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Full length article

## A European aerosol phenomenology – 9: Light absorption properties of carbonaceous aerosol particles across surface Europe

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## ABSTRACT

Carbonaceous aerosols (CA), composed of black carbon (BC) and organic matter (OM), significantly impact the climate. Light absorption properties of CA, particularly of BC and brown carbon (BrC), are crucial due to their contribution to global and regional warming. We present the absorption properties of BC ( $b_{\text{Abs,BC}}$ ) and BrC ( $b_{\text{Abs,BrC}}$ ) inferred using Aethalometer data from 44 European sites covering different environments (traffic (TR), urban (UB), suburban (SUB), regional background (RB) and mountain (M)). Absorption coefficients showed a clear relationship with station setting decreasing as follows: TR > UB > SUB > RB > M, with exceptions. The contribution of  $b_{\text{Abs,BrC}}$  to total absorption ( $b_{\text{Abs}}$ ), i.e. %Abs<sub>BrC</sub>, was lower at traffic sites (11–20 %), exceeding 30 % at some SUB and RB sites. Low AAE values were observed at TR sites, due to the dominance of internal combustion emissions, and at some remote RB/M sites, likely due to the lack of proximity to BrC sources, insufficient secondary processes generating BrC or the effect of photobleaching during transport. Higher  $b_{\text{Abs}}$  and AAE were observed in Central/Eastern Europe compared to Western/Northern Europe, due to higher coal and biomass burning emissions in the east. Seasonal analysis showed increased  $b_{\text{Abs}}$ ,  $b_{\text{Abs,BC}}$ ,  $b_{\text{Abs,BrC}}$  in winter, with stronger %Abs<sub>BrC</sub>, leading to higher AAE. Diel cycles of  $b_{\text{Abs,BC}}$  peaked during morning and evening rush hours, whereas  $b_{\text{Abs,BrC}}$ , %Abs<sub>BrC</sub>, AAE, and AAE<sub>BrC</sub> peaked at night when emissions from household activities accumulated. Decade-long trends analyses demonstrated a decrease in  $b_{\text{Abs}}$ , due to reduction of BC emissions, while  $b_{\text{Abs,BrC}}$  and AAE increased, suggesting a shift in CA composition, with a relative increase in BrC over BC. This study provides a unique dataset to assess the BrC effects on climate and confirms that BrC can contribute significantly to UV–VIS radiation presenting highly variable absorption properties in Europe.

## 1. Introduction

Carbonaceous aerosols (CA), composed of organic matter (OM) and black carbon (BC), play a significant role in the climate system. CA particles can modify the radiative budget through direct absorption and scattering of solar radiation, through semi-direct effects by modifying the thermodynamic state of the surrounding atmosphere, and indirectly by altering the cloud formation processes. The latest Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change report (IPCC, 2021) considers CA particles to be key short-lived climate pollutants and presents climate scenarios where mitigating their emissions, in particular of BC, can result in both climate and health co-benefits (e.g., Harmsen et al., 2020).

Black carbon, emitted as a product of the incomplete combustion of fossil fuels and biofuels, is the most effective aerosol warming agent given its ability to efficiently absorb radiation from the ultraviolet (UV) to the infrared (IR) part of the spectrum (Bond and Bergstrom, 2006; Bond et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2023). Until recently, BC was considered to be the second largest warming agent after CO<sub>2</sub> (e.g. IPCC, 2013; Samset et al. 2014; Samset et al. 2018) but the latest estimates suggest that the warming effect of BC emissions could be lower than originally thought (IPCC, 2021; Harmsen et al., 2020 and references herein), mostly due to the simultaneous interactions of warming BC and co-emitted cooling agents such as OM with the solar radiation. Organic particulate matter, in fact, constitutes a large fraction of the atmospheric aerosol mass (20–90 %; Jimenez et al., 2009) and is estimated to exert a net cooling

effect on a global level (e.g., IPCC, 2021). However, there is an increasing number of observations demonstrating the light-absorbing properties of a significant fraction of OM, usually referred to as brown carbon (BrC; e.g. Kirchstetter et al., 2004; Saleh et al., 2018, 2020; Samset et al., 2018; Sumlin et al., 2018, Kumar et al., 2023 among others).

BrC particulate matter (BrC PM) is a complex collection of light-absorbing organic molecules that can be soluble in solvents (such as water, methanol, and acetone) or insoluble (e.g. Corbin et al., 2018 and references therein) and that can efficiently absorb light in the ultraviolet (UV) and shorter visible wavelengths (Kirchstetter et al., 2004; Samset et al., 2018; Laskin et al., 2015; Moise et al., 2015; Saleh et al., 2018, 2020). BrC PM has attracted much attention due to its potential impacts on the Earth's radiative budget (Feng et al., 2013; Chakrabarty et al., 2016), the atmospheric chemical processes it undergoes (Liu et al., 2016; Wong et al., 2017), and its potential effect on human health (Yan et al., 2018). However, the lack of a complete description of BrC light absorption properties impairs the accurate estimation of its effects on climate warming. Fossil fuels, biofuels and biomass burning have been identified as the most important sources of primary and secondary BrC at a global scale (Zhang et al., 2020; Qin et al., 2018; Yan et al., 2017; Feng et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2020). In particular, biomass burning emissions have been confirmed as one of the most important sources of BrC (Washenfelder et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2020). Moreover, recent studies have shown the light-absorbing properties of other BrC sources

of anthropogenic origin such as vehicular emissions (Qin et al., 2018; Hu et al., 2017; Moschos et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2020; Ho et al., 2023), human-engineered materials (Hopstock et al., 2023), marine diesel engine operated on heavy fuel oil (e.g. Corbin et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2024), and coal combustion (e.g. Ni et al., 2021), among others. The emissions from the aforementioned sources can produce secondary BrC either through production of absorbing organics or coating of BC (Kalbermatter et al., 2022), i.e. secondary organic aerosols (SOA) with varying absorptive properties (e.g. Kumar et al., 2018). Moreover, after emission or formation, BrC PM can undergo physico-chemical processes such as a reduction of BrC light absorption primarily related to photochemical processes called photobleaching (e.g. Fang et al., 2023) or may lead to substantial reduction of NO<sub>2</sub> photolysis and drop in O<sub>3</sub> concentrations (Laskin et al., 2015). Although OM has been historically considered as essentially non-absorbing particulate matter, there has been a shift over the past 10 years to include their absorptive properties in climate models (e.g. Feng et al., 2013, Saleh et al., 2020). Indeed, some studies have found BrC responsible for 20–50 % of the total aerosol light-absorption in the UV (e.g. Shamjad et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2016; Li et al., 2022), and that the inclusion of strongly absorbing BrC in global climate models causes a shift of the direct radiative forcing of OM at the top of the atmosphere from a net cooling to a warming effect (Feng et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2013). Notably, model estimations have shown that the atmospheric heating of BrC from wildfires in the tropical mid and upper troposphere is larger than that of BC (Zhang et al., 2020). However, due to the complex processes forming and modifying BrC PM, their large spatial and temporal variability, and the lack of an exhaustive characterization of their optical properties at ambient conditions, the contribution of BrC on climate is still under-represented in current models (Brown et al., 2018, Zhang et al., 2020; Sand et al., 2021). Moreover, the dearth of long-term observations of BrC optical properties also limits the possibility to efficiently constrain the modeled properties of BrC PM (e.g., Yan et al., 2018).

In the last decade several studies have reported the BrC contribution to absorption in different cities in Europe, with special interest on winter conditions and on the contribution from wood burning and heating systems. For example, the results reported in Ferrero et al. (2018, 2021) for Northern Italy, Moschos et al. (2021) for Switzerland, Zhang et al. (2020) and Velazquez-Garcia et al., (2023) for France, Liakakou et al. (2020) and Kaskaoutis et al. (2024) for Greece and López-Caravaca et al. (2024) for Spain showed that the BrC contribution to total aerosol absorption at 370 nm ranged between around 20 % and 40 %. Contributions as high as 60–70 % were observed in winter in Slovenia (Cuesta-Mosquera et al., 2024) and in areas with old wooden houses and outdated heating systems as reported by Pauraite et al. (2023) for Lithuania. Overall, these studies have shown the high spatial and seasonal variability of BrC contribution to total absorption across Europe, related to differences in BrC sources, atmospheric conditions, station background (i.e. urban vs. regional), geographical location (i.e. open plains vs. enclosed valleys) and altitude.

Besides the high variability of the BrC contribution to absorption across Europe, BrC PM represents a subset of organic particles species that also exhibit very different wavelength dependent absorption properties. This wavelength dependency is represented through the Absorption Ångström Exponent (AAE), a key parameter for assessing the radiative forcing and climate effects of atmospheric aerosol particles. The AAE allows the absorption measured at a given wavelength to be reported at any other wavelength within the spectral range where the AAE was determined. Moreover, the AAE is an intensive aerosol particle optical property, i.e., it describes relative spectral contribution of particles to absorption independently of the total particle concentration. The imaginary refractive index of BrC progressively increases from the visible toward the UV, therefore, causing the AAE of BrC PM (AAE<sub>BrC</sub> from now on) to be higher than that of BC, which has approximately constant imaginary refractive index. In addition, the absorbing properties of BrC are quite variable which translates to considerable variability

of AAE<sub>BrC</sub> (e.g. Lack and Langridge, 2013; Kumar et al., 2023). Ambient measurements have confirmed the high variability of AAE<sub>BrC</sub> and values ranging between around 3 and 9 were reported in literature (e.g. Srinivas and Sarin, 2013; Massabò et al., 2015; Ferrero et al., 2018; Cuesta-Mosquera et al., 2024). Moreover, a wide range of AAE values for BrC PM generated in chamber experiments was provided by Saleh et al. (2013, 2020). Saleh et al. (2013, 2020) reported the Ångström exponent of the imaginary refractive index  $k$  (called  $\omega$ ) which is related to AAE<sub>BrC</sub> by a simple relationship in the small particle limit of AAE<sub>BrC</sub> =  $\omega + 1$ . The  $\omega$  presented by Saleh et al. (2013, 2020) ranged from values higher than 7 for secondary organic aerosols from aromatic VOCs to values around 2–3 for BrC from high-temperature biomass combustion. Besides chamber experiments, and in order to better constrain the AAE<sub>BrC</sub> values that can be used in climate models, a robust observation-based estimation of AAE<sub>BrC</sub> for ambient BrC PM available at many sites and over extended periods is required. Moreover, long term estimation of BC and BrC contribution to the multi-wavelength total absorption is needed to validate climate model outputs.

In this study, we used a robust experimental framework based on in-situ surface multi-wavelength absorption measurements at 44 sites in Europe to provide a unique dataset of multi-wavelength BC and BrC absorption coefficients, AAE of CA and AAE<sub>BrC</sub>. Aethalometer data were used to separate BC and BrC contributions to total absorption at different wavelengths from UV to the visible (370–660 nm). At sites providing more than 8 years of data, the decadal trends for all aforementioned variables were also studied. For these stations, meta-analysis was performed to compare and combine the results of multiple independent studies. Unlike previous studies, which focused on singular stations or groups of stations in a single country for relatively short periods of time, our study is the first to unify across Europe the analysis of the contribution of BrC to the total absorption. This study introduces a common methodology across European stations utilizing the same measurement periods and protocol, thus enabling a proper analysis of the spatial and temporal variability of BC and BrC absorption properties. Moreover, this study presents for the first time a systematic analysis of the trends for Europe for CA absorption properties. The Aethalometer measurements used in this work were collected from different research infrastructures and/or projects, namely: RI-URBANS project (European H2020-Green Deal; <https://riurbans.eu/>; Savadkoobi et al., 2023), FOCI project (HORIZON-CL5-2021-D1-01; <https://www.project-foci.eu/wp/>), and ACTRIS (<https://www.actris.eu/>). The RI-URBANS and ACTRIS Aethalometer data are available in the EBAS database (<https://ebas.nilu.no/>). The results presented here are of special relevance to the FOCI project (Non-CO<sub>2</sub> forcers and their climate, weather, air quality and health impacts), which aims at reducing the knowledge gaps concerning the climate impact of many non-CO<sub>2</sub> radiative forcers including that of BrC PM, by examining and evaluating climate-relevant processes and feedbacks of anthropogenic primary and secondary radiative forcing species.

## 2. Methodology

### 2.1. Measurement sites

Multi-wavelength absorption data were collected at 44 measurement stations across Europe where the Aethalometer AE33 model (Aerosol Magee Scientific) was mostly deployed (39 out of 44 sites), whereas at 5 sites the older AE31 model was used. The different sites have been classified based on the information provided by the data providers as traffic (TR, 6 sites), urban (UB, 16 sites), suburban (SUB, 7 sites), regional (RB, 10 sites) and mountain (M, 5 sites) types. The station classification was used to study possible differences in BC and BrC optical properties as a function of station characteristics. A detailed description of each site, including acronym, location, Aethalometer model, measurement periods and data source is reported in Table 1. Fig. S1 shows the data coverage of each site. The data coverage (cf.



**Table 1**

Measurement site specifications: site, acronym, data source, latitude, longitude, altitude, measurement period, Aethalometer model, station setting. Data collection source: (\*) RI-URBANS Project; (\*\*) FOCI Project; (\*\*\*) ACTRIS. (x): BUC measurement site was moved in 2020 two km away (44.34°N 26.01°E; 77 m a.s.l.). TR: traffic, UB: urban background, SUB: suburban, RB: regional background; M: mountain.

| Site   | Acronym   | Lat.    | Lon.        | Alt. | Period    | Aethalometer model | Station setting |
|--|-----------|---------|-------------|------|-----------|--------------------|-----------------|
| Lille (FR)                                   | ATOLL (*) | 50.61°N | 3.14°E      | 230  | 2017–2019 | AE33               | SUB             |
| Birmingham (UK)                              | BAQS (*)  | 52.45°N | 1.92°W      | 140  | 2019–2022 | AE33               | UB              |
| Barcelona (ES)                               | BCN (*)   | 41.38°N | 2.11°E      | 64   | 2016–2020 | AE33               | UB              |
| Bern (CH)                                    | BER (*)   | 46.95°N | 7.44°E      | 536  | 2018–2021 | AE33               | TR              |
| Birkenes (NO)                                | BIR (**)  | 58.39°N | 8.25°E      | 219  | 2018–2019 | AE33               | RB              |
| Bucharest (RO)                               | BUC (*)   | 44.35°N | 26.03°E (x) | 93   | 2014–2022 | AE33               | SUB             |
| Carnsore Point (IE)                          | CASP (**) | 52.17°N | 6.36°W      | 9    | 2016–2017 | AE33               | RB              |
| Demokritos (GR)                              | DEM (*)   | 37.99°N | 23.82°E     | 270  | 2017–2020 | AE33               | SUB             |
| Dublin (IE)                                  | DUB (**)  | 53.31°N | 6.22°W      | 20   | 2016–2017 | AE33               | UB              |
| Helmos (GR)                                  | HAC (***) | 37.98°N | 22.19°E     | 2340 | 2016–2019 | AE31               | M               |
| Helsinki (FI)                                | HEL (**)  | 60.20°N | 24.97°E     | 26   | 2016–2023 | AE33               | TR              |
| Helsinki (Hakkila; FI)                       | HEL_H (*) | 60.29°N | 25.11°E     | 31   | 2018      | AE33               | SUB             |
| Helsinki (Pirkkola; FI)                      | HEL_P (*) | 60.23°N | 24.92°E     | 20   | 2019      | AE33               | SUB             |
| Helsinki (Rekola; FI)                        | HEL_R (*) | 60.33°N | 25.07°E     | 27   | 2017      | AE33               | SUB             |
| Hohenpeissenberg (DE)                        | HOH (**)  | 47.80°N | 11.01°E     | 985  | 2017–2019 | AE33               | RB              |
| Hyttälä (FI)                                 | HYY (**)  | 61.85°N | 24.29°E     | 181  | 2018–2022 | AE33               | RB              |
| Ispra (IT)                                   | IPR (***) | 45.81°N | 8.63°E      | 209  | 2007–2021 | AE31               | RB              |
| Jungfrauoch (CH)                             | JFJ (***) | 46.54°N | 7.98°E      | 3578 | 2017–2019 | AE33               | M               |
| Kosetice (CZ)                                | KOS (**)  | 49.58°N | 15.08°E     | 534  | 2016–2018 | AE31               | RB              |
|  |           |         |             |      | 2019      |                    |                 |
| Krakow (PL)                                  | KRA (**)  | 50.07°N | 19.92°E     | 383  | 2018–2019 | AE33               | UB              |
| Ljubljana (SI)                               | LJB (*)   | 46.06°N | 14.50°E     | 295  | 2019–2024 | AE33               | UB              |
| Madrid (ES)                                  | MAD (*)   | 40.45°N | 3.72°W      | 669  | 2013–2023 | AE33               | UB              |
| Marseille (FR)                               | MAR (*)   | 43.30°N | 5.39°E      | 71   | 2017–2019 | AE33               | UB              |
| Milano (Marche; IT)                          | MLN_M (*) | 45.49°N | 9.19°E      | 120  | 2019–2021 | AE33               | TR              |
| Milano (Pascal; IT)                          | MLN_P (*) | 45.47°N | 9.23°E      | 120  | 2018–2019 | AE33               | UB              |
| Milano (Senato; IT)                          | MLN_S (*) | 45.47°N | 9.23°E      | 120  | 2019–2021 | AE33               | TR              |
| Montsec (ES)                                 | MSA (***) | 42.05°N | 0.72°E      | 1570 | 2014–2019 | AE33               | M               |
| Montseny (ES)                                | MSY (***) | 41.78°N | 2.36°E      | 720  | 2015–2020 | AE33               | RB              |
| Athens-NOA (GR)                              | NOA (*)   | 37.97°N | 23.72°E     | 105  | 2017–2020 | AE33               | UB              |
| Observatoire Pérenne de l'Environnement (FR) | OPE (***) | 48.56°N | 5.50°E      | 392  | 2012–2021 | AE31               | RB              |
| Paris 13ème (FR)                             | PA13 (*)  | 48.82°N | 2.35°E      | 57   | 2016–2019 | AE33               | UB              |
| Pallas (FI)                                  | PAL (***) | 67.97°N | 24.11°E     | 565  | 2016–2021 | AE31               | RB              |
| Paris (Boulevard Haussmann; FR)              | PAR_B (*) | 48.87°N | 2.32°E      | 42   | 2016–2019 | AE33               | TR              |
| Payerne (CH)                                 | PAY (***) | 46.81°N | 6.94°E      | 489  | 2016–2021 | AE33               | RB              |
| Puy de Dome (FR)                             | PUY (**)  | 45.77°N | 2.97°E      | 1465 | 2015–2016 | AE33               | M               |
| Rigi (CH)                                    | RIG (***) | 47.06°N | 8.46°E      | 1031 | 2014–2021 | AE33               | M               |
| Rome (IT)                                    | ROM (*)   | 41.93°N | 12.50°E     | 60   | 2020–2022 | AE33               | UB              |
| SIRTA (FR)                                   | SIR (*)   | 48.70°N | 2.15°E      | 162  | 2012–2021 | AE33               | SUB             |
| Stockholm (Hornsgatan) (SE)                  | STH_H (*) | 59.31°N | 18.04°E     | 20   | 2014–2023 | AE33               | TR              |
| Stockholm (Torkel; SE)                       | STH_T (*) | 59.31°N | 18.05°E     | 45   | 2014–2023 | AE33               | UB              |
| Tartu (EE)                                   | TAR (**)  | 58.37°N | 26.73°E     | 70   | 2016–2017 | AE33               | UB              |
| Granada (ES)                                 | UGR (*)   | 37.18°N | 3.58°W      | 680  | 2014–2023 | AE33               | UB              |
| Elche (ES)                                   | UMH (*)   | 38.27°N | 0.68°W      | 86   | 2021–2023 | AE33               | UB              |
| Zurich (CH)                                  | ZUR (**)  | 47.36°N | 8.53°E      | 409  | 2012–2021 | AE33               | UB              |

Table 1 and Fig. S1) showcases periods spanning from over a year for short measurement campaigns (e.g. HEL\_H, HEL\_P, HEL\_R) to around 10–15 years at stations part of aerosol monitoring networks (e.g. JFJ, IPR, ZUR, MSY). To compare the results from all sites we used hourly averaged data over a common period from 2017 to 2019. For the sites with low data coverage during 2017–2019 (BAQS, BER, CASP, DUB, LJB, MLN\_M, MLN\_S), we extended the period by one year. For sites without data within the considered period (ROM, PUY, UMH) the whole provided dataset was used (cf. Table 1).

## 2.2. Optical measurements

Aethalometer models AE31 and the AE33 (Drinovec et al., 2015) were used to measure aerosol particles light attenuation ( $b_{ATN}(\lambda)$ ) at seven wavelengths: 370, 470, 520, 590, 660, 880 and 950 nm (cf. Table 1). In the Aethalometer, in the absence of strong dust events, the change in the attenuation with time is assumed to be caused by the increase in CA mass deposited on the filter. However, it was demonstrated that the correlation between the attenuation and the aerosol load on the filter is not linear at high attenuations (Gundel et al., 1984). Over time, the particles accumulated on the filter “shadow” each other, reducing the optical path length, saturating the signal and therefore the

measurement of light transmission. This phenomenon is known as the loading effect and causes an underestimation of the true attenuation which requires a loading effect off-line correction in the case of the AE31 (e.g. Weingartner et al., 2003; Virkkula et al., 2007; Collaud Coen et al., 2010; Virkkula, 2021). The AE33 model corrects online for this artifact thanks to the dual-spot technology (Drinovec et al., 2015).

## 2.3. Data treatment

The Aethalometer data used in this study required different processing methods depending on the Aethalometer type and the data source. Quality-assured/quality-controlled (QA/QC) and loading effect corrected Level 2 AE31 absorption data at seven wavelengths were directly downloaded from the EBAS database (PAL, OPE, IPR, HAC). For KOS, AE31 corrected absorption data were provided by data providers. The schemes that were mostly used for loading effect correction of AE31 data were those described in Weingartner et al. (2003) and Virkkula et al. (2007). As shown by Wu et al. (2024), differences in the  $b_{Abs}(\lambda)$  annual mean between AE33 and AE31 corrected with the algorithms from Weingartner et al. (2003) and Virkkula et al. (2007) are small across the seven wavelengths ( $0.95 < R2 < 1$  and close-to-unity slopes between 0.87 and 1.04). The AE33 data collected in the framework of

the RI-URBANS project consisted mostly of the seven hourly-averaged eBC concentrations that were converted into harmonized absorption coefficients ( $b_{\text{abs}}(\lambda)$ ) (in  $\text{Mm}^{-1}$ ) following the procedure presented in Müller and Fiebig 2018 and Savadkoobi et al. (2023) and briefly described in Supplementary material. In the case of the AE33 data collected within the FOCI project, these consisted of raw eBC concentrations with a 1 min resolution that underwent the same data processing procedure as for RI-URBANS AE33 data and then averaged over one hour.

Finally, the AAE that describes the spectral variation of the absorption coefficients, was calculated through a linear fit of the absorption measurements over the seven wavelengths (from 370 nm to 950 nm) in the logarithmic space.

### 2.3.1. BC and BrC contribution to absorption

The segregation of the BC and BrC contributions to the absorption coefficient using Aethalometer measurements followed the procedure detailed in previous studies (e.g. Kirchstetter et al., 2004; Massabò et al., 2015; Liakakou et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020; Yus-Díez, et al., 2022) and relies on the main assumption that BrC PM do not absorb in the near-IR spectral range (880 and 950 nm). The contribution of BC particles to absorption between 370 nm and 660 nm can then be determined following Eq. (1):

$$b_{\text{Abs,BC}}(\lambda) = b_{\text{Abs}}(880\text{nm}) \left( \frac{880}{\lambda} \right)^{\text{AAE}_{\text{BC}}} \quad (1)$$

where  $\text{AAE}_{\text{BC}}$  is the AAE of the BC particles and represents the main source of uncertainty in what we call the AAE method. Indeed, many studies assumed an AAE of 1.0 for BC particles (e.g. Tian et al., 2023; Liakakou et al., 2020; Cuesta-Mosquera et al., 2024; Velazquez-Garcia et al., 2024). However,  $\text{AAE}_{\text{BC}}$  can be significantly different from 1 in the atmosphere (e.g. Bond et al., 2013; Lu et al., 2015; Costabile et al., 2017) as it depends on morphology, size distribution, sources and mixing state of BC particles. Here we estimated the  $\text{AAE}_{\text{BC}}$  at each site as the 1st percentile of the calculated AAE. Since, the contribution of BrC to absorption increases the AAE, the 1st percentile represents conditions where the absorption can be assumed to be dominated by BC particles. In order to reduce the noise, the 1st percentile at each site was determined from AAE values obtained from fits with  $R^2 > 0.99$  (Tobler et al., 2021). Fig. S2 shows the AAE frequency distributions and  $\text{AAE}_{\text{BC}}$  estimations using the  $R^2$ -filtered AAE (calculated from 370 to 950) at the 44 sites. It should be noted that this is the first time that the 1st percentile of the AAE frequency distribution has been systematically used across multiple measurement stations to estimate the  $\text{AAE}_{\text{BC}}$ . The  $\text{AAE}_{\text{BC}}$  calculations were performed using data collected from 2018 onwards, when the recommended M8060 filter tape was introduced.

At sites where the AE33 was deployed, the 1st percentile provided  $\text{AAE}_{\text{BC}}$  values from 0.88 to 1.12, with 85 % of the values lying in the 0.9–1.1 range which has been associated to BC from fossil fuel combustion (e.g. Bond et al., 2006; Zotter et al., 2017; Blanco-Allegre et al., 2020). Exceptions were DUB, CASP, JFJ, HYY and STH\_H where the 1st percentile provided  $\text{AAE}_{\text{BC}}$  values that were considered too low to properly represent the AAE of BC particles. The reasons for these low 1st percentiles are unknown. At the JFJ and HYY remote sites low percentiles could be related to the low signal-to-noise ratio of Aethalometer signals, especially in the near-IR, thus increasing the noise of the calculated AAE and consequently affecting the calculation of the 1st percentile. However, calculating the 1st percentile using only  $b_{\text{abs}}(\lambda)$  higher than  $0.1 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$  did not contribute to increasing the 1st percentile. CASP and DUB are sites where strong contribution to PM from marine aerosols has been observed (Chen et al., 2022), that could have considerably increased the SSA of the particles collected on the filter tape. An excessive SSA could affect  $b_{\text{abs}}(\lambda)$  and thus also the calculated AAE (Yus-Díez et al., 2022). STH\_H is a traffic site heavily influenced by traffic emissions (e.g. Savadkoobi et al., 2023), where the presence of

fresh and small BC particles could be expected whereas the low calculated  $\text{AAE}_{\text{BC}}$  (0.83) suggested the predominance of bigger BC particles (e.g. Wang et al., 2016). Moreover, at the UB site in the same city (STH\_T) a 1st percentile of 1.02 was obtained. For all these sites with extremely low 1st percentile values an  $\text{AAE}_{\text{BC}}$  of 1 was used in Eq. (1). In addition, the AE31 instruments provided systematically low percentiles compared to AE33 ranging from 0.55 to 0.71 with the exception of IPR where 0.85 was calculated. In these cases, a value of 1 was also used in Eq. (1).

The method applied here for the determination of the contribution to total absorption from BrC PM is prone to high uncertainties especially at sites where the measured absorption was low. Kalbermatter et al. (2022) reported measurement uncertainties of the AE33 including the cross-sensitivity to scattering (Yus-Díez et al., 2021) to be around 20 % which was consistent with the 25 % value from the WMO/GAW (2016). Moreover, we estimated, similarly to Zhang et al. (2020), an uncertainty of around 10 % in the estimation of  $b_{\text{Abs,BC}}(\lambda)$  for a  $\pm 10$  % variation from the used  $\text{AAE}_{\text{BC}}$  values. Based on these uncertainties estimation, the overall uncertainty of the calculated absolute values of  $b_{\text{Abs,BC}}(\lambda)$  reported here was considered to be not lower than around 20–25 %.

Once the  $\text{AAE}_{\text{BC}}$  was determined, the contribution of BrC to the total absorption between 370 nm and 660 nm was estimated by subtracting the absorption due to BC to the measured total absorption (Eq. (2)).

$$b_{\text{Abs,BrC}}(\lambda) = b_{\text{Abs}}(\lambda) - b_{\text{Abs,BC}}(\lambda) \quad (2)$$

Then, the AAE of BrC ( $\text{AAE}_{\text{BrC}}$ ) was similarly calculated as the linear fit in the log–log space ( $b_{\text{Abs,BrC}}$  vs. wavelength), but between 370 and 660 nm, since BrC presents no absorption in the near-IR part of the spectrum. To interpret its variability we also calculated  $\text{AAE}_{\text{BrC}}$  between ranges 370–520, 370–590, and 590–660 nm.

### 2.3.2. Effect of dust absorption

Dust particles can also absorb radiation and contribute to the Aethalometer signal in the UV/near-IR spectrum (880 and 950 nm in this case). They are brownish/orange and feature a similar wavelength dependence of absorption than BrC. Moreover, due to their high SSA, dust particles can increase the apparent absorption provided by the Aethalometer by increasing the apparent multiple-scattering parameter C (Yus-Díez et al., 2021). These phenomena hamper the application of the AAE method and the determination of  $b_{\text{Abs,BrC}}(370)$  during Saharan dust events (SDE) which regularly affect Southern European sites (Alastuey et al. (2016)). Due to the low absorption efficiency of dust compared to BC and BrC, a non-negligible contribution of dust to absorption is only expected if large amounts of dust are transported from North African dust source areas to the European surface, especially at remote sites where the mass concentration of BC and BrC is on average low. For example, Pandolfi et al. (2014b) and Bukowiecki et al. (2016) reported that long-range transport of dust occurs rather frequently at the MSA and JFJ mountain sites with a non-negligible effect on aerosol properties during extreme events. Conversely, at traffic, UB and even RB sites at Central-Northern Europe the effect of dust on absorption is usually neglected compared to that of BC and BrC PM. In this study, we used the information available at some Mediterranean (BCN, MSY, MSA, UGR, DEM) and remote (JFJ and HAC) sites to detect SDE and filter out the dust days. For the Spanish sites of BCN and MSY, the methodology used to identify the Saharan dust days has been described in detail (e.g. Querol et al., 2019) and was performed using different dust concentration and transport model outputs and meteorological information. This methodology has been officially accepted by the European Commission for reporting on natural contributions to ambient PM levels over Europe and was applied here (EC, 2011). For the Greek stations of DEM and HAC, for JFJ (Switzerland) and for UGR and MSA (Spain) the Ångström exponent of the single scattering albedo (SSAAE) was calculated from aerosol particles scattering and absorption data (EBAS for scattering; <https://www.ebas.nilu.no>; last access 15/07/2024) and used to

filter out dust days. The SSA is the ratio between the scattering and the extinction coefficients and the wavelength dependence of the SSA can be characterized with its exponent which depends on the absorption (AAE) and scattering (SAE) Ångström exponents:  $SSAAE = (1-SSA) \cdot (SAE-AAE)$  (Moosmüller and Chakrabarty, 2011). SSAAE provides information about the type of sampled aerosols and it has been proposed as a good indicator for the presence of Saharan dust in the atmosphere (Collaud Coen et al., 2004; Ealo et al., 2016), in fact, the presence of Saharan dust particles causes a reduction of the SAE and an increase of AAE, resulting in negative SSAAE values during these events. Collaud Coen et al. (2004) reported for the JFJ measurement site that the SSAAE was able to detect 100 % of Saharan dust outbreaks compared with 80 % and 40 % of events detected using SAE and AAE respectively.

### 2.3.3. Trend analysis

We performed a trend analysis at sites where a minimum of 8 years of data was available. This was the case for 12 monitoring sites. We analyzed the trends of total absorption, BC and BrC absorption at 370 nm, the relative contribution of BrC to total absorption, the AAE of CA and the AAE of BrC. The monitoring sites included in this analysis are: HEL (2016–2023), STH-H (2015–2023), UGR (2014–2023), ZUR (2012–2023), MAD (2013–2023), STH-T (2015–2023), BUC (2014–2022), SIR (2012–2021), IPR (2007–2021), MSY (2015–2023), OPE (2012–2021), and RIG (2014–2021).

Trend analyses were performed using the methodology proposed by Collaud Coen et al. (2020). This approach involves applying the Mann–Kendall non-parametric method with Sen’s slope estimator (Gilbert, 1987; Kendall, M., 1975; Mann, H. B., 1945; Sirois, 1998). To consider the effect of autocorrelation and time granularity, the algorithm incorporates three prewhitening methods that guaranteed the robustness of the identified trends (Collaud Coen et al., 2020). To compute the trends, the 3PW R package (Bigi and Vogt, 2021) was used. Details on the implementation the 3PW method can be found in the study by Collaud Coen et al. (2020) and in the mannkendall/R package (<https://mannkendall.github.io/>, last access 6 August 2024).

To evaluate both the overall trends and those specific to the different site classifications (traffic, urban, suburban, regional, and mountain) we

performed several meta-analyses to account for the heterogeneity observed among the sites (Balduzzi et al., 2019). Individual slopes, representing the percentage change per year along with their 95 % confidence intervals, were analyzed using random-effects meta-analysis (Zeng and Lin, 2015). Mean effects were calculated both separately for each site type as well as globally, to offer a comprehensive overview. The meta-analyses were performed using the “meta” R package version 7.0–0 (Schwarzer et al., 2015).

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Absorption at 370 nm: Regional and site type differences

Figs. 1 and 2 provide an overview of  $b_{Abs}(370)$  at the 44 stations across Europe. Here we focus on  $b_{Abs}(370)$  where the contribution of CA particles to absorption was the highest. Overall, northern countries showed on average lower absorption compared to central/southern countries, as also recently reported for BC concentrations in Europe by Savadkoobi et al. (2023). Moreover, on average, higher absorption was observed in Central and Eastern Europe compared to Western Europe. Fig. 1 highlights that the spatial coverage of measurement stations was higher in the Western and Central countries compared to Eastern countries, a limitation that may affect the comprehensive assessment of the spatiotemporal variability of absorption across Europe. Fig. 2 shows that the most important parameter affecting the measured  $b_{Abs}(370)$  was the station setting, causing a clear gradient with values increasing from mountain to urban and traffic sites. The observed high site-by-site variability within each station category can be mostly associated with site location, CA sources strength and meteorological patterns, as well as secondary aerosols production.

At mountain sites, the station altitude influenced the measured absorption values. For example, median  $b_{Abs}(370)$  values ranged from  $8.89 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$  at PUY measurement site (1465 m a.s.l.) down to  $0.24 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$  at JFJ, the high altitude (3578 m a.s.l.) site. However, the distance from important CA sources and the topographic features of the mountainous regions likely played the most important role in determining the level of measured  $b_{Abs}(370)$ . For example, Collaud Coen et al. (2018) have

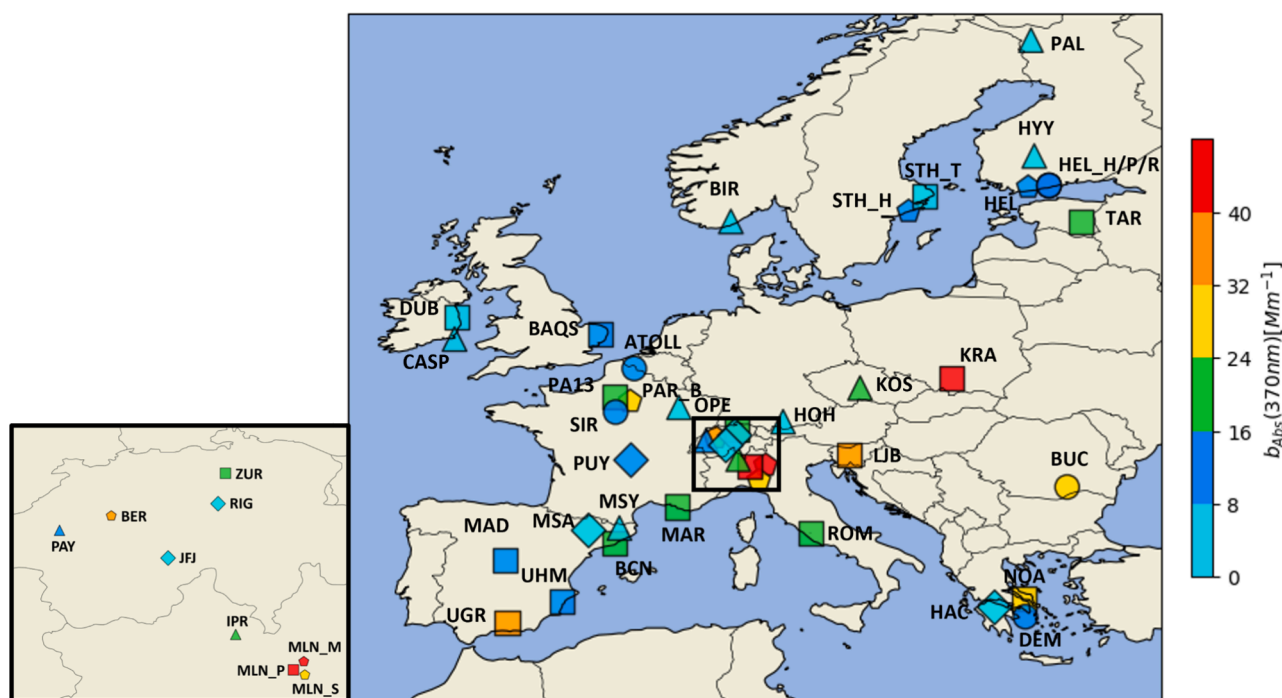


Fig. 1. Map with the mean total absorption at 370 nm at all stations organized by their settings: traffic (pentagon), urban (square), suburban (circle), regional (triangle) and mountain (rhombus). Period: 2017–2019.

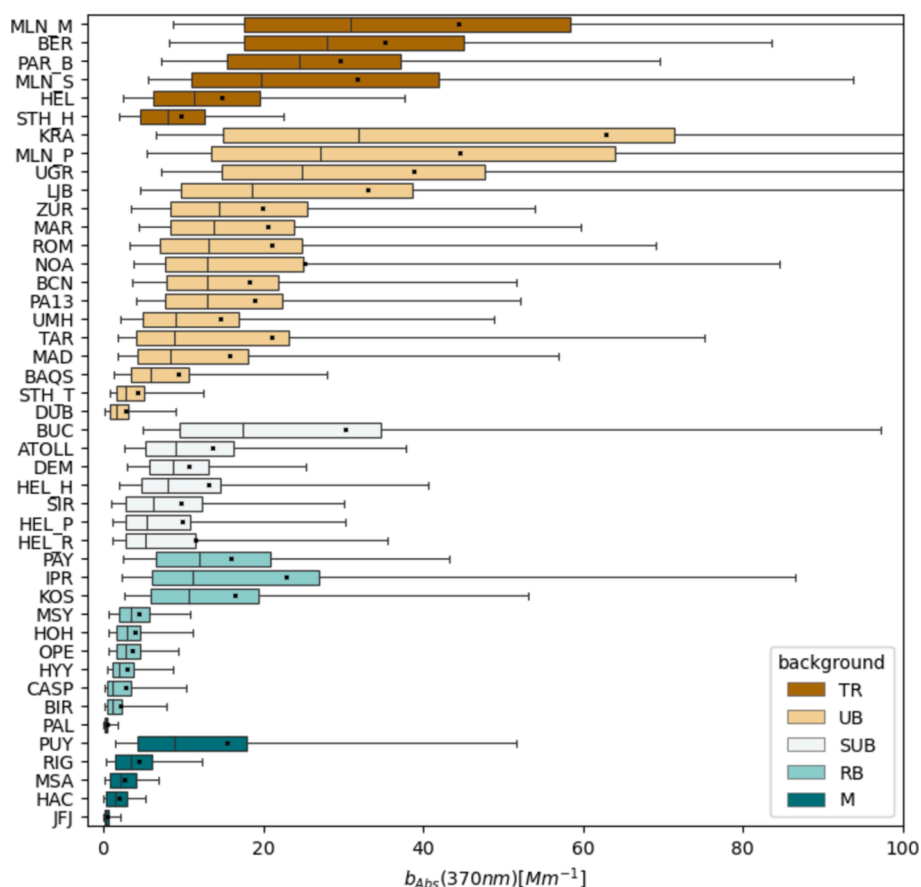


Fig. 2. Box plots (5th, 25th, 50th, 75th, 95th percentiles) of total absorption at 370 nm sorted by station settings: dark green (mountain sites), light green (regional background sites), white (suburban sites), orange (urban background sites), brown (traffic sites). Black lines and dots in each box-whiskers-plot represent the median and mean values, respectively. Period: 2017–2019.

shown that the MSA site, located approximately at the same altitude as PUY (cf. Table 1), is less affected than PUY by the pollution within the atmospheric boundary layer (ABL) and, consequently, the  $b_{Abs}(370)$  at MSA was much lower compared to PUY (cf. Fig. 2). Correspondingly, the very low  $b_{Abs}(370)$  measured at JFJ and HAC agreed with the very low influence of ABL at these two sites as shown in Collaud Coen et al. (2018). For regional stations, a high variability of  $b_{Abs}(370)$  related mostly to the location of the measurement sites was observed. At PAL, a remote regional site, the median  $b_{Abs}(370)$  was  $0.25 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$  whereas it lies between  $10.66$  and  $11.99 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$  at IPR, KOS and PAY. IPR is located in the Po Valley, one of the most polluted regions in Europe, characterized by extremely low winds and frequent atmospheric stagnation episodes in winter favoring the accumulation of pollutants (e.g. Gilar-doni et al., 2020; Savadkoohi et al., 2023). Similarly, meteorology in winter also plays an important role in the accumulation of pollutants at the PAY site located on the Swiss plateau with a high average population density. Recently, Chen et al. (2022) have shown that the submicron particulate matter mass concentration ( $\text{PM}_{10}$ ) at the regional KOS site was comparable and even higher compared to European urban sites. Moreover, the accumulation in winter of CA from combustion sources as traffic and biomass burning contributed to explain the relatively high absorption measured at KOS (Chen et al., 2022). At these three RB sites, the measured absorption was higher compared to the SUB sites with the exception of BUC. The  $b_{Abs}(370)$  measured at IPR, KOS and PAY was also higher compared to some UB and TR sites reflecting the importance of regional pollution and meteorology, which influence the transport of pollutants and production of secondary aerosols. With regards to BUC, this site showed significantly higher  $b_{Abs}(370)$  than other suburban stations, primarily due to its higher BC concentrations compared to

similar sites in other regions (Savadkoohi et al., 2023). The site-by-site variability of  $b_{Abs}(370)$  at UB and TR sites was also very high. In general, the observed variations at UB sites ranged from very low  $b_{Abs}(370)$  around  $1.59\text{--}2.85 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$  at DUB and STH\_T to high values of  $24.32\text{--}31.85 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$  at KRA, MLN\_P and UGR. A similar trend was also reported for BC concentrations by Savadkoohi et al. (2023).

KRA is considered to be a pollution hotspot in Europe (e.g. Samek et al., 2019; Tobler et al., 2021; Casotto et al., 2023) where the high consumption of coal and wood for energy production and residential heating together with specific meteorological and topography features contributed to make KRA the site with the highest  $b_{Abs}(370)$  among the 44 sites included in this work. The data for KRA in this study covered the period January 2018 – April 2019, prior to the September 2019 ban on using solid fuels (coal and wood) in boilers, stoves or fireplaces. It should also be noted that the OM concentrations measured in KRA during the same period reported here were also the highest among the European measuring sites included in Chen et al. (2022). UGR also exhibited high  $b_{Abs}(370)$ ,  $24.32 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$ , likely due to its location in a depression at the foot of Sierra Nevada mountains with frequent thermal inversion during the cold months, causing biomass burning and traffic emissions to accumulate (Lyamani et al., 2011; Titos et al., 2017). The UB MLN\_P site also recorded high  $b_{Abs}(370)$  values ( $27.12 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$ ), similar to the two traffic sites in Milan (MLN\_M:  $31.01 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$  and MLN\_S:  $19.67 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$ ). Milan, located in Po Valley, is a high-density polluted area, similar to Paris (PAR\_B:  $24.58 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$ ), one of the largest cities in Europe. These urban sites feature higher absorption values compared to stations like in HEL ( $11.42 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$ ) and STH\_H ( $7.99 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$ ), which are located in less populated areas with lower emissions and with meteorological patterns that favor the dispersion of local pollutants (Savadkoohi et al., 2023).



### 3.2. Contribution of BC and BrC to absorption at 370 nm

Fig. 3 illustrates the variability among the measurement sites for  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  and  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  (Fig. 3a and 3b, respectively), as well as the relative contribution of BrC to total absorption (Fig. 3c). As aforementioned, we focus on the absorption at 370 nm where the relative contribution of BrC is the highest compared to other wavelengths. Fig. S3 presents the relative contribution of BC and BrC to total absorption from 370 to 660 nm.

Overall, both  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  and  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  showed a similar gradient as observed for  $b_{Abs}(370)$ , with values increasing from mountain to urban/traffic sites and with high variability at each measurement site. A strong site-by-site variability within each station setting was also observed. This similarity in the  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  and  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  trends is related to the fact that the main BC sources also emit primary organic aerosols (POA), which can have a large range of absorption efficiencies depending on both the fuel used and the combustion conditions. In addition to biomass burning, fossil fuel, biofuel and coal combustion have also been identified as significant sources of both primary and secondary BrC PM (Yang et al., 2024; Corbin et al., 2018; Ni et al., 2021, among others). Recent field and laboratory studies have highlighted the light-absorbing properties of internal combustion engine BrC sources such as vehicular emissions (e.g. Kaskaoutis et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2020; Saleh et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2020; Qin et al., 2018; Kasthuriarachchi et al., 2020; Saleh et al., 2020). For instance, Saleh et al. (2018) performed controlled-combustion experiments using benzene and toluene as fuels and observed that, depending on the combustion conditions, the color of the resulting BrC components ranged from light to dark. Along with some contribution from solid fuel combustion, this could explain the non-negligible  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  observed at traffic sites (cf. Fig. 3b, c).

The relative contribution of  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  to  $b_{Abs}(370)$  (%Abs<sub>BrC</sub>; for the 2017–2019 period; cf. Fig. 3c) was, as expected, on average lower at traffic sites (median values around 11–21 %). However, a clear

difference between UB, SUB, RB and M sites was not observed for % Abs<sub>BrC</sub>, suggesting that, apart from traffic sites, the station setting was not the main parameter determining the relative contribution of BrC to absorption. Overall, the mean %Abs<sub>BrC</sub> did not show a clear spatial gradient with occurrence of low and high values observed in each country (Fig. S4). However, on average, the occurrence of low %Abs<sub>BrC</sub> was observed mostly in Western/Central Europe whereas in Eastern countries the average %Abs<sub>BrC</sub> was higher, likely reflecting a stronger contribution of primary and secondary BrC sources, such as biomass burning and coal combustion (e.g. Chen et al., 2022). These differences were however not statistically significant, likely due to the lower spatial data coverage in the East compared to western/central Europe. These similar contributions (except at sites directly impacted by traffic) can be attributed to two causes: primary BrC due to homogeneous distribution of sources; or dominant contribution of secondary BrC, which is more homogeneously distributed in the boundary layer (Zhang et al., 2015, Su et al., 2018; Li et al., 2021). It should be noted however that the spatial coverage of available data in each country could have affected the presented analysis. The %Abs<sub>BrC</sub> values reported here were consistent with those reported in the literature for some of the sites included in this work where an AAE<sub>BC</sub> of 1 was mostly used. On the other hand, Zhang et al. (2020) have reported an uncertainty of approximately 11 % in the estimation of the  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  contribution to  $b_{Abs}(370)$  when using different AAE values ranging from 0.9 and 1.1. For example, for NOA Kaskaoutis et al. (2021) reported a mean  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  contribution to  $b_{Abs}(370)$  of 44 % during winter 2016–2017 very close to the mean value calculated in this work of 40 % for the same period. For the same NOA site, Liakakou et al. (2020) presented a mean contribution of  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  of around 24 % for a longer period (2015–2019) that closely matched our estimation of 21 % (2017–2019). For the ATOLL, SIRTa and MAR French sites,  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  contributions of 22, 42 and 18 %, respectively, were reported by Velazquez-Garcia et al. (2023) and Zhang et al. (2020), close to the estimations reported here of 20, 40 and 18 %, respectively, for the same sites and periods. The contribution of

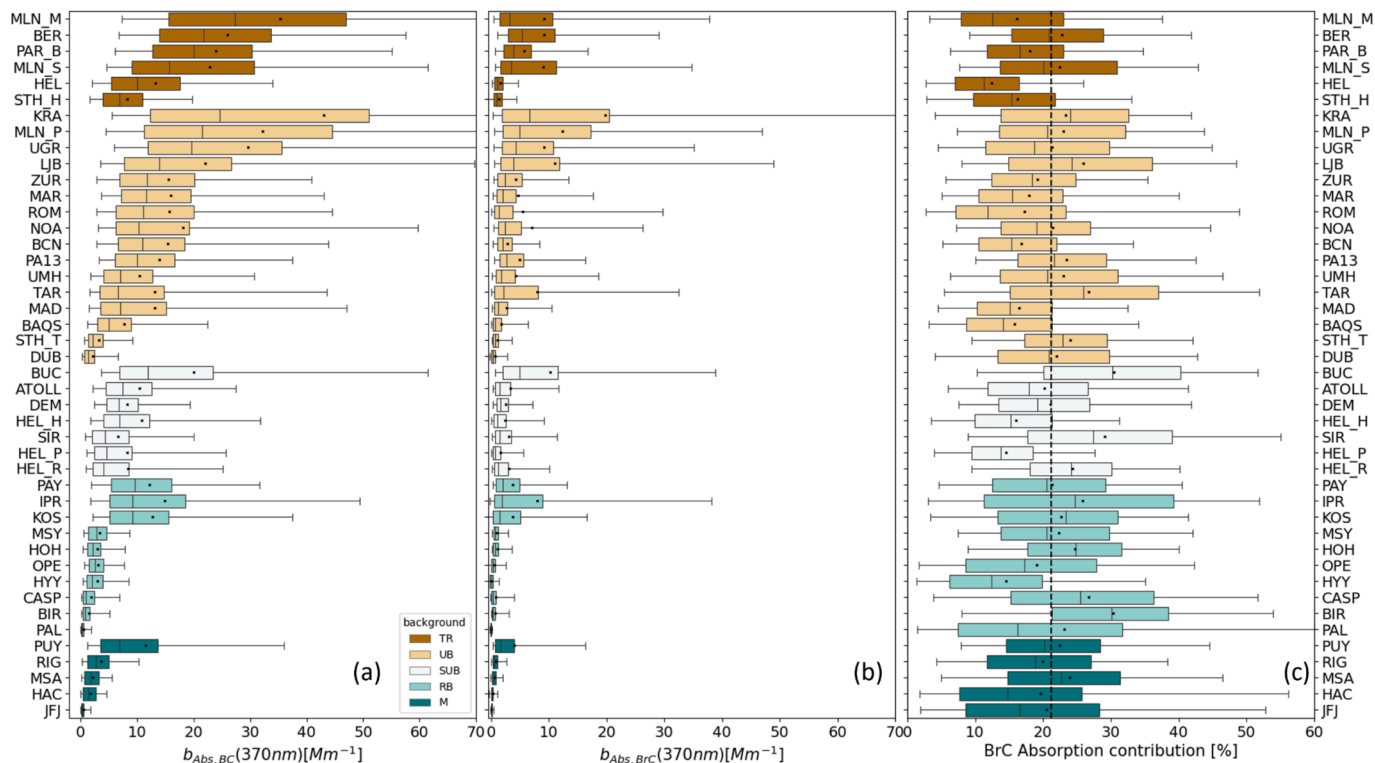


Fig. 3. The same as in Fig. 2 for  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  (a),  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  (b) and the relative BrC contribution to  $b_{Abs}(370)$  (c). Vertical dashed line represents the mean calculated for all sites. Period: 2017–2019.

$b_{Abs.BrC}(370)$  to  $b_{Abs}(370)$  of 31 % reported here for UMH Spanish site in winter was also very close to the estimation of 34 % reported by Lopez-Caravaca et al. (2024). The similitude in the values reported here and in the literature showcases the validity of the method, the representativeness of the period used in this study, and the feasibility of comparing the presented results among the sites used here.

### 3.3. AAE and $AAE_{BrC}$ variability

Fig. 4 shows the AAE values calculated from the absorption measurements between 370 and 950 nm and the  $AAE_{BrC}$  calculated from the estimated BrC absorption between 370 and 660 nm. At all sites the  $AAE_{BrC}$  was considerably higher than AAE as a consequence of the stronger wavelength dependence of absorption by BrC than by BC, which together add up to total absorption by CA.

As shown in Fig. 4, the lowest AAE values were observed at the traffic sites (TR) for the whole subgroup and, even if highly heterogeneous, the AAE variability was more pronounced compared to the site-to-site variability observed for %Abs<sub>BrC</sub> (cf. Fig. 3c) showing however similar behavior, with high/low AAE associated with high/low %Abs<sub>BrC</sub>. Lower median AAE values around 1.1 were observed at MLN\_M, PAR\_B and STH\_H traffic sites, at HYY and PAL regional sites, and at the high altitude JFJ mountain site. Consequently, apart from traffic sites, the lowest median AAE values were also observed at the more remote RB and M sites. This could be due to the lack of proximity from primary BrC sources as well as the effect of photobleaching and whitening of BrC during transport toward these remote sites (Fleming et al., 2020; Li et al., 2023; Fang et al., 2023). At the other RB sites and low altitude mountain sites the median AAE was on average higher reflecting a higher influence

of BrC sources. High median AAE values (>1.3) were observed at some urban sites (KRA, LBJ and TAR), SUB sites (BUC, SIRT and HEL\_R), RB sites (PAY, KOS, HOH and IPR) and at the RIG low mountain site. Independently of the station location, Western Europe showed AAE values mostly below 1.3 whereas in the east it increased to values higher than 1.3 (Fig. S4) likely due to the higher relative contribution to BrC due to a more extensive use of coal and biomass burning (e.g. Chen et al., 2022). The same regional pattern was not observed for the  $AAE_{BrC}$ . In fact, this parameter seemed to be rather independent on both regional location (Fig. S4) and station background (cf. Fig. 4b). Notable exceptions were the RB sites, with the exception of PAY, and the cleanest sites (JFJ, HAC and PAL) where the median  $AAE_{BrC}$  values were on average lower compared to the median calculated using all the sites (cf. Fig. 4b).

Based on the information available here, it is not straightforward to understand the observed variability of  $AAE_{BrC}$  since this parameter depends on the physico-chemical properties of BrC PM and on the transformation processes, including browning and photobleaching, of BrC during transport.

Previous studies based mostly on smog chamber experiments, (e.g. Lambe et al., 2013; Saleh et al. 2013, 2014; Kumar et al., 2018) have shown that SOA particles, especially those produced in aged biomass burning emissions, can be more absorptive in the UV and short visible range (370–590 nm) than in the long visible (660 nm) and exhibit stronger wavelength dependence than POA. Thus, these studies have shown that the  $AAE_{BrC}$  of the less absorbing SOA is higher compared to the  $AAE_{BrC}$  of the more absorbing POA. Consequently, a relative increase of SOA from biomass burning in OM particles could cause an increase of the observed  $AAE_{BrC}$ . In order to interpret the variability of  $AAE_{BrC}$  reported in Fig. 4b we compared the  $AAE_{BrC}$  calculated from 370 to 660

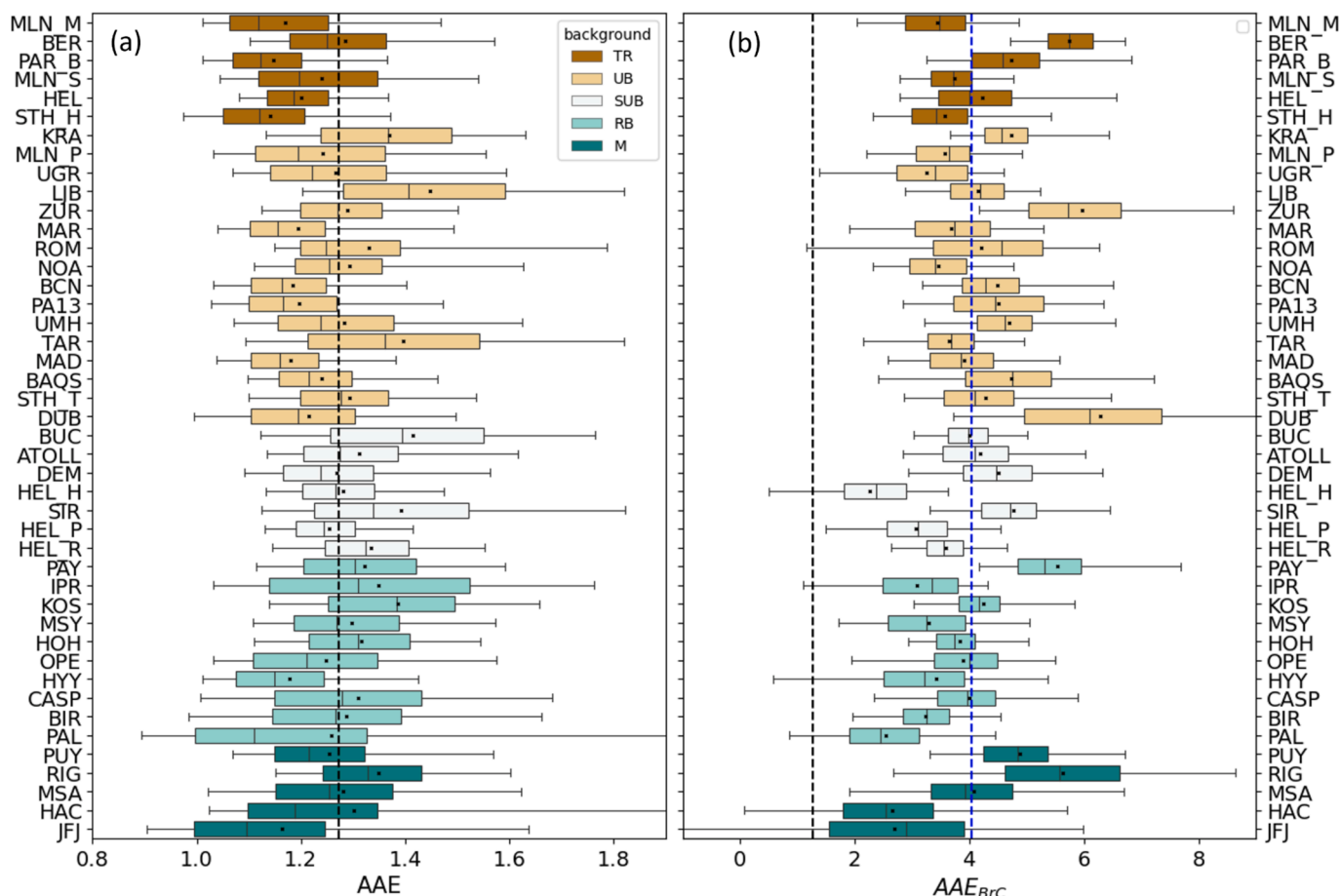


Fig. 4. The same as in Figs. 2 and 3 for CA AAE between 370 and 950 nm (a) and of  $AAE_{BrC}$  from 370 to 660 nm (b). Black dashed vertical lines represent the mean AAE and the blue dashed vertical line in (b) shows the mean  $AAE_{BrC}$ .

nm with the  $AAE_{BrC}$  calculated from 370 to 590 nm. The results of this analysis are reported in Fig. S5. Fig. S5a shows that for the majority of the sites the  $AAE_{BrC}$  (370–660 nm) was higher compared to the  $AAE_{BrC}$  (370–590 nm). The higher  $AAE_{BrC}$  (370–660 nm) was due to a strong relative decrease of the absorption by BrC PM in the long visible (660 nm) compared to the UV/short-visible (370–590 nm), as illustrated in Fig. S5b for the example of BER. The observed general decrease of BrC absorption at 660 nm was also demonstrated by the fact that the difference considering all the sites between  $AAE_{BrC}$  (370–590 nm) and  $AAE_{BrC}$  (370–520 nm) was small and around  $0.13 \pm 0.22$ . This relative decrease of  $Abs_{BrC}$  from the long visible onwards compared to the UV/

short-visible range has been observed in other studies for samples containing a substantial contribution of organic species and point out that the  $AAE_{BrC}$  depends on the range of wavelengths selected for its calculation (Harrison et al., 2013; Utry et al., 2014; Cuesta-Mosquera 2021, 2024).

### 3.4. Seasonal variability

Fig. 5 shows the normalized annual cycles calculated with feature scaling for the 2017–2019 period of  $b_{Abs}(370)$ ,  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$ ,  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$ ,  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  relative contribution to  $b_{Abs}(370)$ , AAE and  $AAE_{BrC}$ .

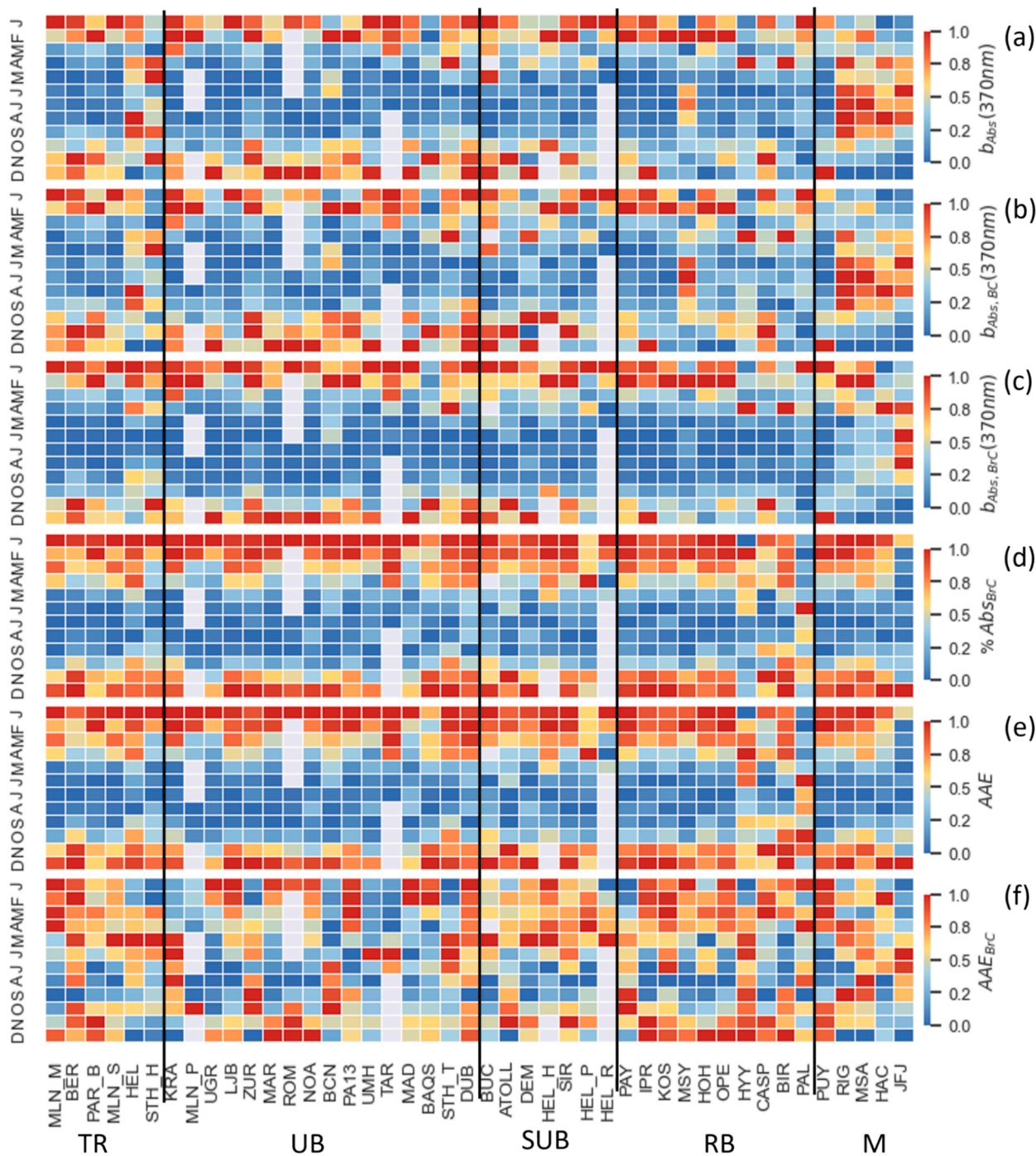


Fig. 5. Normalized annual cycles of total absorption at 370 nm (a;  $b_{Abs}(370)$ ), BC contribution to total absorption (b;  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$ ), BrC contribution to total absorption (c;  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$ ), relative contribution of BrC to total absorption (d;  $\% Abs_{BrC}$ ), AAE of CA from 370 to 950 nm (e), and AAE of BrC from 370 to 660 (f). Color code 0–1 indicates progressive increase from lowest value (blue) to highest value (red).

The absolute values for each variable are reported in Table S1. Fig. 5 shows that apart from  $AAE_{BrC}$ , both the relative and absolute values of the presented variables increased in winter at all low-middle altitude sites and decreased on average in summer. The observed increases in winter could be attributed to both the seasonal variability of CA emission sources and meteorological conditions. In fact, winter periods are characterized by higher emissions due to heating and by lower atmospheric boundary layer heights, lower wind speeds and enhanced atmospheric stability which contribute to the greater accumulation of pollutants. Conversely, in summer the atmospheric conditions favor the dispersion of pollutants due to higher atmospheric boundary layer heights and higher wind speed. Notable exceptions were the mountain sites where the higher dispersion in summer associated with thermally driven winds allowed the transport of pollutants toward these elevated sites thus increasing both the  $b_{Abs}(370)$  and the  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  during the warm season (e.g. Putaud et al., 2004, 2010; Pandolfi et al., 2014a; 2018; Viana et al., 2016; Collaud Coen et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2020; Yttri et al., 2021). At these elevated sites the relative increase in summer of  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  was less pronounced compared to  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  with the exception of the very elevated JFJ mountain site. A similar summer trend for  $b_{Abs}(370)$  and  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  was also observed at the MSY regional site (720 m a.s.l.) located in an elevated regional area (e.g. Pandolfi et al., 2014b).

The lack of a clear relative increase of  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  in summer at the elevated sites can be mostly associated with the reduction of BrC emissions from sources such as biomass burning during the warm season (e.g. Cordell et al., 2016; Putaud et al., 2018; Casquero-Vera et al., 2021), lower emissions of precursors available for coating of BC (e.g. Yuan et al., 2020) and photobleaching associated with enhanced solar irradiation in summer (e.g. Dong et al., 2024; Paraskevopoulou et al., 2022). For  $b_{Abs}(370)$  and  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  relative increases in summer were also observed at northern traffic sites (HEL and STH\_H). Similar increases in summer at these Nordic sites were reported for eBC concentrations by Savadkoochi et al. (2023) and attributed to the fact that these two sites are located in street canyons, thus making the local traffic the dominant source of CA throughout the year. Similarly to Fig. 5b and 5c, Barreira et al. (2021) reported for HEL an increase of the traffic contribution to eBC concentrations and a decrease of biomass burning contribution to eBC in summer partly explained by poorer dispersion and lower ventilation factor especially during August. Seasonal variations at the STH\_H site can also be affected by the abatement of traffic since traffic exhaust has been found the most important source in the city of Stockholm (Segersson et al., 2017).

The relative contribution of  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  to  $b_{Abs}(370)$  (%Abs<sub>BrC</sub> in Fig. 5d) increased at all sites in winter indicating that the relative increase in winter of BrC absorption was higher compared to the absorption due to BC particles. This was mostly related to the increase of BrC emissions and emissions of their precursors during the cold months from specific sources such as residential wood burning (e.g. Zhang et al., 2020; Zalzal et al., 2024). As shown in Fig. 5d and Table S1, in winter the relative contribution of  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  to  $b_{Abs}(370)$  frequently reached values up to more than 40 % demonstrating the high potential of BrC PM to contribute to the measured  $b_{Abs}(370)$ . Moreover, this strong relative increase during the cold period was independent of the station background. The exception was PAL, a remote RB site, where the %Abs<sub>BrC</sub> was relatively higher in summer. At PAL the very low seasonal variability on the  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  ( $0.1\text{--}0.2\text{ Mm}^{-1}$ ; cf. Table S1) suggested that the %Abs<sub>BrC</sub> depended exclusively on the seasonal variability of the  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  ( $0.2\text{--}1.1\text{ Mm}^{-1}$ ; cf. Table S1) with higher (lower)  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  contribution to  $b_{Abs}(370)$  causing a decrease (increase) of the relative contribution of  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  to  $b_{Abs}(370)$ . Consistently with the relative contribution of  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  to  $b_{Abs}(370)$ , the AAE also showed a clear increase in winter at all sites with the exception of PAL where higher AAE values were observed in summer. Finally, no clear seasonal pattern was observed for the  $AAE_{BrC}$ , indicating that the

wavelength dependence of BrC absorption was not related to the seasons.

### 3.5. Diel variability

Fig. 6 shows the normalized, with feature scaling, diel cycles calculated for the period 2017–2019 for the different variables considered in this work. The mean absolute hourly values for each variable are reported in Table S2. Overall, the  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  (cf. Fig. 6b) followed the typical bimodal diel pattern influenced by anthropogenic activities with maxima during the morning (traffic rush hour between 06:00–09:00) and evening hours (17:00–21:00, traffic rush hour and cooking and heating activities), and a decrease during midday mostly due to atmospheric dilution and, to a lesser extent, the reduction of BC emissions. Exceptions were the mountain sites where both  $b_{Abs}(370)$  and  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  increased at noon under higher mixing layers and stronger thermal wind systems favoring the dilution and transport of pollutants from the lower-lying source regions toward these elevated sites during the warmest hours of the day.

Overall,  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  showed different diel cycles compared to  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$ , lacking the morning rush-hour peak, with higher  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  observed at night mostly related to BrC emissions from domestic activities such as heating (e.g. Zhang et al., 2020). Conversely,  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  was lower in the morning due to the decrease of these household activities. The  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  at the traffic sites followed more closely the diel cycles of  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  likely because of the lack of a strong contribution to BrC from household activities and the fact that vehicles can also contribute to BrC PM through emissions and/or coating of BC secondary organic material. Consistently, both the relative contribution of  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  to  $b_{Abs}(370)$  (%Abs<sub>BrC</sub> on Fig. 6d) and the AAE (Fig. 6e) showed similar diel cycles with increases at night.

In contrast to the annual cycles, a rather clear  $AAE_{BrC}$  diel cycle was observed with lower values during the day and higher values at night and early morning. This could indicate the formation of specific brown SOA (particles or coatings on existing primary particles) at night with stronger wavelength dependence in the UV/short visible. For example, previous studies have reported that a possible pathway of BrC formation at night is the nitrate radical ( $NO_3$ )-initiated oxidation of specific compounds in the presence of  $NO_2$  and  $NO_x$ , and have identified wood burning and traffic as the most important sources of BrC SOA particles (e.g. Wang et al., 2019; Frka et al., 2022). A second possibility is condensation of secondary organic material on existing primary particles, especially BC (Kalbermatter et al., 2022). It should be considered that the possible photobleaching of BrC particles during the day could also have affected the reported diel cycles (Fleming et al., 2020; Li et al., 2023).

### 3.6. Trend analysis of CA absorption properties

For trend analysis, we used data from a subset of 12 measuring sites that provided at least 8 consecutive years of data using the same Aethalometer model and the trends were considered as statistically significant (s.s.) only for p-values lower than 0.01. This choice was supported because a p-value < 0.01 has been found to be more robust than the commonly used p-value threshold of 0.05 (Vidgen and Yasseri, 2016).

The meta analysis including all sites presented in Fig. 7 shows that overall  $b_{Abs}(370)$  decreased by 1.57 %/year driven by a decrease of  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  (2.01 %/year), whereas  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$ , %Abs<sub>BrC</sub> and AAE overall increased by 0.43 %/year, 1.91 %/year, 0.64 %/year, respectively. The meta analysis provided s.s. trends for  $b_{Abs}(370)$ ,  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$ , AAE and %Abs<sub>BrC</sub>, indicating homogeneity of the trends for these variables in Europe, whereas overall the trends were not s.s. for  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  and  $AAE_{BrC}$  indicating more heterogeneity of the trend results. Among all the station backgrounds reported in Fig. 7, traffic sites were those



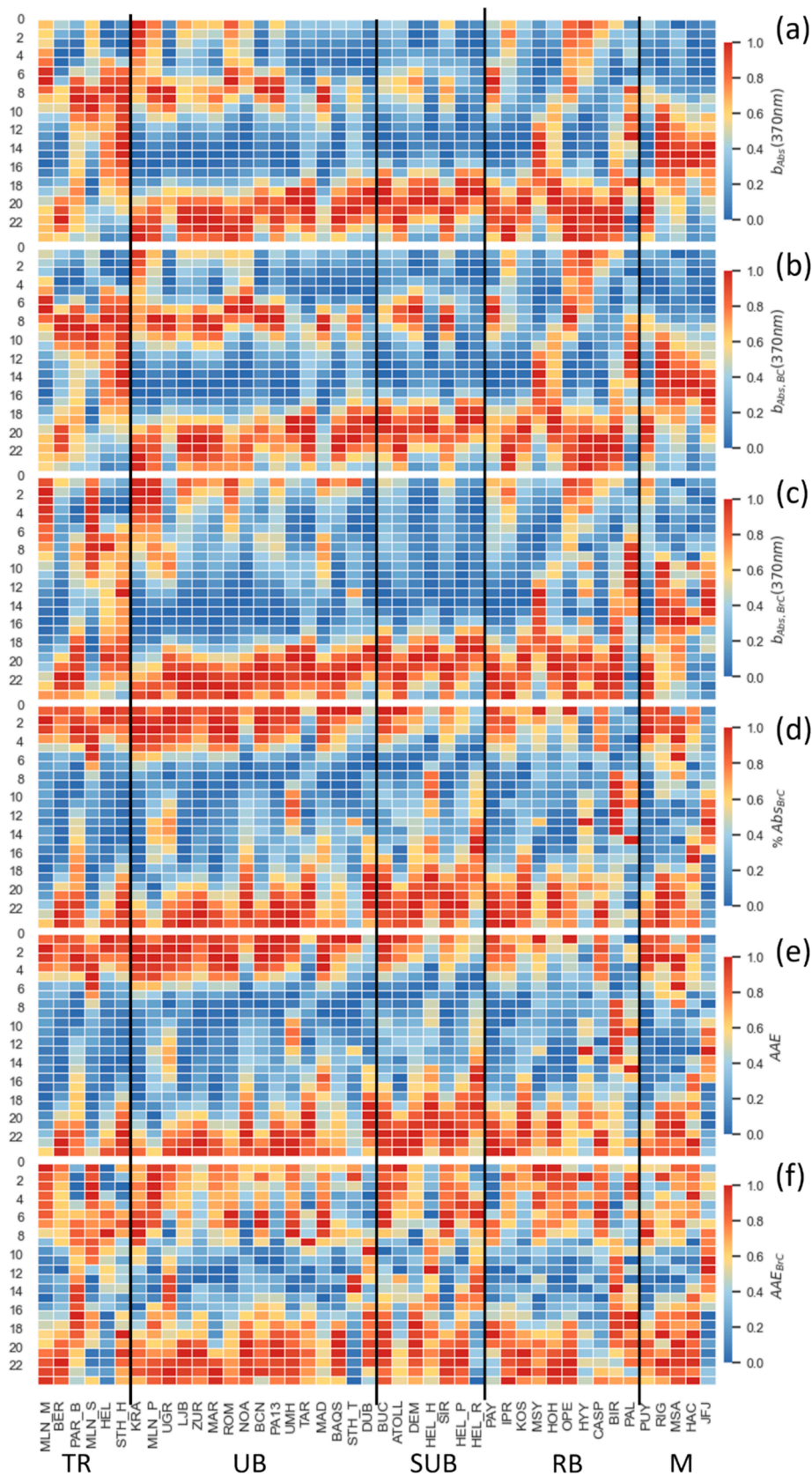
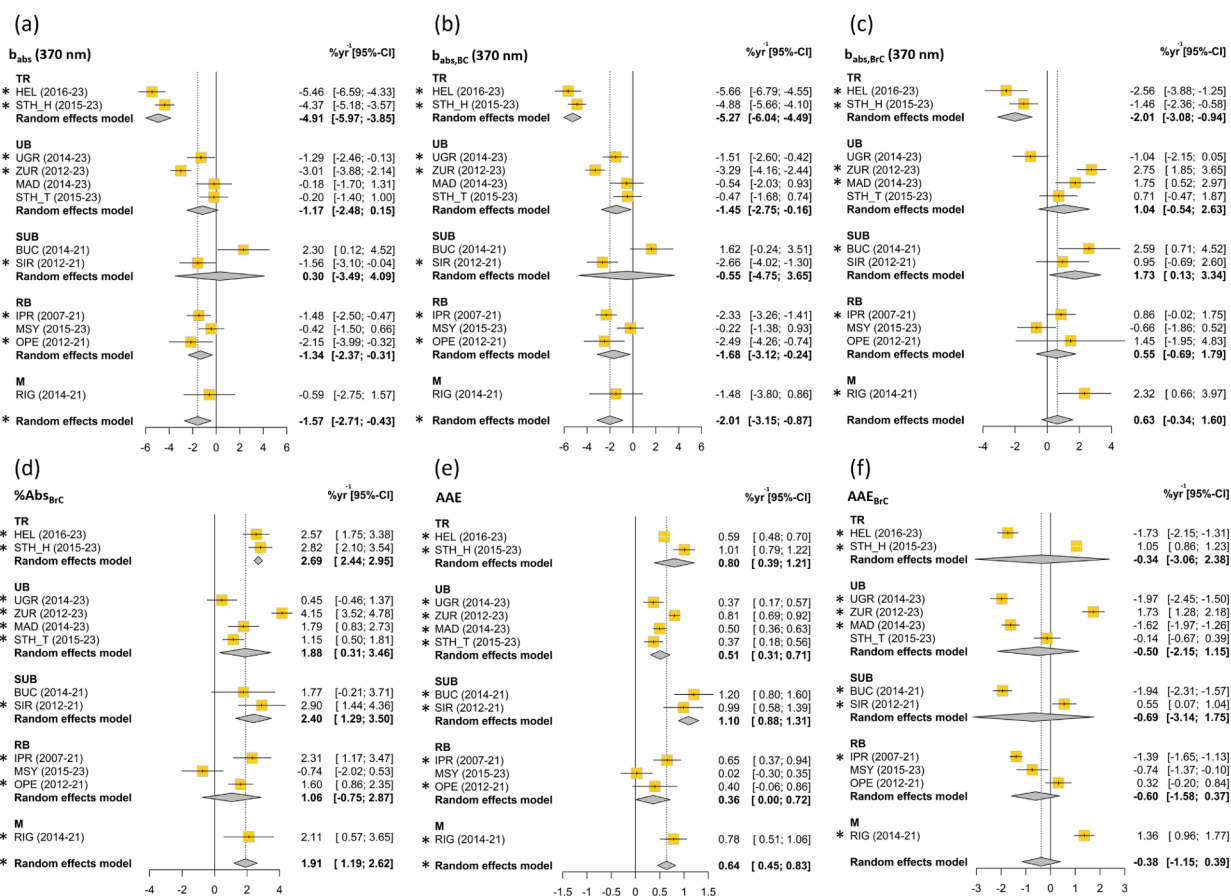


Fig. 6. Normalized diel cycles of the same variables as in Fig. 5.



**Fig. 7.** Results of the trend analysis and subsequent meta-analysis for  $b_{Abs}(370)$  (a),  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  (b and c, respectively), relative contribution of  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  to  $b_{Abs}(370)$  (d), AAE of CA from 370 to 950 nm (e), and AAE of BrC from 370 to 660 (f). Trends are calculated using the Mann-Kendall non-parametric method. \* indicates statistically significant trends ( $p < 0.01$ ). Results of the meta-analysis are presented globally for each variable and for the different site categories (TR, UB, SUB, RB and M). The dashed vertical line represents the global meta-analysis. Random effects model: mean effect calculated for each site typology and for all sites together.

characterized by the strongest magnitude of decreasing trends for  $b_{Abs}(370)$  (−4.4 to −5.5 %/year) and  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  (−4.9 to −5.7 %/year), thus confirming the effective reduction of BC emissions from traffic sources. These trends demonstrated the efficient reduction of BC mass concentrations from traffic sources in Europe suggesting a positive impact of the implementation of EURO 5/V and 6/VI vehicle standards (e.g. Kutzner et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2021; Savadkoohi et al., 2023; Garcia-Marlès et al., 2024) and a less effective reduction of emissions from BrC sources, likely mostly from domestic biomass burning (e.g. Yttri et al., 2021; Savadkoohi et al., 2023). For example, Savadkoohi et al. (2023) have reported statistically significant decreasing trends for BC from traffic sources in Europe whereas BC from domestic sources remained constant or even increased slightly in some European cities. At UB, SUB and RB sites, the magnitude of the s.s. decreasing trends for  $b_{Abs}(370)$  (−1.3 to −3.0 %/year) and  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  (−1.5 to −3.3 %/year) were lower suggesting the presence of regional contributions of BC to absorption. These regional sources of BC, mostly biomass burning, also contributed to explain the observed s.s. increasing trends of AAE and % Abs<sub>BrC</sub>.

The observed increase of AAE calculated from 370 to 950 nm confirmed a progressive change in the chemical composition of CA particles driven by a relative increase/decrease of BrC/BC content in CA with time. Recently, Yttri et al. (2021) reported large decreases in EC and a relatively smaller decline in levoglucosan at the BIR measurement site in northern Europe, suggesting that the OC and EC from traffic and industry were decreasing, whereas the abatement of OC and EC from biomass burning was less successful. Similarly, in ‘t Veld et al. (2021)

reported for both BCN and MSY (NE Spain) the absence of a trend for OM driven by secondary organic aerosols formation, whereas EC showed s.s. decreasing trends at both sites. The s.s. decreasing trends observed here for  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  agreed also with the results from the recent study by Aas et al. (2024) reporting decreasing trends for elemental carbon (EC) mass concentrations in Europe during 2010–2019. These EC decreasing trends were mostly associated with reduced vehicular emissions, as also reported for the decreasing trends of BC in Europe by Savadkoohi et al. (2023). Aas et al. (2024) also reported decreasing trends for OC mass concentrations even in smaller magnitude and significance compared to EC. Indeed, the OC decreasing trends reported by Aas et al. (2024) were s.s. only at 2 out of 15 sites included in their work and the highest magnitude and statistically significance of the OC trends were observed in winter consistent with the reduction of primary organic aerosols from EC sources. It is not straightforward to correlate the  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  trends reported here with the OC trends reported in Aas et al. (2024) as the different time granularity, data coverage and measuring periods can affect the trend analysis especially over short periods. The  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  showed s.s. increasing trends at 5 out of 10 non-traffic sites and, as aforementioned, the overall increasing trend in Europe for  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  was non s.s. due to the heterogeneity of the trends among the 12 sites. The trend results for  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  at non-traffic sites suggested multiple origins of BC and BrC (mostly traffic and biomass burning) and reflected the slower and less significant decreasing trends observed for OC in Europe compared to EC. Among the sites used here for  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  trend analysis, four sites (IPR, MSY, OPE and RIG) were also included in the trend study from Aas et al. (2024) for OC. Aas et al. (2024) reported

s.s. OC decreasing trend (2010–2019) only for IPR where  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  showed s.s. increasing trend as in RIG. Thus, the s.s. increasing trends of  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  observed here at some sites (5 out of 10 non-traffic sites) could suggest a shift toward organic matter particles with higher mass-specific absorption efficiency. This shift could be at least in part related to the observed increase of ammonia ( $NH_3$ ) concentrations in Europe reported by Aas et al. (2024). In fact, chamber experiments have shown the increase of the absorption efficiency of a wide range of biogenic and anthropogenic secondary organic aerosols formed under high  $NH_3$  emissions (e.g. Updyke et al., 2012).

Interestingly, the  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  showed s.s. decreasing trends only at the two traffic sites included in this analysis (HEL and STH\_H) thus suggesting traffic emissions as the main source of both BC and BrC at these sites. Despite the observed decrease of  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  and  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  at the traffic stations, both  $\%Abs_{BrC}$  and AAE increased. Beside the increase of the relative proportion of regional aerosols due to the decrease of BC emissions from local traffic, the observed  $\%Abs_{BrC}$  and AAE increase suggested a more effective decrease of BC compared to BrC in CA particles from vehicles.

As already mentioned, the change of CA chemical composition with time observed in Europe had an important impact in the AAE, an intensive optical parameter that strongly depends on the chemical composition of particles. The effect of CA compositional changes on CA optical properties has been for example reported for the MSY site by Yus-Díez et al. (2022). Yus-Díez et al. (2022) showed that the absorption enhancement of BC particles increased at MSY station over the 2011–2020 period during spring and summer, when the OC/EC ratio, driven by secondary organic aerosol formation, increased along with the oxidation state of CA particles. Differently from the AAE, the  $AAE_{BrC}$  showed s.s. decreasing trends at 5 sites out of 12 and s.s. increasing trends at 4 sites without a clear relationship with station background. As mentioned above, it is not straightforward to understand the  $AAE_{BrC}$  variability without detailed OM chemical analysis and knowledge on the BC mixing state. Based, for example, on Saleh et al. (2013, 2014) and Kumar et al. (2018), a decreasing/increasing trend of  $AAE_{BrC}$  could suggest a progressive shift toward OM particles with more/less absorbing efficiency (i.e. higher/lower imaginary refractive index). Summarizing, the trend analyses reported here reflected the general change in CA composition and emission over time in Europe demonstrating a strong reduction of the absorption due to BC particles from traffic and a relative increase in the contribution of OM particles to total absorption.

#### 4. Conclusions

This study provides a phenomenological analysis of total absorption at 370 nm ( $b_{Abs}(370)$ ), BC and BrC contributions to absorption ( $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  and  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$ ), absorption Ångström exponent (AAE) of both carbonaceous aerosol (CA) and brown carbon (BrC) particles ( $AAE_{BrC}$ ) using Aethalometer data collected at 44 European sites.

A considerable variation of the absorption coefficients among the measurement sites was observed. This variation was influenced mostly by station background and showed a clear increase from mountain to urban and traffic sites. Mountain site absorption was influenced by altitude, topographical factors and atmospheric boundary layer influence. High site-by-site variability was exhibited at regional, urban and traffic stations related to location, proximity to CA emission sources, local meteorology, and variability in CA sources. Some hotspots (e.g. Krakow, Milan, Ispra and Paris) displayed particularly high absorption levels due to high local pollution and atmospheric conditions.

Similarly to  $b_{Abs}(370)$ , both  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  and  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  increased from mountain to urban and traffic sites with notable site-by-site variability, attributed to POA particles, fuel type used, combustion conditions, and the influence of SOA. Apart from traffic sites, with lower relative contribution of BrC PM to  $b_{Abs}(370)$  ( $\%Abs_{BrC}$  median 11–20%),

the station setting was not the main parameter determining the reported  $\%Abs_{BrC}$ , being the intensity of POA emissions and SOA formation the likely main factors driving the variability of  $\%Abs_{BrC}$  and AAE. At all sites the  $AAE_{BrC}$  was considerably higher than AAE as a consequence of the stronger wavelength dependence of BrC PM, strengthening the argument that the SOA contribution to absorption is an important factor determining the wavelength dependence of BrC absorption. Further analyses are needed to better understand the variability of  $AAE_{BrC}$  which was influenced by the physico-chemical properties and transformation processes of BrC PM, particularly by their absorption characteristics in different spectral ranges.

All the variables reported here, with the exception of  $AAE_{BrC}$ , showed relative maxima in winter suggesting higher CA emissions from household activities and accumulation favored by predominant stagnant conditions and lower planetary boundary heights during the cold months. Conversely, relative minima were observed in summer due to higher wind speeds and atmospheric dispersion and to a reduction of BrC emissions. The diel cycles of  $b_{Abs}(370)$  and  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  showed bimodal peaks during morning and evening rush hours, with a midday decrease due to atmospheric dispersion and reduced emissions, except at mountain sites where both increased at noon, facilitated by higher mixing layers. In contrast,  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$ ,  $\%Abs_{BrC}$  and AAE peaked at night likely due to increased domestic activities and nighttime formation of brown SOA. Traffic sites showed synchronized  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$  and  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  pattern, confirming vehicle emissions as a source of BrC PM. Notably,  $AAE_{BrC}$  showed diel cycles with lower values during the day and higher values at night and early morning, suggesting nighttime accumulation or formation of BrC PM with enhanced absorption efficiency in UV compared to the visible spectrum as could be expected for brown SOA.

Finally, this study conducted trend analysis at 12 monitoring sites, with at least 8 years of data availability, showing s.s. decreasing trends in  $b_{Abs}(370)$  primarily driven by declining  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$ . The observed s.s. increasing trends of  $\%Abs_{BrC}$ , confirmed recent evidence that the OC and BC concentrations from traffic and industry were efficiently decreasing in Europe, whereas the abatement of OC and BC from biomass burning has been slightly less successful. Indeed, only the traffic sites showed s.s. decreasing trends in both  $b_{Abs,BrC}(370)$  and  $b_{Abs,BC}(370)$ , suggesting, as aforementioned, traffic emissions as the main source of both BC and BrC at traffic sites. As a consequence, the trend analyses revealed a progressive change in CA chemical composition with s.s. increasing trends in AAE driven by a relative increase/decrease of BrC/BC content in CA particles. The fact that  $\%Abs_{BrC}$  generally increased across sites, suggests open challenges in reducing BrC emissions effectively.

This study, based on pan-european data confirms the effective reduction of BC emissions from vehicles thanks to the implementation of EURO 5/V and 6/VI vehicle standards and a less effective reduction of BC and BrC emissions from sources as household activities. The results presented in this work also align with the new European Air Quality Directive adopted on 14th October 2024 that establishes that black carbon, together with other emerging pollutants such as ultrafine particles, should be measured at monitoring supersites at both rural and urban background locations in order to support scientific understanding of its effects on human health and the environment. Furthermore, the observed general increasing trends of the contribution of BrC PM to absorption reported here support recent assessments (e.g. Zauli-Sajani et al., 2024) that indicate that the residential sector should be a key target of air quality policies and that promoting biomass as a carbon-neutral energy source could have a detrimental effect on both air quality and climate.

#### CRedit authorship contribution statement

**Jordi Rovira:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Marjan**



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#### Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper. Griša Močnik, Asta Gregorič, Matic Ivancić and Martin Rigler were or are employed by the manufacturer of the instruments used in this study.

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#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2024.109185>.



## Data availability

Data will be made available on <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.13365276>.

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