1	Trends and source apportionment of aerosols in Europe during
2	1980–2018
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22 Abstract

23 Aerosols have significantly affected health, environment and climate in Europe. Aerosol concentrations have been declining since 1980s in Europe, mainly owing to 24 25 the reduction of local aerosol and precursor emissions. Emissions from other source regions of the world, which have been changing rapidly as well, may also perturb the 26 27 historical and future trends of aerosols and change their radiative impact in Europe. 28 This study examines trends of aerosols in Europe during 1980–2018 and quantify contributions from sixteen source regions using the Community Atmosphere Model 29 30 version 5 with an Explicit Aerosol Source Tagging technique (CAM5-EAST). The simulated near-surface total mass concentration of sulfate, black carbon and primary 31 32 organic carbon had a 62% decrease during 1980–2018, of which the majority was 33 contributed by reductions of local emissions in Europe and 8%-9% was induced by the decrease in emissions from Russia-Belarus-Ukraine. With the decreases in the 34 35 fractional contribution of local emissions, aerosols transported from other source 36 regions are increasingly important to air quality in Europe. During 1980–2018, the decrease in sulfate loading leads to a warming effect of 2.0 W m⁻² in Europe, with 37 38 12% coming from changes in non-European sources, especially from North America 39 and Russia-Belarus-Ukraine. According to the Shared Socioeconomic Pathways 40 (SSP) scenarios, contributions to the sulfate radiative forcing over Europe from both European local emissions and non-European emissions would decrease at a 41 42 comparable rate in the next three decades, suggesting that future changes in non-

- 43 European emissions are as important as European emissions in causing possible
- 44 regional climate change associated with aerosols in Europe.

48 **1. Introduction**

49 Aerosols are main air pollutants that contribute to excess morbidity and premature mortality through damaging cardiovascular and respiratory systems 50 51 (Lelieveld et al., 2019). They also have adverse effects on atmospheric visibility for road and air traffic (Vautard et al., 2009). During the 1952 London Fog, high fatality 52 53 associated with extremely high level of aerosols caused thousands of premature 54 deaths (Bell and Davis, 2001), which resulted in a number of air quality legislations for reducing air pollution in Europe (Brimblecombe et al., 2006). 55 56 Besides the health and environment effects, aerosols can significantly impact 57 regional and global climate through perturbing the Earth's radiation fluxes and 58 influencing cloud microphysics (Boucher et al., 2013). Globally, anthropogenic 59 aerosols exert a net cooling effect in the Earth system, which have dampened the warming driven by greenhouse gases since the pre-industrial era. Due to a strong 60 61 surface albedo feedback over polar regions, per unit aerosol emission from western 62 Europe was reported to have the greatest cooling effect than other major source regions of the globe (Persad and Caldeira, 2018), revealing the importance of 63

64 understanding aerosol variations in Europe.

Significant reductions in near-surface aerosol concentrations and aerosol optical
depth (AOD) have been observed in Europe during the last few decades from longterm station measurements and satellite retrievals (de Meij et al., 2012; Tørseth et
al., 2012). The decrease in aerosols has been considered as a cause of the increase
in surface solar radiation over Europe since the 1980s (Wild, 2009), as well as the

70 contributor of the eastern European warming (Vautard et al., 2009), Arctic

amplification (Acosta Navarro et al., 2016), and the increased atmospheric visibility
over Europe (Stjern et al., 2011) during the past three decades.

73 The decrease in aerosols over Europe was mainly attributed to the continuous reductions in European local anthropogenic emissions of aerosols and precursor 74 75 gases since the 1980s (Smith et al., 2011), as a result of legislations for improving 76 air quality. In addition to local emissions, aerosol levels can also be affected by 77 aerosol transport at continental scales (Zhang et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2018a). 78 Aerosol emissions in major economic regions of the world have been changing 79 rapidly during the past few decades owing to economic development and 80 environmental measures. North America has started reducing emissions since the 81 1980s, and emissions in Russia also showed decreasing trends after the dissolution 82 of the Soviet Union (Smith et al., 2011). In the meantime, aerosol emissions from 83 East Asia and South Asia have largely increased due to economic growth, although 84 emissions in China have been undergoing a remarkable reduction in the most recent 85 years, as a result of strict air quality regulations (Streets et al., 2000; Li et al., 2017). 86 It is important to understand the relative roles of local emissions and regional 87 transport in affecting long-term variation of aerosols in Europe from both air quality 88 and climate perspectives.

Source apportionment is useful for quantifying contributions to aerosols from
 specific source regions and/or sectors, which is beneficial to the emission control
 strategies. The traditional method of examining the source-receptor relationship in

92	aerosol models is to zero out or perturb a certain percent of emissions from a given
93	source region or sector in parallel sensitivity simulations along with a baseline
94	simulation, which has been used in many studies to examine source contributions of
95	particulate matter (PM) in Europe from different sectors (e.g., Sartelet et al., 2012;
96	Tagaris et al., 2015; Aksoyoglu et al., 2016). Recently, source region contributions to
97	European CO and O_3 levels, as well as global and regional aerosol radiative forcing,
98	were examined under the Hemispheric Transport of Air Pollution model experiment
99	phase 2 (HTAP2) protocol, in which sensitivity simulations were conducted with
100	anthropogenic emissions from different source regions reduced by 20% (Jonson et
101	al., 2018). This method suffers a large computational cost for the excessive model
102	simulations when estimating contributions from a large number of sources, and
103	contributions from all sources do not sum up to 100% of the total concentration in the
104	default simulation (Koo et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2014).
105	The explicit aerosol tagging method, which simultaneously tracks contributions
106	from many different sources, is a useful tool for assessing source-receptor
107	relationship of aerosols. This method has previous been adopted in regional air
108	quality models such as CAMx (the Comprehensive Air quality Model with
109	Extensions) and CMAQ (the Community Multi-scale Air Quality model). Using
110	regional air quality models with aerosol tagging, contributions from different source
111	sectors and local/regional sources to European PM and its health impact were
112	studied (Brandt et al., 2013; Skyllakou et al., 2014; Karamchandani et al., 2017).
113	However, due to the limitation in domain size of regional air quality models,

contributions of intercontinental transport from sources outside the domain aredifficult to be accounted.

116 Anthropogenic emissions of aerosols and their precursor gases from different 117 economic regions of the world have changed substantially during the past few decades. Very few studies have examined the source apportionment of aerosols in 118 119 Europe from sources all over the changing world. In this study, source attributions of 120 concentrations, column burden, optical depth of aerosols in four major areas of Europe from sixteen source regions of the globe over 1980–2018 are quantified, 121 122 which is facilitated by the explicit aerosol source tagging technique that were recently implemented in a global aerosol-climate model (CAM5-EAST). This technique has 123 124 lately been used to examine source attribution of aerosol trends in China and U.S. 125 during 1980–2014 (Yang et al., 2018a,b). The source apportionment analysis is extended to year 2018 using the Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs) scenario, 126 127 with a focus on Europe here. 128 The CAM5-EAST model, along with the aerosol source tagging technique, and

aerosol emissions are described in Sect. 2. Section 3 evaluates the model

130 performance in simulating aerosols in Europe. Section 4 show the analysis of

131 source-receptor relationships of aerosols in Europe in climatological mean. Source

132 contributions to long-term variations of European aerosols and their direct radiative

133 forcing (DRF) during 1980–2018, as well as future forcing prediction, are provided in

134 Sect. 5. Section 6 summarizes these results and conclusions.

135 **2. Methods**

136 **2.1 Model Description and Experimental Setup**

137 The global aerosol-climate model CAM5 (Community Atmosphere Model version 5), which was developed as the atmospheric component of CESM (the Community 138 139 Earth System Model, Hurrell et al., 2013), is applied to simulate aerosols at a spatial resolution of 1.9° latitude × 2.5° longitude and 30 vertical layers from the surface to 140 141 3.6 hPa. Aerosol species, including sulfate, black carbon (BC), primary organic 142 aerosol (POA), second organic aerosol (SOA), mineral dust and sea salt, can be simulated in a modal aerosol module of CAM5. The three-mode aerosol module 143 144 (MAM3) configuration is chosen with the consideration of the computational 145 efficiency of long-term simulation. Details of the MAM3 aerosol representation in 146 CAM5 are described in Liu et al. (2012). On top of the default CAM5, some aerosol-147 related scheme modifications are utilized to improve the model performance in the aerosol convective transport and wet deposition (Wang et al., 2013). 148 149 A 40-year (1979–2018) historical AMIP-type (Atmospheric Model 150 Intercomparison Project) simulation has been performed, following CMIP6 (the 151 Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6) configurations and forcing 152 conditions. Time-varying sea surface temperatures, sea ice concentrations, solar 153 insolation, greenhouse gas concentrations and aerosol emissions are prescribed in 154 the simulation. To better reproduce large-scale circulation patterns for aerosol transport in the model, wind fields are nudged to the MERRA-2 (Modern Era 155 156 Retrospective-Analysis for Research and Applications Version 2) reanalysis (Ronald 157 Gelaro et al., 2017).

158 Aerosol DRF is defined in this study as the difference in clear-sky radiative fluxes 159 at the top of the atmosphere between two diagnostic calculations in the radiative transfer scheme with and without specific aerosol species accounted, respectively. 160 161 Historical variation of sulfate DRF due to anthropogenic emissions from Europe and outside Europe are quantified in this study. Rather than sulfate, DRF of other aerosol 162 163 species is not calculated in this study due to the computational limitation considering 164 multiple source regions. However, because sulfate dominates the decrease in total combustion AOD in Europe shown below, the sulfate DRF is calculated to roughly 165 represent the DRF caused by the total combustion AOD change. Future DRF of 166 sulfate aerosol over Europe is also estimated through scaling historical mean (1980-167 168 2018) sulfate DRF by the ratio of SSPs future SO₂ emissions to historical emissions 169 assuming a linear response of DRF to AOD and regional emissions. This DRF prediction method has been used to estimate the East Asian contribution to sulfate 170 171 DRF in U.S. in 2030s (Yang et al., 2018a).

172 **2.2 Aerosol Source Tagging Technique**

The Explicit Aerosol Source Tagging (EAST) technique, which was recently implemented in CAM5 (Wang et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2017a, b), is used to examine the long-term source apportionment of aerosols in Europe. Unlike the traditional back-trajectory and emission perturbation methods, EAST has the identical physical, chemical and dynamical processes considered independently for aerosol species (defined as new tracers) emitted from each of the tagged source region and/or sector in the simulation. Sulfate, BC, POA and SOA from pre-defined sources can be

180	explicitly tracked, from emission to deposition, in one CAM5-EAST simulation. Due
181	to the computational constraint and potentially large model bias from the simplified
182	SOA treatment (Yang et al., 2018a; Lou et al., 2019), we focus on sulfate, BC and
183	POA in this study but quantify the potential impact of SOA on the aerosol variation.
184	The global aerosol and precursor emissions are decomposed into sixteen source
185	regions defined in the HTAP2 protocol, including Europe (EUR), North America
186	(NAM), Central America (CAM), South America (SAM), North Africa (NAF), South
187	Africa (SAF), the Middle East (MDE), Southeast Asia (SEA), Central Asia (CAS),
188	South Asia (SAS), East Asia (EAS), Russia-Belarus-Ukraine (RBU), Pacific-
189	Australia-New Zealand (PAN), the Arctic (ARC), Antarctic (ANT), and Non-
190	Arctic/Antarctic Ocean (OCN) (Figure 1). Note that sources from marine and volcanic
191	eruptions are included in OCN. The focused receptor region in this study is Europe,
192	which is further divided into Northwestern Europe (NWE or NW Europe),
193	Southwestern Europe (SWE or SW Europe), Eastern Europe (EAE or E. Europe)
194	and Greece-Turkey-Cyprus (GTC) based on the finer source region selection in
195	HTAP2.

2.3 Aerosol and Precursor Emissions

197 Following the CMIP6-AMIP protocol, historical anthropogenic (Hoesly et al.,

198 2018) and biomass burning (van Marle et al., 2017) emissions of aerosol and

- 199 precursor gases are used over 1979–2014. For the remaining four years (2015–
- 200 2018), emissions are interpolated from the SSP2-4.5 forcing scenario, in which
- 201 aerosol pathways are not as extreme as other SSPs and have been used in many

202	model intercomparison projects for CMIP6 (O'Neill et al., 2016). Figure S1 shows the
203	spatial distribution and time series of anthropogenic emissions of SO_2 (precursor gas
204	of sulfate aerosol), BC and POA from Europe over 1980–2018. High emissions are
205	located over E. Europe and NW Europe, from which the emissions of SO_2 , BC and
206	POA were reduced by 84–93%, 43–62% and 28–36%, respectively, in 2014–2018
207	relative to 1980–1984. Although SW Europe had a relatively low total amount of
208	emissions compared to E. Europe and NW Europe, it had significant reductions in
209	SO ₂ and BC emissions, 91% and 55%, respectively. Over GTC region, SO ₂ and BC
210	emissions were increased by 49% and 48%, respectively. Considering the sub-
211	regions as a whole, SO_2 , BC and POA emissions from Europe have decreased by
212	12.57 Tg yr ⁻¹ (83%), 0.22 Tg yr ⁻¹ (46%) and 0.30 Tg yr ⁻¹ (24%) in 2014–2018
213	compared to 1980–1984 (Table 1). Historical changes in emissions from other
214	source regions can be found in Hoesly et al. (2018) and Yang et al. (2018b).

215 **3 Model Evaluation**

216 EMEP (European Monitoring and Evaluation Programme, http://www.emep.int) 217 networks provide daily near-surface aerosol concentrations in Europe. The annual 218 mean of daily observations is used to evaluate the model performance in this study. Compared to the observational data from EMEP networks during 2010-2014, CAM5-219 220 EAST can well reproduce the spatial distribution and magnitude of aerosol components with normalized mean biases (NMB) of -14%~-23% and correlation 221 222 coefficients (R) in a range of 0.43~0.62 for sulfate, BC and organic carbon (OC, 223 derived from POA and SOA from the model results) (Figures 2).

224 Figure 3 shows the time series of annual mean near-surface sulfate, BC, and OC 225 concentrations averaged over EMEP sites in Europe and the corresponding model 226 values during 1993–2018. Variations in near-surface sulfate concentrations are 227 consistent between the model and observations, with R values higher than 0.9. The observed variations of BC and OC concentrations in Europe are represented in the 228 229 simulation, with R values of 0.52 and 0.65, respectively. However, the observed high 230 values of BC and OC concentrations are not captured by the model, probably because very few data were available before 2010 and, therefore, any difference 231 232 between model and observation cannot be smoothed out through the spatial average. This is also indicated by the large spatial variation of BC and OC 233 234 concentrations before 2010. Nevertheless, the modeled concentrations are still 235 within the range of observations. Note that the number of sites used for the spatial average in Figure 3 is different from year to year and thus the variation or trend here 236 237 does not represent that over a sub-region or the entire Europe. 238 The modeled AOD is evaluated against the AERONET (Aerosol Robotic 239 Network, https://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov) data in Figure 8. Both the modeled and 240 observed AOD show decreasing trends during 2001–2018. The model 241 underestimates AOD in all four sub-regions of Europe probably due to the lack of 242 nitrate aerosol. The variations of AOD in Western Europe (combined NW and SW Europe) are well predicted with R values of about 0.75, but the model barely 243 244 reproduces the AOD variations in E. Europe and the GTC region (R<0.5). The difference of the interannual variation in AOD between the model simulation and 245

observation can be caused by many factors such as aerosol emissions, aerosol
parameterizations in model, aerosol mixing state, inaccurate meteorological fields
from reanalysis data, and biases in measurements. However, identifying the
contribution of each factor to the difference is beyond the scope of this paper.

4. Source Apportionment of Aerosols in Europe

Based on the tagging technique in CAM5-EAST, near-surface concentrations of 251 252 total sulfate-BC-POA can be attributed to emissions within and outside Europe, as shown in Figures 4a and 4b, and the relative contributions in percentage are given in 253 254 Figures 4c and 4d. Averaged over 2010–2018, due to the relatively high local emissions, annual mean sulfate-BC-POA concentrations contributed by European 255 emissions show peak values of 4 μ g m⁻³ in E. Europe. The slight increase in SO₂ 256 257 emission from the GTC region (Figure S1), which is opposite to the decreases in the other three sub-regions of Europe, also leads to high concentrations in GTC, with 2-258 4 µg m⁻³ contributed by European emissions. Due to the atmospheric transport from 259 260 surrounding regions including North Africa, the Middle East and Russia-Belarus-Ukraine, non-European emissions account for $0.5-1 \mu g m^{-3}$ over SW Europe, E. 261 262 Europe and GTC area. Overall, European local emissions are the dominant sources 263 of sulfate-BC-POA near-surface concentrations in Europe with contributions larger 264 than 80% (60%) in central areas (most of Europe). Non-European emissions are responsible for 30–50% of the near-surface concentrations near the coastal areas 265 266 and boundaries of the Europe that are easily influenced by aerosol regional transport. 267

Figure 5 illustrates the source contributions in percentage of emissions from 268 different regions of the globe to near-surface aerosol concentrations and column 269 270 burdens over the four sub-regions of Europe averaged over 2010-2018. Different 271 aerosols have fairly different local/remote source attributions depending on the local to remote emission ratio and transport efficiency. European emissions explain 54%-272 273 68% of near-surface sulfate concentrations over the four sub-regions of Europe, with 274 the largest local contribution in E. Europe due to the relatively high emission rate. The emissions from Europe dominate BC and POA concentrations in Europe with 275 276 contributions in the range of 78%–95% and 58%–78%, respectively. The impact of local emissions on near-surface sulfate concentration is smaller than BC and POA. 277 278 This is partially due to the less efficient gas scavenging than particles and the 279 additional SO₂-to-sulfate conversion process that increases the atmospheric 280 residence time of sulfur. On the other hand, the higher initial injection height of SO₂ emissions from some sources (e.g., industrial sector and power plants) facilitates the 281 282 lifting of SO₂ and sulfate aerosol into the free atmosphere and, therefore, favors the 283 long-range transport (Yang et al., 2019). The efficient reduction in local SO₂ 284 emissions in Europe also caused the lower influences of local emissions on sulfate 285 concentrations in recent years. 286 Anthropogenic emissions over oceans (e.g., international shipping) and natural

emissions of oceanic dimethyl sulfide (DMS) and volcanic activities together account

for 16%–28% of near-surface sulfate concentrations in the four sub-regions of

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Europe. About 10% of sulfate and 5%–10% of BC and POA in E. Europe and GTC

come from Russia-Belarus-Ukraine emissions. North Africa contributes to 7% of
sulfate, 17% of BC and 24% of POA over SW Europe. The contributions of
emissions, from the Middle East, to aerosol concentrations in GTC are between 5%
and 10%.

294 The transboundary and intercontinental transport of aerosols occur most 295 frequently in the free troposphere rather than near the surface, as horizonal transport 296 pathways at the surface and 500 hPa are indicated on the spatial distribution map of the relative contributions shown in Figures S2 and S3. This also leads to larger 297 298 relative contributions from non-European sources to aerosol column burdens than to 299 the near-surface concentrations (Figure 5). The European emissions only contribute 300 32%–47% of column burden of sulfate, 57%–75% of BC and 51%–71% of POA over 301 the four sub-regions of Europe. Over NW Europe and SW Europe, about 10%–15% 302 of the sulfate burden is from East Asia and Russia-Belarus-Ukraine, respectively. 303 Sources in North Africa are responsible for 27% and 14% of BC and 19% and 11% 304 of POA burden over SW Europe and GTC, respectively. Emissions from North 305 America account for 15% and 10% POA burden over NW Europe and SW Europe, 306 respectively. Emissions from Russia-Belarus-Ukraine explain 12% and 19% of POA 307 burden over E. Europe and GTC, respectively. Since near-surface aerosol 308 concentrations directly affect air quality and column burden is more relevant to radiative impact, the differences of relative contributions between near-surface 309 310 concentrations and column burden highlight the possible roles of non-local emissions in either air quality or energy balance over Europe. 311

312 Source contributions to aerosols in Europe vary with season due to the 313 seasonality of emissions and meteorology. In general, local sources have the largest 314 contributions to both near-surface concentration and column burden of European 315 aerosols in winter and smallest contributions in summer averaged over 2010–2018 (outer rings in Figure 6). With the contributions normalized by the ratio of seasonal 316 317 anthropogenic emission to annual mean for each source, the impact of emission 318 seasonal variation on the source contributions can be removed (inner rings in Figure 6) (Yang et al., 2019). Without the influence of emission seasonality, local source 319 contributions decrease in winter and increase in summer, indicating that it was the 320 321 higher local anthropogenic emissions that result in the larger local source 322 contributions to wintertime aerosols in Europe relative to other seasons. Sulfur 323 sources over oceans account for one fourth to one third of European sulfate concentration and burden in spring likely due to the strong westerlies in this season 324 325 that transport aerosols from the North Atlantic Ocean to the Europe. Source 326 contributions from Russia-Belarus-Ukraine and North America to BC and POA in Europe show strong seasonal variabilities, which can be explained by the changes in 327 328 biomass burning emissions considering its large seasonal variability.

329 **5**

5. Source Apportionment of Long-term Trends

Total sulfate-BC-POA concentrations decreased during 1980–2018 over all of
the four sub-regions of Europe (Figure 7), since that near-surface aerosol
concentrations in Europe are dominated by its local emissions and the European
anthropogenic emissions have significantly decreased during this time period.

334 Averaged over the entire Europe, near-surface concentrations of sulfate, BC and POA decreased by 70%, 43% and 23%, respectively, between 1980–1984 and 335 336 2014–2018, which is consistent with the decreases in local emissions (Table 1). The 337 total sulfate-BC-POA concentrations decreased by 62%. With SOA included, this value does not have a substantial change (from 62% to 59%) and the decreasing 338 339 trends in the four sub-regions of the Europe are not largely affected either. The 340 column burden of sulfate, BC, POA and the sum of these three decreased by 60%, 28%, 4% and 55%, respectively, which is less than the decrease in corresponding 341 342 near-surface concentration. It is because non-local emissions have larger influences 343 at high altitudes than at the surface, which partly dampened the contribution of near-344 surface aerosol decrease (induced by reductions in location emissions) to the 345 column integration.

346 The decrease in European local emissions explains 93% of the reduced 347 concentration and 91% of the reduced burden in Europe between the first and last 348 five-year period of 1980–2018, while 8%–9% is contributed by the reduction in 349 emissions from Russia-Belarus-Ukraine (Table 2). The decrease in emissions from 350 North America also explains 10% of the reduced column burden of sulfate-BC-POA 351 in Europe from 1980–1984 to 2014–2018. Along with the decreases in local emission 352 contributions to near-surface sulfate-BC-POA concentrations in Europe, the fraction of non-European emission contributions increased from 10%–30% to 30%–50% 353 354 during 1980–2018 (Figure 7), indicating that aerosols from foreign emissions through long-range transport have become increasingly important to air quality in Europe. 355

Regulations for further improvement of air quality in Europe in the near future needto take changes in non-European emissions into account.

358 Similar to the declining trend in column burden, simulated total AOD also 359 decreased from 0.12–0.16 to 0.06–0.08 in NW Europe and SW Europe and from 0.19–0.21 to 0.09–0.13 in E. Europe and GTC region during the past four decades 360 361 (Figure 8). Sulfate AOD accounts for the largest portion of total combustion AOD 362 (sum of sulfate, BC, POA and SOA) over the four sub-regions of Europe. The combustion AOD has decreased by 0.065 from 1980–1984 to 2014–2018 (Table 1), 363 with 0.059 (91%) contributed by the decrease in sulfate AOD. Therefore, we focus 364 on sulfate aerosol when examining the decadal changes in AOD and DRF in Europe 365 366 below.

367 The decreased sulfate AOD can also be decomposed into different contributions from individual source regions in CAM5-EAST. European local emissions contribute 368 369 to 89% of the decrease, followed by 9% and 7% attributed to changes in emissions 370 from Russia-Belarus-Ukraine and North America, respectively, with the residual 371 offset by other source regions (Table 2). Over the last four decades, model simulated 372 sulfate AOD decreased at a rate of 0.017, 0.017, 0.026 and 0.012 decade⁻¹, 373 respectively, over NW Europe, SW Europe, E. Europe and GTC. Decreases in 374 European local SO₂ emissions result in 78% of the sulfate AOD decreases over GTC and about 90% over the other three sub-regions (Figure 9). For the remote sources, 375 376 emission changes in North America explain 5%–10% of the European sulfate AOD decrease, while Russia-Belarus-Ukraine sources contribute 29% of the sulfate AOD 377

decrease over GTC and 6%–8% over NW Europe and E. Europe, indicating a
possible warming enhancement effect of changes in emissions from North America
and Russia-Belarus-Ukraine.

381 Averaged over 1980–2018, sulfate imposed a cooling effect over Europe with the maximum negative DRF at the top of the atmosphere (TOA) exceeding –3 W m⁻² in 382 E. Europe (Figure 10). Compared to 1980–1984, the magnitude of sulfate DRF 383 decreased in 2014–2018, leading to a 1–3 W m⁻² warming mainly in E. Europe. The 384 warming effect mostly came from local SO₂ emission reduction, while non-European 385 emission changes only contributed less than 0.4 W m⁻² over most regions of the 386 Europe. Considering Europe as a whole, the decrease in sulfate DRF caused a 387 warming effect of 2.0 W m⁻², with 88% and 12% coming from reductions European 388 389 local emissions and changes in non-European emissions, respectively (Tables 1 and 390 2).

Future changes in sulfate DRF associated with European and non-European 391 392 emissions based on eight SSP scenarios are also estimated and shown in Figure 11 393 and Figure S4 gives the estimate for each SSP scenario. Sulfate DRF contributed by 394 both European and non-European emissions would decrease in the near future but 395 has large variabilities between different SSPs. The sulfate DRF (cooling) over 396 Europe contributed from European local emissions shows a decrease from -0.48 W m^{-2} in year 2015 to -0.18 (-0.08 ~ -0.33) W m^{-2} in year 2030 and -0.14 (-0.05 ~ -0.29) 397 398 W m⁻² in year 2050. Unlike their contributions to the historical (1980–2018) change, non-European emissions have an increasingly significant impact on the future sulfate 399

DRF changes in Europe. The contributions of non-European emissions decrease from -0.68 W m⁻² in year 2015 to -0.39 (-0.13 \sim -0.64) W m⁻² in year 2030 and -0.26 (-0.08 \sim -0.63) W m⁻² in year 2050, with the changes in a magnitude similar to that of European local emissions. It suggests that future changes in non-European emissions are as important as European emissions to radiative balance and associated regional climate change in Europe.

406 **6. Conclusions**

Using a global aerosol-climate model with an explicit aerosol source tagging 407 technique (CAM5-EAST), we examine the long-term trends and source 408 apportionment of aerosols in Europe over 1980–2018 from sixteen source regions 409 410 covering the globe in this study. CAM5-EAST can well capture the spatial distribution 411 and temporal variation of aerosol species in Europe during this time period. Averaged over 2010–2018, European emissions account for 54%–68%, 78%– 412 95% and 58%–78% of near-surface sulfate, BC, and POA concentrations over 413 414 Europe, respectively. Russia-Belarus-Ukraine emissions explain 10% of sulfate in E. 415 Europe and GTC. North Africa contributes to 17% of BC and 24% of POA over SW 416 Europe. Anthropogenic emissions over oceans (e.g., from international shipping) and 417 natural emissions from marine and volcanic activities together account for 16%–28% 418 of sulfate near-surface concentrations in Europe. European emissions only account for 32%–47%, 57%–75% and 51%–71% of column burden of sulfate, BC and POA, 419 420 respectively, in Europe, with the rest contributed by emissions from East Asia, Russia-Belarus-Ukraine, North Africa and North America. Source contributions of 421

422 aerosols in Europe vary with seasons driven by the seasonality of emissions and423 meteorology.

424 Compared to 1980–1984, simulated total sulfate-BC-POA near-surface 425 concentration and column burden over 2014–2018 had a decrease of 62% and 55%, respectively, the majority of which was contributed by reductions in European local 426 427 emissions. The decrease in emissions from Russia-Belarus-Ukraine contributed 8%-428 9% of the near-surface concentration decrease, while the decrease in emissions from North America accounted for 10% of the reduced column burden. With the large 429 decrease in local emission contribution, aerosols from foreign sources became 430 increasingly important to air quality in Europe. The decrease in sulfate led to a 2.0 W 431 432 m⁻² warming in Europe, with 12% coming from changes in non-European emissions, 433 especially in North America and Russia-Belarus-Ukraine. Based on the SSP scenarios and the assumed relationship between DRF and emissions, we estimated 434 435 that sulfate DRF over Europe contributed from European emissions and non-436 European emissions would decrease at a comparable rate in the near future. This 437 suggests that future changes in non-European emissions are as important as 438 European emissions in affecting regional climate change associated with aerosols in 439 Europe. It should also be noted that the model currently does not have the ability to simulate nitrate and ammonium aerosols and, therefore, the conclusions may not 440 hold with all aerosols. 441

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444	Data availability.
445	The default CAM5 model is publicly available at
446	http://www.cesm.ucar.edu/models/cesm1.2/ (last access: 16 August 2019). Our
447	CAM5-EAST model code and results can be made available through the National
448	Energy Research Scientific Computing Center (NERSC) servers upon request.
449	
450	Competing interests.
451	The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
452	
453	Author contribution.
454	YY, SL, and HW designed the research; YY performed the model simulations; YY,
455	and SL analyzed the data. All the authors discussed the results and wrote the paper.
456	
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- Table 1. Annual emissions (Tg yr⁻¹), concentrations (μg m⁻³), column burden (mg m⁻⁶⁷⁵
 ²), AOD (scaled up by a factor of 100) and DRF (W m⁻²) of Sulfate, BC, POA, SBP
 (sulfate-BC-POA) and SBP-SOA (sulfate-BC-POA-SOA) in Europe averaged over
 1980–1984 and 2014–2018, as well as the differences between 1980–1984 and
 2014–2018. Differences in percentage relative to mean values in 1980–1984 are
 presented in parentheses.

		Emis.	Conc.	Burden	AOD*100	DRF
	1980–1984	15.10	6.00	14.35	9.13	-3.27
Sulfate	2014–2018	2.53	1.80	5.79	3.24	-1.24
	Δ	-12.57 (-83.2)	-4.20 (-70.0)	-8.55 (-59.6)	-5.89 (-64.6)	2.04 (-62.2)
	1980–1984	0.47	0.4	0.38	0.7	
BC	2014–2018	0.25	0.23	0.28	0.5	
	Δ	-0.22 (-45.8)	-0.17 (-43.0)	-0.11 (-27.6)	-0.21 (-29.2)	
	1980–1984	1.24	1.12	1.12	0.63	
POA	2014–2018	0.94	0.86	1.08	0.58	
	Δ	-0.30 (-24.4)	-0.26 (-23.2)	-0.04 (-3.8)	-0.05 (-7.5)	
	1980–1984		7.52	15.85	10.46	
Sulfate-BC-POA	2014–2018		2.89	7.15	4.32	
	Δ		-4.63 (-61.6)	-8.70 (-54.9)	-6.15 (-58.7)	
	1980–1984		10.48	19.58	11.92	
SBP-SOA	2014–2018		4.34	8.55	5.44	
	Δ		-6.14 (-58.6)	-11.03 (-56.3)	-6.48 (-54.37)	

Table 2. Relative contributions (%) of emissions from major source regions to the
 changes in near-surface concentrations, column burden, AOD and DRF in Europe
 between 1980–1984 and 2014–2018.

		Sulfate-BC-		
		POA		
	Δ Conc.	Δ Burden	ΔAOD	
EUR	92.8	91.2	91.2	
NAM	1.8	10.0	6.5	
NAF	-1.0	-1.5	-1.6	
MDE	-0.9	-1.9	-1.5	
EAS	-0.3	-3.1	-1.7	
RBU	8.0	9.2	8.5	
OTH	-0.1	-4.2	-2.0	
OCN	-0.3	0.2	0.6	
		Sulfate		
	Δ Conc.	Δ Burden	Δ AOD	Δ DRF
EUR	91.3	89.2	88.9	88.2
NAM	2.1	10.5	6.9	
NAF	-0.6	-0.9	-0.8	
MDE	-0.8	-1.7	-1.3	
EAS	-0.3	-2.8	-1.4	11.8
RBU	8.6	9.5	8.7	
OTH	-0.1	-4.0	-1.8	
OCN	-0.3	0.3	0.7	





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692 Figure 1. Source regions that are selected for the Explicit Aerosol Source Tagging

(EAST) in this study, including Europe (EUR), North America (NAM), Central 693

694 America (CAM), South America (SAM), North Africa (NAF), South Africa (SAF), the 695

Middle East (MDE), Southeast Asia (SEA), Central Asia (CAS), South Asia (SAS),

696 East Asia (EAS), Russia-Belarus-Ukraine (RBU), Pacific-Australia-New Zealand

697 (PAN), the Arctic (ARC), Antarctic (ANT), and Non-Arctic/Antarctic Ocean (OCN).

The embedded panel (at bottom left) is Europe, as the receptor region, which is 698

699 further divided to Northwestern Europe (NWE), Southwestern Europe (SWE),

Eastern Europe (EAE) and Greece-Turkey-Cyprus (GTC). 700



Figure 2. Spatial distribution of simulated (contour) and observed (color-filled circles) annual mean near-surface (a) sulfate, (b) BC, and (c) OC (derived as (POA+SOA)/1.4 in model) concentrations (μ g m⁻³) over 2010–2014. Observations are from EMEP (European Monitoring and Evaluation Programme) networks. Normalized mean bias (NMB = 100%× \sum (*Model*_{site} – *Observation*_{site}) / \sum *Observation*_{site}) and correlation coefficient (R) between observed and simulated concentrations are noted at the top of each panel.



713

714 **Figure 3.** Time series (1993–2018) of spatial and annual mean near-surface (a)

sulfate, (b) BC, and (c) OC concentrations (μ g m⁻³) in Europe from model simulation

716 (blue lines) and observations (red lines). Model results are plotted only when EMEP

717 observational data are available. Shaded areas represent 1- σ spatial standard

deviation of annual mean concentrations for each year. Temporal correlation

719 coefficients (R) between observed and simulated spatially averaged concentrations

are noted on the top-right corner of each panel.

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Figure 4. (a,b) Absolute (μ g m⁻³) and (c,d) relative contributions (%) to annual mean

near-surface concentrations of sulfate-BC-POA from European local emissions
(EUR) and emissions outside the Europe (Non-EUR), respectively, averaged over
2010–2018.



733 **Figure 5.** Relative contributions (%) by emissions from major tagged source regions

including Europe (EUR), North America (NAM), North Africa (NAF), the Middle East

735 (MDE), East Asia (EAS), Russia-Belarus-Ukraine (RBU), Non-Arctic/Antarctic Ocean

(OCN) and other (OTH) regions to near-surface concentrations (left) and column

burdens (right) of sulfate, BC and POA (from top to bottom) in the four sub-regions of

- 738Europe averaged over 2010–2018. Patterned areas represent EUR local
- contributions.
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EUR NAM NAF MDE EAS RBU OTH OCN

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Figure 6. Relative contributions (%) by emissions from major tagged source regions
to near-surface concentrations (Conc.) and column burdens of December-JanuaryFebruary (DJF), March-April-May (MAM), June-July-August (JJA) and SeptemberOctober-November (SON) mean sulfate, BC and POA over the Europe averaged
over 2010–2018. Outer rings represent the modeled values and the relative
contributions in inner rings is calculated based on absolute values normalized by the
ratio of seasonal emission to annual mean. Values larger than 5% are marked.





Figure 7. Time series (1980–2018) of absolute (left, μ g m⁻³) and relative (right, %) contributions of emissions from major source regions to the simulated annual mean

755 near-surface sulfate-BC-POA concentrations averaged over the four sub-regions of

756 Europe. Dashed lines in left panels represent simulated aerosol concentrations

- 757 including SOA.
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Figure 8. Time series (1980–2018) of simulated annual mean AOD for sulfate, BC,

763 POA, SOA, dust and sea salt averaged over the four sub-regions of Europe. Dashed

764 lines represent AOD from AERONET measurements.



Figure 9. Absolute contributions (decade⁻¹) of the emissions from major source

regions to the trends of sulfate AOD over the four sub-regions of Europe. Error bars

represent 95% confidence intervals of the linear regression.



Figure 10. (a) Simulated annual mean DRF (W m⁻²) of sulfate averaged over 1980–
2018 and (b) the difference in sulfate DRF between 1980–1984 and 2014–2018. The
contributions of European and non-European emissions to the difference are given in
(c) and (d), respectively.



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- 782

783 **Figure 11.** Time series (2015–2050) of estimated annual mean sulfate DRF over

Europe contributed by European and non-European emissions. Lines and areas

represent median values and minimum-to-maximum ranges of the estimated sulfate

786 DRF from eight SSP scenarios, including SSP1-1.9, SSP1-2.6, SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0,

787 SSP4-3.4, SSP4-6.0, SSP5-3.4, and SSP5-8.5. Future DRF of sulfate aerosol over

Europe is estimated by scaling historical mean (1980–2018) sulfate DRF using the

789 ratio of SSPs future SO₂ emissions to historical emissions assuming a linear

- 790 response of DRF to regional emissions.
- 791