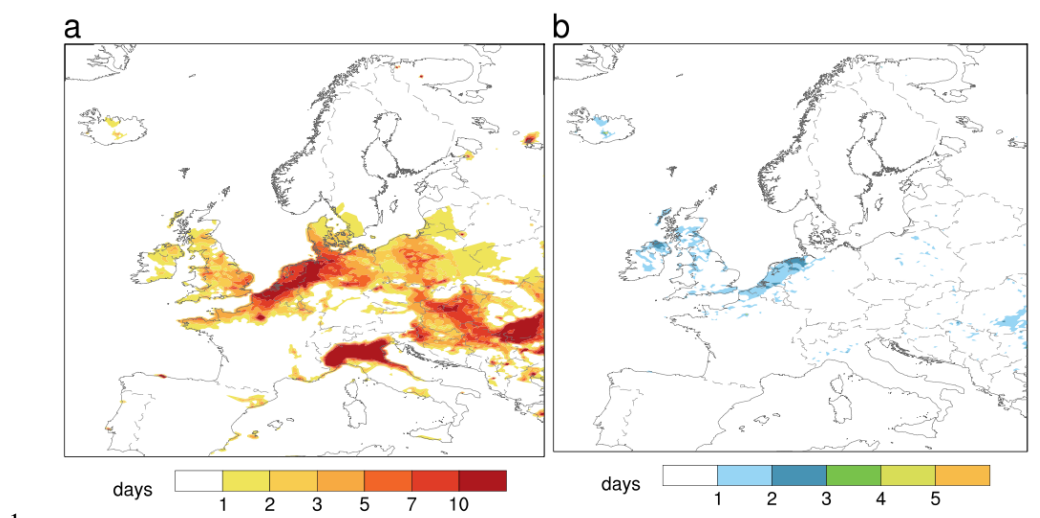
5



1

2 Figure 8. Show the same as Figure 7, but with average PM_{2.5} concentration over the three
3 months.

4



1

2 Figure 9. a) Days with exceedances of $PM_{2.5}$ over September trough November for the
3 ctrl_hol model simulation. b) The increase in days from no_hol to ctrl_hol.