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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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Abstract. The evaluation and intercomparison of air quality models is key to reducing model errors and uncertainty. The projects AQMEII3 and EURODELTA-Trends, in the framework of the Task Force on Hemispheric Transport of Air Pollutants and the Task Force on Measurements and Modelling, respectively, (both task forces under the UNECE Convention on the Long Range Transport of Air Pollution, LTRAP) have brought together various regional air quality models, to analyze their performance in terms of air concentrations and wet deposition, as well as to address 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 m2 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

Improvements have been made in reducing ecosystem exposure to excess levels of acidification in past decades, largely as a result of declining SO_2 emissions. However, in addition to acidification, emissions of NH_3 and NO_x have altered the global nitrogen cycle, resulting in excess inputs of nutrient nitrogen into terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems (Maas &. Grennfelt, 2016). This oversupply of nutrients can lead to eutrophication and subsequent loss of biodiversity. With the aim of ensuring the long-term survival of Europe's most valuable and threatened species and habitats, the Natura 2000 network of protected areas (EEA, 2017) was established in Europe under the 1992 Habitats Directive (EU, 1992). While it is



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- 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. 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 AQMEII (Air Quality Model Evaluation International Initiative, Rao et al. 2009) in its third phase activity 51 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

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69 framework of the Habitats Directive 92/43/EEC (Henry and Aherne, 2014; Whitfield et al., 2011).
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In addition to a model evaluation, we include an estimation of the exceedances of CL for the habitats in
the European Natura 2000 network most threatened by N deposition. Moreover, in addressing one of the
objectives of HTAP (Galmarini et al., 2017), we estimated the changes in wet deposition in Europe due to
1) a reduction of global emissions by 20% or to a regional 20% emission reduction solely in 2) North
America or 3) Europe.
The paper is divided into four main sections. Section 2 focuses on the evaluation of model performance

for wet deposition in 2010 (the base case scenario in the context of HTAP and AQMEII3). Section 3
 presents the intercomparison of dry deposition. Section 4 provides an overview of the exceedances of the

78 CL for the most threatened habitats in the Natura 2000 network considering the results of an ensemble,

and finally, Section 5 includes an assessment of the influence of 20% emission reductions alternatively in

80 Europe, North America and at a global scale on deposition in Europe.





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81 2 Model evaluation and intercomparison of wet deposition estimates

82 2.1 Methodology

- 83 This Section describes the model simulations (2.1.1), the observations used for model evaluation (2.2.2)
- 84 and the procedure to evaluate model performance (2.1.3).
- 85 Table 1 shows the description and abbreviations of the variables used in the assessment.
- 86

87 2.1.1 Model simulations

88 The simulations for the year 2010 used in this study were carried out using 14 air quality models (Table 89 2), seven of them as part of AQMEII3, and the other seven models participating in EDT. CHIMERE was 90 involved in both projects, although the model version used in the EDT project is an improved (not yet 91 official) version (Chimere2017b v1.0), and therefore a direct comparison of model results between both 92 simulations (AQMEII3 and EDT) is not possible. More modelling teams than those in Table 2 were 93 involved in the AQMEII3 project, but we kept only those that provided all the variables required for the 94 model performance evaluation in terms of wet deposition, i.e. air concentrations and deposition of related 95 chemical species (except AQ_TR1_MACC, which only provided deposition data). The domain and grid 96 resolution was common for all the models in EDT (except for ED_CMAQ, which used a different 97 domain/projection), with a resolution of 0.25° (lat) $\times 0.4^{\circ}$ (lon). AQMEII3 permitted a more flexible 98 model setup, although outputs had to be produced for a fixed domain with a spatial resolution of $0.25^{\circ} \times$ 99 0.25°. Meteorological inputs for the AQMEII3 models were chosen by each participant (Table 2). In 100 EDT, meteorological inputs from the Weather Research and Forecast model (WRF 3.3.1) were provided 101 centrally, although not all models used this common dataset (WRF-Common). In both exercises, 102 boundary conditions were provided to the participants; in AQMEII3 they come from a global model, C-103 IFS(CB05) (Flemming et al., 2015) running the same scenarios. In EDT boundary conditions come 104 primarily from observations combined with optimal interpolation and long term trends, following the procedure used in the EMEP model (Simpson et al., 2012), with slight adjustments in the context of trend 105 modelling (Colette et al., 2017). Emissions were also fixed in both projects: In AQMEII3 two options 106 107 were available, Copernicus emissions or HTAP_v2.2 emissions (Janssens-Maenhout, 2015) which for the 108 European region actually contain the Copernicus inventory. In EDT they are ECLIPSE_V5 emissions 109 estimated by the GAINS (Greenhouse gases and Air pollution INteractions and Synergies) model (Amann et al., 2011). More information on the model setups can be found in Galmarini et al. (2017) and Solazzo 110 et al. (2017) for AQMEII3 and Colette et al. (2017) for EDT. 111 112 Four simulations were carried out by the AQMEII3 community: a base case (BAS) for 2010; GLO, where

emissions were reduced at a global level by 20%; EUR, where emissions were reduced in Europe by 20%

- and NAM, where emissions were reduced in North America by 20%. Not all the models performed the
- 115 simulations for all four cases.

116 2.1.2 Observations

117 Measurements (annual and monthly) made at 88 EMEP monitoring sites for 2010 were provided by the

118 Norwegian Institute for Air Research (NILU), which is the Chemical Coordinating Centre of EMEP,





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119 although not all variables were measured at all sites. A complete description of the monitoring network of 120 the EMEP program, as well as the sampling methodologies used can be found in Tørseth et al (2012) and 121 the data are openly accessible from http://ebas.nilu.no/. A summary of sites and variables considered is 122 included in Table 3 and a map with their location is given in Fig. 1. Measurements for the gas phase 123 (HNO₃, NH₃) are quite scarce, which makes it difficult to evaluate models performance for these species. 124 For example, for annual values, more than two thirds of the sites had measurements for both N and S 125 deposition and atmospheric SO₂ concentrations, while only 10% had data for air concentrations of HNO₃ and NH₃. More sites than those for HNO₃ and NH₃ are measuring inorganic aerosols, through these are 126 127 analyzed from of PM10 samples in addition to the filterpack which sample both aerosols and gases. One 128 should be aware that the NH_4^+ and NO_3^- concentrations might be underestimated due to the evaporation of 129 ammonium nitrate. This is the case for both PM10 and filterpack measurements, where the separation of 130 the nitrogen gases might be biased. The sum of HNO_3 and NO_3^- , as well as the sum of NH_3 and NH_4^+ are 131 however considered unbiased. The filterpack samplers usually have no size cut off, but can be considered 132 to be around PM10 (EMEP, 2014). 133 The spatial coverage of the observations used in the evaluation is quite high for most of northern, central

and Western Europe, including Spain, but is quite low in the eastern and southern regions (Fig 1).

135 2.1.3 Evaluation

136 Model evaluation involved a joint analysis of wet deposition and air concentrations of the corresponding 137 gas and particle species, as well as precipitation. Accumulated values were considered for precipitation and wet deposition, whereas mean values were used for air concentrations. Both annual and monthly 138 139 values were evaluated. For each model simulation, the following statistics were calculated (Table 4): 140 normalized mean squared error (NMSE), fractional bias (FB) and the fraction of model estimates within a 141 factor of two of the observed values (FAC2). The acceptance criteria proposed by Chang and Hanna 142 (2004; 2005) were used to assess model acceptability: that is, FAC2 higher or equal to 0.5, values of FB 143 between -0.3 and 0.3, and NMSE values lower than or equal to 1.5. We define a model as performing 144 acceptably for a particular variable, when two out of these three criteria are met; in recognition of the 145 large uncertainties involved in these types of simulations. It should be noted that the acceptability criteria 146 adopted in this study had their origin in evaluating Gaussian atmospheric dispersion models rather than 147 photochemical Eulerian grid models. However, due to the absence of established performance criteria for 148 evaluating modeled atmospheric deposition, these criteria were nevertheless adopted in this study while 149 future work may be directed at developing performance goals more specifically tailored towards 150 atmospheric deposition. To illustrate model performance for each variable, the three assessment statistics 151 are shown on the same graph by plotting NMSE against FB and using a different symbol to indicate 152 whether a model meets the acceptance criterion of Chang and Hanna (2004) for FAC2 (FAC2 \geq 0.5). 153 These plots include shaded areas that correspond to areas meeting the acceptance criteria of Chang and 154 Hanna (2004) (blue for NMSE, red for FB). In addition, the theoretical minimum NMSE for a given value 155 of FB is also plotted (parabolic dashed lines) (Chang and Hanna, 2004). These "smile plots", as they are 156 called hereafter, were produced considering annual and monthly data, and also by month, in order to 157 illustrate the seasonal behavior. All statistics were calculated in two ways: 1) independently for each





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- variable, so as to have the largest number of available sites for each variable, and 2) considering a
- 159 common set of sites for wet deposition and air concentrations of the respective gas and particle species for
- 160 each deposition type: oxidized nitrogen (ON), reduced nitrogen (RN) and sulfur (S).
- 161 Additional statistics, (mean gross error, MGE, normalized mean bias, NMB, normalized mean gross error,
- 162 NMGE, root mean squared error, RMSE, correlation coefficient, r, coefficient of efficiency, COE and
- 163 index of agreement, IOA), were also calculated, as defined in the Auxiliary material (AM 3.9).
- 164 In order to provide robust estimates of N and S deposition and their uncertainties for further applications,
- 165 such as the one in Section 4, a multi-model ensemble was constructed using the mean and standard
- 166 deviation of the total deposition for each grid cell calculated from the estimates of the best performing
- 167 models. A given model was included if it met at least two of the three acceptability criteria for wet
- 168 deposition, gas and particle concentration, considering results for all the available sites and common sites.
- 169 The main problem with this approach was that gas concentrations of NH3_N and HNO3_N were only

170 measured at a few measurements sites. When the criteria for these gas pollutants were the only ones

- 171 failing, we retained the model (ED_EMEP, AQ_FI_MACC&HTAP) if the criteria for total concentrations
- 172 was met (note that TNO3 and TNH4 were measured at some sites where no separate measurements of gas
- and particle air concentrations were made and thus model performance for these variables as well asTSO4 was only evaluated for all available sites).
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- 176

177 2.2 Results and discussion

178 The evaluation statistics for the selected models are provided in the tables in AM 3.6. These results are 179 represented visually in the *smile plots* of Fig. 2 (based on annual values, considering all the available sites 180 for each variable) and AM 3.1 (based on monthly values), which also show the degree to which the 181 acceptability criteria were met for all models. Fig. 3 shows the smile plots considering only the common 182 set of sites (sites with measurements of all the variables), to facilitate the analysis with regards to the 183 interdependencies of model performance for different variables. Results for the ensemble, calculated as 184 exposed in Section 2.1.3 are also included in smile plots and tables, in order to have a view of the quality 185 of its performance. Considering the criteria in Section 2.1.3 and tables AM 3.7 (calculated for all the 186 available sites) and 3.8 (for common sites) jointly (that is, the criteria had to be met in both tables, on an 187 annual basis), the ensemble was composed of AQ_DK1_HTAP, ED_CHIM, ED_EMEP, ED_LOTO, 188 AQ_FI1_MACC, AQ_FI1_HTAP and ED_MATCH for N deposition (considering both ON and RN at 189 the same time; gridded information for AQ_UK1_MACC and AQ_UK2_HTAP, passing the acceptance 190 criteria, was not available). For S deposition the models meeting the criteria for SO2_S, PM_SO4_S and WSO4_S were ED_EMEP, ED_LOTO, ED_MATCH, AQ_FI1_HTAP, AQ_FI1_MACC and 191 192 AQ_UK1_MACC (AQ_UK1_MACC gridded information was not available for all the variables, so it 193 was not included in the ensemble). Figs. 4 and 6 show the deposition of N and S for the selected models 194 and the ensemble. The ensemble was calculated to facilitate the analysis in Section 4. Maps of annual wet 195 deposition for all the models are shown in AM 1. Other criteria to select the models in the ensemble or the 196 way to calculate it would lead to a different ensemble.





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197 Accumulated precipitation was also evaluated. In general, monthly and annual precipitation rates 198 estimated by the models agree reasonably well with the observations. The smile plots for precipitation in 199 Fig. 2 and AM 3.1 (and the tables in the AM 3.6) show that all the models meet all acceptability criteria, 200 with the exception of AQ_DE1_HTAP, which narrowly misses the FB criterion for this variable. AQ_FRES1_HTAP had the lowest errors (NMSE) and the highest correlation with the observed 201 202 precipitation values (r). 203 In the case of WNO3_N (abbreviations in Table 1) a large variability was found (AM 1.2), with ED_MINNI and AQ_DE1_HTAP giving the lowest values and AQ_TR1_MACC giving the highest. The 204 205 smile plot in Fig. 2 (also included in AM 1.2 to facilitate interpretation) and tables in AM 3.6 show that the models tended to underestimate the observed WNO3_N, (ED_EMEP and AQ_DK1_MACC very 206 207 slightly underestimating), on average, with the exception of AQ_TR1_MACC and ED_MATCH, that overestimated slightly. The results for ED_MINNI are consistent with the study by Vivanco et al. (2016), 208 who evaluated several models (EMEP, CHIMERE, LOTOS-EUROS, MINNI, CMAQ and CAMX) for 209 210 four one-month campaigns during 2006, 2007, 2008 and 2009. Most of the models meet at least two of 211 the three acceptability criteria for both monthly and annual wet deposition values, with the exceptions being ED_MINNI and AQ_DE1_HTAP, which substantially underestimated deposition. As shown in 212 213 AM 3.6 all the models performed acceptably for TNO3_N, except AQ_DE1_HTAP for the monthly data 214 and ED_CMAQ for the annual data. Interestingly, all the models performed worse for atmospheric 215 concentration of the gaseous form (HNO3_N) than for the particulate form (PM_NO3_N) (also visible in 216 Fig. 3), with no model performing acceptably for the monthly data. Boxplots in AM 4 indicate an 217 underestimation of the HNO3:TNO3 ratio in winter for most of the models. The smile plots in the AM 3.2 218 also show the highest errors and underestimation of HNO3_N during these months. In fact, no model 219 meets two criteria in Jan, Feb, Mar, Nov and Dec for this pollutant. Most models overestimated HNO3_N 220 in the period May-Sep, with the exception of July for which the models tended to underestimate 221 concentrations. This summer period was also when the models estimated the highest HNO3:TNO3 ratios, 222 many of which were higher than observed (especially for AQ_FRES1_HTAP, ED_MINNI). The models 223 performed best for the gaseous component during Jun-Aug. Most models underestimate both WNO3_N 224 and HNO3_N and overestimate PM_NO3_N for the winter period (Oct-Mar), which could suggest a too 225 efficient gas-to-particle conversion during these months in some cases, with maybe low deposition 226 efficiency for the particle phase. In the case of AQ_DE1_HTAP the underestimation of deposition, as 227 well as gas and particle air concentration could be related to an underestimation of NO2 or HNO3 (via a 228 low NO₂ to HNO₃ conversion rate). ED_EMEP overestimates WNO3_N and PM_NO3_N, but 229 underestimates HNO3_N (according to annual values for common sites in AM 3.8), which could be 230 related to a too high gas deposition. 231 For WNH4_N there were also large differences between the models giving the lowest values

(AQ_DE1_HTAP, AQ_FRES1_HTAP and ED_MINNI), and the models giving the highest AQ_TR1_MACC). Most of the models meet at least two of the three acceptability criteria for this pollutant, with the exceptions being AQ_DE1_HTAP, AQ_FRES1_HTAP and ED_MINNI. Similar to WNO3_N, Fig. 2 (also included in AM 1.1) and tables in AM 3.6 show that the models tended to underestimate WNH4_N, with the exception of AQ_TR1_MACC and ED_MATCH. However, unlike





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237 WNO3_N, this underestimation seems to correlate with an overestimation of the gaseous form (NH3_N) on an annual basis (except for ED_EMEP, which has a very low bias for both pollutants and 238 239 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 inferred from the monthly smile plots of NH3_N in the AM 3.3, which shows a poorer model 244 performance for this period (no model meets all three criteria). It is interesting to see that this 245 overestimations of NH3_N during Nov-Jan takes place when HNO3_N is underestimated, which could 246 247 indicate an excessive conversion of HNO3 to particle due to an excess of NH₃ (aerosol nitrate may be 248 formed if enough ammonia is available) and favored with low temperatures. Ammonium is quite well reproduced, with all the models meeting the acceptance criteria both on an annual basis and a monthly 249 250 basis. All in all, tables in AM 3.6 indicate a general underestimation of wet deposition for reduced 251 nitrogen, with a tendency to overestimate TNH4. There is more variability between the model estimates 252 of the NH3:TNH4 ratios for the winter months (AM 4) with the EDT models estimating lower ratios. It 253 should be noted that some models do not distinguish between precipitation types and use the same 254 scavenging rates for snow and rain, which could lead to substantial differences between model results. 255 Substantial differences were also found for WSO4, from the lowest values for ED_CHIM up to the 256 highest for AQ_TR1_MACC and ED_MATCH. Most of the models meet at least two of the three 257 acceptability criteria for WSO4, apart from AQ_DK1_HTAP, AQ_FRES1_HTAP, ED_CHIM and ED_MINNI. Similar to the N deposition, the models tended to underestimate the observed values (Fig. 2), 258 259 with the exception of AQ_TR1_MACC, AQ_UK2_HTAP, ED_EMEP and ED_MATCH. The tendency 260 to underestimate WSO4_S by most models, and similarly to the reduced nitrogen, is overall occurring 261 simultaneously with an overestimation of the gaseous pollutant (SO2_S) on an annual and monthly basis. 262 As shown in the monthly smile plots in the AM 3.4, the models generally underestimate WSO4_S for all 263 months although the bias tends to be smaller (and even positive for some models) during the winter period (Nov-Feb). The bias for SO2_S does not have a seasonal cycle and the largest errors occur in Mar, 264 265 Jun and Nov. Model performance is generally better for the particulate concentrations (PM_SO4_S) 266 although some large errors occur in the winter (Nov-Jan). All models tended to overestimate TSO4, with the exception of ED_CHIM, ED_EMEP and ED_LOTO, and most models also tended to overestimate the 267 268 SO2:TSO4 ratios. 269 In summary, and considering the whole picture, wet deposition fluxes are generally underestimated for WSO4_S and WNH4_N, and in winter in the case of WNO3_N. There are indications that the aqueous 270 271 and heterogeneous chemistry (e.g. those involving conversion of NOx to HNO3) could be too slow or

272 under-represented in the models, especially in winter, evidenced by an overestimation of primary gaseous

273 pollutants, especially NH3 and SO2 for this period and an underestimation of the secondary pollutant

274 HNO3 (also formed via heterogeneous chemistry). However, this behavior (simultaneous overestimation

of NH3_N and underestimation of HNO3_N in winter) could also be due to an excessive formation of

nitrates (favored by low temperatures) due to a potential excess of NH3 (aerosol nitrate may be formed



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- 277 only if enough ammonia is available). This excess NH3 could be due to an overestimate of NH3
- emissions during these months. The fact that sulphate concentration is also low for several models in Jan
- and Feb and SO2 somewhat high could be due to an underestimate of the conversion to aerosol (sulphate)
- via aqueous chemistry, which could be another cause of the excess NH3.

281 3 Model intercomparison of dry deposition

Figures in AM 2 show maps of dry deposition for oxidized nitrogen (OND) (AM 2.2), reduced nitrogen 282 (RND) (AM 2.1), total N (ND) (AM 2.4) and S (AM 2.5). Unfortunately, not all the models participating 283 284 in AQMEII3 provided the complete set of outputs, and therefore it was not possible to study the estimated 285 dry deposition for all of them. Maps of dry deposition of total N (ND) for all the models show the highest 286 values over France, Germany and other areas in the center of the domain. Differences between models 287 can be seen in both high and low emission areas. Models have different deposition algorithms and, even when similar, they can have different input, such as land use or the leaf index area. It would be interesting 288 289 in future studies to analyse how much different these parameters in the models are, due to their relevant importance in dry deposition estimates. The highest values of dry deposition for total N (AM 2.4) are 290 found for ED_CMAQ, with values higher than 1900 mg N m⁻² (annual accumulated value) over large 291 292 areas in the central and western parts of the domain and mainly due to the contribution of the oxidized 293 species. AQ_FRES1_HTAP estimated the lowest values whereas the rest of model estimates have more 294 similar spatial patterns. Significant differences can be found when looking at the gas and particle 295 deposition for the AQMEII3 participants. Two gases, NO2 and HNO3 can contribute to OND. As can be 296 inferred from AM 2.3, AQ_DK1_HTAP estimate the main contribution from the gas phase, whereas in 297 the case of AQ_TR1_MACC, highest contributions to OND come from the particle phase. This highlights 298 the importance of making measurements that can shed more light on these processes, providing modelers 299 with data that can be used to parameterize and evaluate the different processes. For RN only 300 AQ_FRES1_HTAP, AQ_UK2_HTAP and AQ_FI1* in AQMEII3 provided the information required to 301 calculate RND. The models estimate similar spatial distributions of RND, with the highest values in the 302 Netherlands, the western part of France, Denmark and Belgium, as well as some high values in the area of 303 the Alps. Spatial distributions are also similar for dry deposition of S (AM 2.5; higher values mainly over 304 Poland, The Netherlands, United Kingdom, Germany and Southeastern Europe), although in this case 305 with higher differences in values, as it can be inferred from maps in AM 2.5. ED_CMAQ presents a 306 different spatial pattern, with high values also over sea, due to the consideration of sulfates coming from 307 sea salt in this model application.

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309 4 Deposition of N over areas in Nature 2000 network

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





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315 Natura 2000 area was at risk of acidification in 2010 and so the focus of this part of the study is on the

316 exceedances of CLs for the nutrient N.

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318 4.1. Representativeness of monitoring sites for conservation purposes

319 The EMEP measurements are regional representative (Tørseth et al 2012, EMEP, 2014) and have 320 historically been considered to represent an area larger than the size resolution of the EMEP atmospheric 321 dispersion model (for the grid with 50x50km2 of horizontal resolution). This resolution was taken as a 322 reference for establishing a buffer zone of 2500 km2 around the receptors. The protected habitats inside 323 the buffer zone were determined by intersecting the surface area of the Natura 2000 network (EEA, 324 2017), with the cover of the most-likely habitats in Europe using EUNIS level-1 classification (EEA, 325 2015). Previously to this, aquatic, aquatic-related and anthropic habitats (such as gardens or arable lands) 326 were excluded, in order to study only natural and semi-natural terrestrial ecosystems. The surface area 327 covered by each habitat class included in the Natura 2000 network was plotted against the surface area of 328 the same protected habitat classes within the above-mentioned buffer zones, in relative values with 329 respect to their respective totals (Table 5, Fig. 8). The most represented terrestrial habitats in the entire 330 network are broadleaved deciduous woodland, coniferous woodland, mesic grasslands and mixed 331 deciduous and coniferous woodland (EUNIS classifications G1, G3, E2 and G4, respectively). The results 332 indicate that the selected monitoring sites represent the main classes of terrestrial habitats fairly well, with 333 G4 deviating most, with an overrepresentation of 51% within the protected buffered area with respect to 334 the entire Natura 2000 network. 335 The same exercise was performed using only monitoring sites measuring all N species (including in

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

343 4.2. Risk assessment of atmospheric N deposition in the Natura 2000 network

344 The mean and standard deviation (SD) for total deposition of N obtained from the ensemble model were 345 combined with revised empirical CL (Bobbink and Hetteling, 2011) to provide a risk assessment of N 346 deposition effects on vegetation in the Natura 2000 network. This evaluation constitutes a first approach, 347 which helps to locate the most-likely areas and major terrestrial habitat classes at risk of eutrophication as 348 a result of atmospheric N deposition. Further research (particularly on habitat specific CL) and a wider 349 monitoring network (particularly to evaluate models' performance for dry deposition) are needed to carry 350 out a more accurate risk assessment. It is also interesting to bear in mind that even though recent studies 351 (e.g. Cape et al., 2012; Izquieta-Rojano, 2016; Matsumoto et al., 2014) have highlighted the important 352 contribution of the organic form to total N deposition (from 10 to more than 50%), there are still 353 important gaps in our knowledge of the role of organic fraction in the N cycle and scarce attempts to







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

- 358 cycles and even human health.
- 359

360 Ensemble deposition maps were projected and resampled to coincide with the EUNIS habitat grid (level 1 classification; ETRS89 LAEA projection; 100 m ×100 m cell size). The mean±SD values were used as 361 estimates of lower and upper uncertainty limits for the deposition, which were then compared to the mean 362 CL attributed to each habitat class (Table 5; based on those from Bobbink and Hetteling, 2011). Those 363 364 areas in which the class-attributed CL was exceeded by any of the values (mean-SD; mean; mean+SD) were identified. The area presenting exceedances of empirical CL (CLexc) was summed for each EUNIS 365 level-1 habitat class (Table 5). The areas showing CLexc were mapped for the most threatened habitat 366 367 classes (Fig. 9). In the case of similar habitats with similar distributions, a joint map is shown (D1 and 368 D2; G3 and G4). Values of CLex in Fig. 10 indicate the area exposed to an exceedance of the CL 369 expressed as percentage of the total area evaluated for each particular habitat class. These values were 370 also calculated considering the total deposition of N from AQ_FI_MACC, as this model was used to estimate the variation in deposition due to changes in emissions, as it will be later explained. All these 371 operations were performed using ArcGIS 10.2 (ESRI, Redlands CA, USA). 372

373 The six habitats with the largest surface area with a mean ensemble deposition above their respective CL 374 were "alpine and subalpine grasslands" (E4), "coniferous woodlands" (G3), "mixed deciduous and coniferous woodlands" (G4), "raised and blanket bogs" (D1), "artic, alpine and subalpine scrub" (F2) and 375 376 "valley mires, poor fens and transition mires" (D2), with critical load exceedances covering 65%, 34%, 377 32%, 24%, 16% and 11% of their respective areas (Table 5). Alpine and subalpine grasslands were also 378 detected as the types most jeopardized by N deposition, in a similar study for Spanish protected areas 379 using 2008 simulations from EMEP and CHIMERE models (García-Gómez et al., 2014). These habitats 380 are usually located in areas with complex topography, where model estimates of atmospheric deposition can be more spatially inaccurate, as suggested in previous studies (e.g. García-Gómez et al., 2014; 381 382 Simpson et al., 2006). The scarcity of monitoring sites at high altitude to evaluate model simulations can 383 be considered as a major uncertainty in the risk assessment for N deposition.

384 The variation among the models included in the ensemble, represented here by the standard deviation 385 (SD) of the ensemble, mostly affected E4 (Table 5). The reduction of the area at risk of this habitat class 386 is remarkable high (-50%), when the lower limit of the deposition is used (mean-SD; Table 5). This might 387 indicate that the CL is exceeded in most areas by a narrow margin. Within the other five habitat classes 388 with the highest CLexc area, the area at risk decreased by 13% and increased by 16% on average, when the lower and upper limits of deposition are used. These same six habitats were again found to present the 389 largest areas showing CLexc, when using AQ_FI1_MACC estimates, although some differences were 390 391 found (seen Figure 10).

Apart from the uncertainty in modelled deposition, the uncertainty in the CL attributed to the habitat classes should also be considered. On the one hand, some CL proposed in the CLRTAP revision are based



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394 on expert judgment (e.g. those for E2, F5 or G4) and some were averaged from those proposed for several 395 subclasses (e.g. for E1 and F4). On the other hand, even when the proposed CL are reliable and match 396 perfectly with the habitat classes evaluated in this study, an adjustment linked to more local conditions is 397 recommended (e.g. for D1 it is recommended to vary the applied CL as a function of the precipitation 398 range or the water table level). However, since a CL averaged from the proposed range was used for each 399 habitat class and the evaluation was performed on a broad scale, we consider that the results are suitable 400 for the purpose of this work, which is highlighting the protected areas and terrestrial habitats with the highest probability of suffering eutrophication. Finally, the use in this approach of a modelled dry 401 402 deposition that is in fact weighted for the different land use inside each grid cell might lead to an 403 underestimation of, for instance, forests risks, as the dry deposition for plant surfaces is higher than for 404 other land uses, and it is currently smoothed during the weighting process. To perform a more accurate 405 assessment, habitat-type-specific values for dry deposition of N are necessary. It is, therefore, recommended that chemical transport models provide dry deposition data as a function of leaf area index 406 407 (LAI) or habitat type in order to be more suitable for risk assessment studies.

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409 5 Contribution to N and S deposition in Europe of different regions (NA, EU, GLO)

410 5.1 Methodology

411 As we have previously described in the framework of AQMEII3 activities, and to give scientific support 412 to the HTAP task force, research activities have included an evaluation of the influence of a reduction of 413 emissions in some parts of the Northern Hemisphere on the air quality other regions. Along these lines, 414 some models ran simulations with 1) a 20% reduction of global emissions (GLO), 2) a 20% reduction of 415 emissions in Europe (EUR) and 3) a 20% reduction of emissions in North America (NAM). According to 416 the acceptance criteria described in Section 2, and the availability of models running the different 417 emission scenarios, we chose AQ_FI1_MACC as a representative model to demonstrate the effects of the different emission reduction scenarios. For WNO3 the results from the AQ_FRES1_HTAP model were 418 419 included as well, as this model performed acceptably for this pollutant and simulated the three 420 perturbation scenarios. 421 The effect of each scenario was calculated in terms of deposition (mgN/m2) and percentage changes with

422 respect to the base case (%). Differences between the base case simulation (no emission reduction) and 423 the different scenarios were calculated for wet and dry deposition of ON, RN and S, as well as for total 424 deposition of N and S.

425

426 **5.2 Results**

Maps reflecting the effect of the reduction of 20% of emissions in the different scenarios are included in figures 11 and 12, for total N and S (including both oxidized and reduced N, as well as wet and dry deposition), in absolute and relative terms. In general, a 20% reduction of total N and S deposition is found when global emissions are reduced by 20% (although somewhat lower for N in the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and in Belgium). When a 20% emission reduction is only applied in Europe,







432 the deposition of N and S is decreased by 10-20%. When emissions are reduced in North America only, 433 deposition at the eastern areas of the domain is reduced by about 2%, (Fig. 9). Im et al. (2017) found also 434 an almost linear response to the change in emissions for NO_2 and SO_2 air concentration, for the global 435 perturbation scenario, with slighter smaller responses for the European perturbation scenario and very 436 small influence of the long-range transport, noticeable close to the boundaries. 437 Similar maps for wet and dry deposition are presented in AM 5 and AM 6, for wet and dry deposition. 438 For WNO3_N the global emission reductions have the largest effect on European deposition, with the largest changes in wet deposition in the Alpine area (North Italy, Southern Germany). These areas are 439 440 also affected in terms of WNH4_N, although in this case the emission reduction affects larger areas in 441 Germany and The Netherlands. For WSO4_S (AM) the highest impacts are found on the Balkan 442 Peninsula, especially the south of Bulgaria, Rumania and Serbia. These quantities represent a reduction of 443 about 20% of the base case deposition in most parts of Europe, even a bit higher for WNO3_N in the Alpine area according to AQ_FI1_MACC. For AQ_FRES1_HTAP the reduction for WNO3_N is lower, 444 445 in the range 14-20% for the whole domain. 446 When emission reductions only occur in Europe, the changes in wet deposition are somewhat lower than for a global reduction according to AQ_FI1_MACC, (AM 5.1, AM 5.2). Reductions in WNH4_N are 447 448 similar to those of the global emission reduction scenario in western and central Europe, but substantially 449 smaller in the eastern and northern parts of the domain, which are influenced more strongly by non-450 European emissions to the east. Larger differences are found between the global and European emission 451 reduction scenarios for WNO3_N, with an influence of non-European emissions that extends throughout 452 the domain. In many countries wet deposition decreases by about 10% for the European emission 453 reduction scenario, and a 20% reduction is only found over some central areas. The situation is similar 454 for WSO4_S, albeit with even larger contributions from non-European emissions. For 455 AQ_FRES1_HTAP, the reduction of WNO3_N is similar to that estimated by AQ_FI1_MACC, although 456 the range of reduction is smaller. Emission reductions in NA have a very small effect on European wet 457 deposition (around a 1-2%), with reductions mostly concentrated in the western part of the domain 458 (Iceland, Ireland, United Kingdom, Portugal, France, Spain, Norway. This pattern is also reproduced by 459 AQ_FRES1_HTAP, although the absolute changes for AQ_FI1_MACC are larger in the central area and 460 smaller on the Iberian Peninsula. The effect of global emission reductions on dry deposition is similar to 461 that for wet deposition, although the relative reductions are slightly smaller for DNO3_N (except in the east and south of the domain) and slightly larger for DNH4_N and DSO4_S than for WNO3_N, 462 463 WNH4_N and WSO4_N, respectively (AM 5, AM 6). The differences between the relative changes in 464 wet and dry deposition are similar for the European emission reduction scenario, although the relative 465 change is larger for the dry deposition in the east of the domain. The influence of emission reductions in 466 NA on the wet deposition is generally larger than that on the dry deposition. 467 Differences between the global emissions reduction scenario and the European emission reduction 468 scenario, discounting the effect of NAM, indicate that there is an influence of emissions from other

regions, especially to the east of the domain that could produce a 10% reduction in deposition over certain

470 areas. This is in agreement with results from studies carried out within the framework of the HTAP task





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- 471 force using global models, which estimate that 5-10% of European N deposition is the result of non-
- 472 European emissions (Dentener et al., 2011; Sanderson, 2008).
- 473 We also estimated how much these reductions in emissions affected the risks of N impacts in the Natura
- 474 2000 areas. As can be inferred from Figure 10, there is a significant reduction in the habitat area
- 475 withstanding CLexc for the scenarios GLO and EUR, compared with the base case (AQ_FI1_MACC).
- Particularly, the most jeopardized habitat types showed a reduction of more than a third in their overallthreatened area. Both reduction scenarios showed almost similar values of CLexc, with only slight
- 478 differences in E4 (where GLO reduction produces a slightly larger decrease in CLexc). G3 and G4
- 479 habitats are the most affected, for which the exceeded area was approximately halved as a result of the
- 480 emission reduction. In the case of NAM, no decrease is observed, indicating the low impact of
- 481 hemispheric transport from North America to Europe, at least in terms of N deposition in 2010.6
- 482 6 Conclusions

483 A comparison of the wet and dry deposition of N and S estimated by 14 air quality models participating in 484 the projects AQMEII3 and EURODELTAIII revealed considerable differences between the models. An 485 evaluation of model performance was carried out, jointly considering air concentrations and wet 486 deposition of the relevant compounds. Very few measurements of gaseous species (HNO3 or NH3) were 487 available, making it difficult to do a fair and complete evaluation. In general, most of the models meet at 488 least two of the three acceptability criteria (NMSE < 1.5, |FB| < 0.3, FAC2 > 0.5) for both monthly and 489 annual wet deposition values, with the exceptions of ED_MINNI and AQ_DE1_HTAP, which 490 substantially underestimated deposition. All the models performed acceptably for TNO3_N, except for 491 AQ_DE1_HTAP for the monthly data and ED_CMAQ for the annual data. All the models performed 492 worse for atmospheric concentrations of the gaseous form (HNO3_N) than for the particulate form 493 (PM_NO3_N), with no model performing acceptably for the monthly data, and most models 494 underestimating the HNO3:TNO3 ratio during the winter months. It is however important to note that the 495 observations of independent NO3⁻ and HNO3 are not measured with an unbiased method (same as NH3 496 and NH4⁺), so it is difficult to draw strong conclusions of the model performance for these compounds. 497 For WNH4_N, there was a general underestimation, that seems to correlate with an overestimation of the 498 gaseous form (NH3_N) on an annual basis (except for ED_EMEP, which has a very low bias for both 499 pollutants, and ED_MATCH, which overestimates WNH4_N slightly) mainly as a result of model 500 estimates for autumn and winter (Jan, Feb, Nov, Dec). Similarly, to the reduced nitrogen, most models 501 tend to underestimate wet deposition of sulfur (WSO4_S) and overestimate the gaseous pollutant 502 (SO2_S) on an annual and monthly basis.

Large differences were found between the dry deposition estimates of the models, highlighting the importance of obtaining measurement data to evaluate model performance. This point is important,

505 considering the significant contribution of dry deposition to total deposition.

A multi-model ensemble was constructed using the better-performing models for wet deposition (N and S) and having also estimated dry deposition. For N, the ensemble was produced as the mean of AQ_FI1_MACC, AQ_FI1_HTAP, AQ_DK1_MACC, ED_EMEP and ED_MATCH models, and was used to calculate exceedances of empirical critical loads for nitrogen for habitats in the European Natura







510 2000 network. Six habitats were identified as having critical load exceedances covering more than 10% of their total area: "alpine and subalpine grasslands" (E4), "coniferous woodlands" (G3), "mixed deciduous 511 512 and coniferous woodlands" (G4), "raised and blanket bogs" (D1), "artic, alpine and subalpine scrub" (F2) 513 and "valley mires, poor fens and transition mires" (D2), with critical load exceedances covering 60%, 514 30%, 29%, 22%, 13% and 10% of their respective areas. The variation among the ensemble models, in 515 terms of the standard deviation of the ensemble, mostly affected E4, with 85% of the habitat area 516 exceeded for the upper deposition estimate. It's important to point out that in addition to the uncertainty in modelled deposition, the CL attributed to a given habitat is also uncertain. Extending the deposition 517 518 monitoring networks in European mountains would be not only beneficial for the study of atmospheric 519 deposition, but also for model evaluation and risk assessment for these particularly threatened areas. 520 521 The reduction of 20% of emissions at global scale produces a 20% of reduction in total deposition of N 522 and S, with the main contributor being Europe, according to the estimates of A_FI1_MACC model. This 523 reduction of total deposition is directly related to a decrease of the CLexc found for the different habitats 524 in Natura 2000 network, especially for G3 and G4, for which the exceeded area was approximately

- 525 halved as a result of the emission reduction. Hemispheric transport of air pollutants from NAM has a low
- 526 impact on wet deposition, mostly concentrated over the Atlantic area.

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Table 1: Abbreviation used in this publication

Wet deposition of oxidized N	WNO3_N
Wet deposition of reduced N	WNH4_N
Wet deposition of S	WSO4_S
Dry deposition of oxidized N	DNO3_N
Dry deposition of reduced N	DNH4_N
Dry deposition of S	DSO4_S
Atmospheric concentration of N from nitric acid	HNO3_N
Atmospheric concentration of N from nitrate in PM ₁₀	PM_NO3_N
Total oxidized N concentration = HNO ₃ _N + PM_NO3_N	TNO3_N
Atmospheric concentration of N from ammonia	NH3_N
Atmospheric concentration of N from ammonium in PM ₁₀	PM_NH4_N
Total reduced N concentration = $NH_3 N + PM_NH_4N$	TNH4_N
Atmospheric concentration of S	SO2_S
Atmospheric concentration of S from sulphate in PM_{10}	PM_SO4_S
Total S concentration = SO2_S + PM_SO4_S	TSO4_S
Precipitation	PRECIP





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	AQMEII3			EDT	
	METEO	CTM		METEO	CTM
AQ_DE1_HTAP	COSMO-CLMy CMAQ (v4.7.1)	CMAQ (v4.7.1)	ED_CHIM	WRF-Common*	CHIMERE (Chimere2017b v1.0)
AQ_DK1_HTAP	WRF	DEIDA	ED_CMAQ	WRF-Common	CMAQ (v5.0.2)
		DEMM		(adapted to different	
				projection)	
AQ_FI1_HTAP/_MACC	ECMWF	SILAM	ED_EMEP	WRF-Common	EMEP (rv4.7)
AQ_FRES1_HTAP	ECMWF	CHIMERE (vchim2013)	ED_LOTO	RACMO2 (nudged)	LOTOS (v1.10.005)
AQ_UK1_MACC	WRF	CMAQ (v5.0.2)	ED_MATCH	HIRLAM	MATCH (VSOA April 2016)
AQ_UK2_HTAP	WRF	CMAQ (v5.0.2)	ED_MINNI	WRF-Common	MINNI (V4.7)
AQ_TR1_MACC	WRF	CMAQ (v4.7.1)			
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Table 2 Meteorological and CTM model used by each participant.





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684	Table 3: Number of sites for	s for each pollutant			
		WNO3: 59	TNO3: 45	HNO3: 12	PM_NO3: 32
		WNH4: 61	TNH4: 39	NH3: 12	PM_NH4: 27
		WSO4: 61	SO2: 57	TSO4: 18	PM_SO4: 21

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Table 4: The three metrics relating modelled concentrations (M) with the observed values (O), used for evaluating
 model performance.

NMSE	$NMSE = \frac{\overline{(O-M)^2}}{\overline{O}\ \overline{M}}$	<= 1.5
FB	$FB = \frac{2(\overline{M} - \overline{O})}{(\overline{O} + \overline{M})}$	FB <= 0.3
FAC2	Fraction of model estimates within a factor of two of the observed values	FAC2 >= 0.5
	$0.5 \le \frac{M}{O} \le 2.0$	



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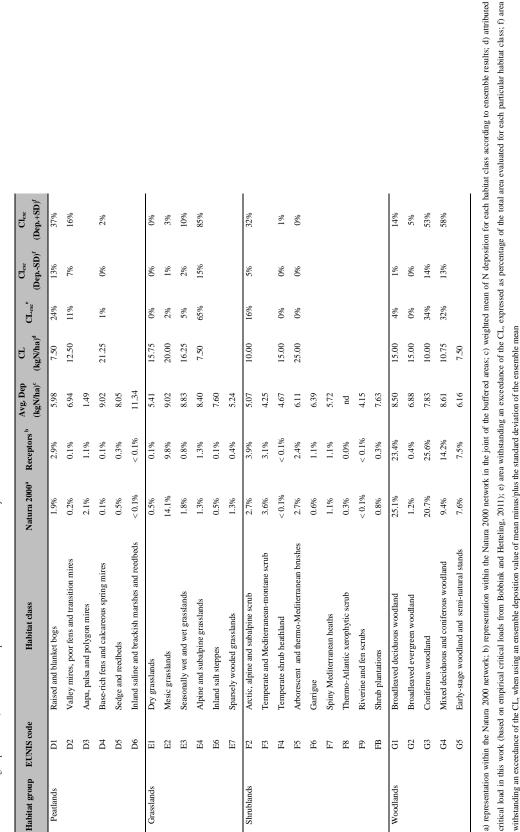
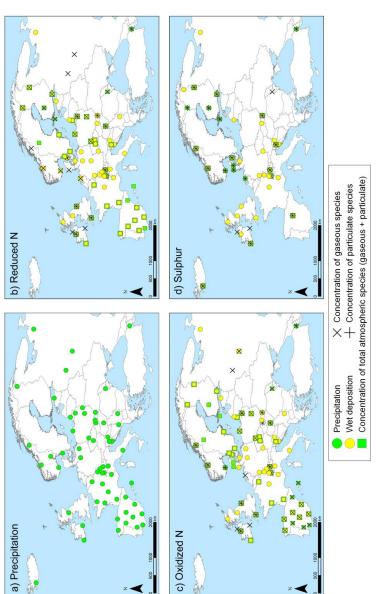


Table 5. Coverage representation, mean ensemble deposition a critical load exceedance for major terrestrial habitat classes within the Natura 2000 network.

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Figure 1: Monitoring sites with measurements of precipitation (a), reduced N species (b), oxidized N species (c) and S (d) 697

698 used in the evaluation of annual modelled values.





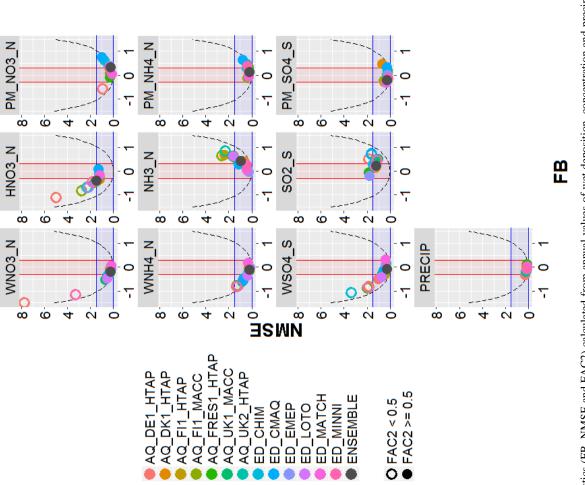


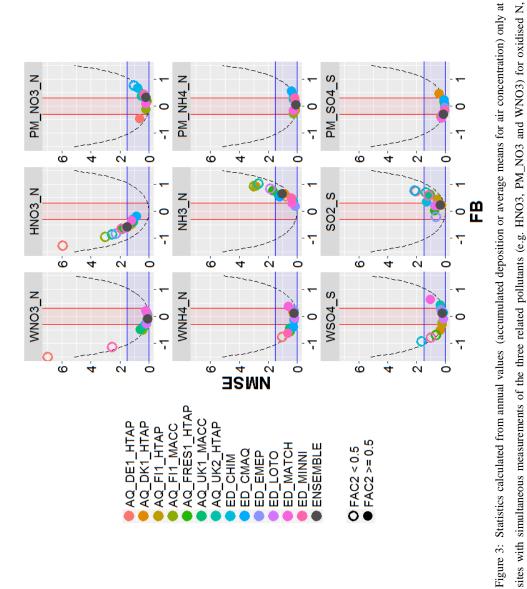
Figure 2: Statistics (FB, NMSE and FAC2) calculated from annual values of wet deposition, concentration and precipitation 700

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- at all available sites. Shaded areas correspond to areas meeting the acceptance criteria of Chang and Hanna (2004) (blue 701
- 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. 702 703







model performance is indicated by points that fall within the blue and red shaded areas and with filled circles.

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reduced N and S species. Shaded areas correspond to areas meeting the acceptance criteria of Chang and Hanna (2004) (blue

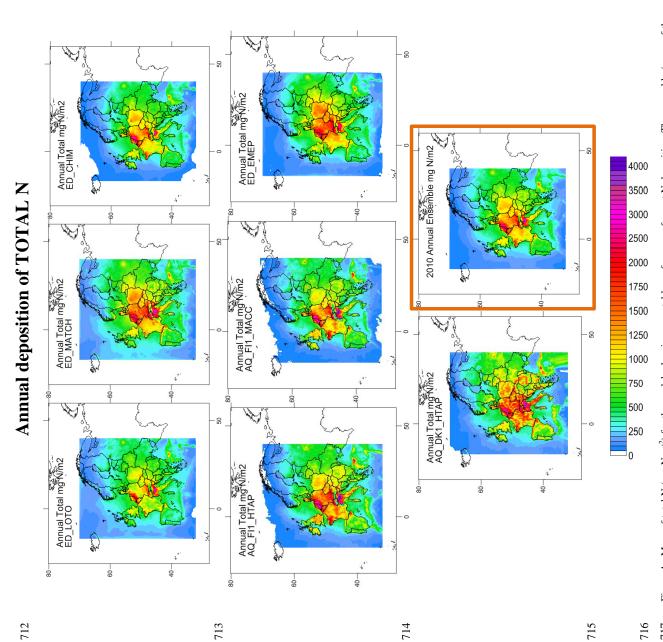
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for NMSE, red for FB). Parabolic dashed lines indicate the theoretical minimum NMSE for a given value of FB. Better







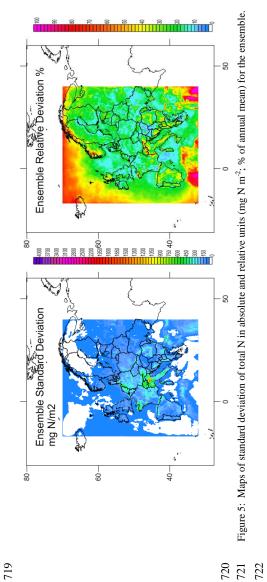


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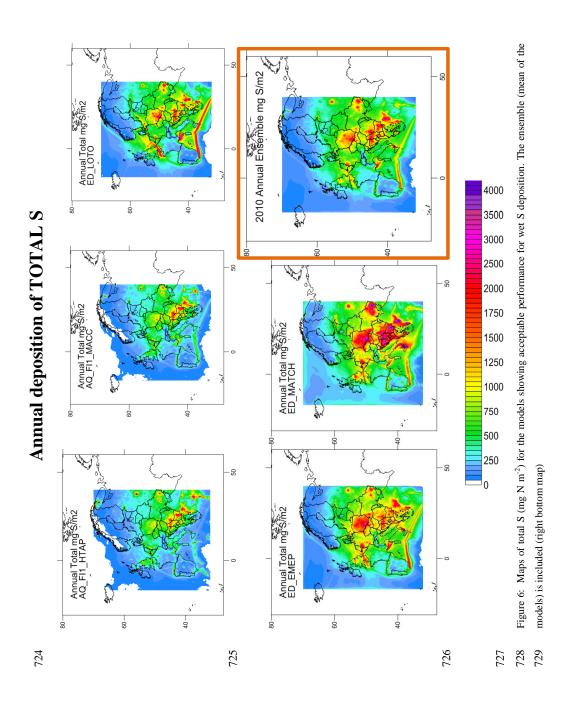






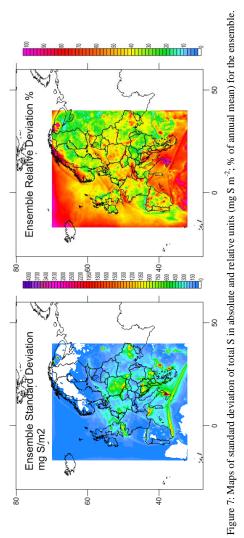
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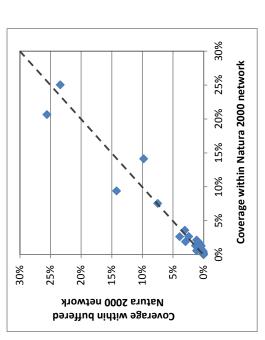


Figure 8: Coverage representation of EUNIS level-1 habitat classes within the entire Natura 2000 network versus the buffered areas. 742 743





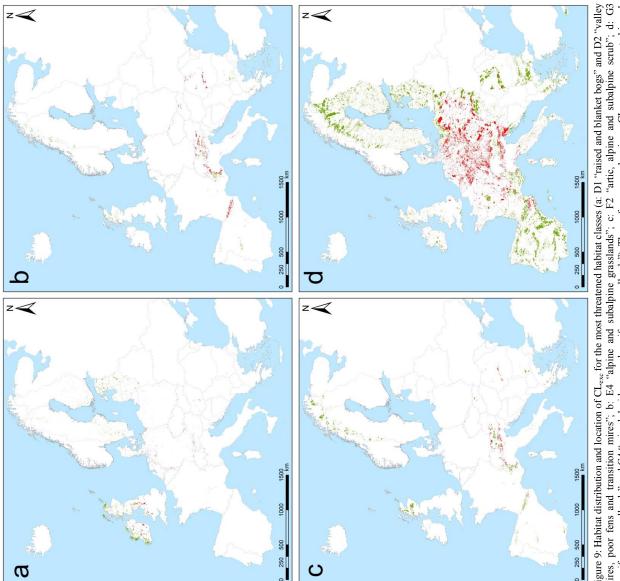


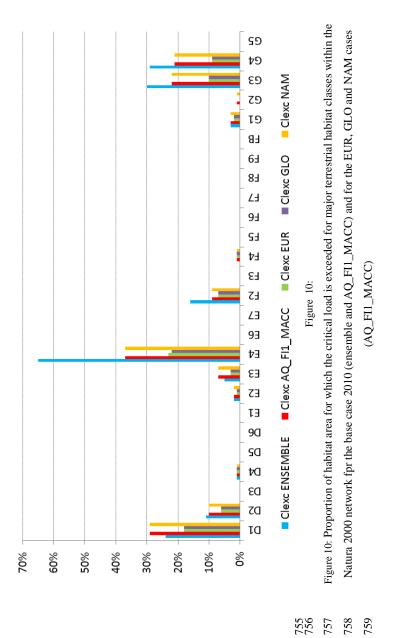
Figure 9: Habitat distribution and location of CL_{eve} for the most threatened habitat classes (a: D1 "raised and blanket bogs" and D2 "valley mires, poor fens and transition mires"; b: E4 "alpine and subalpine grasslands"; c: F2 "artic, alpine and subalpine scrub"; d: G3 "coniferous woodlands" and G4 "mixed deciduous and coniferous woodlands"). The surface areas showing a CL_{eve} are represented in red, while the areas with no CL_{eve} are represented ion green.

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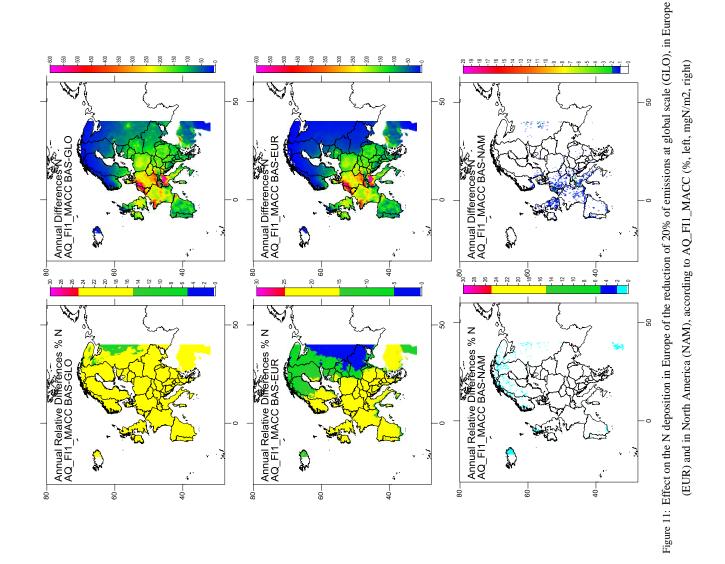






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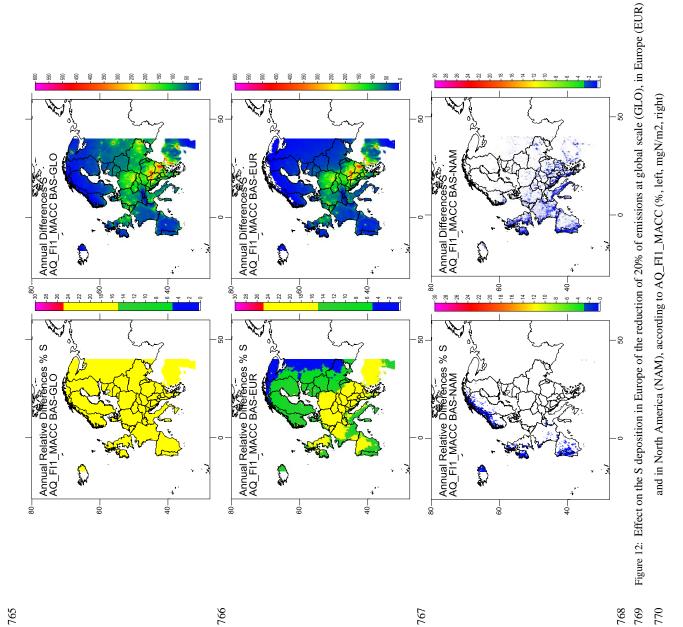


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