

# Modelled deposition of nitrogen and sulfur in Europe estimated by 14 air quality model-systems: Evaluation, effects of changes in emissions and implications for habitat protection

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1 **Abstract.** The evaluation and intercomparison of air quality models is key to reducing model errors  
2 and uncertainty. The projects AQMEII3 and EURODELTA-Trends, in the framework of the Task  
3 Force on Hemispheric Transport of Air Pollutants and the Task Force on Measurements and  
4 Modelling, respectively, (both task forces under the UNECE Convention on the Long Range  
5 Transport of Air Pollution, LTRAP) have brought together various regional air quality models, to  
6 analyze their performance in terms of air concentrations and wet deposition, as well as to address  
7 other specific objectives.

8 This paper jointly examines the results from both project communities by inter-comparing and  
9 evaluating the deposition estimates of reduced and oxidized nitrogen (N) and sulfur (S) in Europe  
10 simulated by 14 air quality model-systems for the year 2010. An accurate estimate of deposition is  
11 key to an accurate simulation of atmospheric concentrations. In addition, deposition fluxes are  
12 increasingly being used to estimate ecological impacts. It is, therefore, important to know by how  
13 much model results differ, and how well they agree with observed values, at least when comparison  
14 with observations is possible, such as in the case of wet deposition.

15 This study reveals a large variability between the wet deposition estimates of the models, with some  
16 performing acceptably (according to previously defined criteria) and others underestimating wet  
17 deposition rates. For dry deposition, there are also considerable differences between the model  
18 estimates. An ensemble of the models with the best performance for N wet deposition was made and  
19 used to explore the implications of N deposition in conservation of protected European habitats.  
20 Exceedances of empirical critical loads were calculated for the most common habitats at a resolution  
21 of 100×100 m<sup>2</sup> within the Natura 2000 network, and the habitats with the largest areas showing  
22 exceedances are determined.

23 Moreover, simulations with reduced emissions in selected source areas indicated a fairly linear  
24 relationship between reductions in emissions and changes in deposition rates of N and S. An  
25 approximately 20% reduction in N and S deposition in Europe is found when emissions at a global  
26 scale are reduced by the same amount. European emissions are by far the main contributor to  
27 deposition in Europe, whereas the reduction in deposition due to a decrease of emissions in North  
28 America is very small and confined to the western part of the domain. Reductions in European  
29 emissions led to substantial decreases in the protected habitat areas with critical load exceedances  
30 (halving the exceeded area for certain habitats), whereas no change was found, on average, when  
31 reducing North American emissions, in terms of average values per habitat.

## 32 **1 Introduction**

33 Improvements have been made in reducing ecosystem exposure to excess levels of acidification in past  
34 decades, largely as a result of declining SO<sub>2</sub> emissions. However, in addition to acidification, emissions  
35 of NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> have altered the global nitrogen cycle, resulting in excess inputs of nutrient nitrogen into  
36 terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems (Maas & Grennfelt, 2016). This oversupply of nutrients can lead to  
37 eutrophication and subsequent loss of biodiversity. With the aim of ensuring the long-term survival of  
38 Europe's most valuable and threatened species and habitats, the Natura 2000 network of protected areas  
39 (EEA, 2017) was established in Europe under the 1992 Habitats Directive (EU, 1992). While it is

40 estimated that only 7% of the total EU-28 ecosystem area and 5% of the Natura 2000 area was at risk of  
41 acidification in 2010 (EEA, 2015), it is estimated that the fraction exposed to air-pollution levels  
42 exceeding eutrophication limits is 63% and 73%, respectively, in 2010 (EEA, 2015).

43  
44 The Task Force on Hemispheric Transport of Air Pollution (HTAP) under the UNECE Convention on  
45 Long Range Transport of Air Pollution program (CLRTAP) has organized several modeling exercises to  
46 understand the role of hemispheric transport when estimating the impacts of remote sources on  
47 background concentrations and deposition in different parts of the world (Galmarini et al. 2017). A  
48 description of the HTAP program can be found at [www.htap.org](http://www.htap.org). While early exercises used global  
49 models, the most recent research activity, HTAP2, foresees a combination of global and regional models,  
50 in order to evaluate air pollution impacts at a higher spatial resolution. In this context, the project  
51 AQMEII (Air Quality Model Evaluation International Initiative, Rao et al. 2009) in its third phase activity  
52 (AQMEII 3) has brought together various air quality modelling teams from North America and Europe to  
53 conduct a set of the simulations under the HTAP framework (Solazzo et al. 2017). At the same time, the  
54 EURODELTA-Trends (EDT) project has also brought together several European modeling teams, to  
55 provide information for the Task Force on Measurements and Modelling (also under the CLRTAP),  
56 including the evaluation of models for specific campaigns (Bessagnet et al. 2016; Vivanco et al, 2016),  
57 and, more recently, for 20-year trends of air quality and deposition (Colette et al. 2017). Since both  
58 projects have a model evaluation component and there is a common simulation year (2010), it is possible  
59 to evaluate the datasets jointly, enabling the comparison of a larger number of models (eight for  
60 AQMEII3 plus seven for EDT).

61 The availability of 14-model simulations provides the possibility of obtaining a more robust ensemble  
62 model estimate of deposition than that from a single model, as well as an estimate of deposition  
63 uncertainty. This more robust estimate is particularly useful for assessing ecological impacts such as  
64 critical load exceedance. Critical loads (CL) are limits for deposition of atmospheric pollutants, set by the  
65 Working group on Effects of the CLRTAP for the protection of ecosystems (de Wit et al., 2015).  
66 Exceedances of CL have been utilized during the last decades to assess impacts of atmospheric pollution  
67 to natural and semi-natural European ecosystems. Moreover, applying empirical CL for the nutrient N is  
68 recommended to assess “whether N deposition should be listed as a threat to future prospects” in the  
69 framework of the Habitats Directive 92/43/EEC (Henry and Aherne, 2014; Whitfield et al., 2011).

70 In addition to a model evaluation, we include an estimation of the exceedances of CL for the habitats in  
71 the European Natura 2000 network most threatened by N deposition. Moreover, in addressing one of the  
72 objectives of HTAP (Galmarini et al., 2017), we estimated the changes in wet deposition in Europe due to  
73 1) a reduction of global emissions by 20% or to a regional 20% emission reduction solely in 2) North  
74 America or 3) Europe.

75 The paper is divided into seven main sections. Sections 2 and 3 focus on wet deposition, first describing  
76 the methodology used to evaluate model performance (Section 2) and then discussing the results (Section  
77 3). Section 4 presents the intercomparison of dry deposition and in Section 5 we show the estimates from  
78 an ensemble of models for N and S. Next, in Section 6, we include an assessment of the influence of a  
79 20% reduction in emissions in Europe, North America and at a global scale on deposition in Europe.  
80 Finally, Section 7 provides an overview of the exceedances of the CL for the most threatened habitats in

81 the Natura 2000 network using the ensemble estimates of deposition and shows the effect that the  
82 emission reductions presented in Section 6 has on them.

## 83 **2 Methodology for the evaluation of wet deposition**

84 This Section describes the model simulations (2.1), the observations used for model evaluation (2.2) and  
85 the procedure to evaluate model performance (2.3).

86 Table 1 shows the description and abbreviations of the variables used in the assessment.

87

### 88 **2.1 Model simulations**

89 The simulations for the year 2010 used in this study were carried out using 14 air quality models (Table  
90 2), seven of them as part of AQMEII3, and the other seven models participating in EDT. CHIMERE was  
91 involved in both projects, although the model version used in the EDT project is an improved (not yet  
92 official) version (Chimere2017b v1.0), and therefore a direct comparison of model results between both  
93 simulations (AQMEII3 and EDT) is not possible. More modelling teams than those in Table 2 were  
94 involved in the AQMEII3 project, but we kept only those that provided all the variables required for the  
95 model performance evaluation in terms of wet deposition, i.e. air concentrations and deposition of related  
96 chemical species (except AQ\_TR1\_MACC, which only provided deposition data). The domain and grid  
97 resolution was common for all the models in EDT (except for ED\_CMAQ, which used a different  
98 domain/projection), with a resolution of  $0.25^\circ$  (lat.)  $\times$   $0.4^\circ$  (lon.). AQMEII3 permitted a more flexible  
99 model setup, although outputs had to be produced for a fixed domain with a spatial resolution of  $0.25^\circ \times$   
100  $0.25^\circ$ . Meteorological inputs for the AQMEII3 models were chosen by each participant (Table 2). In  
101 EDT, meteorological inputs from the Weather Research and Forecast model (WRF 3.3.1) were provided  
102 centrally, although not all models used this common dataset (WRF-Common). A more detailed  
103 description of the parameterizations of the meteorological models can be found in Solazzo et al. (2017)  
104 and Colette et al. (2017) for the AQMEII3 and ED exercises, respectively. In both exercises, boundary  
105 conditions were provided to the participants; in AQMEII3 they come from a global model, C-IFS(CB05)  
106 (Flemming et al., 2015), simulating the same scenarios at a spatial resolution  $0.125^\circ \times 0.125^\circ$  and  
107 providing results with a temporal resolution of 3 hours. In EDT boundary conditions come primarily from  
108 observations combined with optimal interpolation and long term trends, following the procedure used in  
109 the EMEP model (Simpson et al., 2012), with slight adjustments in the context of trend modelling  
110 (Colette et al., 2017). They were provided with a monthly time step, at a spatial resolution of  $1.5^\circ \times 1.5^\circ$ .  
111 Emissions were also prescribed in both projects: In AQMEII3 two options were available, Copernicus  
112 emissions (Pouliot et al., 2014) on a  $0.125^\circ \times 0.0625^\circ$  longitude-latitude grid and estimated for 2009, and  
113 HTAP\_v2.2 emissions (Janssens-Maenhout, 2015), on a  $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$  grid, which for the European region  
114 are the same as the Copernicus inventory. In EDT ECLIPSE\_V5 emissions estimated by the GAINS  
115 (Greenhouse gases and Air pollution INteractions and Synergies) model (Amann et al., 2011) for 2010  
116 were used with a spatial resolution of  $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$  and regridded to  $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$  using the proxies of  
117 Colette et al. (2017). More information on the model setups can be found in Galmarini et al. (2017) and  
118 Solazzo et al. (2017) for AQMEII3 and Colette et al. (2017) for EDT.

119 Four simulations were carried out by the AQMEII3 community: a base case (BAS) for 2010; GLO, where  
120 emissions were reduced at a global level by 20%; EUR, where emissions were reduced in Europe by 20%  
121 and NAM, where emissions were reduced in North America by 20%. Not all the models performed the  
122 simulations for all four cases.

## 123 **2.2 Observations**

124 Measurements (annual and monthly) made at 88 EMEP monitoring sites for 2010 were provided by the  
125 Norwegian Institute for Air Research (NILU), which is the Chemical Coordinating Centre of EMEP,  
126 although not all variables were measured at all sites. A complete description of the monitoring network of  
127 the EMEP program, as well as the sampling methodologies used can be found in Tørseth et al (2012) and  
128 the data are openly accessible from <http://ebas.nilu.no/>. A summary of sites and variables considered is  
129 included in Table 3 and a map with their location is given in Fig. 1. Measurements for the gas phase  
130 ( $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ ) are quite scarce, which makes it difficult to evaluate models performance for these species.  
131 For example, for annual values, more than two thirds of the sites had measurements for both N and S  
132 deposition and atmospheric  $\text{SO}_2$  concentrations, while only 10% had data for air concentrations of  $\text{HNO}_3$   
133 and  $\text{NH}_3$ . More sites than those for  $\text{HNO}_3$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  are measuring inorganic aerosols, through these are  
134 analyzed from of PM10 samples in addition to the filter pack which sample both aerosols and gases. One  
135 should be aware that the  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations might be underestimated due to the evaporation of  
136 ammonium nitrate from the particle filter to the gas filter, leading to a corresponding overestimate of the  
137 gas. This is the case for both PM10 and filter pack measurements, where the separation of the nitrogen  
138 gases might be biased. The sum of  $\text{HNO}_3$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , as well as the sum of  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  are however  
139 considered unbiased. The filter pack samplers usually have no size cut off, but can be considered to be  
140 around PM10 (EMEP, 2014).

141 The spatial coverage of the observations used in the evaluation is quite high for most of northern, central  
142 and Western Europe, including Spain, but is quite low in the eastern and southern regions (Fig 1).

## 143 **2.3 Evaluation**

144 Model evaluation involved a joint analysis of wet deposition and air concentrations of the corresponding  
145 gas and particle species, as well as precipitation. Accumulated values were considered for precipitation  
146 and wet deposition, whereas mean values were used for air concentrations. Two different approaches  
147 were used when evaluating the model performance: 1) independently for each variable, so as to have the  
148 largest number of available sites for each variable, and 2) considering a common set of sites for wet  
149 deposition and air concentrations of the respective gas and particle species for each deposition type:  
150 oxidized nitrogen (ON), reduced nitrogen (RN) and sulfur (S). Both annual and monthly values were  
151 evaluated.

152 For each model simulation and set of sites with observations, the following statistics were calculated  
153 (Table 4) for each variable (considering all the values in time and space): normalized mean squared error  
154 (NMSE), fractional bias (FB) and the fraction of model estimates within a factor of two of the observed  
155 values (FAC2). The acceptance criteria proposed by Chang and Hanna (2004; 2005) were used to assess  
156 model acceptability: FAC2 higher or equal to 0.5, values of FB between -0.3 and 0.3, and NMSE values

157 lower than or equal to 1.5. We define a model as performing acceptably for a particular variable, when  
158 two out of these three criteria are met; in recognition of the large uncertainties involved in these types of  
159 simulations (Hanna and Chang, 2010). It should be noted that the acceptability criteria adopted in this  
160 study had their origin in evaluating Gaussian atmospheric dispersion models rather than photochemical  
161 Eulerian grid models. However, due to the absence of established performance criteria for evaluating  
162 modeled atmospheric deposition, these criteria were nevertheless adopted in this study while future work  
163 may be directed at developing performance goals more specifically tailored towards atmospheric  
164 deposition.

165 To illustrate model performance for each variable, the three assessment statistics are shown on the same  
166 graph (“smile plots”, hereafter) by plotting NMSE against FB and using a different symbol to indicate  
167 whether a model meets the acceptance criterion of Chang and Hanna (2004) for FAC2 ( $FAC2 \geq 0.5$ ). The  
168 statistics were calculated from annual and monthly data as well as by month, in order to illustrate seasonal  
169 behavior. These smile plots include shaded areas that correspond to areas meeting the acceptance criteria  
170 of Chang and Hanna (2004) (blue for NMSE, red for FB). In addition, the theoretical minimum NMSE  
171 for a given value of FB is also plotted (parabolic dashed lines) (Chang and Hanna, 2004). Additional  
172 statistics, (mean gross error, MGE, normalized mean bias, NMB, normalized mean gross error, NMGE,  
173 root mean squared error, RMSE, correlation coefficient,  $r$ , coefficient of efficiency, COE and index of  
174 agreement, IOA), were also calculated, as defined in the Auxiliary material (AM 3.10).

175 In order to provide robust estimates of N and S deposition and their uncertainties for the calculation of  
176 critical load exceedances (Section 7), a multi-model ensemble was constructed using the mean and  
177 standard deviation of the total deposition for each grid cell calculated from the estimates of the best  
178 performing models. A given model was included if it met at least two of the three acceptability criteria for  
179 wet deposition, gas and particle concentration, considering results for all the available sites and common  
180 sites. The main problem with this approach was that gas concentrations of  $NH_3$  and  $HNO_3$  were only  
181 measured at a few measurements sites. When these gas pollutants were the only ones failing to meet the  
182 criteria, we kept the model (ED\_EMEP, AQ\_FI\_MACC and AQ\_FI\_HTAP) if the criteria for total  
183 concentrations was met (note that  $TNO_3$  and  $TNH_4$  were measured at some sites where no separate  
184 measurements of gas and particle air concentrations were made and thus model performance for these  
185 variables as well as  $TSO_4$  was only evaluated for all available sites).

186

### 187 **3 Results and discussion for wet deposition**

188 The evaluation statistics for the selected models are provided in the tables in AM 3.6. These results are  
189 represented visually in the *smile plots* of Fig. 2 (based on annual values for all sites) and AM 3.1 (based  
190 on monthly values), which also show the degree to which the acceptability criteria were met for all  
191 models. Fig. 3 shows the *smile plots* considering only the common set of sites (sites with measurements  
192 of all the variables), to facilitate the analysis with regards to the interdependencies of model performance  
193 for different variables.

194 For precipitation, in general, monthly and annual accumulated precipitation rates estimated by the models  
195 agree reasonably well with the observations. The smile plots for precipitation in Fig. 2 and AM 3.1 (and

196 the tables in the AM 3.6) show that all the models meet all acceptability criteria, with the exception of  
197 AQ\_DE1\_HTAP, which narrowly misses the FB criterion for this variable. AQ\_FRES1\_HTAP had the  
198 lowest errors (NMSE) and the highest correlation with the observed precipitation values ( $r$ ). Smile plots  
199 by month (AM 3.5) indicate that some models have larger fractional bias in summer, especially in  
200 August, when some models underestimate accumulated precipitation, especially ED\_LOTO,  
201 AQ\_DE1\_HTAP, AQ\_UK1\_MACC, AQ\_UK2\_HTAP, and the three models using WRF\_Common, that  
202 is, ED\_CHIM, ED\_EMEP and ED\_MINNI.

### 203 **3.1 Oxidised Nitrogen.**

204 In the case of WNO<sub>3</sub>\_N (abbreviations in Table 1) a large variability was found (AM 1.2), with  
205 AQ\_DE1\_HTAP and ED\_MINNI estimating the lowest values and AQ\_TR1\_MACC the highest. The  
206 *smile plot* in Fig. 2 (also included in AM 1.2 to facilitate interpretation) and tables in AM 3.6 show that  
207 the models tended to underestimate the observed WNO<sub>3</sub>\_N on average, with the exception of ED\_EMEP,  
208 AQ\_DK1\_MACC, AQ\_TR1\_MACC and ED\_MATCH with very low bias, or even slightly  
209 overestimating). The results for ED\_MINNI are consistent with the study by Vivanco et al. (2016), who  
210 evaluated several models (EMEP, CHIMERE, LOTOS-EUROS, MINNI, CMAQ and CAMX) for four  
211 one-month campaigns during 2006, 2007, 2008 and 2009. Most of the models meet at least two of the  
212 three acceptability criteria for both monthly and annual wet deposition values, with the exception of  
213 AQ\_DE1\_HTAP and ED\_MINNI, which substantially underestimated deposition. The underestimation  
214 of AQ\_DE1\_HTAP is continuous throughout the year, as shown in AM 3.2, whereas for ED\_MINNI the  
215 underestimation is more pronounced in winter.

216 As shown in AM 3.6 all the models performed acceptably for TNO<sub>3</sub>\_N, except AQ\_DE1\_HTAP for the  
217 monthly data and ED\_CMAQ for the annual data. Interestingly, all the models performed worse for  
218 atmospheric concentration of the gaseous form (HNO<sub>3</sub>\_N) than for the particulate form (PM\_NO<sub>3</sub>\_N)  
219 (also visible in Fig. 3), with no model performing acceptably for the monthly data. The *smile plots* in the  
220 AM 3.2 show the highest errors and underestimation of HNO<sub>3</sub>\_N during winter. In fact, no model meets  
221 two criteria in Jan, Feb, Mar, Nov and Dec for this pollutant. Along the same lines, boxplots in AM 4  
222 indicate an underestimation of the HNO<sub>3</sub>:TNO<sub>3</sub> ratio in winter for most of the models. Most models  
223 underestimate both WNO<sub>3</sub>\_N and HNO<sub>3</sub>\_N and overestimate PM\_NO<sub>3</sub>\_N for the winter period (Oct-  
224 Mar), which could suggest a too efficient gas-to-particle conversion during these months in some cases,  
225 with maybe low deposition efficiency for the particle phase. In the case of AQ\_DE1\_HTAP the  
226 underestimation of deposition, as well as gas and particle air concentration could be related to an  
227 underestimation of NO<sub>2</sub> or HNO<sub>3</sub> (via a low NO<sub>2</sub> to HNO<sub>3</sub> conversion rate). ED\_EMEP overestimates  
228 WNO<sub>3</sub>\_N and PM\_NO<sub>3</sub>\_N, but underestimates HNO<sub>3</sub>\_N (according to annual values for common sites  
229 in AM 3.8), which could be related to a too high gas deposition.

### 230 **3.2 Reduced Nitrogen.**

231 For WNH<sub>4</sub>\_N there were also large differences between the models estimating the lowest values  
232 (AQ\_DE1\_HTAP, AQ\_FRES1\_HTAP and ED\_MINNI), and those estimating the highest  
233 AQ\_TR1\_MACC). Most of the models meet at least two of the three acceptability criteria for this

234 pollutant, with the exceptions being AQ\_DE1\_HTAP, AQ\_FRES1\_HTAP and ED\_MINNI. Similar to  
235 WNO3\_N, Fig. 2 (also included in AM 1.1) and tables in AM 3.6 show that the models tended to  
236 underestimate WNH4\_N, with the exception of AQ\_TR1\_MACC and ED\_MATCH. However, unlike  
237 WNO3\_N, this underestimation seems to correlate with an overestimation of the gaseous form (NH3\_N)  
238 on an annual basis (except for ED\_EMEP, which has a very low bias for both pollutants and  
239 ED\_MATCH, which overestimates WNH4\_N slightly). This is likely due to an underestimation of wet  
240 removal processes for the gas phase, but it can also be related to other issues, such as a general  
241 underestimation of NH3 dry deposition or an overestimation of emissions or even to measurement  
242 locations far from agricultural sources of ammonia and therefore not representative of the grid square.  
243 The overestimation of NH3\_N mainly occurs in autumn and winter (Jan, Feb, Nov, Dec), as can be  
244 inferred from the monthly smile plots of NH3\_N in the AM 3.3, which shows a poorer model  
245 performance for this period (no model meets all three criteria).

246 It is interesting to see that this overestimation of NH3\_N during Nov-Jan takes place when HNO3\_N is  
247 underestimated, as we discussed in the previous section, which could indicate an excessive conversion of  
248 HNO3 to particle due to an excess of NH<sub>3</sub> (aerosol nitrate may be formed if enough ammonia is  
249 available) and favored with low temperatures. Ammonium is quite well reproduced, with all the models  
250 meeting the acceptance criteria both on an annual basis and a monthly basis. All in all, tables in AM 3.6  
251 indicate a general underestimation of wet deposition for reduced nitrogen, with a tendency to  
252 overestimate TNH4. There is more variability between the model estimates of the NH3:TNH4 ratios for  
253 the winter months (AM 4) with the EDT models estimating lower ratios. It should be noted that some  
254 models do not distinguish between precipitation types and use the same scavenging rates for snow and  
255 rain, which could lead to substantial differences between model results.

256 At this point, we would like to make a comment on the interpretation for the gaseous species. In Section  
257 2.2 we highlighted a potential problem of evaporation of ammonium nitrate in the filter packs, leading to  
258 a potential overestimation of the gas component in the measurement. If such an artifact occurred, it would  
259 tend to lead to an underprediction by the model for the gas component. However, we found that the  
260 models overestimate the concentrations of NH3\_N, which cannot be attributed to this problem. However,  
261 it could be affecting the results of HNO3\_N, for which models underestimate concentrations.  
262 Nevertheless the evaporation-from-filters artifact should occur more strongly in summer, and the  
263 underestimation of models is observed mainly in winter, which suggests other reasons rather than a  
264 potential evaporation from filters. Anyway, we should point out that, in addition to the problem of few  
265 sites measuring the gas component, the atmospheric lifetimes of HNO3 and NH3 are very short and so  
266 site representativeness is also a problem. More measurements of the gas phase components would help in  
267 future evaluations of model performance.

### 268 **3.3 Sulfur**

269 Substantial differences were also found for WSO4, from the lowest values for ED\_CHIM up to the  
270 highest for AQ\_TR1\_MACC and ED\_MATCH. Most of the models meet at least two of the three  
271 acceptability criteria for WSO4, apart from AQ\_DK1\_HTAP, AQ\_FRES1\_HTAP, ED\_CHIM and  
272 ED\_MINNI. Similar to the N deposition, the models tended to underestimate the observed values (Fig. 2),



273 with the exception of AQ\_TR1\_MACC, AQ\_UK2\_HTAP, ED\_EMEP and ED\_MATCH. The tendency  
274 to underestimate WSO4\_S by most models, and similarly to the reduced nitrogen, is overall occurring  
275 simultaneously with an overestimation of the gaseous pollutant (SO2\_S) on an annual and monthly basis.  
276 As shown in the monthly *smile plots* in the AM 3.4, the underestimation of WSO4\_S tends to be smaller  
277 (and even positive for some models) during the winter period (Nov-Feb). Unlike NH3 and HNO3, which  
278 have the largest model bias in winter, model bias for SO2 does not appear to have a seasonal dependence..  
279 Model performance is generally better for the particulate concentrations (PM\_SO4\_S) although some  
280 large errors occur in the winter (Nov-Jan). All models tended to overestimate TSO4, with the exception of  
281 ED\_CHIM, ED\_EMEP and ED\_LOTO, and most models also tended to overestimate the SO2:TSO4  
282 ratios.

### 283 **3.4 Joint discussion**

284 In summary, wet deposition fluxes are generally underestimated for WSO4\_S and WNH4\_N, and in  
285 winter in the case of WNO3\_N. There are indications that the aqueous and heterogeneous chemistry (e.g.  
286 those involving conversion of NOx to HNO3) could be too slow or under-represented in the models,  
287 especially in winter, as evidenced by an overestimation of primary gaseous pollutants, especially NH3  
288 and SO2 for this period and an underestimation of the secondary pollutant HNO3 (formed via  
289 heterogeneous chemistry). However, this behavior (simultaneous overestimation of NH3\_N and  
290 underestimation of HNO3\_N in winter) could also be due to an excessive formation of nitrates (favored  
291 by low temperatures) due to a potential excess of NH3 (aerosol nitrate may be formed only if enough  
292 ammonia is available). This excess NH3 could be due to an overestimate of NH3 emissions during these  
293 months. The fact that sulfate concentrations are also low for several models in Jan and Feb and SO2  
294 concentrations are somewhat high could be due to an underestimate of the conversion to aerosol (sulfate)  
295 via aqueous chemistry, which could be another cause of the excess NH3.

### 296 **4 Model intercomparison of dry deposition**

297 Figures in AM 2 show maps of dry deposition for oxidized nitrogen (ONDD) (AM 2.2), reduced nitrogen  
298 (RNDD) (AM 2.1), total N (AM 2.4) and S (AM 2.5). Unfortunately, not all the models participating in  
299 AQMEI3 provided the complete set of outputs, and therefore it was not possible to analyze the dry  
300 deposition estimates for all of them. For example, for reduced nitrogen, only estimates from  
301 AQ\_FRES1\_HTAP, AQ\_UK2\_HTAP and AQ\_FI1\* in AQMEI3 were available.

302 Maps of dry deposition of total N for all models show the highest values over France, Germany and other  
303 central areas of the domain.

304 Differences between models can be seen in both high and low emission areas. Models have different  
305 deposition algorithms and, even when similar, they can have different input, such as land use or the leaf  
306 index area. It would be interesting in future studies to analyze how much different these parameters in the  
307 models are, due to their relevant importance in dry deposition estimates. The highest values of dry  
308 deposition of total N (AM 2.4) are found for ED\_CMAQ, with values higher than 1900 mg N m<sup>-2</sup> (annual  
309 accumulated value) over large areas in the central and western parts of the domain and mainly due to the

310 contribution of the oxidized species. AQ\_FRES1\_HTAP estimated the lowest values whereas the rest of  
311 model estimates have more similar spatial patterns. Maps in AM 2.1 and AM 2.2 for ONDD and RNDD  
312 indicate that ED\_CMAQ estimates the highest values for both oxidized and reduced nitrogen dry  
313 deposition. The largest differences can be observed for ONDD, where models in AQMEI3 community  
314 estimate lower values, reflecting the lower emissions of NO<sub>x</sub> used in these simulations (AM 7A and 7B).  
315 For RNDD differences between models are smaller, directly related to the more similar NH<sub>3</sub> emissions.  
316 The highest values of RNDD are observed for the Netherlands, the western part of France, Denmark and  
317 Belgium, as well as some high values in the area of the Alps. This direct response of dry deposition to  
318 emissions is more apparent than for wet deposition, where other factors such as precipitation act as  
319 essential drivers, in addition to the varied wet scavenging parameterizations of models.

320 Significant differences can be found when looking at the gas and particle deposition for the AQMEI3  
321 participants (for ED information for the two phases was not available). Two gases, NO<sub>2</sub> and HNO<sub>3</sub>  
322 contribute to ONDD. As can be inferred from AM 2.3, in the case of AQ\_DK1\_HTAP and  
323 AQ\_F11\_HTAP the gas components (NO<sub>2</sub> and HNO<sub>3</sub>) contribute more to ONDD than the particle phase,  
324 whereas in the case of AQ\_TR1\_MACC the largest contributions to ONDD come from the particle phase.  
325 This highlights the importance of taking measurements that can shed more light on these processes,  
326 providing modelers with data that can be used to parameterize and evaluate the different processes.

327 Spatial distributions are similar for dry deposition of S (AM 2.5; higher values mainly over Poland, The  
328 Netherlands, United Kingdom, Germany and Southeastern Europe), although in this case with higher  
329 differences in values, as it can be inferred from maps in AM 2.5. ED\_CMAQ presents a different spatial  
330 pattern, with high values also over sea, due to the consideration of sulfates coming from sea salt in this  
331 model application.

## 332 **5 Ensemble**

333 Considering the criteria in Section 2.1.3 and tables AM 3.7 (calculated for all the available sites) and 3.8  
334 (for common sites) jointly (that is, the criteria had to be met in both tables, on an annual basis), the  
335 ensemble was composed of AQ\_DK1\_HTAP, ED\_CHIM, ED\_EMEP, ED\_LOTO, AQ\_FI1\_MACC,  
336 AQ\_FI1\_HTAP and ED\_MATCH for N deposition (considering both ON and RN at the same time;  
337 gridded information for AQ\_UK1\_MACC and AQ\_UK2\_HTAP, passing the acceptance criteria, was not  
338 available). For S deposition the models meeting the criteria for SO<sub>2\_S</sub>, PM\_SO<sub>4\_S</sub> and WSO<sub>4\_S</sub> were  
339 ED\_EMEP, ED\_LOTO, ED\_MATCH, AQ\_FI1\_HTAP, AQ\_FI1\_MACC and AQ\_UK1\_MACC  
340 (AQ\_UK1\_MACC gridded information was not available for all the variables, so it was not included in  
341 the ensemble). Figs. 4 and 6 show the deposition of N and S for the selected models and the ensemble.  
342 The ensemble was calculated to facilitate the analysis in Section 7. Maps of annual wet deposition for all  
343 the models are shown in AM 1. Other criteria to select the models in the ensemble or the way to calculate  
344 it would lead to a different ensemble Figs. 5 and 7 include maps of standard deviation of total N and S,  
345 respectively, for the ensemble, calculated as shown in Table 4. For N deposition, the main differences are  
346 located in Northern Italy (mainly due to the models estimating the largest deposition values in this region)  
347 and other areas, such as The Netherlands, for which there are notable differences in NO<sub>x</sub> emissions

348 between the ED and AQMEII3 simulations, and the Brittany region (Northwestern France), where there  
349 are differences in ammonia emissions. For S deposition, the main differences are located over Poland and  
350 the English Channel and Mediterranean shipping routes, where there are differences between the SO<sub>2</sub>  
351 emission inventories. Some of the models include volcanic emissions of SO<sub>2</sub>, which is why there are also  
352 large differences in S deposition close to the active volcano Etna on the island of Sicily (Italy).  
353 Results for the ensemble are also included in smile plots and tables for wet deposition, in order to show  
354 the performance of the ensemble.

## 355 **6 Contribution of different regions (NA, EU, GLO) to N and S deposition in Europe**

### 356 **6.1 Methodology**

357 As we have previously described in the framework of AQMEII3 activities, and to give scientific support  
358 to the HTAP task force, research activities have included an evaluation of the influence of a reduction of  
359 emissions in some parts of the Northern Hemisphere on the air quality other regions. Along these lines,  
360 some models ran simulations with 1) a 20% reduction of global emissions (GLO), 2) a 20% reduction of  
361 emissions in Europe (EUR) and 3) a 20% reduction of emissions in North America (NAM). According to  
362 the acceptance criteria described in Section 2, and the availability of models running the different  
363 emission scenarios, we chose AQ\_FI1\_MACC as a representative model to demonstrate the effects of the  
364 different emission reduction scenarios. For WNO<sub>3</sub> the results from the AQ\_FRES1\_HTAP model were  
365 included as well, as this model performed acceptably for this pollutant and simulated the three  
366 perturbation scenarios.

367 The effect of each scenario was calculated in terms of deposition ( $\text{mg N m}^{-2}$ ) and percentage changes with  
368 respect to the base case (%). Differences between the base case simulation (no emission reduction) and  
369 the different scenarios were calculated for wet and dry deposition of ON, RN and S, as well as for total  
370 deposition of N and S.

### 371 **6.2 Results**

372 Maps reflecting the effect of the reduction of 20% of emissions in the different scenarios are included in  
373 Figs. 8 and 9, for total N and S (including both oxidized and reduced N, as well as wet and dry  
374 deposition), in absolute and relative terms. In general, a 20% reduction of total N and S deposition is  
375 found when global emissions are reduced by 20% (although somewhat lower for N in the United  
376 Kingdom, the Netherlands and in Belgium). When a 20% emission reduction is only applied in Europe,  
377 the deposition of N and S is decreased by 10-20%. When emissions are reduced in North America only,  
378 deposition at the eastern areas of the domain is reduced by about 2%, (Fig. 11). Im et al. (2017) found  
379 also an almost linear response to the change in emissions for NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> air concentration, for the  
380 global perturbation scenario, with slighter smaller responses for the European perturbation scenario and  
381 very small influence of the long-range transport, noticeable close to the boundaries.

382 Similar maps for wet and dry deposition are presented in AM 5 and AM 6, for wet and dry deposition.  
383 For WNO<sub>3</sub>\_N the global emission reductions have the largest effect on European deposition, with the  
384 largest changes in wet deposition in the Alpine area (North Italy, Southern Germany). These areas are

385 also affected in terms of WNH4\_N, although in this case the emission reduction affects larger areas in  
386 Germany and The Netherlands. For WSO4\_S (AM) the highest impacts are found on the Balkan  
387 Peninsula, especially the south of Bulgaria, Rumania and Serbia. These quantities represent a reduction of  
388 about 20% of the base case deposition in most parts of Europe, even a bit higher for WNO3\_N in the  
389 Alpine area according to AQ\_FI1\_MACC. For AQ\_FRES1\_HTAP the reduction for WNO3\_N is lower,  
390 in the range 14-20% for the whole domain.

391 When emission reductions only occur in Europe, the changes in wet deposition are somewhat lower than  
392 for a global reduction according to AQ\_FI1\_MACC, (AM 5.1, AM 5.2). Reductions in WNH4\_N are  
393 similar to those of the global emission reduction scenario in western and central Europe, but substantially  
394 smaller in the eastern and northern parts of the domain, which are influenced more strongly by non-  
395 European emissions to the east. Larger differences are found between the global and European emission  
396 reduction scenarios for WNO3\_N, with an influence of non-European emissions that extends throughout  
397 the domain. In many countries wet deposition decreases by about 10% for the European emission  
398 reduction scenario, and a 20% reduction is only found over some central areas. The situation is similar  
399 for WSO4\_S, albeit with even larger contributions from non-European emissions. For  
400 AQ\_FRES1\_HTAP, the reduction of WNO3\_N is similar to that estimated by AQ\_FI1\_MACC, although  
401 the range of reduction is smaller. Emission reductions in NA have a very small effect on European wet  
402 deposition (around a 1-2%), with reductions mostly concentrated in the western part of the domain  
403 (Iceland, Ireland, United Kingdom, Portugal, France, Spain, Norway. This pattern is also reproduced by  
404 AQ\_FRES1\_HTAP, although the absolute changes for AQ\_FI1\_MACC are larger in the central area and  
405 smaller on the Iberian Peninsula. The effect of global emission reductions on dry deposition is similar to  
406 that for wet deposition, although the relative reductions are slightly smaller for DNO3\_N (except in the  
407 east and south of the domain) and slightly larger for DNH4\_N and DSO4\_S than for WNO3\_N,  
408 WNH4\_N and WSO4\_N, respectively (AM 5, AM 6). The differences between the relative changes in  
409 wet and dry deposition are similar for the European emission reduction scenario, although the relative  
410 change is larger for the dry deposition in the east of the domain. The influence of emission reductions in  
411 NA on the wet deposition is generally larger than that on the dry deposition.

412 Differences between the global emissions reduction scenario and the European emission reduction  
413 scenario, discounting the effect of NAM, indicate that there is an influence of emissions from other  
414 regions, especially to the east of the domain that could produce a 10% reduction in deposition over certain  
415 areas. This is in agreement with results from studies carried out within the framework of the HTAP task  
416 force using global models, which estimate that 5-10% of European N deposition is the result of non-  
417 European emissions (Dentener et al., 2011; Sanderson, 2008).

418

## 419 **7 Deposition of N over areas in Nature 2000 network**

420 In this section, we first analyze the representativeness of the monitoring sites used in the evaluation of  
421 model deposition with a focus on habitat conservation. Secondly, the estimated deposition by the multi-  
422 model ensemble is used to evaluate the total N deposition (dry + wet) to the protected habitats. Finally, a  
423 simple evaluation (where possible) of the CL exceedances is presented. Together with S deposition, N  
424 deposition also contributes to acid deposition. However, as mentioned in the introduction, only 5% of the

425 Natura 2000 area was at risk of acidification in 2010 and so the focus of this part of the study is on the  
426 exceedances of CLs for the nutrient N.

### 427 **7.1. Representativeness of monitoring sites for conservation purposes**

428 The EMEP measurements are regional representative (Tørseth et al 2012 , EMEP, 2014) and have  
429 historically been considered to represent an area larger than the size resolution of the EMEP atmospheric  
430 dispersion model (for the grid with 50x50km<sup>2</sup> of horizontal resolution). This resolution was taken as a  
431 reference for establishing a buffer zone of 2500 km<sup>2</sup> around the receptors. The protected habitats inside  
432 the buffer zone were determined by intersecting the surface area of the Natura 2000 network (EEA,  
433 2017), with the cover of the most-likely habitats in Europe using EUNIS level-1 classification (EEA,  
434 2015). Previously to this, aquatic, aquatic-related and anthropic habitats (such as gardens or arable lands)  
435 were excluded, in order to study only natural and semi-natural terrestrial ecosystems. The surface area  
436 covered by each habitat class included in the Natura 2000 network was plotted against the surface area of  
437 the same protected habitat classes within the above-mentioned buffer zones, in relative values with  
438 respect to their respective totals (Table 5, Fig. 10). The most represented terrestrial habitats in the entire  
439 network are broadleaved deciduous woodland, coniferous woodland, mesic grasslands and mixed  
440 deciduous and coniferous woodland (EUNIS classifications G1, G3, E2 and G4, respectively). The results  
441 indicate that the selected monitoring sites represent the main classes of terrestrial habitats fairly well, with  
442 G4 deviating most, with an overrepresentation of 51% within the protected buffered area with respect to  
443 the entire Natura 2000 network.

444 The same exercise was performed using only monitoring sites measuring all N species (including in  
445 precipitation, gaseous and particulate N). Only 8 monitoring sites, distributed between the United  
446 Kingdom, Switzerland and Eastern Europe, have the complete set of N pollutant measurements. Since the  
447 Natura 2000 network has no presence in Switzerland, only 6 sites could be evaluated for  
448 representativeness. Among the most represented habitats, G1 and G3 deviated the most in their  
449 representation. In any case, this subset can be considered small and poorly distributed across Europe.  
450 Therefore, the evaluation of model results for total concentration and deposition of N pollutants in Europe  
451 is still far from being representative in terms of conservational purposes.

### 452 **7.2. Risk assessment of atmospheric N deposition in the Natura 2000 network**

453 The mean and standard deviation (SD) for total deposition of N obtained from the ensemble model were  
454 combined with revised empirical CL (Bobbink and Hetteling, 2011) to provide a risk assessment of N  
455 deposition effects on vegetation in the Natura 2000 network. This evaluation constitutes a first approach,  
456 which helps to locate the most-likely areas and major terrestrial habitat classes at risk of eutrophication as  
457 a result of atmospheric N deposition. Further research (particularly on habitat specific CL) and a wider  
458 monitoring network (particularly to evaluate models' performance for dry deposition) are needed to carry  
459 out a more accurate risk assessment. It is also interesting to bear in mind that even though recent studies  
460 (e.g. Cape et al., 2012; Izquieta-Rojano, 2016; Matsumoto et al., 2014) have highlighted the important  
461 contribution of the organic form to total N deposition (from 10 to more than 50%), there are still  
462 important gaps in our knowledge of the role of organic fraction in the N cycle and scarce attempts to

463 include it in the measurement networks (e.g. Walker et al., 2012). Deposition of dissolved organic N  
464 constitutes another variable involving uncertainty in the actual understanding of the N cycle (Izquieta-  
465 Rojano et al., 2016) and, consequently, in the risk assessment of N deposition. Further research is  
466 therefore needed to understand the role that organic N plays in ecosystem functioning, biogeochemical  
467 cycles and even human health.

468 Ensemble deposition maps were projected and resampled to coincide with the EUNIS habitat grid (level 1  
469 classification; ETRS89 LAEA projection; 100 m ×100 m cell size). The mean±SD values were used as  
470 estimates of lower and upper uncertainty limits for the deposition, which were then compared to the mean  
471 CL attributed to each habitat class (Table 5; based on those from Bobbink and Hetteling, 2011). Those  
472 areas in which the class-attributed CL was exceeded by any of the values (mean-SD; mean; mean+SD)  
473 were identified. The area presenting exceedances of empirical CL ( $CL_{exc}$ ) was summed for each EUNIS  
474 level-1 habitat class (Table 5). The areas showing  $CL_{exc}$  were mapped for the most threatened habitat  
475 classes (Fig. 11). In the case of similar habitats with similar distributions, a joint map is shown (D1 and  
476 D2; G3 and G4). Values of  $CL_{ex}$  in Fig. 12 indicate the area exposed to an exceedance of the CL  
477 expressed as percentage of the total area evaluated for each particular habitat class. These values were  
478 also calculated considering the total deposition of N from AQ\_FI\_MACC, as this model was used to  
479 estimate the variation in deposition due to changes in emissions, as it will be later explained. All these  
480 operations were performed using ArcGIS 10.2 (ESRI, Redlands CA, USA).

481 The six habitats with the largest surface area with a mean ensemble deposition above their respective CL  
482 were “alpine and subalpine grasslands” (E4), “coniferous woodlands” (G3), “mixed deciduous and  
483 coniferous woodlands” (G4), “raised and blanket bogs” (D1), “artic, alpine and subalpine scrub” (F2) and  
484 “valley mires, poor fens and transition mires” (D2), with critical load exceedances covering 65%, 34%,  
485 32%, 24%, 16% and 11% of their respective areas (Table 5). Alpine and subalpine grasslands were also  
486 detected as the types most jeopardized by N deposition, in a similar study for Spanish protected areas  
487 using 2008 simulations from EMEP and CHIMERE models (García-Gómez et al., 2014). These habitats  
488 are usually located in areas with complex topography, where model estimates of atmospheric deposition  
489 can be more spatially inaccurate, as suggested in previous studies (e.g. García-Gómez et al., 2014;  
490 Simpson et al., 2006). The scarcity of monitoring sites at high altitude to evaluate model simulations can  
491 be considered as a major uncertainty in the risk assessment for N deposition.

492 The variation among the models included in the ensemble, represented here by the standard deviation  
493 (SD) of the ensemble, mostly affected E4 (Table 5). The reduction of the area at risk of this habitat class  
494 is remarkable high (-50%), when the lower limit of the deposition is used (mean-SD; Table 5). This might  
495 indicate that the CL is exceeded in most areas by a narrow margin. Within the other five habitat classes  
496 with the highest  $CL_{exc}$  area, the area at risk decreased by 13% and increased by 16% on average, when the  
497 lower and upper limits of deposition are used. These same six habitats were again found to present the  
498 largest areas showing  $CL_{exc}$  when using AQ\_FI1\_MACC estimates, although some differences were  
499 found (Fig. 12).

500 Apart from the uncertainty in modelled deposition, the uncertainty in the CL attributed to the habitat  
501 classes should also be considered. On the one hand, some CL proposed in the CLRTAP revision are based  
502 on expert judgment (e.g. those for E2, F5 or G4) and some were averaged from those proposed for several

503 subclasses (e.g. for E1 and F4). On the other hand, even when the proposed CL are reliable and match  
504 perfectly with the habitat classes evaluated in this study, an adjustment linked to more local conditions is  
505 recommended (e.g. for D1 it is recommended to vary the applied CL as a function of the precipitation  
506 range or the water table level). However, since a CL averaged from the proposed range was used for each  
507 habitat class and the evaluation was performed on a broad scale, we consider that the results are suitable  
508 for the purpose of this work, which is highlighting the protected areas and terrestrial habitats with the  
509 highest probability of suffering eutrophication. Finally, the use in this approach of a modelled dry  
510 deposition that is in fact weighted for the different land use inside each grid cell might lead to an  
511 underestimation of, for instance, forests risks, as the dry deposition for plant surfaces is higher than for  
512 other land uses, and it is currently smoothed during the weighting process. To perform a more accurate  
513 assessment, habitat-type-specific values for dry deposition of N are necessary. It is, therefore,  
514 recommended that chemical transport models provide dry deposition data as a function of leaf area index  
515 (LAI) or habitat type in order to be more suitable for risk assessment studies.

516 We also estimated how much the reductions in emissions described in Section 6 affected the risks of N  
517 impacts in the Natura 2000 areas. As can be inferred from Fig. 12, there is a significant reduction in the  
518 habitat area withstanding CL<sub>exc</sub> for the scenarios GLO and EUR, compared with the base case  
519 (AQ\_FI1\_MACC). Particularly, the most jeopardized habitat types showed a reduction of more than a  
520 third in their overall threatened area. Both reduction scenarios showed almost similar values of CL<sub>exc</sub>,  
521 with only slight differences in E4 (where GLO reduction produces a slightly larger decrease in CL<sub>exc</sub>).  
522 G3 and G4 habitats are the most affected, for which the exceeded area was approximately halved as a  
523 result of the emission reduction. In the case of NAM, no decrease is observed, indicating the low impact  
524 of hemispheric transport from North America to Europe, at least in terms of N deposition in 2010.

## 525 **8 Conclusions**

526 A comparison of the wet and dry deposition of N and S estimated by 14 air quality models participating in  
527 the projects AQMEI3 and EURODELTAIII revealed considerable differences between the models. An  
528 evaluation of model performance was carried out, jointly considering air concentrations and wet  
529 deposition of the relevant compounds. Very few measurements of gaseous species (HNO<sub>3</sub> or NH<sub>3</sub>) were  
530 available, making it difficult to do a fair and complete evaluation.

531 In general, for oxidized N wet deposition, most of the models meet at least two of the three acceptability  
532 criteria (NMSE < 1.5, |FB| < 0.3, FAC2 > 0.5) for both monthly and annual wet deposition values, with  
533 the exceptions of AQ\_DE1\_HTAP and ED\_MINNI, which substantially underestimated deposition. In  
534 the case of AQ\_DE1\_HTAP this is a behavior occurring throughout the whole year and to some extent  
535 related to an underestimation of precipitation in this model. For ED\_MINNI the underestimation of  
536 WNO<sub>3</sub>\_N is more evident in winter and it is not related to precipitation, which has a better agreement  
537 with observations during this period. All the models performed acceptably for TNO<sub>3</sub>\_N, except for  
538 AQ\_DE1\_HTAP for the monthly data and ED\_CMAQ for the annual data. All the models performed  
539 worse for atmospheric concentrations of the gaseous form (HNO<sub>3</sub>\_N) than for the particulate form  
540 (PM\_NO<sub>3</sub>\_N), with no model performing acceptably for the monthly data, and most models

541 underestimating the HNO<sub>3</sub>:TNO<sub>3</sub> ratio during the winter months. It is however important to note that the  
542 observations of independent NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and HNO<sub>3</sub> are not measured with an unbiased method (same as NH<sub>3</sub>  
543 and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>), so it is difficult to draw strong conclusions of the model performance for these compounds.  
544 For reduced N wet deposition, there was a general underestimation, which seems to correlate with an  
545 overestimation of the gaseous form (NH<sub>3</sub>\_N) on an annual basis (except for ED\_EMEP, which has a very  
546 low bias for both pollutants, and ED\_MATCH, which overestimates WNH<sub>4</sub>\_N slightly). The  
547 overestimation of NH<sub>3</sub>\_N is mainly observed in autumn and winter (Jan, Feb, Nov, Dec). Most models  
548 tend to underestimate WSO<sub>4</sub>\_S, with the exception of AQ\_TR1\_MACC, AQ\_UK2\_HTAP, ED\_EMEP  
549 and ED\_MATCH. The underestimation of WSO<sub>4</sub>\_S tends to be smaller (and even positive for some  
550 models) during the winter period (Nov-Feb), when there is a tendency by most models to overestimate the  
551 gaseous pollutant (SO<sub>2</sub>\_S).

552 Considering the whole picture, wet deposition fluxes are generally underestimated for WSO<sub>4</sub>\_S and  
553 WNH<sub>4</sub>\_N, and in winter in the case of WNO<sub>3</sub>\_N. During the winter period, the results indicate an  
554 overestimation of primary gaseous pollutants, especially NH<sub>3</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> and an underestimation of the  
555 secondary pollutant HNO<sub>3</sub>. Several reasons can explain this behavior, such as a too slow or under-  
556 represented aqueous and heterogeneous chemistry (e.g. those involving conversion of NO<sub>x</sub> to HNO<sub>3</sub>)  
557 and/or an overestimate of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions during these months, leading to an excessive decrease of HNO<sub>3</sub>  
558 through the formation of nitrates (aerosol nitrate may be formed only if enough ammonia is available).  
559 The fact that sulfate concentrations are also low for several models in Jan and Feb and those of SO<sub>2</sub> are  
560 somewhat high could be due to an underestimate of the conversion to aerosol (sulfate) via aqueous  
561 chemistry, which could be another cause of the excess NH<sub>3</sub>. More detailed studies would be needed to  
562 better understand the specific problems of each model, taking into account the multiple processes  
563 involved and all the relevant chemical and meteorological variables.

564 For dry deposition, large differences were found between the models, highlighting the importance of  
565 obtaining measurement data to evaluate model performance. This point is important, considering the  
566 significant contribution of dry deposition to total deposition.

567 A multi-model ensemble was constructed using the better-performing models for wet deposition (N and  
568 S) and having also estimated dry deposition. For N, the ensemble was produced as the mean of  
569 AQ\_FI1\_MACC, AQ\_FI1\_HTAP, AQ\_DK1\_MACC, ED\_EMEP and ED\_MATCH models, and was  
570 used to calculate exceedances of empirical critical loads for nitrogen for habitats in the European Natura  
571 2000 network. Six habitats were identified as having critical load exceedances covering more than 10% of  
572 their total area: “alpine and subalpine grasslands” (E4), “coniferous woodlands” (G3), “mixed deciduous  
573 and coniferous woodlands” (G4), “raised and blanket bogs” (D1), “artic, alpine and subalpine scrub” (F2)  
574 and “valley mires, poor fens and transition mires” (D2), with critical load exceedances covering 60%,  
575 30%, 29%, 22%, 13% and 10% of their respective areas. The variation among the ensemble models, in  
576 terms of the standard deviation of the ensemble, mostly affected E4, with 85% of the habitat area  
577 exceeded for the upper deposition estimate. It’s important to point out that in addition to the uncertainty  
578 in modelled deposition, the CL attributed to a given habitat is also uncertain. Extending the deposition  
579 monitoring networks in European mountains would be not only beneficial for the study of atmospheric  
580 deposition, but also for model evaluation and risk assessment for these particularly threatened areas.



581

582 The reduction of 20% of emissions at global scale produces a 20% of reduction in total deposition of N  
583 and S, with the main contributor being Europe, according to the estimates of A\_FII\_MACC model. This  
584 reduction of total deposition is directly related to a decrease of the CLe<sub>exc</sub> found for the different habitats  
585 in Natura 2000 network, especially for G3 and G4, for which the exceeded area was approximately  
586 halved as a result of the emission reduction. Hemispheric transport of air pollutants from NAM has a low  
587 impact on wet deposition, mostly concentrated over the Atlantic area.

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594 Agency

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**Table 1:** Abbreviation used in this publication. Note that “\_N” or “\_S” is added when referring to specific

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values that are calculated in terms of N or S.

Wet deposition of oxidized N	WNO3	WNO3_N
Wet deposition of reduced N	WNH4	WNH4_N
Wet deposition of S	WSO4	WSO4_S
Dry deposition of oxidized N	DNO3	DNO3_N
Dry deposition of reduced N	DNH4	DNH4_N
Dry deposition of S	DSO4	DSO4_S
Atmospheric concentration of N from nitric acid	HNO3	HNO3_N
Atmospheric concentration of N from nitrate in PM <sub>10</sub>	PM_NO3	PM_NO3_N
Total oxidized N concentration = HNO <sub>3</sub> + PM_NO3	TNO3	TNO3_N
Atmospheric concentration of N from ammonia	NH3	NH3_N
Atmospheric concentration of N from ammonium in PM <sub>10</sub>	PM_NH4	PM_NH4_N
Total reduced N concentration = NH <sub>3</sub> + PM_NH <sub>4</sub>	TNH4	TNH4_N
Atmospheric concentration of S	SO2	SO2_S
Atmospheric concentration of S from sulfate in PM <sub>10</sub>	PM_SO4	PM_SO4_S
Total S concentration = SO <sub>2</sub> + PM_SO <sub>4</sub>	TSO4	TSO4_S
Precipitation	PRECIP	

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Table 2 Meteorological and CTM model used by each participant. More specific information regarding both meteorological and chemical-transport models is included in Solazzo et al. (2017) and Colette et al. (2017)

	AQMEII3		EDT		
	METEO *	CTM*		METEO**	CTM**
AQ_DE1_HTAP	COSMO-CLMy	CMAQ (v4.7.1)	ED_CHIM	WRF-Common***	CHIMERE (Chimere2017b v1.0)
AQ_DK1_HTAP	WRF (v 3.6)	DEHM	ED_CMAQ	WRF-Common (adapted to different projection )	CMAQ (v5.0.2)
AQ_FI1_HTAP/_MACC	ECMWF	SILAM	ED_EMEP	WRF-Common	EMEP (rv4.7)
AQ_FRES1_HTAP	ECMWF	CHIMERE (vchim2013)	ED_LOTO	RACMO2	LOTOS (v1.10.005)
AQ_UK1_MACC	WRF (v3.4.1)	CMAQ (v5.0.2)	ED_MATCH	HIRLAM	MATCH (VSOA April 2016)
AQ_UK2_HTAP	WRF (v3.5.1)	CMAQ (v5.0.2)	ED_MINNI	WRF-Common	MINNI (V4.7)
AQ_TR1_MACC	WRF (v3.5)	CMAQ (v4.7.1)			
EMISSIONS: Copernicus 0.125° × 0.0625°/HTAP_v2.2 monthly		0.1° × 0.1°. Annual and	EMISSIONS: ECLIPSE_V5, 0.5° × 0.5°. Regridded to 0.25° × 0.25°. Annual.		
BOUNDARY CONDITIONS: C-IFS (CB05), 0.125° × 0.125°. Every 3 hours.			BOUNDARY CONDITIONS: 1.5° × 1.5°. Monthly.		

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\* more information in Solazzo et al. (2017) \*\*more information in Colette et al. (2017) \*\*\*as defined in Colette et al. (2017)

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751 **Table 3:** Number of sites for each pollutant

WNO3: 59	TNO3: 45	HNO3: 12	PM_NO3: 32
WNH4: 61	TNH4: 39	NH3: 12	PM_NH4: 27
WSO4: 61	TSO4: 18*	SO2: 57	PM_SO4: 21

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- Calculated as the addition of SO2 to PM\_SO4, not directly measured using filter packs

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756 **Table 4:** The three metrics relating modelled concentrations (M) with the observed values (O) used for evaluating  
757 model performance in the smile plots and standard deviation for the ensemble.

<b>NMSE</b>	$NMSE = \frac{(\overline{O - M})^2}{\overline{O} \overline{M}}$	<b>&lt;= 1.5</b>
<b>FB</b>	$FB = \frac{2(\overline{M} - \overline{O})}{(\overline{O} + \overline{M})}$	<b> FB  &lt;= 0.3</b>
<b>FAC2</b>	Fraction of model estimates within a factor of two of the observed values	<b>FAC2 &gt;= 0.5</b>
	$0.5 \leq \frac{M}{O} \leq 2.0$	
<b>SD</b>	$SD = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N - 1} \sum_{i=1}^N (M_i - \overline{M})^2}$	N : Number of models in the ensemble  $\overline{M}$ : Ensemble, mean of models

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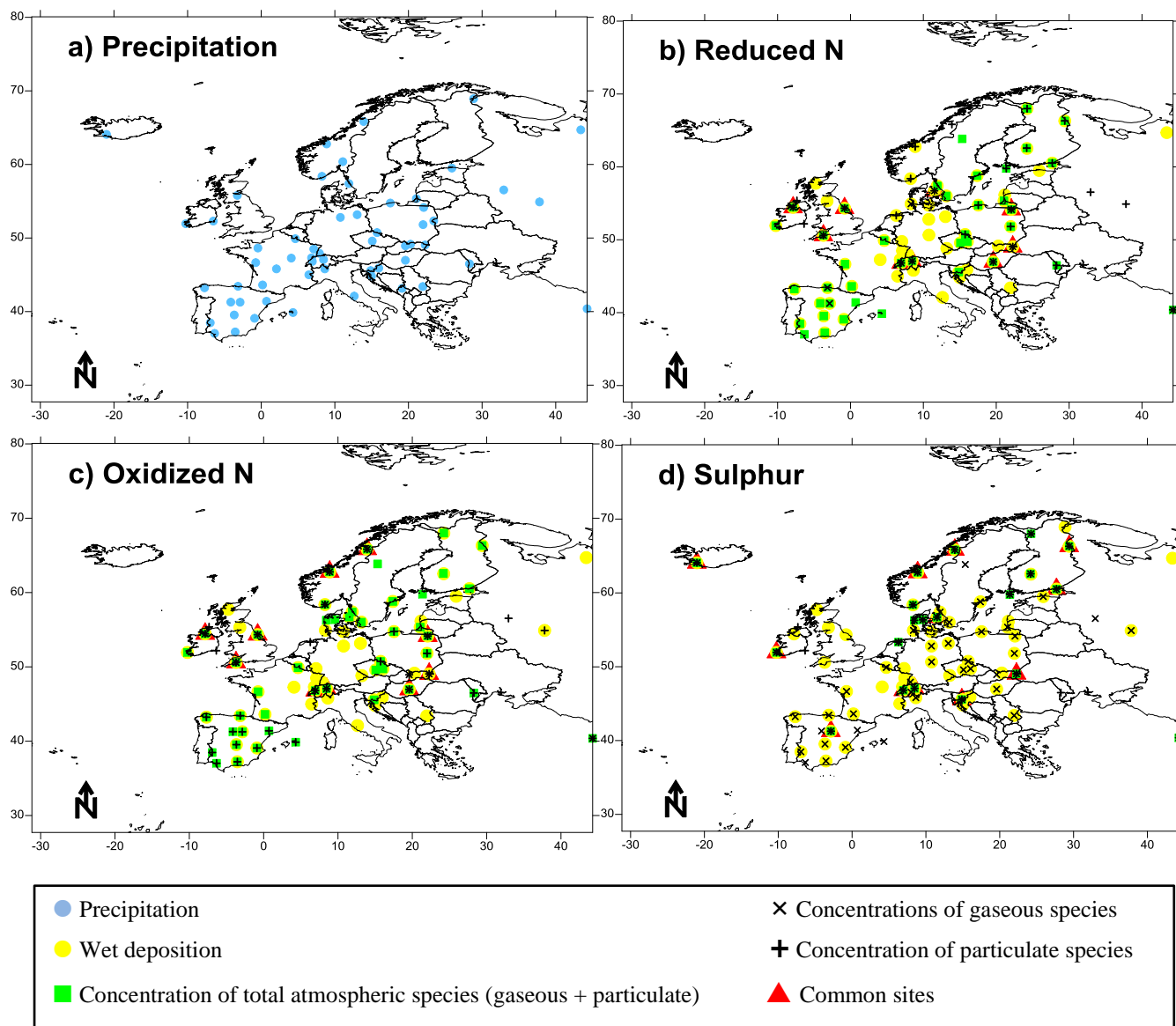
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**Table 5.** Coverage, mean ensemble deposition, attributed critical load and its exceedances (considering mean and mean plus/minus standard deviation of the ensemble deposition) for the main terrestrial habitat classes within the Natura 2000 network

Habitat group	EUNIS code	Habitat class	Natura 2000 <sup>a</sup>	Receptors <sup>b</sup>	Avg. Dep (kgN/ha) <sup>c</sup>	CL (kgN/ha) <sup>d</sup>	CL <sub>exc</sub> <sup>e</sup>	CL <sub>exc</sub> (Dep.-SD) <sup>f</sup>	CL <sub>exc</sub> (Dep.+SD) <sup>f</sup>
Peatlands	D1	Raised and blanket bogs	1.9%	2.9%	5.98	7.50	24%	13%	37%
	D2	Valley mires, poor fens and transition mires	0.2%	0.1%	6.94	12.50	11%	7%	16%
	D3	Aapa, palsa and polygon mires	2.1%	1.1%	1.49				
	D4	Base-rich fens and calcareous spring mires	0.1%	0.1%	9.02	21.25	1%	0%	2%
	D5	Sedge and reedbeds	0.5%	0.3%	8.05				
	D6	Inland saline and brackish marshes and reedbeds	< 0.1%	< 0.1%	11.34				
Grasslands	E1	Dry grasslands	0.5%	0.1%	5.41	15.75	0%	0%	0%
	E2	Mesic grasslands	14.1%	9.8%	9.02	20.00	2%	1%	3%
	E3	Seasonally wet and wet grasslands	1.8%	0.8%	8.83	16.25	5%	2%	10%
	E4	Alpine and subalpine grasslands	1.3%	1.3%	8.40	7.50	65%	15%	85%
	E6	Inland salt steppes	0.5%	0.1%	7.60				
	E7	Sparsely wooded grasslands	1.3%	0.4%	5.24				
Shrublands	F2	Arctic, alpine and subalpine scrub	2.7%	3.9%	5.07	10.00	16%	5%	32%
	F3	Temperate and Mediterranean-montane scrub	3.6%	3.1%	4.25				
	F4	Temperate shrub heathland	< 0.1%	< 0.1%	4.67	15.00	0%	0%	1%
	F5	Arborescent and thermo-Mediterranean brushes	2.7%	2.4%	6.11	25.00	0%	0%	0%
	F6	Garrigue	0.6%	1.1%	6.39				
	F7	Spiny Mediterranean heaths	1.1%	1.1%	5.72				
	F8	Thermo-Atlantic xerophytic scrub	0.3%	0.0%	nd				
	F9	Riverine and fen scrubs	< 0.1%	< 0.1%	4.15				
	FB	Shrub plantations	0.8%	0.3%	7.63				
Woodlands	G1	Broadleaved deciduous woodland	25.1%	23.4%	8.50	15.00	4%	1%	14%
	G2	Broadleaved evergreen woodland	1.2%	0.4%	6.88	15.00	0%	0%	5%
	G3	Coniferous woodland	20.7%	25.6%	7.83	10.00	34%	14%	53%
	G4	Mixed deciduous and coniferous woodland	9.4%	14.2%	8.61	10.75	32%	13%	58%
	G5	Early-stage woodland and semi-natural stands	7.6%	7.5%	6.16	7.50			

a) representation within the Natura 2000 network; b) representation within the Natura 2000 network in the joint of the buffered areas; c) weighted mean of N deposition for each habitat class according to ensemble results; d) attributed critical load in this work (based on empirical critical loads from Bobbink and Hetteling, 2011); e) area withstanding an exceedance of the CL, expressed as percentage of the total area evaluated for each particular habitat class; f) area withstanding an exceedance of the CL, when using an ensemble deposition value of mean minus/plus the standard deviation of the ensemble mean



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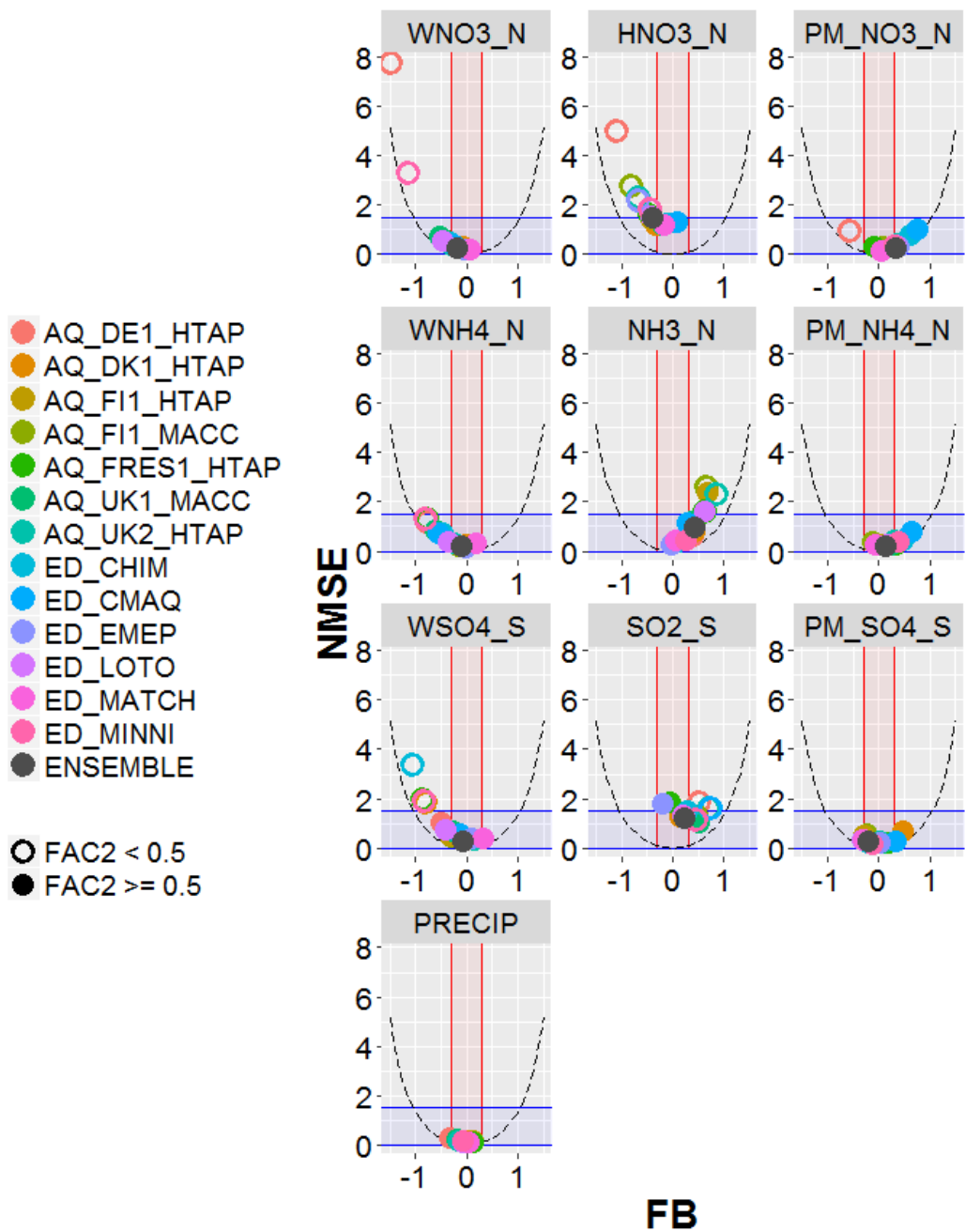
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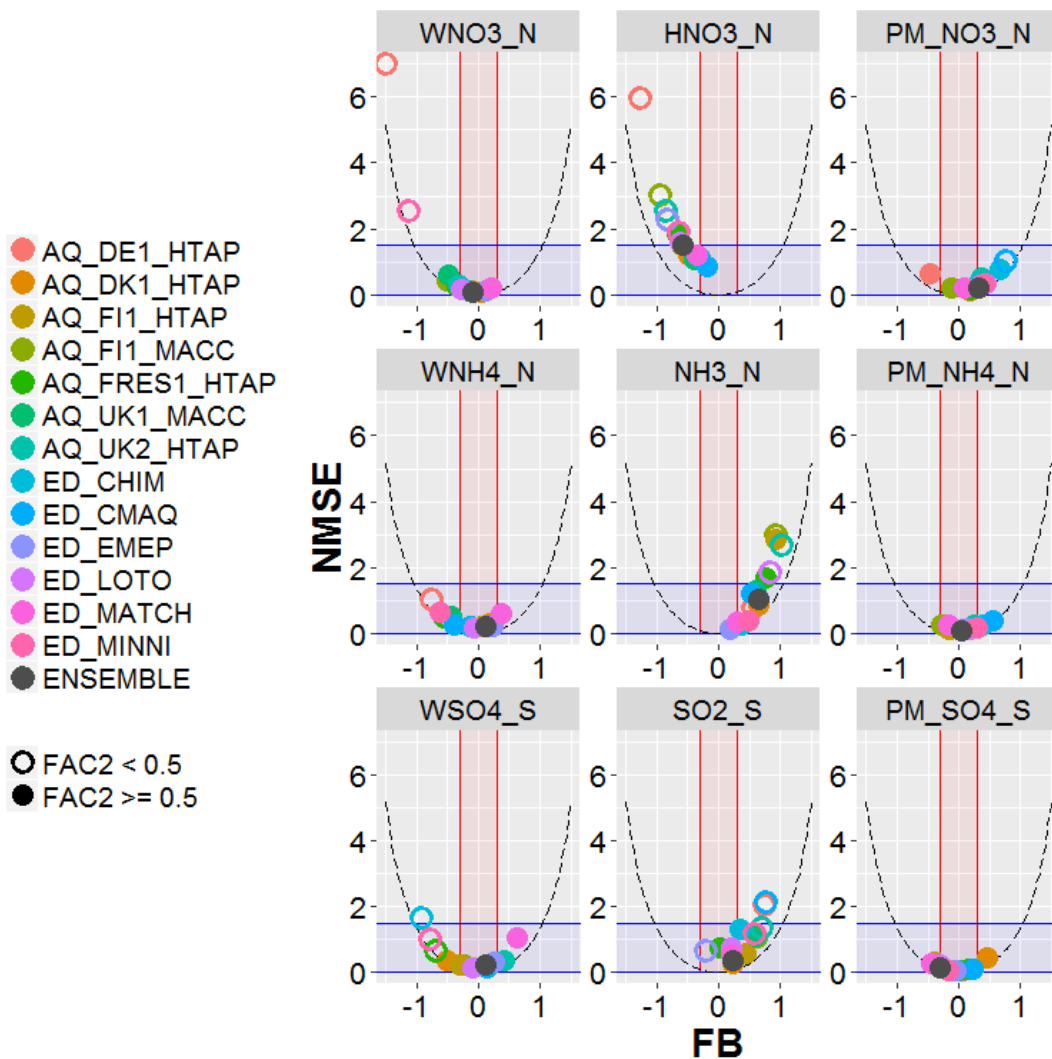
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Figure 1: Monitoring sites with measurements of precipitation (a), reduced N species (b), oxidized N species (c) and S (d) used in the evaluation of annual modelled values.



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777 Figure 2: Statistics (FB, NMSE and FAC2) calculated from annual values of wet deposition, concentration and precipitation  
 778 at all available sites. Shaded areas correspond to areas meeting the acceptance criteria of Chang and Hanna (2004) (blue  
 779 for NMSE, red for FB). Parabolic dashed lines indicate the theoretical minimum NMSE for a given value of FB. Better  
 780 model performance is indicated by points that fall within the blue and red shaded areas and with filled circles.  
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785 Figure 3: Statistics calculated from annual values (accumulated deposition or average means for air concentration) only at  
 786 sites with simultaneous measurements of the three related pollutants (e.g. HNO<sub>3</sub>, PM<sub>NO3</sub> and WNO<sub>3</sub>) for oxidised N,  
 787 reduced N and S species. Shaded areas correspond to areas meeting the acceptance criteria of Chang and Hanna (2004) (blue  
 788 for NMSE, red for FB). Parabolic dashed lines indicate the theoretical minimum NMSE for a given value of FB. Better  
 model performance is indicated by points that fall within the blue and red shaded areas and with filled circles.

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# Annual deposition of TOTAL N

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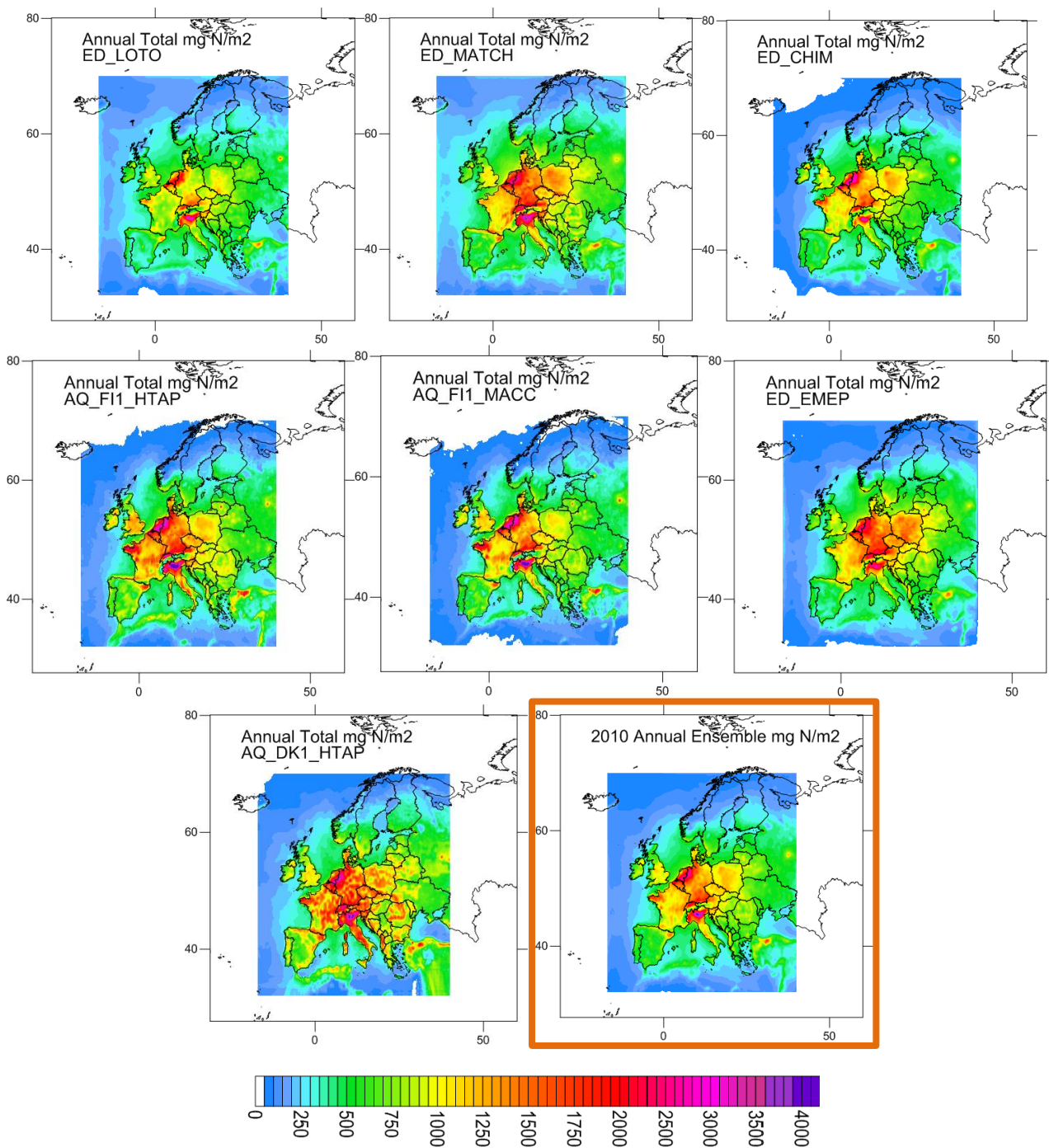
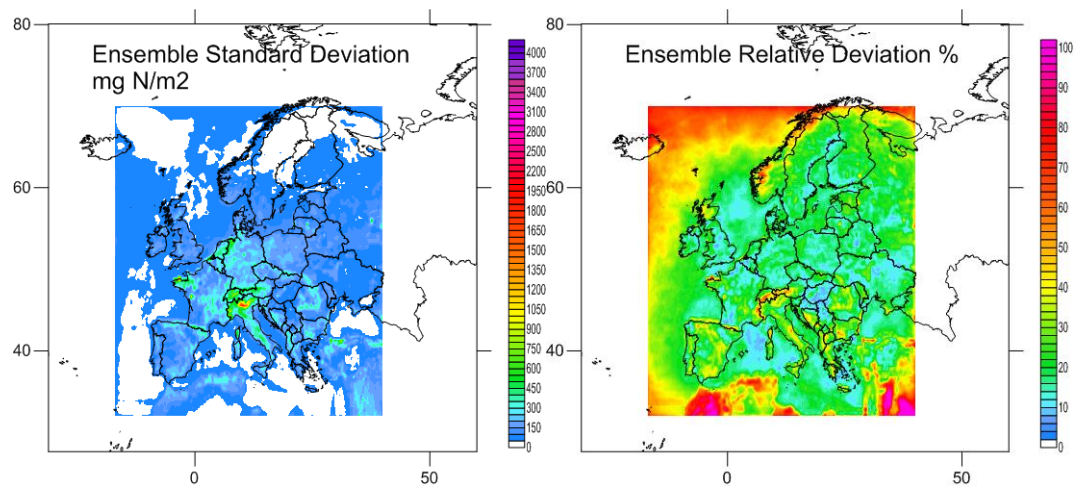


Figure 4: Maps of total N (mg N m<sup>-2</sup>) for the models showing acceptable performance for wet N deposition. The ensemble (mean of the models) is shown in right bottom panel



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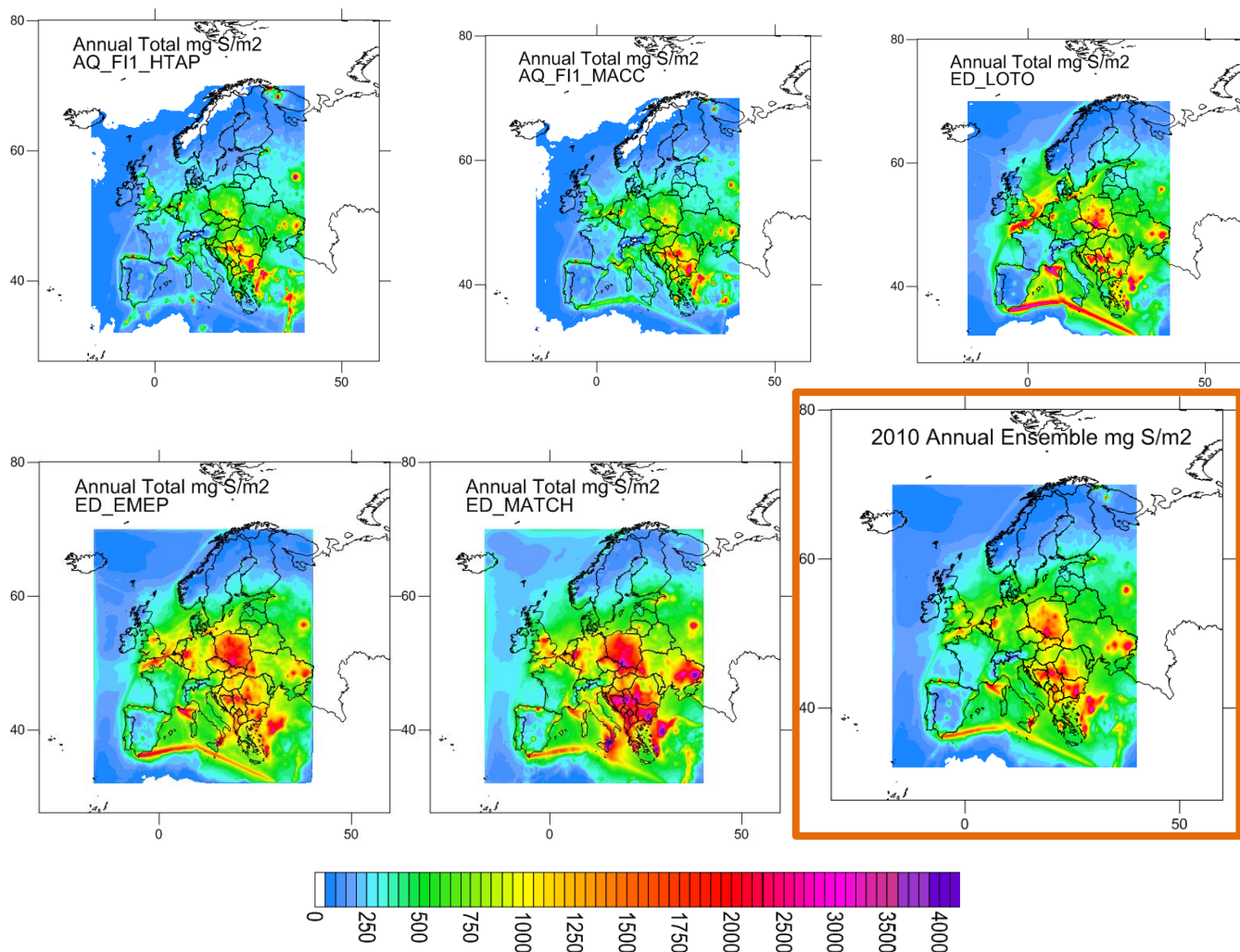
798 Figure 5: Maps of standard deviation of total N in absolute and relative units ( $\text{mg N m}^{-2}$ ; % of annual mean) for the  
799 ensemble.

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## Annual deposition of TOTAL S



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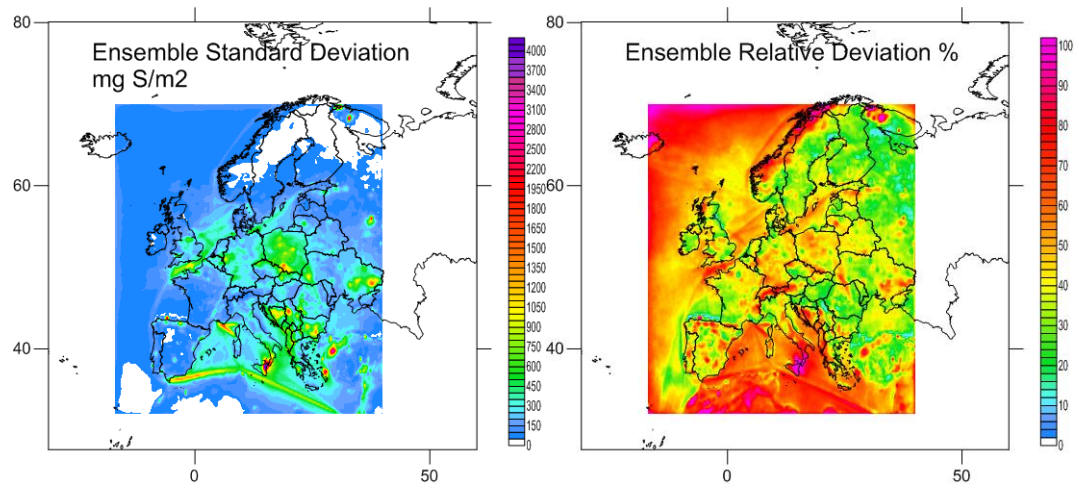
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Figure 6: Maps of total S ( $\text{mg N m}^{-2}$ ) for the models showing acceptable performance for wet S deposition. The ensemble (mean of the models) is included (right bottom map)

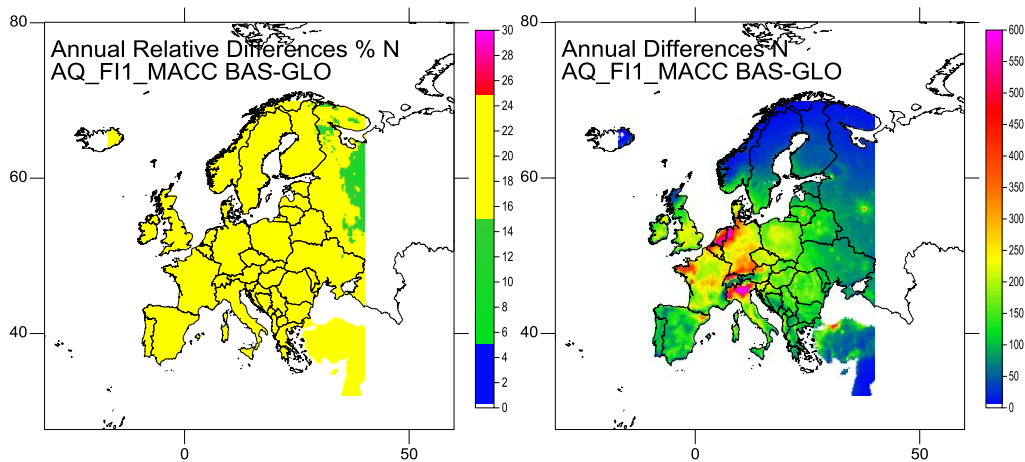
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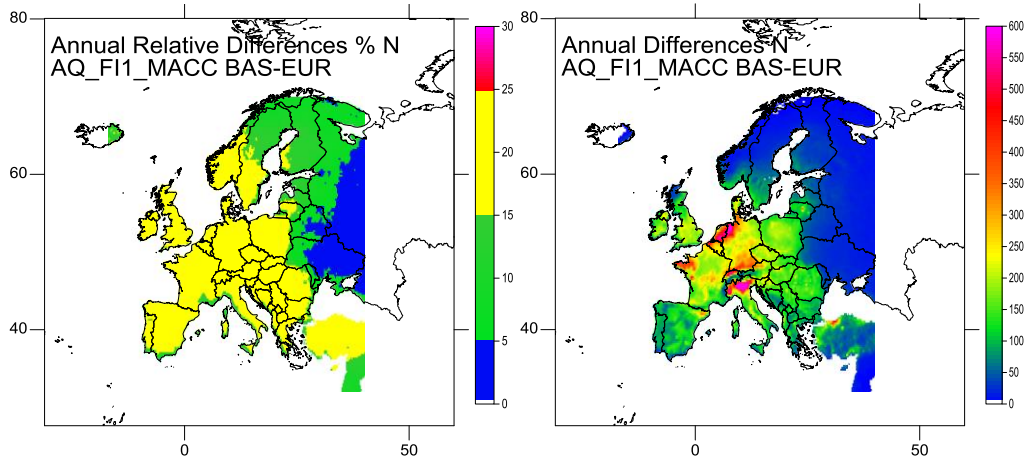
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Figure 7: Maps of standard deviation of total S in absolute and relative units ( $\text{mg S m}^{-2}$ ; % of annual mean) for the ensemble.

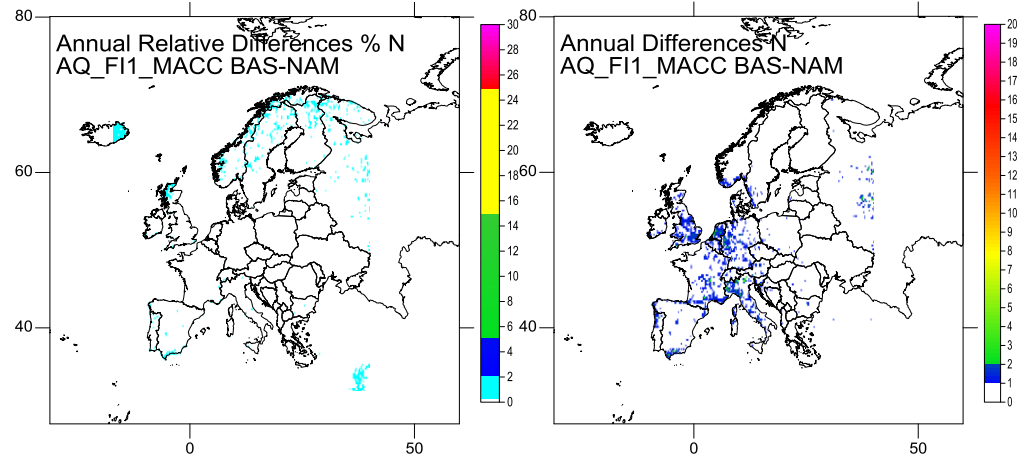




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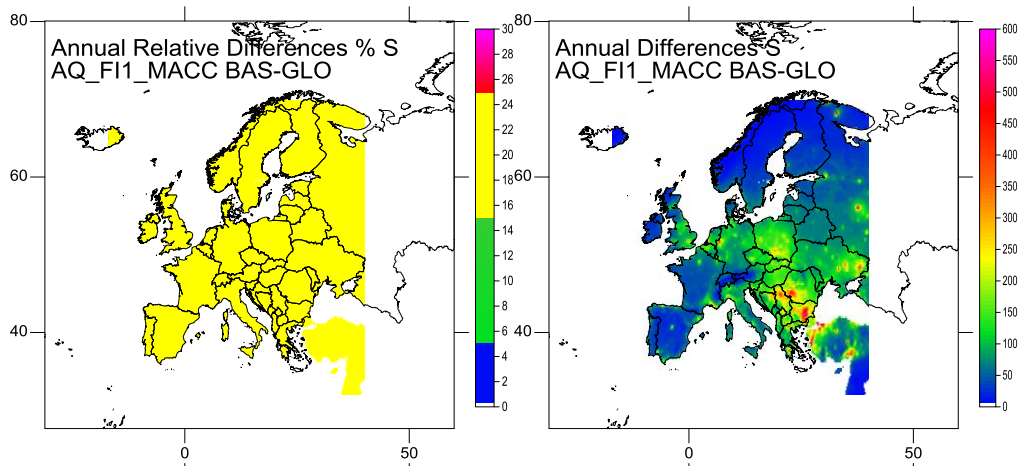
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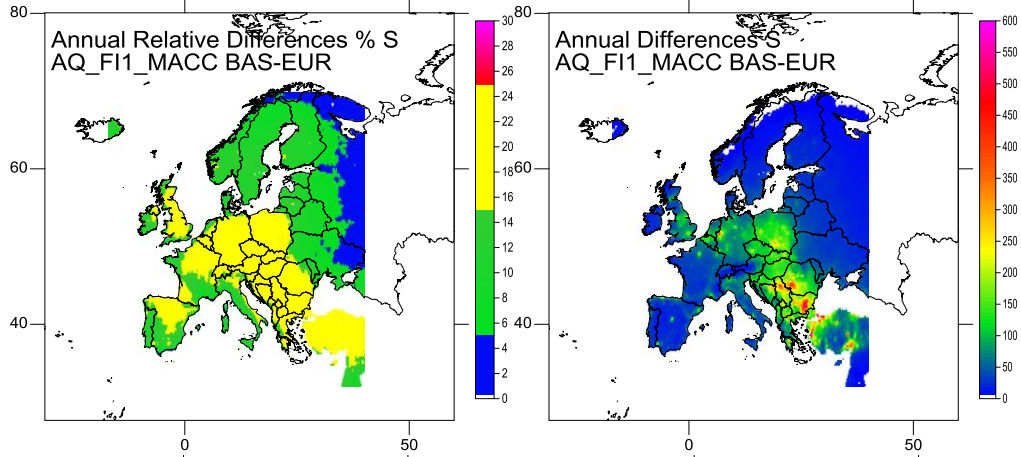
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819 Figure 8: Effect on the N deposition in Europe of the reduction of 20% of emissions at global scale (GLO), in Europe (EUR)  
 820 and in North America (NAM), according to AQ\_F11\_MACC (% , left, mgN/m2, right)

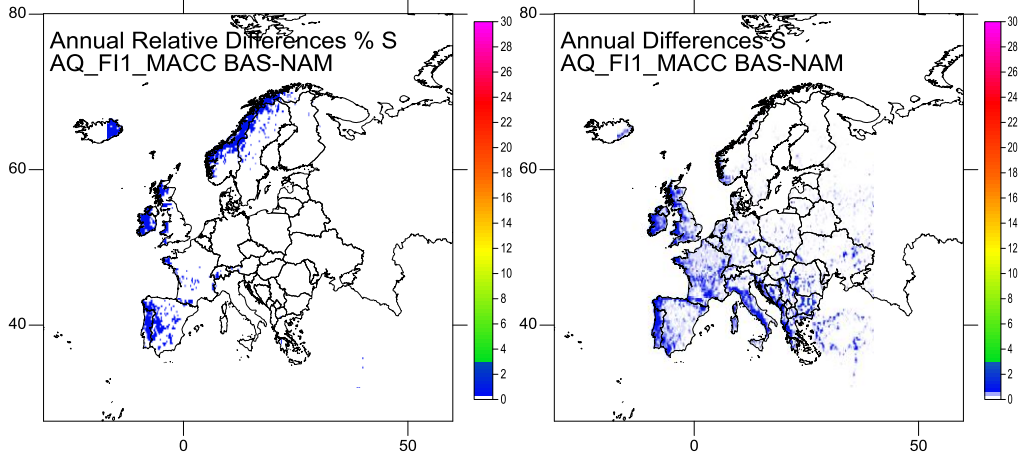
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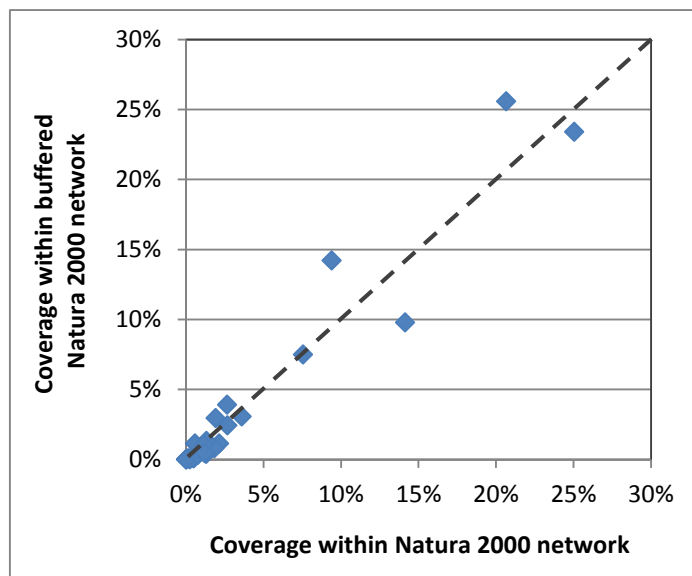


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825 Figure 9: Effect on the S deposition in Europe of the reduction of 20% of emissions at global scale (GLO), in Europe (EUR)  
826 and in North America (NAM), according to AQ\_FI1\_MACC (% , left, mgN/m<sup>2</sup>, right)

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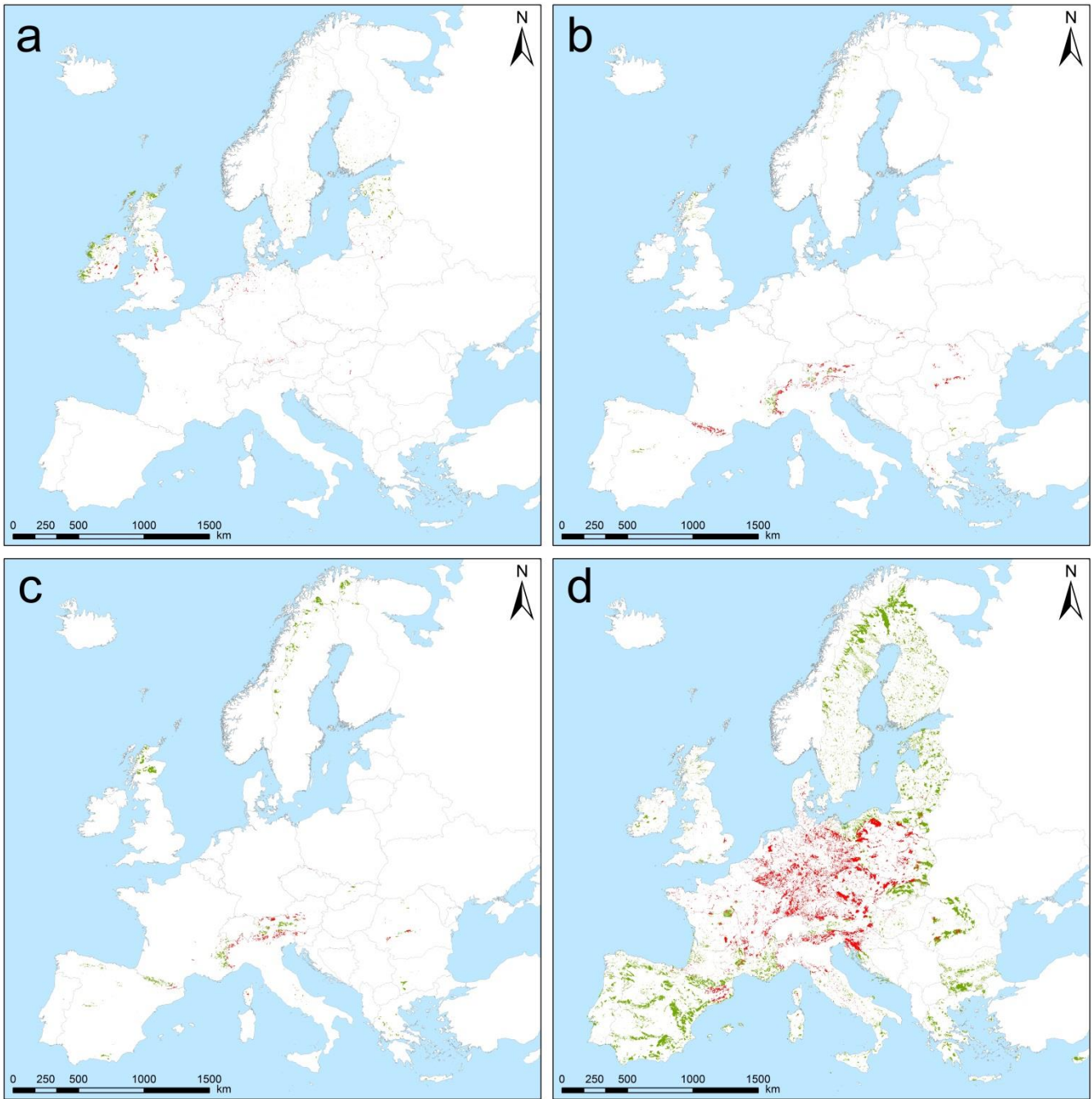
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831 Figure 10: Coverage representation of EUNIS level-1 habitat classes within the entire Natura 2000 network versus the  
832 buffered areas.

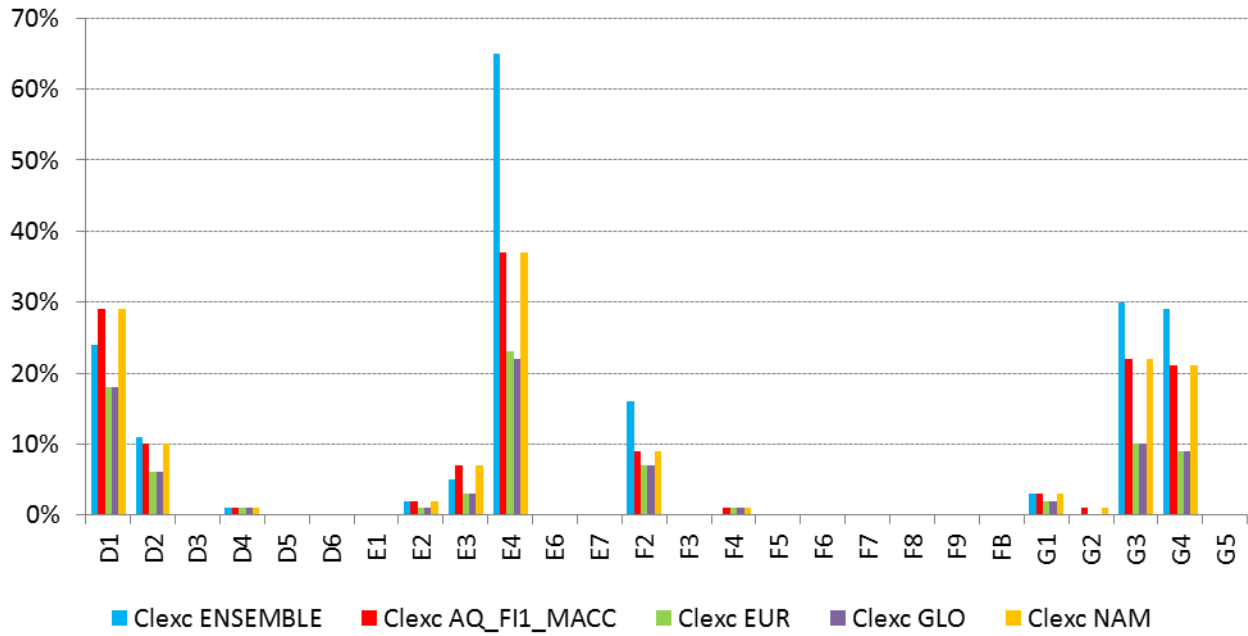
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Figure 11: Habitat distribution and location of CL<sub>exc</sub> for the most threatened habitat classes (a: D1 "raised and blanket bogs" and D2 "valley mires, poor fens and transition mires"; b: E4 "alpine and subalpine grasslands"; c: F2 "artic, alpine and subalpine scrub"; d: G3 "coniferous woodlands" and G4 "mixed deciduous and coniferous woodlands"). The surface areas showing a CL<sub>exc</sub> are represented in red, while the areas with no CL<sub>exc</sub> are represented in green.

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Figure 12: Proportion of habitat area for which the critical load is exceeded for major terrestrial habitat classes within the Natura 2000 network for the base case 2010 (ensemble and AQ\_FI1\_MACC) and for the EUR, GLO and NAM cases (AQ\_FI1\_MACC)