



1 **A Pan-European, High-Resolution, Daily Total, Fine-Mode and**
2 **Coarse-Mode Aerosol Optical Depth dataset based on Quantile**
3 **Machine Learning**
4

5 Zhao-Yue Chen^{1,2}, Raul Méndez¹, Hervé Petetin³, Aleksander Lacima³, Carlos Pérez García-Pando^{3,4} and
6 Joan Ballester¹

7
8 1ISGLOBAL, Barcelona, Spain

9 2Universitat Pompeu Fabra (UPF), Barcelona, Spain

10 3Barcelona Supercomputing Center, Barcelona, Spain

11 4ICREA, Catalan Institution for Research and Advanced Studies, Barcelona, Spain

12

13 **Correspondence:** Zhao-Yue Chen (zhaoyue.chen@isglobal.org) and Joan Ballester (joan.ballester@isglobal.org)

14 **Abstract**

15 Ambient particulate matter (PM) is a widespread air pollutant, consisting of a mixture of different particle species suspended in
16 the air that negatively affects human health. Given the generally sparse distribution of in-situ PM measurement networks,
17 spatially-resolved PM estimates are typically derived from Aerosol Optical Depth (AOD) obtained from satellites. However,
18 satellite AOD data over land is affected by several limitations (e.g., data gaps; coarser resolution; higher uncertainty; unavailable
19 or unreliable size fraction information), which weakens the relationship between AOD and PM. We have developed a 0.1 degree
20 resolution daily AOD data set over Europe over the period 2003-2020, based on new Quantile Machine Learning (QML) models.
21 The dataset provides reliable full-coverage AOD along with Fine-mode AOD (fAOD) and Coarse-mode AOD (cAOD), based
22 on AERONET (AErosol RObotic NETwork) site observations and climate and air quality reanalyses. Our results show that the
23 three QML AOD products guarantee better quality with an out-of-sample R^2 equal to 0.68 for AOD, 0.66 for fAOD and 0.65 for
24 cAOD, which is 23-92%, 11-13% and 115-132% higher than the corresponding satellite or reanalysis products, respectively.
25 Over 88.8%, 80.5% and 88.6% of QML AOD, fAOD and cAOD predictions fall within $\pm 20\%$ Expected Error (EE) envelopes,
26 respectively. Previous studies reported that Europe is one of the regions with the poorest satellite AOD-PM correlation (Pearson
27 correlation coefficient (PCC) around 0.1). Our results show that the three QML products are more correlated with ground-level
28 PMs, especially when they are paired with their corresponding PMs in terms of size: AOD with PM₁₀, fAOD with PM_{2.5} and
29 cAOD with PM coarse ($R=0.41$, 0.45 and 0.26 , respectively). Our results show that different PM size fractions may be better
30 predicted using different AOD size fractions, instead of total AOD. QML long-term aerosol dataset (and associated models) not
31 only fix some problems of existing AOD data, but also provide better tools to monitor and analyse fine-mode and coarse-mode
32 aerosols in spatial and temporal dimensions, and to further investigate their impacts on human health, climate, visibility, and
33 biogeochemical cycling. The QML datasets can be downloaded from <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7756570> (Chen et al., 2023).
34



35 **1. Introduction**

36 According to the latest report of the Global Burden of Disease (Institute for Health Metrics, 2020), ambient particulate matter
37 (PM) contributed to over 4.14 million deaths globally in 2019, twice as much as the numbers in 1990 (2.04 million deaths). In
38 Europe, estimates from the European Environment Agency point to 307,000 annual premature deaths linked to fine PMs alone
39 (PM_{2.5}, i.e. particles smaller than 2.5 micrometres in diameter), a death toll that is one order of magnitude larger than the one
40 of the other major pollutants, e.g. 40,400 annual deaths for nitrogen dioxide and 16,800 for ozone (European Environment
41 Agency, 2021). This problem highlights the importance of accurately describing the spatiotemporal distribution of air pollutants,
42 in particular PM. However, building and maintaining an extensive network of ground-level monitoring stations is expensive and
43 not sustainable in many countries (Maag et al., 2018), which limits our capacity to derive spatially-representative estimates of
44 the main air pollutants for epidemiological modelling and health impact assessment (Zhang et al., 2021).

45

46 Compared with surface PM (surface level aerosol particles), the total column of atmospheric aerosols can be monitored over a
47 larger geographical coverage thanks to satellite observations (Griffin, 2013). The total column of atmospheric aerosols is
48 generally measured as Aerosol Optical Depth (AOD), by detecting how much sunlight is absorbed or scattered by suspended
49 particles and surrounding gases. In general, higher AOD values indicate more aerosols in the atmosphere, which can be associated
50 with higher levels of PM. Therefore, AOD is the common and important indicator for surface PMs estimations, especially in
51 those locations without available PMs observations.

52

53 However, satellite-derived AOD data still present some downsides, which may hinder the use of AOD to estimate PM. The first
54 downside is the large data gap in satellite AOD. Over 85% of satellite AOD measurements are missing globally (Kahn et al.,
55 2009; Chen et al., 2019b), mainly due to cloudiness, surface reflectivity and low sun angle at high-latitudes (Wei et al., 2018;
56 Gupta et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2019b). Secondly, the accuracy of satellite AOD is still subject to various factors, like instrument
57 calibration, cloud contamination, and climate or geographic conditions (He et al., 2021). These uncertainties may lead that the
58 correlation between satellite AOD and PM levels varies a lot in different locations, and the correlation in some regions is always
59 lower. For example, the Pearson correlation coefficient (PCC) between satellite AOD and PM levels in Europe and South
60 America were found to be the lowest (from 0.1 to 0.12) by Christopher and Gupta (2020), against 0.45-0.70 in Northern America
61 or East Asia. Lastly, polar satellites can only scan the surface a few times every day in each location, so space-based AOD
62 measurements cannot fully match the continuous 24-hour ground level measurements. To solve this problem, geostationary
63 satellites in some regions were launched recently but only provide data in recent years.

64

65 On the other side, aerosol reanalyses nowadays offer global gridded AOD estimates with no missing values, based on the
66 assimilation of satellite AOD. However, their resolution exhibit relatively coarse (of the order of 50-100 km) due to large
67 computational requirements for fine-scale assimilation (Bouttier, 2009), and their products remain with some unavoidable bias
68 mainly caused by uncertainties in the emission inventories (Huang et al., 2021), and some uncertainties from satellite or
69 meteorological products that are assimilated.

70

71 In addition to these problems, the type and size distribution of aerosols can also change the amount of light that is scattered or
72 absorbed by the aerosols, and therefore affect the AOD measurements and their relationship with PMs (Yan et al., 2017; Zang
73 et al., 2021). For example, in regions with high levels of coarse particles in the atmosphere, those large particles such as dust can
74 scatter more light than smaller particles, leading to the higher measurement of AOD. At this moment, the high level of AOD
75 mainly represent those coarser particles rather than small particles like PM_{2.5}. However, the size-resolved AOD information
76 (fAOD and cAOD) are generally not taken into consideration for the estimation of PM. Due to the lack of reliable sources for



77 these components, previous studies have generally used total AOD as the default predictor of PM_{2.5} or PM₁₀ (Ferrero et al.,
78 2019; You et al., 2015), even though more accurate models could be calibrated with fAOD and/or cAOD. Importantly, obtaining
79 reliable high-resolution data of the components of AOD still represents a major challenge (Yan et al., 2022). For the satellite
80 products, the MODIS fine mode fraction products are only available over oceanic areas, and its products over land have high
81 uncertainties (Levy et al., 2013); while the products from Polarization and Directionality of the Earth's Reflectance (POLDER)
82 is only available over short periods of time (Dubovik et al., 2019). To solve this problem, a few experimental studies (Chen et
83 al., 2020; Yan et al., 2022) attempted to improve satellite data quality by developing lookup table spectral deconvolution
84 algorithm (LUT SDA) and machine learning, but some limitations still persist, including the coarse spatial resolution (1 degree)
85 and the large data gaps.

86

87 Given the limitation of existing aerosol products, as well as the poor correlation between satellite AOD and PM_{2.5} in Europe,
88 we developed a new set of AOD models, and provided a 0.1 degree resolution daily AOD data set over Europe for the period
89 2003-2020 to better understand the spatiotemporal distribution of aerosols in the continent. First, based on Quantile Machine
90 Learning (QML) models fed with ground-level AERONET data and climate and aerosol reanalyses, we develop a high-resolution
91 daily dataset of AOD, fAOD and cAOD covering Europe over the period 2003-2020. Second, we investigate if these improved
92 AOD products provide a stronger correlation with surface PM. Compared with previous products, these QML estimates (AOD,
93 fAOD and cAOD) respectively shows higher correlation with PM₁₀, PM_{2.5} and PM_{coarse} (i.e. difference between PM₁₀ minus
94 PM_{2.5}), providing the foundation for indicating air pollutants distribution when ground-level stations are not available. Our
95 study was motivated by the need to fill the gap of missing satellite aerosol information, but also to provide reliable fine-mode
96 and coarse-mode aerosol estimates. At a longer-term horizon, it is aimed at providing new spatiotemporal PM exposure estimates
97 that could be used in epidemiological studies or for environmental surveillance.

98 **2. Data**

99 **2.1 AERONET data**

100 We collected cloud-screened, ground-based AOD data from AERONET v2.0 (Holben et al., 2001). This data source also
101 provides the decomposition of total AOD into fAOD and cAOD, based on a Spectral Deconvolution Algorithm validated by
102 O'Neill et al. (2003). As it is commonly done in the literature, AERONET data are here considered as the “ground truth” to
103 validate other aerosol data (Gueymard and Yang, 2020; Bright and Gueymard, 2019). Our data are from 257 sites located in the
104 research domain here considered: 27-72N x 25W-45E. To be comparable with the satellite and reanalysis data, the AERONET
105 AOD data at 550 nm was interpolated from the two nearest wavelengths, i.e. 500 nm and 675 nm (Gupta et al., 2020; Duarte and
106 Duarte, 2020).

107 **2.2 Satellite data**

108 We collected daily AOD data for the period 2003-2020 from MODIS v6.1 (<https://ladsweb.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/>), which is
109 based on the Multiangle Implementation of Atmospheric Correction (MAIAC) algorithm. The data are available at a 1km x 1km
110 spatial resolution over Europe. MAIAC uses time series analysis and an image-based processing algorithm to provide accurate,
111 fixed-grid aerosol estimations (Lyapustin et al., 2011). We further filtered the MAIAC data according to the quality assurance
112 flags of the NASA guidelines (i.e. Quality Assurance of cloud mask = clear sky)(Lyapustin et al., 2018).

113



114 **2.3 MERRA-2 reanalysis**

115 We also retrieved data from MERRA-2, the atmospheric composition reanalysis developed by NASA. To develop this product,
116 the Goddard Earth Observing System Model (GEOS-5) data assimilation system was used to ingest multiples sources (e.g. data
117 from AERONET sites, MODIS, MISR and AVHRR sensors (Randles et al., 2017)) to simulate aerosol data with the Goddard
118 Chemistry, Aerosol, Radiation, and Transport (GOCART) model. MERRA-2 provides assimilated 3-hourly aerosol data at a
119 resolution of $0.625^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ from 1980. Previous studies (Che et al., 2019) showed that MERRA-2 reproduces the general trends
120 in annual and seasonal AOD, both at regional and global scales, but with significant biases in some locations.

121 **2.4 CAMS reanalysis**

122 Compared with MERRA-2, CAMSRA, the air quality reanalysis from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather
123 Forecasts (ECMWF) (Inness et al., 2019), assimilates the hourly AOD data from Envisat's AATSR sensor, NASA's MODIS
124 Aqua and Terra sensors since 2003 and in-situ measurements from a wide range of sources (Bozzo et al., 2017; Flemming et al.,
125 2015), although, its spatial resolution is relatively coarser ($0.75^{\circ} \times 0.75^{\circ}$). Previous studies showed that the estimates of AOD in
126 CAMSRA are slightly poorer than in MERRA-2 (Gueymard and Yang, 2020).

127 **2.5 ERA5 reanalysis for meteorological data**

128 Previous studies (Huang et al., 2007; Zhou and Savijärvi, 2014; Tai et al., 2010; Gui et al., 2019; Yan et al., 2022) have analysed
129 the associations between weather conditions and the concentration of fine- and coarse-mode aerosols. For example, high-pressure
130 events, characterised by atmospheric stability and low winds, retain the smaller particles, which is seen with higher-than-normal
131 fine-mode aerosol levels (Tai et al., 2010; Gui et al., 2019). Moreover, rainfall washes out the particles from the lower part of
132 the troposphere, especially the largest particles. There are other pathways by which aerosols can also affect weather conditions,
133 for example by reflecting and absorbing the incoming UV radiation (Zhou and Savijärvi, 2014), or by changing the conditions
134 for the condensation of water in the cloud (Huang et al., 2007). We therefore collected data from several atmospheric, oceanic
135 and land surface variables, such as boundary layer height, downward UV radiation, cloud cover, surface pressure and
136 precipitation, from ECMWF ERA-5 reanalysis, which provides data since 1950 at a resolution of $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$.

137 **2.6 ERA5 reanalysis for land surface data**

138 Apart from meteorological data, the land surface data also has important impacts on aerosol. As forests contribute to a large
139 extent to particle removal, previous studies found the deposition velocity of ultrafine particles is generally more sensitive to leaf
140 area index than leaf area density (Lin et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2015). Also, the dry deposition of particles is affected by
141 properties of the vegetation elements (such as leaves and branches) and soil types (Grönholm et al., 2009). Thus, we found the
142 significant contributions of leaf area index high vegetation, leaf area index low vegetation and soil types to aerosol. Higher Leaf
143 area index high vegetation means more evergreen trees, deciduous trees or forest, while Higher Leaf area index low vegetation
144 represents more crops and mixed farming, grass or shrubs. For bare ground or places with no leaves, both of them will be close
145 to zero. The soil types describe how coarse the soil is, representing the water holding ability of soil. Coarser soil generally has
146 lower water holding ability. Furthermore, land surface information is also important to surface reflectance, which further affects
147 the quality of satellite data included in reanalysis data.

148 **3. Methodology**

149 **3.1 Overall model**

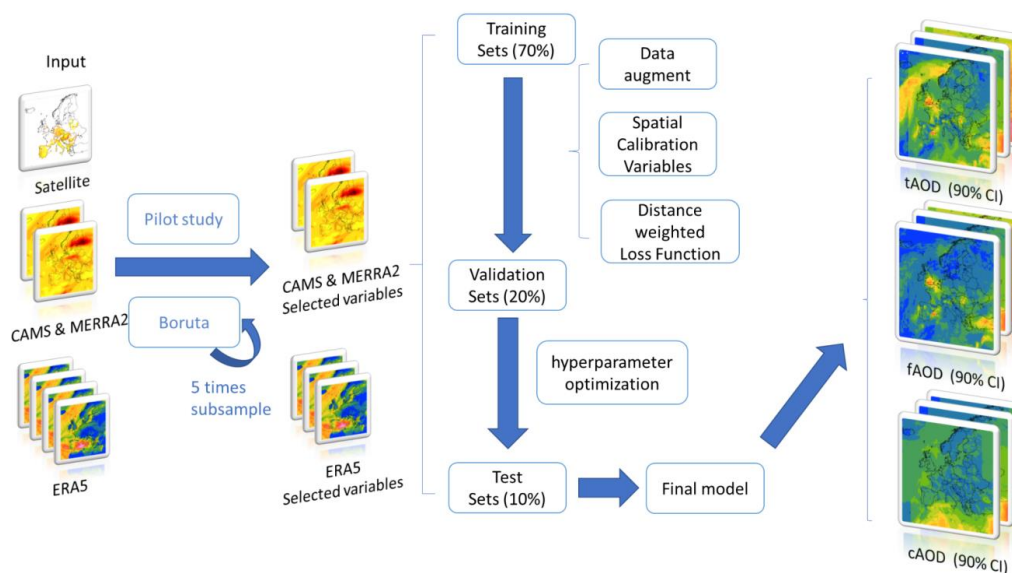
150 In this study, we used quantile lightGBM (Light Gradient Boosting Machine) models to separately obtain predictions of AOD,
151 fAOD and cAOD. This gradient boosting framework is a high-performance, tree-based model requiring less computational time



152 than Gradient Boosting models or Random forest (Ke et al., 2017). The model also provides the intervals of the quantile
153 predictions to assess their uncertainty.

154 3.2 Variable selection

155 Our model is developed according to the methodological steps summarised in Figure 1. We first bilinearly interpolated all gridded
156 data to a horizontal resolution of $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$ (i.e. around 9 km at mid-latitudes), and then extracted the corresponding values at
157 the longitudes and latitudes of the AERONET sites. To determine the variables included in the models, we conducted the Boruta
158 feature selection procedure (Kursa and Rudnicki, 2010) separately to AOD, fAOD and cAOD. The Boruta method is the robust
159 and powerful tree-based algorithm, which was successfully validated in previous simulation studies (Degenhardt et al., 2019).
160 For each variable, the method first generates a new shadow variable by randomly permutating the values of original variables,
161 and removes the original variable if there is no significant difference between the contribution to the model of the shadow and
162 the original variables. To reduce computational time and guarantee the stability, we conducted the Boruta method five times with
163 random subsamples of 20% of the sites to select those variables that are statistically significant (p -value < 0.05) (selected
164 variables are listed in Table S1).



165

166 **Figure 1.** The workflow of Quantile machine learning (QML) for AOD, fAOD and cAOD

167

168 3.3 Techniques to improve the models

169 To improve the models, we randomly selected 70% of the sites as training data for the quantile lightGBM models. An additional
170 20% of the sites was used to optimize the model hyperparameter or to validate the following improving performance techniques
171 (see next paragraph). The remaining 10% of the sites was used to evaluate the out-of-sample predictive ability of the model, and
172 to select the optimal model configuration that was used to predict the daily AOD, fAOD and cAOD spatiotemporal estimates.

173

174 We applied three techniques to improve the accuracy and stability of the models:



175 - distance weighted loss function: given the heterogeneous spatial distribution of the 257 AERONET sites, the model is
176 likely to be overfitted in those regions with a higher density of stations. To reduce the effect of this selective overfitting,
177 we used distance weight factors in the loss function to decrease the weight in the regions with a higher density of stations.
178 The mathematical formulation is

$$179 \quad W_i = \frac{(D_i - D_{\min})}{(\bar{D} - D_{\min})} \quad (1)$$

$$180 \quad L(Y, Y^*) = \sum_{i=1}^n W_i * L(y_i, y_i^*) \quad (2)$$

181 where D_i is the distance of station i to its nearest site; D_{\min} and \bar{D} denote the minimum and average distance to their
182 nearest site; and $L(Y, Y^*)$ and $L(y_i, y_i^*)$ are the overall loss function (Y and Y^* are the observation and prediction vectors)
183 and the loss functions for station i (y_i and y_i^* are the observations and predictions at station i).

184 - minimum directional distance: we used this technique to analyse how predictions are affected by the distribution of sites
185 along the longitudinal and latitudinal axes. Figure S1 illustrates how we constructed these spatial calibration variables.
186 We first drew, for each station, the longitudinal and latitudinal axes to obtain the four quadrants. We defined a distance
187 of 2000 km as an upper threshold in each direction. We then calculated the distance to the closest station in each
188 direction, with a maximum value of 2000 km for the largest values. These distances in four directions were finally
189 included as additional inputs in the models to account for the minimum directional distance.

190 - white-noise data augment: this technique was used to reduce the overfit of the model. It duplicates the original training
191 datasets but adds white noise to the independent predictors. White noise is here defined by a Gaussian distribution with
192 zero mean and the variance of corresponding independent predictors.

193

194 Actually, most of these techniques tend to increase the contribution of those sites are most distant from its nearby sites. To justify
195 it, we used those 20% sites to validate the performance of these techniques. Also, we selected the sites with distance to their
196 nearest sites above mean (463km), to examine the improvement for those locations with fewer stations. These sensitivity analyses
197 (Table S3) show that the three techniques combined improved the quality of AOD, fAOD and cAOD predictions by around 38%,
198 27% and 44% in the regions with sparsely distributed stations.

199

200 Lastly, we also tested if the use of satellite MAIAC AOD improved the predictions (find details in the Section 3 of the
201 Supplementary). Our analysis shows that there is no significant improvement in the final model after including satellite AOD,
202 even after filling the missing values. This may be partially due to the fact that the reanalysis data already includes the satellite
203 information (Bozzo et al., 2017; Flemming et al., 2015), and the satellite only accounts for a small fraction in the whole dataset.
204 As a result, we excluded the MAIAC AOD data from our models.

205 3.4 AOD Model Validation

206 To evaluate the out-of-sample predictive capacity of the models, we separately obtained the spatial and temporal out-of-sample
207 predictions by nested 5-fold cross-validation. For the spatial out-of-sample predictions, we randomly divided the 257 AERONET
208 sites into five equal-sized subsamples. In each loop of generating predictions, we randomly used four subsamples for model
209 training and tuning, and the other one for obtaining the out-of-sample predictions. In each model training, we further divided
210 those four training subsamples to 80% for modelling, and the rest 20% for model hyperparameter optimization. This process was
211 repeated for each of the five subsamples, generating five models and out-of-sample predictions for all the sites. For the temporal
212 out-of-sample predictions an analogous strategy was used, but with six subperiods of three consecutive years, covering our 18-
213 year period. Table S1 shows that the spatial and temporal models have similar structures, hyperparameters and results, indicating
214 that our model strategy is stable to data training strategies.

215



216 To interpret these out-of-sample predictions, we compared these predictions with the AOD estimates from MERRA-2, CAMSRA
217 and satellite MAIAC data, by evaluating all of them against the AERONET data. For the fAOD and cAOD, as the reanalysis
218 data did not provide fine-mode and coarse-mode information, the satellite fAOD and cAOD is the only source for comparison.
219 Recently, Yan et al. (2022) have developed Phy-DL (PDL) Fine-mode Fraction (FMF) global products, and found their product
220 outperforms existing FMF products: Polarization and Directionality of the Earth's Reflectance (POLDER) FMF, Multi-angle
221 Imaging Spectro Radiometer (MISR) FMF and MODIS FMF. Their corresponding correlation with AERONET AOD are 0.78,
222 0.48, 0.42 and 0.37. Besides, the general correlation between PDL fAOD ($= \text{PDL FMF} * \text{MAIAC AOD}$) and AERONET AOD
223 ($\text{PCC} = 0.781$) in our domain is similar with the result reported by Yan et al. (2022). Given that the PDL fAOD has been shown
224 to be an optimal method for global comparisons, we selected it as the primary reference for comparing the QML predictions.
225 The evaluation metrics, including R-squared, NMB (Normalized Mean Bias), NRMSE (Normalized Root Mean Square Error),
226 90% PI (predictive intervals) coverage, and the percentage of predictions within the expected error envelopes of 20%, are
227 described in Table S3.

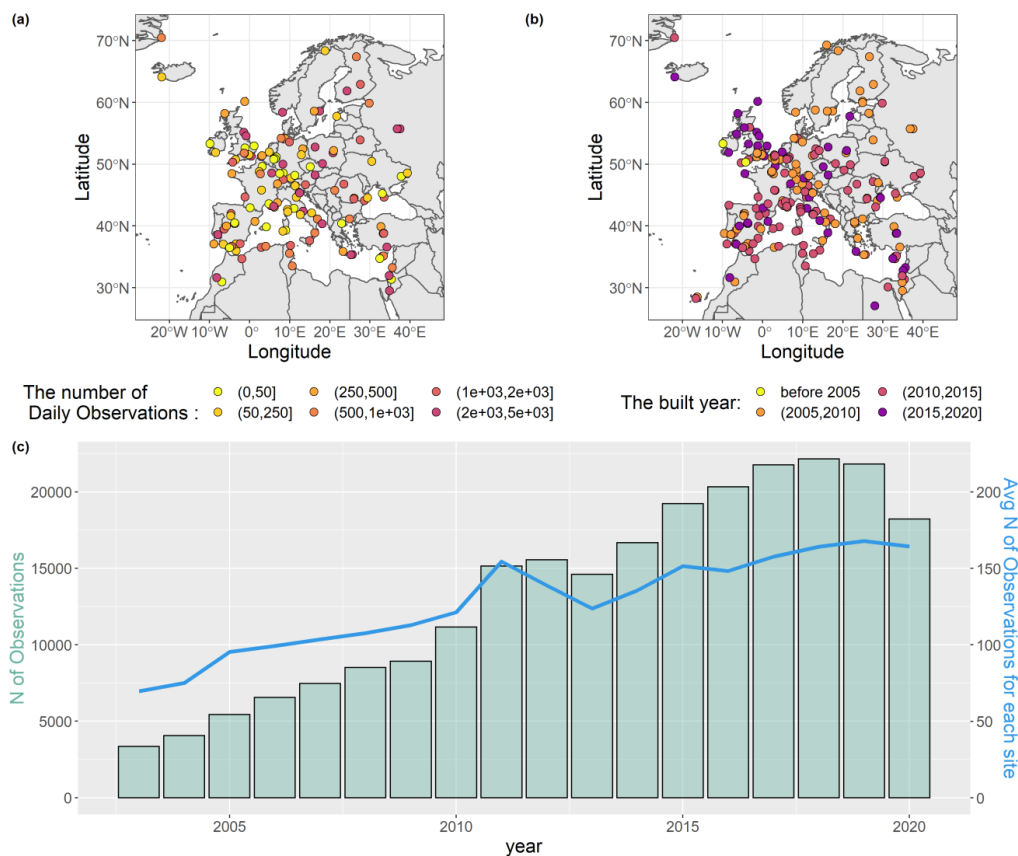
228 3.5 Exploratory correlation analysis with Surface PMs

229 The future application of QML AOD, fAOD and cAOD predictions is to provide more information for predicting PM_{10} , $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
230 and $\text{PM}_{\text{coarse}}$, thereby it is important to provide additional insights into the relationship between aerosol size distribution and
231 surface PMs. Once we obtain the reliable data for AOD, fAOD and cAOD, we can now undertake the investigation of their
232 relationship. Also, we can examine whether the QML products can potentially be a better indicator for PMs. First, we obtained
233 QML AOD prediction for locations with monitoring sites of PM, and then compared spearman correlations coefficient (SCC)
234 results among different AOD products with PM_{10} , $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and $\text{PM}_{\text{coarse}}$. The potential monotonic relationship between AOD and
235 PM is generally not strictly linear, so SCC is a better evaluation tool than PCC. Notedly, the location of ground-level PM sites
236 generally does not coincide with the AERONET sites, so correlation results are less likely to be affected by overfitting.

237 4. Results and discussion

238 4.1 Description of AERONET Data

239 Figure 2 shows the spatial and temporal distribution of AERONET station data. On average, each site has 662 observations
240 during the 2003-2020 period, with approximately 28% of sites having over 1,000 observations. Early-built sites (constructed
241 before 2010) are distributed relatively evenly throughout Europe, allowing models in the early period to be trained with data that
242 represents the continent as a whole. The annual sample size of observations has been increasing during the last two decades, and
243 reached its maximum in 2018. In relative terms, the average number of daily observations gradually increased until 2011, when
244 it stabilised at around 150 annual days per site. This plateau period (2011-2020) indicates that the average number of observable
245 days for most sites is restricted to around 150 days due to some external factors. For example, the sun photometer requires clear
246 skies (Holben et al., 2006; GLOBE 2010)). Sometimes, some stations require calibration and are usually taken offline for a few
247 months intermittently. Before the plateau, the increasing number of observable days per site indicates that some AERONET sites
248 may have not operated regularly in this earlier period, which would limit the performance of QML AOD models.



249

250 **Figure 2.** Spatial and temporal distribution of AERONet sites: (a) number of daily values, (b) built-year and (c) number of
 251 observations for whole domain (left axis, green bars) and average of observable days per site (right axis, blue line).

252

253 Figure 3 depicts the spatiotemporal distribution of AERONET AOD, fAOD and cAOD observations. For instance, AOD and
 254 fAOD are higher in central and eastern Europe, while cAOD is higher in southern Europe. This indicates that central and eastern
 255 Europe are largely affected by anthropogenic pollution sources, mainly associated with anthropogenic (Bellouin et al., 2005) and
 256 secondary aerosols (e.g., sulphate, nitrate, ammonium) (Zhao et al., 2018; Seinfeld and Pandis, 1998), while southern Europe is
 257 influenced by intrusions of mineral dust from the Sahara desert, as well as the advection of sea salt from the Mediterranean Sea
 258 (Meloni et al., 2008; Prospero et al., 2014). Regarding the long-term trend in AOD, the annual values have decreased at a rate of
 259 28.5% per decade for AOD and 27.2% for fAOD, while they have remained stable for cAOD. Given that fAOD is largely
 260 associated with anthropogenic emissions, its decreasing trend reflects the reduction in anthropogenic pollution resulting from air
 261 quality plans implemented in Europe.



262

263 **Figure 3.** Spatial and temporal distribution of the median value of AERONet (a) AOD, (b) FAOD and (c) CAOD data. (d)
264 Temporal evolution of AOD (red+blue), FAOD (blue) and CAOD (red).

265

266 4.2 Spatial and Temporal Evaluation

267 To further validate the AOD models, we compared in time and space the AOD predictions with the estimates from MERRA-2,
268 CAMSRA and MAIAC. Given the large fraction of missing values in satellite MAIAC AOD (64%), we divided the validation
269 results into two subgroups of dates and sites, i.e. those with (“Sat scenario”) or without (“Non-Sat scenario”) available satellite
270 AOD data, in order to guarantee the comparability among the different products, and provide a better understanding of the factors
271 limiting the performance of the models. Unlike MERRA-2, CAMSRA and MAIAC, we used our models to generate out-of-
272 sample predictions in space and time in order to shed more light into the validation.

273

274 4.2.1 Total AOD product

275 Figure 4 validates the different AOD products against the AERONET observations, by comparing QML’s spatial and temporal
276 out-of-sample AOD predictions with MERRA-2, CAMSRA and MAIAC AOD. The NMB maps show that, in general, QML
277 predictions agree best with AERONET data, but they are slightly underestimated both in the spatial and temporal out-of-sample
278 predictions. Additionally, the QML also has the lowest NRMSE, approximately 33% smaller than the other products. In contrast,



279 CAMSRA is the product with the largest overestimation, especially in Northern Europe, United Kingdom and some
280 Mediterranean coastal areas. Meanwhile, satellite AOD tends to underestimate inland areas and overestimate coastal areas.
281

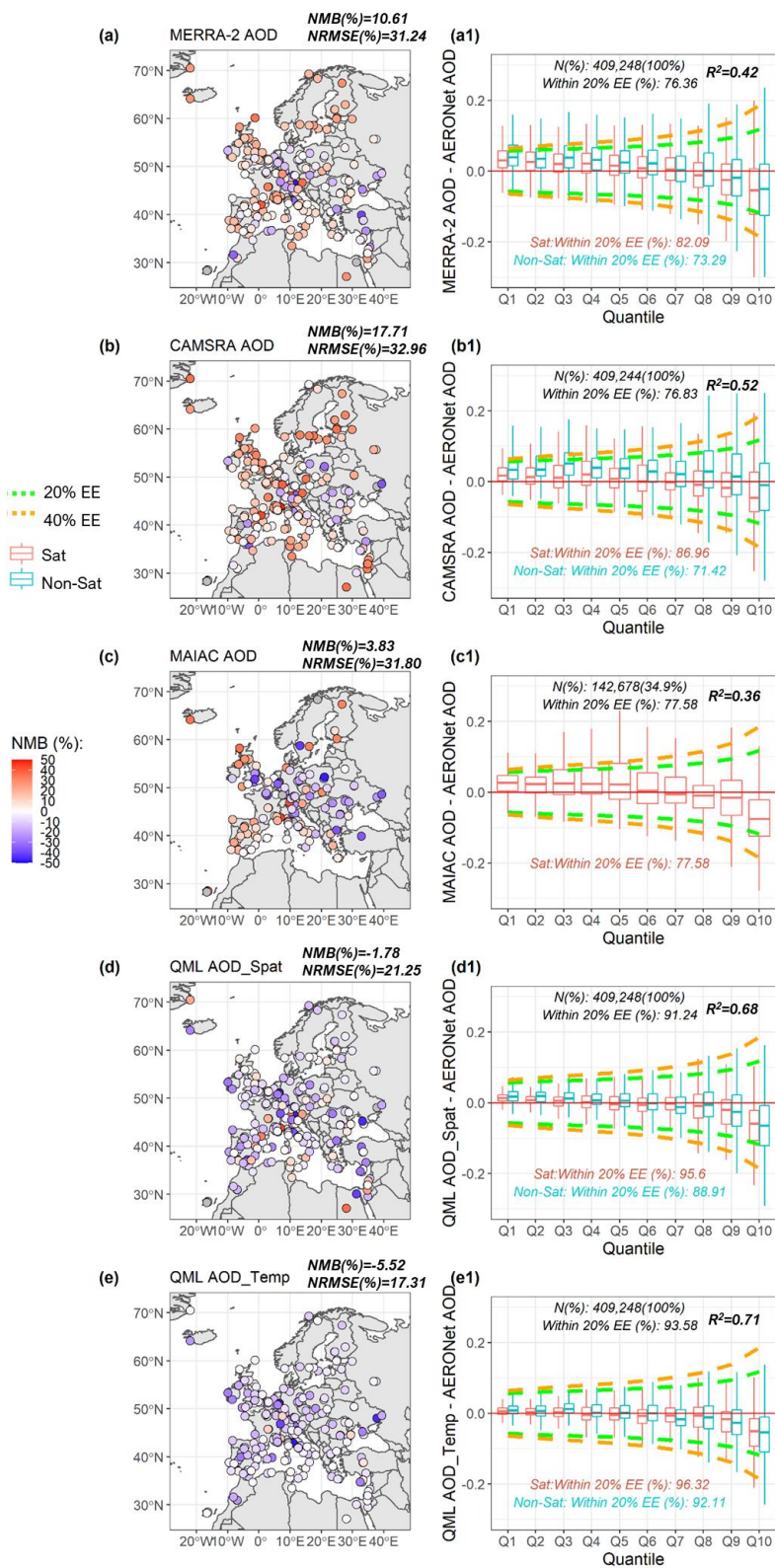
282 In Figure 4 (a1-e1), the box plots of the bias (estimation minus AERONET) are displayed in each decile (Q1-Q10) of the
283 AERONET AOD, with the range in each decile additionally shown in Table S4. The orange and green lines represent the
284 expected error (EE) envelopes of $\pm 40\%$ and $\pm 20\%$ for each decile according to the methodology described in previous studies
285 (Levy et al., 2010; Xiao et al., 2016; Yan et al., 2022)). Overall, QML predictions show a high agreement with AERONET data,
286 with approximately 91% (temporal out-of-sample predictions) and 89% (spatial) of the predictions falling within 20% expected
287 error (EE) envelopes. In contrast, the 20% EE in the other products ranges between 76% and 78%. QML also exhibits the highest
288 R-squared, i.e. 0.71 and 0.68 for the temporal and spatial out-of-sample predictions.

289
290 In the Sat scenario, all the products tend to overestimate the AOD in the lower AOD deciles, and to underestimate it in the higher
291 deciles. However, QML has the highest proportion of predictions within 20% EE (i.e. over 93%), especially with less bias in the
292 lower deciles. In the Non-Sat scenario, all products perform relatively worse compared to the Sat scenario. This is partially due
293 to the fact that reanalysis data assimilates satellite data. QML models also benefit from including reanalysis data as input.
294 CAMSRA AOD is the product with stronger overestimations in almost all deciles (Q1 to Q8), while MERRA has similar
295 performance as CAMSRA from Q1 to Q6. In comparison, QML mainly narrows the bias among those quantiles (Q1 to Q8), and
296 its rate of falling within 20% EE reaches 86%-89%.

297
298 Overall, both scenarios show that QML AOD mainly provide better predictions in lower quantiles, where other products tend to
299 overestimate AOD. This implies that QML AOD is less likely to overestimate values in the lower range, but like other products,
300 it may still exhibit some overestimates in higher ranges, leading to a slightly negative NMB.

301
302 To assess the performance over time, Figure 5 presents the annual performance of AOD products based on three criteria: R-
303 square, NMB, and NRMSE. QML AOD predictions consistently achieve higher R-squared values than reanalysis or satellite
304 estimates. Regarding NMB, all products show slightly increasing trends over the years, with MERRA-2 and MAIAC estimates
305 shifting from negative to positive values. This trend could be due to the decrease in AERONET AOD over time, coupled with
306 the tendency of most products to overestimate the AOD in the lower deciles. In contrast, the NMB in QML is relatively constant.
307 As for NRMSE, all products show slight decreases over time, with the lowest values in QML throughout the entire period.

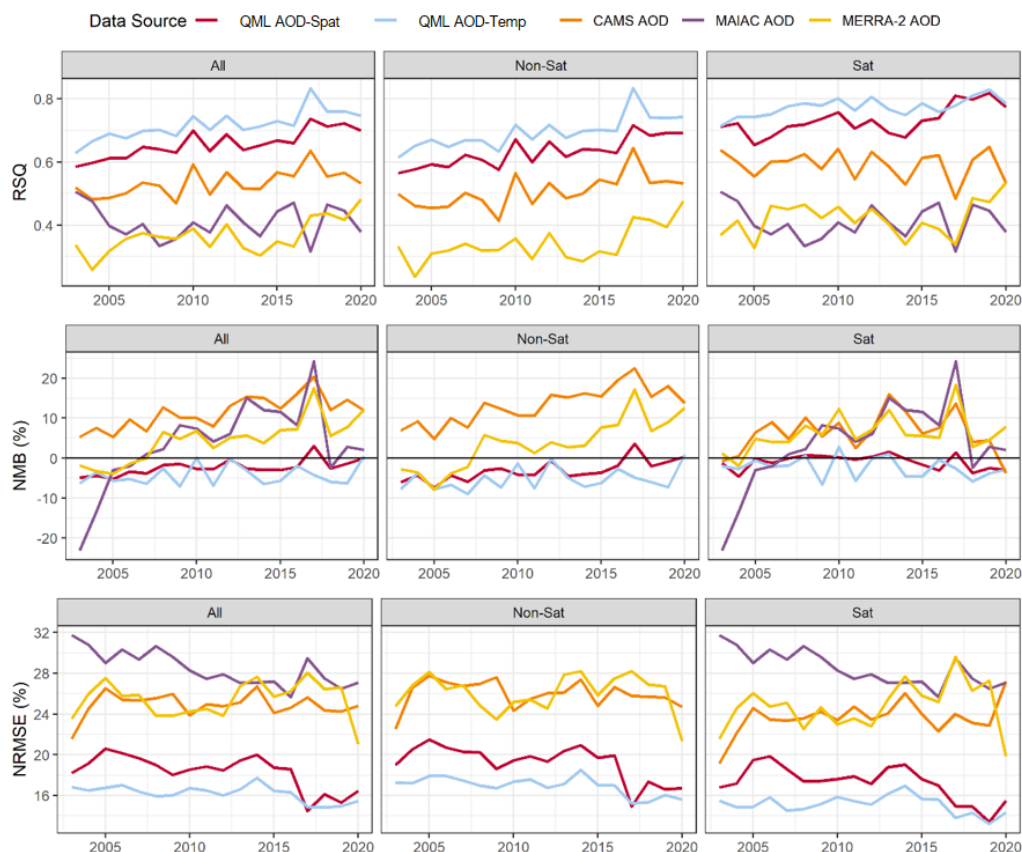
308





310 **Figure 4.** The spatial distribution maps of normalize mean bias (NMB) (a-e) and box plots of AOD estimation bias (Estimation
311 minus AERONet data) for different quantiles of AERONet AOD (a1-e1) in 2003-2020. These data sources include: MERRA-2
312 AOD (a-a1), CAMSRA AOD (b-b1), MAIAC AOD (c-c1), QML spatial out-of-sample prediction (QML AOD Spat) (d-d1) and
313 QML temporal out-of-sample prediction (QML AOD Temp) (e-e1). The $N(\%)$ is the sample size (proportion); 20% and 40% EE
314 are expected error envelopes with $0.05 \pm 20\%$ observation and $0.05 \pm 40\%$ observation. The upper, middle, and lower lines in
315 each box are the 75th, median, and 25th percentiles, respectively.

316



317

318 **Figure 5.** Comparison of the performance (R-squared, NMB, NRMSE) between different data sources: QML spatial out-of-
319 sample prediction (QML AOD-Spat), temporal out-of-sample prediction (QML AOD-Temp), CAMS AOD, MAIACAOD,
320 MERRA-2 AOD.

321 After splitting the data into two scenarios, it was observed that most products performed slightly worse in the Non-Sat scenario,
322 while QML consistently maintained better performance in both scenarios. Additional validation statistics for calendar months
323 (Fig S2) and days of the week (Fig S3) are provided in the Supplementary, which also show that the QML temporal and spatial
324 predictions outperform the estimates from reanalysis and satellite AOD. All products fit better with AERONET data in the warm
325 season (April-September), while it is more challenging to predict AOD in the cold season (October to March) due to cloud and
326 rain, which reduces the amount of sun photometer observations (GLOBE 2010; Holben et al., 2006). The reanalysis data,
327 particularly the CAMSRA AOD, are more likely to overestimate the AOD in the warm season and to underestimate it in the cold
328 season, while QML performance remains relatively constant among seasons. Regarding the weekly cycle, there are no significant



329 differences between the days of the week, possibly due to the relatively smaller influence of human activities on column-
330 integrated AOD.

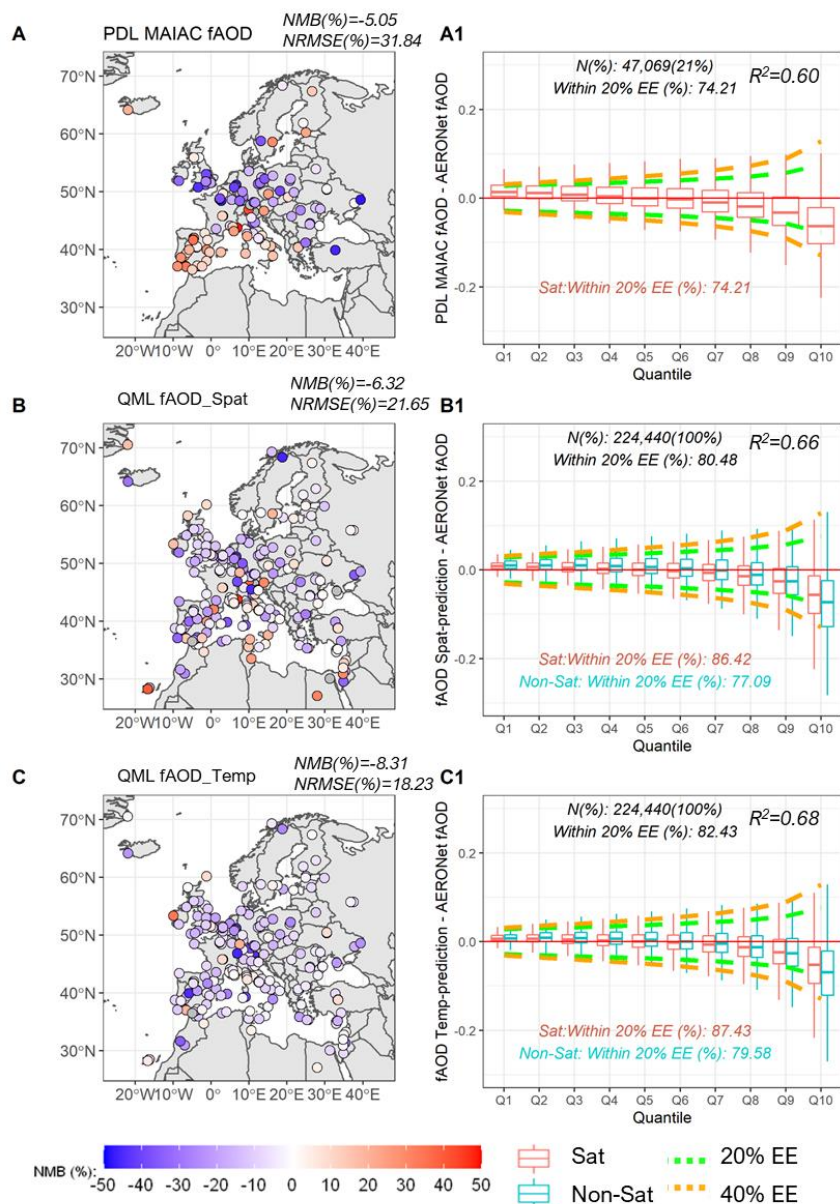
331

332 QML provides 90% prediction intervals (PI) as an estimation of the uncertainty of the predictions, and its performance is shown
333 in Table S4. The average coverage of the QML temporal and spatial PI is 84.2% and 83.5%, respectively, slightly lower than the
334 expected value of 90%. QML still faces some difficulty in predicting intervals for the first and last deciles, with only a coverage
335 of 55% in Q1 and 68% coverage in Q10. This indicates that the intervals are slightly underestimated by our quantile models.

336

337 3.2.2 Fine-mode AOD product

338 Figure 6 validates the QML and PDL fAOD products against the AERONET observations. Generally, QML fAOD does not
339 exhibit any spatial pattern in its NMB, but with some underestimates in certain locations. Additionally, its overall NRMSE is
340 lower than that of PDL fAOD. In contrast, PDL fAOD exhibits an uneven pattern in its predictions, with overestimates in
341 Southwest Europe and underestimates in Central and Eastern Europe. The main difference between these two areas is their fAOD
342 concentration, with generally lower fAOD in Southwest Europe and higher fAOD in Central and Eastern Europe (as seen in
343 Figure 3 (b)). Thus, it can be inferred that this uneven pattern results from the preference of PDL to overestimate small fAOD
344 values and underestimate high fAOD values (as seen in Figure 6 (a1)). However, Compared to PDL fAOD (Fig. 6 (a1-c1)), QML
345 fAOD narrows the bias, especially in smaller deciles (Q1-Q5), so that over 86% (spatial) and 87% (temporal) of the predictions
346 fall within 20% expected error (EE) in Sat scenarios. In Non-Sat scenarios, QML still maintains 77-79% of the predictions within
347 20% EE. The overall R-squared of QML reaches 0.66 (spatial) and 0.68 (temporal).



348

349 **Figure 6.** Spatial distribution maps of normalize mean bias (NMB) (a-c) and quantile box plots for for different quantiles of
 350 AERONet fAOD (a1-c1) in 2003-2020, including: Phy-DL Satellite fAOD (PDL MAIAC fAOD) (a-a1), QML spatial out-of-
 351 sample prediction (QML fAOD-Spat)(b-b1) and temporal out-of-sample prediction (QML fAOD-Temp) (c-c1). The N(%) is the
 352 sample size (proportion); 20% and 40% EE are expected error envelopes with $0.025 \pm 20\%$ observation and $0.025 \pm 40\%$
 353 observation. The upper, middle, and lower lines in each box are the 75th, median, and 25th percentiles, respectively.



354

355 **Figure 7.** The annual performance (R-squared, NMB, NRMSE) comparison between different data sources in the satellite
 356 scenario: QML spatial out-of-sample prediction (QML faOD Spat-Prediction), temporal out-of-sample prediction (QML faOD
 357 Temp-Prediction), Phy-DL Satellite faOD(PDL MAIAC faOD).

358 As the PDL faOD is only available in the satellite scenario, Figure 7 (left columns) compares the year-to-year performance
 359 between PDL and QML faOD in the Sat scenario. The R-squared values indicate that the performance of PDL faOD exhibits
 360 greater variability over time than QML, and the difference between the two products appears to increase slightly over years. The
 361 NMB (%) shows a strong underestimation of PDL faOD before 2008, partly because of its uneven spatial bias pattern during
 362 that early period (Fig 6A). Prior to 2008, more AERONET sites were located in western Europe (Fig. S4), where PDL faOD
 363 was underestimated. Afterward, more sites were set in areas in which the product tends to overestimate the predictions (e.g.,
 364 Southwest Europe), offsetting the bias and bringing the NMB of PDL faOD closer to 0 after 2008. The NRMSE results also
 365 suggest that PDL faOD has a larger error than QML faOD. In contrast, the QML predictions are generally better in terms of
 366 NRMSE, and errors remain stable over the years.

367

368 We note that the availability of PDL AOD in our dataset is lower than the satellite MAIAC AOD (21% VS 36%), because PDL
 369 FMF is not always available when satellite AOD is available. Figure S5 shows that the R-squared of QML faOD in the Non-Sat
 370 scenario is about 10% lower than its performance in the Sat scenario, and its NMB also indicates a stronger underestimation than
 371 in the Sat scenario.

372



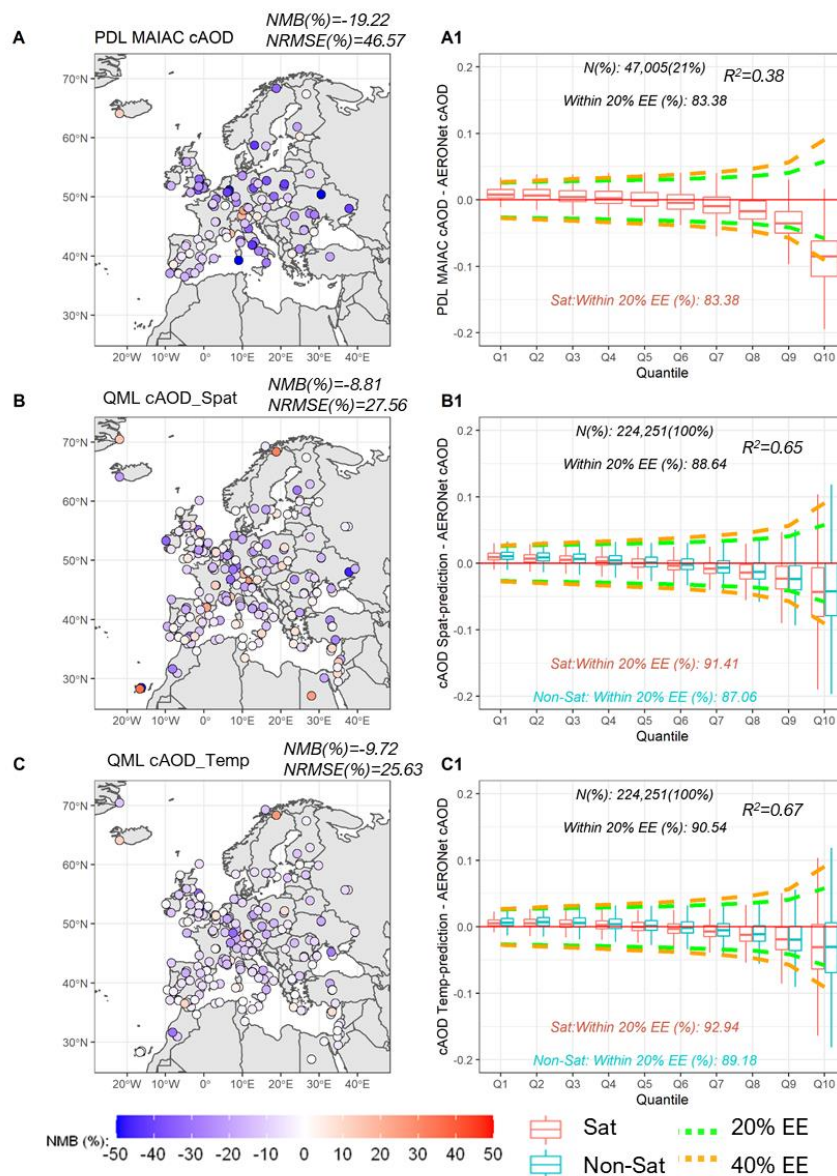
373 In the seasonal analysis (Fig. S6), all fAOD products show a similar pattern to total AOD, and perform better in summer. In the
374 Sat scenario, QML fAOD provides better and more stable performance than PDL fAOD. At the weekly level, there is no
375 difference in performance among different days of the week (Fig. S7). The performance of PI in QML is shown in Table S5,
376 with the average coverage for QML temporal and spatial PI at 83.3% and 84.4%, respectively, which is similar to the results of
377 total AOD.

378

379 **3.2.3 Coarse-mode AOD product**

380 Figure 8 shows the evaluation of QML and PDL cAOD products against AERONET observations. All cAOD products have
381 overall negative NMB, but the NMB of QML is around half that of PDL cAOD, due to the relatively strong underestimation of
382 PDL cAOD in some locations of Central Europe. The overall NRMSE in QML is also around 18-19% lower. Around 91%(spatial)
383 and 93%(temporal) QML predictions fall within the 20% EE in the Sat scenario (Fig.8 (a1-c1)), while 83% of the PDL predictions
384 are within the 20% EE. Moreover, the R-squared difference is larger, i.e. 0.65-0.67 in QML and 0.38 in PDL. For the non-sat
385 scenario, 87% (spatial) and 89%(temporal) of QML predictions fall within 20% EE, around 4% less than in the Sat scenario.

386



387

388 **Figure 8.** the spatial distribution maps of normalize mean bias (NMB) (a-c) and quantile box plots for for different quantiles of
 389 AERONet cAOD (a1-c1) in 2003-2020, including: Phy-DL Satellite cAOD(PDL MAIAC cAOD) (a-a1), our spatial out-of-
 390 sample prediction (QML cAOD Spat-Prediction) (b-b1) and temporal out-of-sample prediction (QML cAOD Temp-
 391 Prediction)(c-c1). The N(%) is the sample size (proportion); 20% and 40% EE are expected error envelopes with $0.025 \pm 20\%$
 392 observation and $0.025 \pm 40\%$ observation. The upper, middle, and lower lines in each box are the 75th, median, and 25th
 393 percentiles, respectively.

394

395 Figure 7 also shows the comparison of the year-to-year performance for between PDL cAOD and QML cAOD, when both of
 396 them are available. We can see the performance difference between QML cAOD and QML fAOD is smaller than the differences
 397 between PDL products. The R-squared of PDL cAOD is relatively lower and more volatile than PDL fAOD, while QML cAOD



398 maintains a similar performance as QML fAOD. And the PDL tends to underestimate cAOD to a lower extent over years, while
399 it exhibits stronger bias in its NRMSE. Since PDL cAOD is calculated by subtracting PDL fAOD from Satellite MAIAC AOD,
400 the large differences in performance between PDL fAOD and PDL cAOD suggest that the modelling of PDL FMF might rely
401 too heavily on the calibration of AERONet fAOD, while neglecting the contribution from cAOD data. We therefore conclude
402 that it is important to be cautious when using PDL FMF to extract cAOD values, while the QML appears to resolve this potential
403 bias in cAOD prediction.

404

405 The result of the non-satellite and all scenarios of QML cAOD is displayed in Figure S8. This figure shows that the difference
406 in the performance between the Non-sat and sat scenarios is smaller compared with QML fAOD. The reason of these more
407 accurate predictions for QML cAOD in the Non-sat scenario is that, compared with fAOD, the cAOD is more influenced by
408 larger-scale sources (e.g., dust storms or sea salt advection), which means that their spatial distribution is generally more
409 homogeneous. Thus, it is easier to predict even when satellite information is absent, while fine aerosols come from various
410 anthropogenic sources.

411

412 When the analysis is performed by month, the QML cAOD product consistently outperforms the PDL cAOD, while the latter
413 exhibits larger variability across months (Figure S9 and S10). The performance of PI in QML can be found in Table S6, and the
414 average coverage of the QML temporal and spatial PI is 81.8% and 79.2%, respectively.

415

416 3.3 Correlation between AOD products and particulate matter components

417 After this in-depth validation of the three AOD products, we here investigate the Spearman correlation between AOD, fAOD
418 and cAOD with PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀ and PM_{coarse}, to explore the potential optimal indicator for surface PMs. To ensure comparability
419 of analyses, we only computed the correlation for locations with at least 100 AOD-PM data pairs.

420

421 Figure 9 displays the fishnet maps of SCC between ground-level PM_{2.5} and different AOD products. The fishnet maps show the
422 mean correlation for stations over a 0.1°x0.1° grid, given that the network of over 2,600 PM_{2.5} sites are too dense to
423 show in a point map. We excluded cAOD results from these comparison maps because the resulting correlations were not
424 statistically significant (Table S7). Among the other AOD products, the strongest correlation with daily ground-level PM_{2.5} was
425 found in QML fAOD (0.45) and QML AOD (0.40), followed by PDL fAOD (0.29), MERRA-2 (0.18), MAIAC (0.17), and
426 CAMSRA AOD (0.10). The correlation between PM_{2.5} and PDL fAOD is higher than with MAIAC AOD, which is consistent
427 with previous research. Furthermore, QML fAOD performs better than QML AOD, indicating that the fine-mode component of
428 AOD may be a better proxy for PM_{2.5} (Lin et al., 2019; Zang et al., 2021; Yan et al., 2017). Both QML AOD and QML fAOD
429 have a stronger correlation with PM_{2.5} than PDL fAOD, while they exhibit lower NRMSE to AERONet data (21.65 (QML
430 fAOD), 21.25 (QML AOD), and 31.84 (PDL fAOD)). Regarding the spatial pattern, the strongest correlations with PM_{2.5} across
431 most products are found in Western Europe. One possible explanation for this phenomenon is that the aerosol in Western Europe
432 has a higher proportion of anthropogenic aerosol sources. These sources are more likely to be concentrated in lower atmosphere or
433 in smaller areas, such as urban centres, which may contribute to the stronger relationship between AOD and PM observed in this
434 region.

435

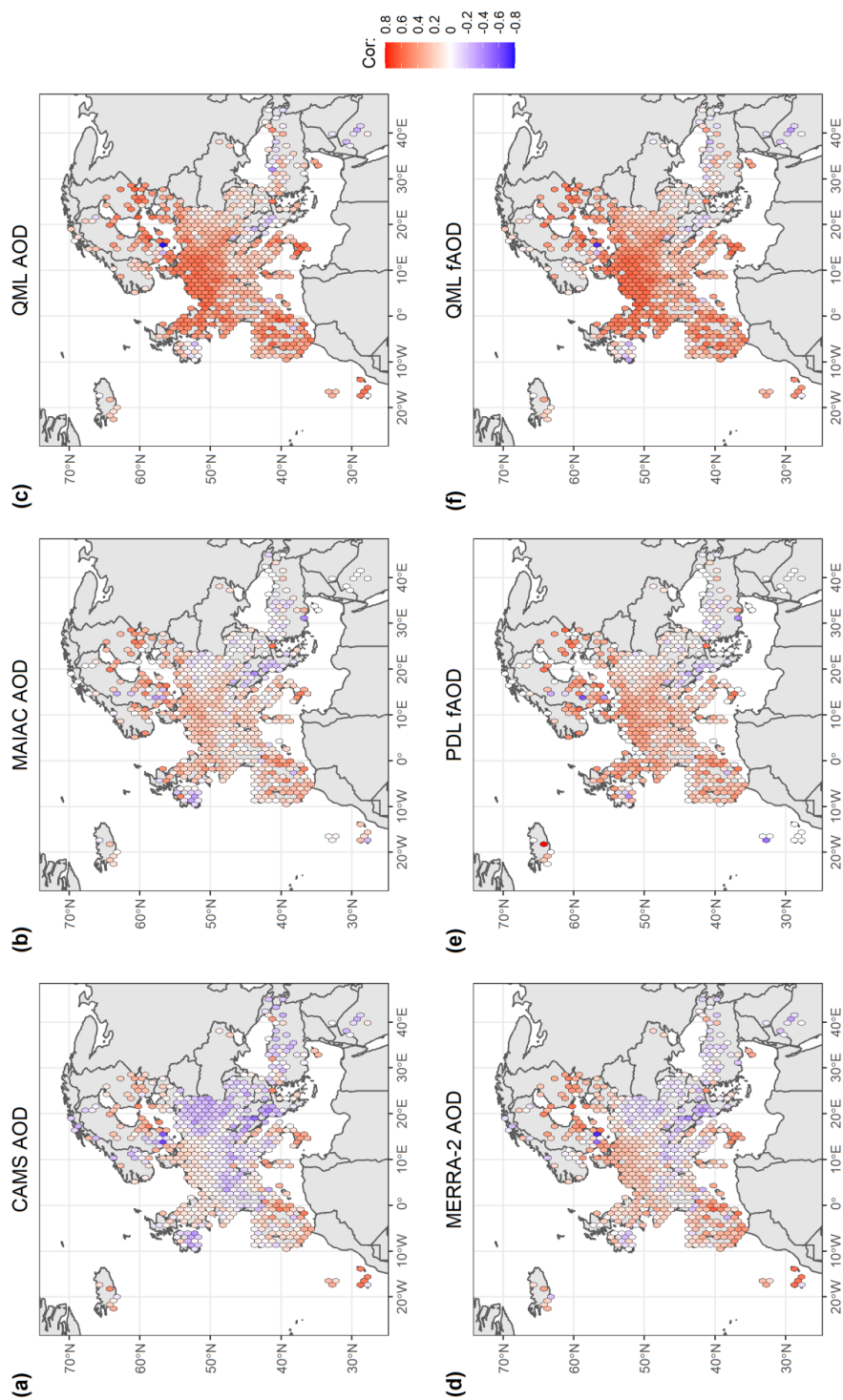
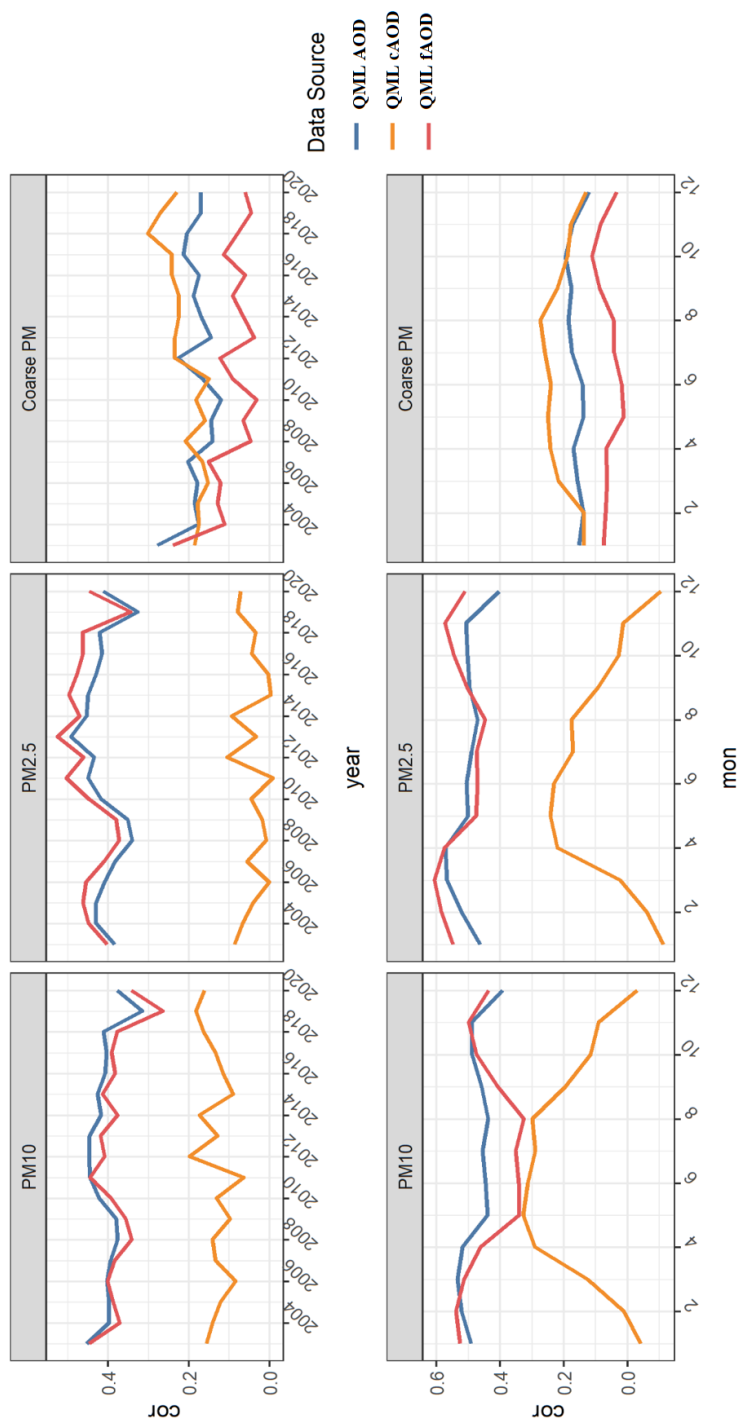


Figure 9. Spearman correlation fishnet maps between PM2.5 and different AOD products: CAMS AOD (a), MAIAC AOD(b), QML total AOD predictions (QML AOD) (c), MERRA-2 AOD (d), Phy-DL Satellite FAOD (PDL FAOD) (e) and QML fine-mode AOD predictions (QML FAOD)(f).



442 **Figure 10.** Spearman correlation between PM10, PM2.5, PMcoarse and three AOD products: QML AOD, QML cAOD and QML fAOD.



443 The correlation analysis with PM10 and PMcoarse is additionally shown in Fig. S11 and Fig. S12, respectively. The spatial
444 pattern of the correlations with PM10 is similar to the one obtained with PM2.5, but the SCC between PM10 and QML AOD is
445 higher than the one with QML fAOD, around 0.41 and 0.37, respectively. For the Coarse PM, the correlation with QML cAOD
446 is the strongest, reaching 0.26, especially in the southern Europe.

447

448 As the correlation with different sizes of PM is consistently higher in QML products (Table S7), we explored the relationship
449 between three QML AOD components and different-size PMs. Figure 10 presents the correlation analysis among QML AOD
450 products, PM10, PM2.5, and PMcoarse in locations with at least 100 AOD-PM pairs during 2003-2020. The correlation in
451 different years suggests that AOD, fAOD and cAOD are the best candidates for PM10, PM2.5 and Coarse PM prediction,
452 respectively.

453

454 The correlation of QML fAOD with PM2.5 and PM10 is always highest in winter and lowest in summer (Fig. 10, second rows).
455 In contrast, the correlation of cAOD with PM2.5 and PM10 shows the opposite seasonal pattern: weaker or even negative in
456 winter, but stronger in spring and summer. In winter, the proportion of suspended fine particles increases due to more energy
457 consumption, such as domestic heating (Martins and da Graça, 2017). At the same time, the cAOD in winter is more contributed
458 by sea-salt aerosols in Europe (Zhao et al., 2018), with the help of the windy season under low pressure systems over the Atlantic
459 Ocean (Manders et al., 2009). Thus, we can observe the non-significant or even negative correlation between cAOD and PM2.5
460 in the winter. In spring and summer, when the Saharan dust transport is active (Meloni et al., 2008; Prospero et al., 2014), the
461 cAOD starts to have significant correlation with all particulate matter fractions, especially with the coarse. This also reduces the
462 contribution of fAOD to PMs in summer, especially to PM10.

463

464 As AOD, fAOD and cAOD are the best potential candidates for the prediction of PM10, PM2.5 and Coarse PM, respectively,
465 we further compare QML products with other products in AOD, fAOD and cAOD (Fig. S13). Among all types of AOD products,
466 the QML products always provide better indicators for ground-level particulate matter.

467

468 3.4 Spatial distribution and trend analysis for QML AOD products

469 In this section, we compared the spatial distribution of 18-year average maps from different data sources (Fig. 11) and their
470 trends over the study period (Fig. 12 and Fig. S14). The 18-year average of reanalysis products and QML products generally
471 have a similar spatial pattern at 0.1-degree resolution (Fig. 11), and show good agreement with the long-term average of
472 AERONET data. The Pearson correlation with AERONET data for the 18-year averages are: 0.89 (QML AOD), 0.85 (MERRA-
473 2), and 0.79 (CAMSR). Also, the 18-year averages of QML fAOD and cAOD are highly correlated with corresponding
474 AERONET data ($R=0.91$ and 0.93). The uncertainty of QML products is shown as the relative predictive intervals width (RPIW,
475 the ratio of 90% predictive intervals width and corresponding estimates) in Figure S15.

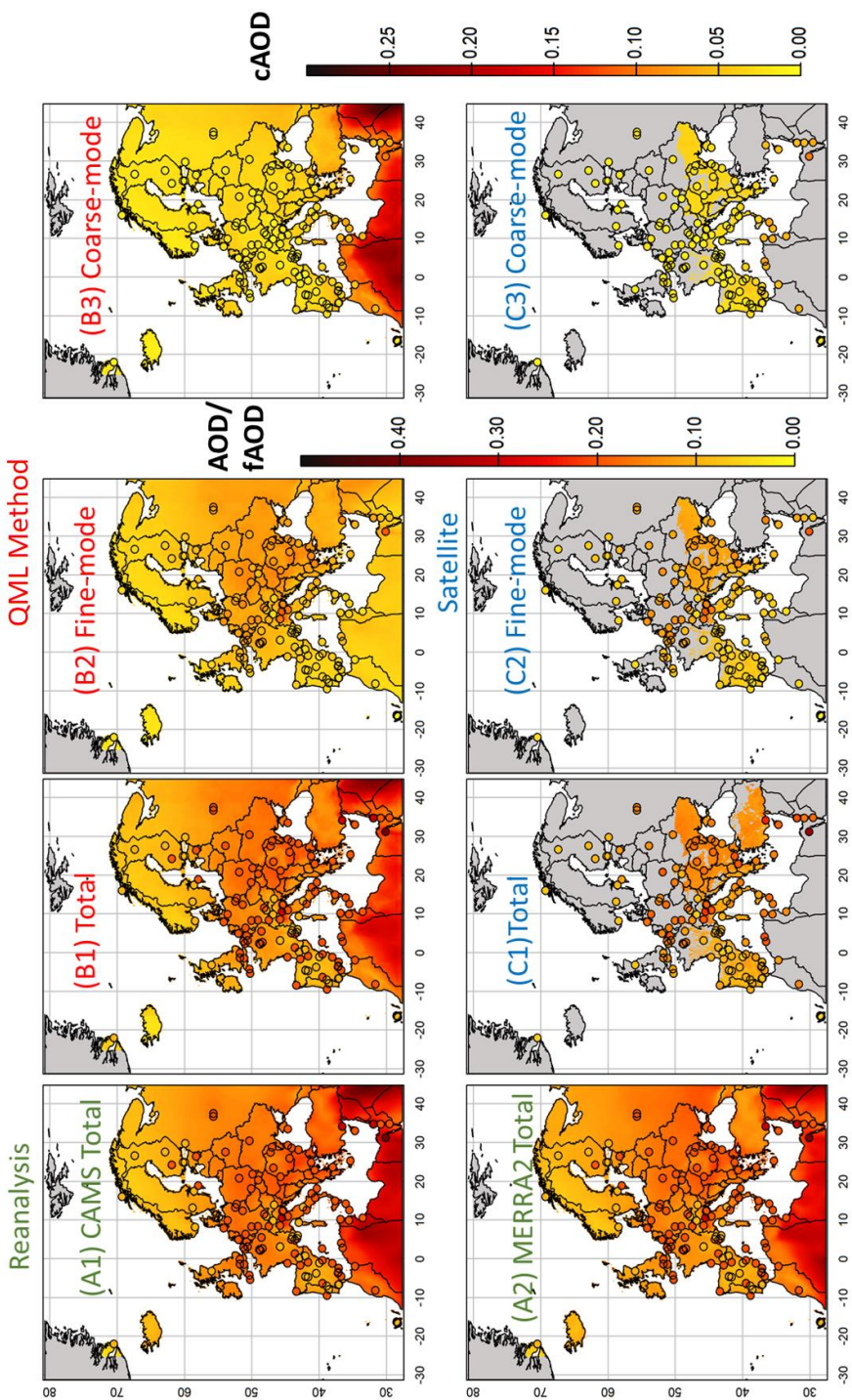
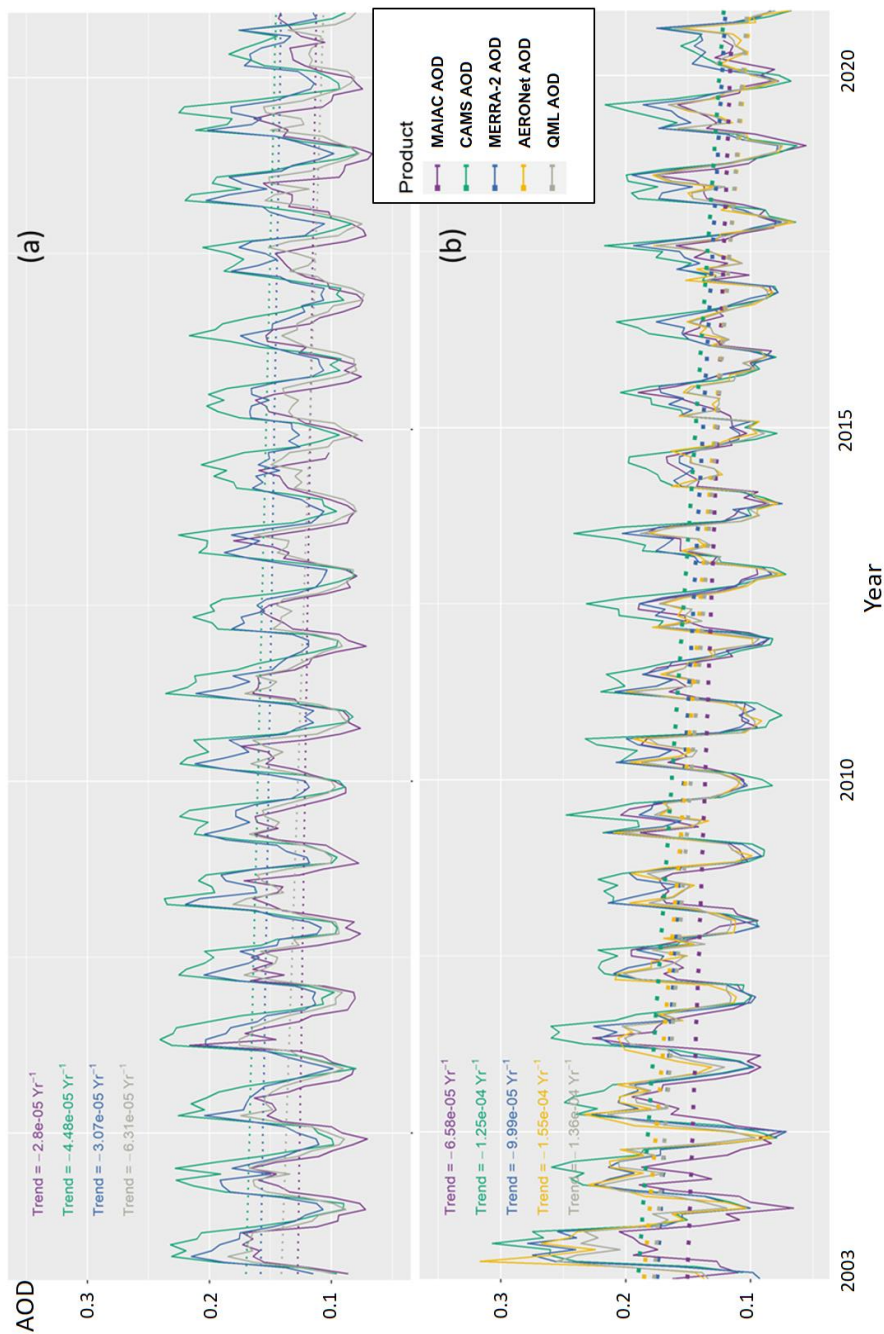


Figure 11. 18-year averages of Reanalysis AOD (CAMS and MERRA-2) (A1-A2), QML product (AOD, fAOD and cAOD) (B1-B3), Satellite AOD(MAIAC AOD, PDL fAOD and PDL cAOD) (C1-C3). The satellite plots only show values with more than 30% of available data due to large ratios of missing values. Points represent the AOD values observed in AERONET.



483 **Figure 12.** Monthly time series of AOD averaged over the whole domain (a) and in those 46 AERONet sites with more than 10 years of data (b)



484

485 For the spatial pattern for aerosol, the high values of total QML AOD are mainly located in central and eastern Europe, the
486 Mediterranean and Northern Africa. However, the composition of these high-value AOD are different. For example, the high
487 fAOD are mainly located in inland areas of Europe, like the middle and eastern part of Europe (especially Northern Italy,
488 Southern Poland, Hungary, Serbia, Romania and Bulgaria). Meanwhile, the cAOD are mainly affecting Northern Africa, the
489 Mediterranean and some coastal areas in Europe. This composition pattern is consistent with the general pattern in AERONET
490 data, but gives more details in each exact location due to the extended coverage of the product. As the fAOD and cAOD mainly
491 come from different sources (anthropogenic vs dust/sea-salt sources) (Zhao et al., 2018; Seinfeld and Pandis, 1998; Yan et al.,
492 2022; Bellouin et al., 2005), the AOD in middle and eastern of Europe are more contributed by anthropogenic small-size aerosol,
493 while Mediterranean areas and Northern Africa are more impacted by Saharan dust.

494

495 Figure S14 shows the 18-year trend maps of QML (AOD, fAOD and cAOD), Satellite (MAIAC AOD, PDL fAOD and PDL
496 cAOD) and Reanalysis (CAMSR and MERRA-2) products. To guarantee the robustness while calculating the annual trend,
497 we subset 46 AERONET sites (points in Fig. s14), with more than 10 years of data and at least 50 daily observations per year.
498 Generally, QML and CAMSR have a good agreement with these 46 AERONET sites. All the total AOD products show
499 decreasing trends in Europe. Both total AOD and fAOD have stronger decreasing trends in central and Southeast Europe, while
500 the trend of the QML cAOD is not significant in most areas of Europe. As the fAOD is discriminates to some extent
501 anthropogenic aerosols (Bellouin et al., 2005), these trend results support previous findings (Crippa et al., 2016) in that the
502 decreasing aerosol emission in Europe are mainly driven by reduced anthropogenic emission (e.g., transportation and industrial
503 emission).

504

505 Figure 12(a) shows the monthly time-series plot of different AOD products in the Pan European domain. The four products show
506 similar monthly cycles: the values are higher in summer/spring, and lower in winter/autumns. The seasonal patterns are consistent
507 with previous findings (Chen et al., 2019a; Zhao et al., 2018). In summer, more secondary aerosols are formed under higher
508 insolation and temperature (Kulmala et al., 2014). Meanwhile, the more abundant water vapor in summer boosts the hygroscopic
509 growth of aerosols (Zheng et al., 2017). Even though the seasonal pattern is similar in all products, reanalysis data (CAMSR
510 and MERRA-2) generally provide higher values in summer than others, and MERRA-2 values in winter are also higher.

511

512 To further confirm which estimation is closer to the ground-truth, Figure 12(b) further compares different products in those 46
513 AERONET sites. Compared with the whole domain (Fig. 12(a)), these 46-site data generally have a stronger decrease trend (Fig.
514 12(b)), because many of them are located in areas with steeper decreases (Fig s14), like central or western Europe. To evaluate
515 the trend consistency, we also calculate the absolute log ratio between the trend of each product and AERONET data, as the
516 Trend Inconsistency index (TI) (see more details in Table S3). If two trends are perfectly consistent, TI will be zero. Otherwise,
517 it will be far away from zero. The QML product keeps the better agreement with AERONET data (TI = 0.13), and the values
518 also fit closer to the ground-truth. The slope of CAMSR is also close to the AERONET one (TI=0.22), but with a higher
519 intercept, due to its overestimation in summer. Lastly, the satellite and MERRA-2 AOD generally underestimate the decreasing
520 trend (TI= 0.44 and 0.86), but in a different way. The satellite mainly underestimates the AOD values before 2015, while
521 MERRA-2 overestimates in summer after 2015.

522

523 Lastly, we also plotted the trend of fAOD and cAOD grid data in Europe (Figure S16). The seasonal cycles and annual trends of
524 fAOD are similar to those of AOD, which indicates that the variation and trends of AOD in Europe are mainly dominated by
525 fAOD. The cAOD a relatively flat annual trend, and always peaks in spring and early summer (from April to June), consistent
526 with Saharan dust events in Europe being more frequent in spring and summer (Papayannis et al., 2008)



527 **3.5 Summary of evaluation of the AOD products**

528 To summarize the strength and weakness among different AOD products, Figure 13 summarizes the results in eight dimensions:
529 Accuracy, Stability, Percentage (%) of bias within 20% EE, Correlation with corresponding PMs, TI index, Coverage, Resolution
530 and Product Period. We only compared results in the common period 2003-2020 among different products.

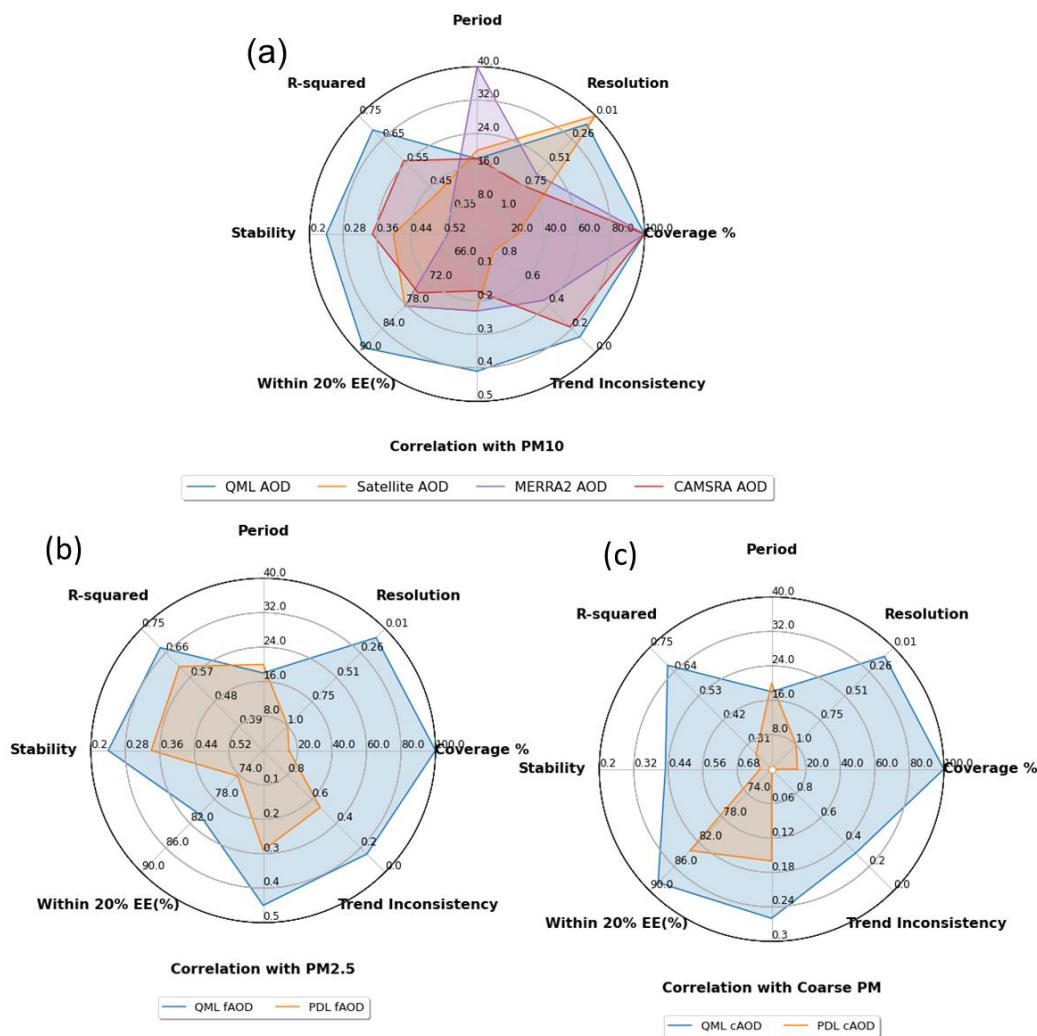
531

532 For AOD, QMLproduct performs the best in these dimensions: it shows higher accuracy (R^2 : 0.69 (QML AOD) vs 0.36-0.56
533 (others)) and stability (variation coefficients of R^2 : 0.24 (QML AOD) vs 0.35-0.53 (others)), and it is a better indicator of ground-
534 level PM10 (Correlation with PM10: 0.41(QML AOD) VS 0.17-0.23(others)).

535

536 We also found out that the higher correlation with AERONET AOD is generally linked to a higher correlation with PMs, but not
537 always. For example, the CAMSRA is well fitted with AERONET AOD, but its correlation with PM10 is the lowest among the
538 four products. Some potential factors could explain this behaviour. First, the location of ground-level PM observations generally
539 does not coincide with the AERONET sites, and their distribution is denser and covers more areas in our domain. Therefore,
540 some unknown biases or factors from CAMSRA in those locations outside the AERONET sites may worsen the AOD-PM
541 relationship. Second, PM measurements are also more frequent (almost every day), while AERONET data are only available
542 with clear sky condition. Thus, the performance of CAMSRA in those days without AERONET data is unknown. Therefore,
543 some unknown biases or factors from CAMSRA in cloudy days may also additionally deteriorate the AOD-PM relationships.

544



545

546 **Figure 13.** Radar plot for three different AOD product (AOD (a), faOD (b) and cAOD (c)) with different data sources: The
 547 QML method (blue); Satellite MAIAC (faOD and cAOD based on PDL method) (orange); MERRA-2 (green); CAMSRA (red).
 548 The eight dimensions in radar plot: Accuracy (Spatial CV R^2 for our methods or R^2 for other products); Stability (the variation
 549 coefficients of Spatial CV R^2 for our methods or R^2 for other products among different locations); the percentage (%) of bias
 550 within 20% EE; Correlation with corresponding PMs; Trend Inconsistency (TI, formula listed in Table S3); Coverage (the overall
 551 spatial coverage); Resolution (degree of resolution); Period (the data provided years).

552

553 As for the trend comparison, the satellite MAIAC AOD is least consistent with AERONet AOD, suggesting that the missing
 554 values in MAIAC AOD affects the analysis of aerosol trend. Additionally, the satellite AOD is the only product that cannot
 555 provide full temporal coverage, with only 24.21% coverage. Among these products, MERRA-2 provide the longest records (i.e.,
 556 from 1980), while our data period starts from 2003, limited by the CAMSRA input.

557

558 Figure 13 (b) shows that the QML faOD outperforming the PDL faOD in most dimensions. The QML faOD product is more
 559 accurate, stable and highly correlated with PM2.5 compared with PDL. QML also improves some shortcomings of PDL by



560 improving the spatial coverage of data from 14.96% to 100%, and increases the resolution from 1 degree to 0.1 degree. As for
561 the trend comparison, the QML fAOD is more consistent with AERONET data, partly because of the better coverage of the
562 product.

563

564 QML greatly improves the performance for cAOD (Figure 1(c)): more accurate, robust performance and more highly correlated
565 with Coarse PM. In the trend comparison, the QML cAOD agrees well with AERONET data, while PDL cAOD shows the
566 opposite trend against AERONET data (its value of TI is infinite). Thus, the QML cAOD provides a better tool for coarse aerosol
567 time series analysis, and its full coverage and higher resolution makes it possible to better estimate Coarse PM in the future.

568 **5. Conclusion**

569 Europe is the one of regions with the poorest association between satellite AOD and ambient PM_{2.5} (Christopher and Gupta,
570 2020). It is a great challenge to obtain suitable aerosol products to estimate PMs in Europe. However, existing aerosol products
571 generally cannot provide full-coverage and reliable particles-size fraction information in high resolution. Therefore, this study
572 generated a new 18-years aerosol product (AOD, fAOD and cAOD) at 0.1 degree, to better understand the European different
573 particles-size AOD's distribution. These three products also provide the better indicator for PM₁₀, PM_{2.5} and Coarse PM,
574 respectively.

575

576 The out-of-sample validation of the QML AOD, fAOD and cAOD are extensively evaluated in the spatial and temporal
577 dimensions. Compared with other products, their NRMSE is 21%-55% lower, reaching 21.25, 21.65 and 27.56 %, respectively.
578 Their R^2 is 11-132% higher than that of other products, reaching 0.68, 0.66 and 0.65. Over 88.8, 80.5 and 88.6 % of biases
579 respectively fall within a ± 20 % EE envelope. In correlation exploratory analysis, we found that the QML fAOD products fixed
580 the problem of the poor association with PM_{2.5}, by providing higher quality and coverage predictions. The spearman correlation
581 almost doubles from 0.10-0.29 to 0.45. We also found that different-size PMs may be better predicted with different AOD
582 fractions, instead of using total AOD. For example, the QML AOD and cAOD are better indicators of PM₁₀ and Coarse PM,
583 than other AOD products.

584

585 This new aerosol dataset and models not only avoid some shortcomings (e.g., lower coverage, discontinuous time) and biases,
586 caused by missing satellite aerosol information, but also meet the urgent need of reliable fine-mode and coarse-mode AOD data
587 to better estimate surface-level PMs. Thereby, it is a useful tool to monitor or to analyse the fine-mode and coarse-mode aerosols
588 in the spatial and temporal scales, and to further investigate their impacts on human health, the environment and the climate.

589 **6. Data availability**

590

591 The pan-European high-resolution aerosol optical depth (AOD) daily estimations and its fraction products developed by this
592 study is available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7756570> (Chen et al., 2023). The QML AOD data are in the Geotiff format
593 on a daily scale.

594

595 **7. Contributions**

596

597 In this project, ZC, HP, CP, and JB conceptualized and acquired funding, while ZC and RM collected and processed the data.
598 ZC, HP, CP and JB contributed to the methodology. ZC and JB prepared the initial draft of the paper. ZC, HP, AL, CP and JB
599 contributed to the writing, review and editing. The research activity was supervised by HP, CP, and JB.



600

601 **8. Competing interests**

602 The contact author has declared that neither they nor their co-authors have any competing interests.

603

604 **9. Acknowledgements**

605

606 The authors gratefully acknowledge the European Centre for Medium Range Weather Forecasts, MERRA-2, ERA-5 and
607 AERONET teams for their effort in making the data available.

608

609 **10. Financial support**

610 In this initial version of the geodatabase, the authors from ISGlobal would like to express their gratitude for the support they
611 received from various organizations. The Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation's "Centro de Excelencia Severo Ochoa
612 2019-2023" Program (CEX2018-000806-S-20-1), the Ministry of Research and Universities of the Government of Catalonia
613 (2021 SGR 01563), and the Generalitat de Catalunya through the CERCA Program all provided support. CP acknowledge
614 funding from the AXA Research Fund through the AXA Chair on Sand and Dust Storms at BSC and H2020 ACTRIS IMP
615 (#871115). HP has received funding from the Ramon y Cajal grant (RYC2021-034511-I) and the European Union's
616 NextGeneration EU/PRTR (PID2020-116324RA695). JB gratefully acknowledges funding from the European Union's Horizon
617 2020 and Horizon Europe research and innovation programs under grant agreements No 865564 (European Research Council
618 Consolidator Grant EARLY-ADAPT) and 101069213 (European Research Council Proof-of-Concept HHS-EWS), as well as
619 from the Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation under grant agreement No RYC2018-025446-I (programme Ramón y
620 Cajal).

621 **Reference**

- 622 Bellouin, N., Boucher, O., Haywood, J., and Reddy, M. S.: Global estimate of aerosol direct radiative forcing from satellite
623 measurements, *Nature*, 438, 1138–1141, <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature04348>, 2005.
- 624 Bouttier, F.: Fine scale versus large scale data assimilation—A discussion, in: Fifth WMO Symposium on Data Assimilation, 8,
625 2009.
- 626 Bozzo, A., Remy, S., Benedetti, A., Flemming, J., Bechtold, P., Rodwell, M. J., and Morcrette, J.-J.: Implementation of a CAMS-
627 based aerosol climatology in the IFS, European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts Reading, UK, 2017.
- 628 Bright, J. M. and Gueymard, C. A.: Climate-specific and global validation of MODIS Aqua and Terra aerosol optical depth at
629 452 AERONET stations, *Sol. Energy*, 183, 594–605, 2019.
- 630 Che, H., Gui, K., Xia, X., Wang, Y., Holben, B. N., Goloub, P., Cuevas-Agulló, E., Wang, H., Zheng, Y., and Zhao, H.: Large
631 contribution of meteorological factors to inter-decadal changes in regional aerosol optical depth, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 19,
632 10497–10523, 2019.
- 633 Chen, zhaoyue, Méndez, R., Petetin, H., Lacima, A., García-Pando, C. P., and Ballester, J.: A Pan-European, Quantile Machine
634 learning (QML) based, Total, Fine-Mode and Coarse-Mode Aerosol Optical Depth dataset (QML AOD)),
635 <https://doi.org/10.5281/ZENODO.7756570>, 2023.
- 636 Chen, X., de Leeuw, G., Arola, A., Liu, S., Liu, Y., Li, Z., and Zhang, K.: Joint retrieval of the aerosol fine mode fraction and
637 optical depth using MODIS spectral reflectance over northern and eastern China: Artificial neural network method, *Remote Sens.*
638 *Environ.*, 249, 112006, 2020.
- 639 Chen, Y., Zhao, C., and Ming, Y.: Potential impacts of Arctic warming on Northern Hemisphere mid-latitude aerosol optical
640 depth, *Clim. Dyn.*, 53, 1637–1651, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-019-04706-3>, 2019a.



- 641 Chen, Z.-Y., Zhang, T.-H., Zhang, R., Zhu, Z.-M., Yang, J., Chen, P.-Y., Ou, C.-Q., and Guo, Y.: Extreme gradient boosting
642 model to estimate PM_{2.5} concentrations with missing-filled satellite data in China, *Atmos. Environ.*,
643 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2019.01.027>, 2019b.
- 644 Christopher, S. and Gupta, P.: Global distribution of column satellite aerosol optical depth to surface PM_{2.5} relationships,
645 *Remote Sens.*, 12, 1–13, <https://doi.org/10.3390/rs12121985>, 2020.
- 646 Crippa, M., Janssens-Maenhout, G., Dentener, F., Guizzardi, D., Sindelarova, K., Muntean, M., Van Dingenen, R., and Granier,
647 C.: Forty years of improvements in European air quality: Regional policy-industry interactions with global impacts, *Atmos.*
648 *Chem. Phys.*, 16, 3825–3841, <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-16-3825-2016>, 2016.
- 649 Degenhardt, F., Seifert, S., and Szymczak, S.: Evaluation of variable selection methods for random forests and omics data sets,
650 *Brief. Bioinform.*, 20, 492–503, 2019.
- 651 Duarte, R. M. B. O. and Duarte, A. C.: *Urban Atmospheric Aerosols: Sources, Analysis, and Effects*, 2020.
- 652 Dubovik, O., Li, Z., Mishchenko, M. I., Tanré, D., Karol, Y., Bojkov, B., Cairns, B., Diner, D. J., Espinosa, W. R., and Goloub,
653 P.: Polarimetric remote sensing of atmospheric aerosols: Instruments, methodologies, results, and perspectives, *J. Quant.*
654 *Spectrosc. Radiat. Transf.*, 224, 474–511, 2019.
- 655 European Environment Agency: Health impacts of air pollution in Europe, 2021, 19/2021., <https://doi.org/10.2800/08097>, 2021.
- 656 Ferrero, L., Riccio, A., Ferrini, B. S., D'Angelo, L., Rovelli, G., Casati, M., Angelini, F., Barnaba, F., Gobbi, G. P., and Cataldi,
657 M.: Satellite AOD conversion into ground PM₁₀, PM_{2.5} and PM₁ over the Po valley (Milan, Italy) exploiting information on
658 aerosol vertical profiles, chemistry, hygroscopicity and meteorology, *Atmos. Pollut. Res.*, 10, 1895–1912, 2019.
- 659 Flemming, J., Huijnen, V., Arteta, J., Bechtold, P., Beljaars, A., Blechschmidt, A.-M., Diamantakis, M., Engelen, R. J., Gaudel,
660 A., and Inness, A.: Tropospheric chemistry in the Integrated Forecasting System of ECMWF, *Geosci. Model Dev.*, 8, 975–1003,
661 2015.
- 662 Summary of Aerosols Protocol: https://instesre.org/Aerosols/Aerosols_HTML.htm.
- 663 Griffin, R. J.: The sources and impacts of tropospheric particulate matter, *Nat. Educ. Knowl.*, 4, 1, 2013.
- 664 Grönholm, T., Launiainen, S., Ahlm, L., Mårtensson, E. M., Kulmala, M., Vesala, T., and Nilsson, E. D.: Aerosol particle dry
665 deposition to canopy and forest floor measured by two-layer eddy covariance system, *J. Geophys. Res. Atmos.*, 114, 2009.
- 666 Gueymard, C. A. and Yang, D.: Worldwide validation of CAMS and MERRA-2 reanalysis aerosol optical depth products using
667 15 years of AERONET observations, *Atmos. Environ.*, 225, 117216, 2020.
- 668 Gui, K., Che, H., Wang, Y., Wang, H., Zhang, L., Zhao, H., Zheng, Y., Sun, T., and Zhang, X.: Satellite-derived PM_{2.5}
669 concentration trends over Eastern China from 1998 to 2016: Relationships to emissions and meteorological parameters, *Environ.*
670 *Pollut.*, 247, 1125–1133, 2019.
- 671 Gupta, P., Levy, R. C., Mattoo, S., Remer, L. A., and Munchak, L. A.: A surface reflectance scheme for retrieving aerosol optical
672 depth over urban surfaces in MODIS Dark Target retrieval algorithm, *Atmos. Meas. Tech.*, 9, 3293–3308, 2016.
- 673 Gupta, P., Remer, L. A., Patadia, F., Levy, R. C., and Christopher, S. A.: High-resolution gridded level 3 aerosol optical depth
674 data from MODIS, *Remote Sens.*, 12, 2847, 2020.
- 675 He, Q., Wang, M., Hung, S., and Yim, L.: The spatiotemporal relationship between PM_{2.5} and AOD in China: Influencing
676 factors and Implications for satellite PM_{2.5} estimations by MAIAC AOD, 2021.
- 677 Holben, B. N., Eck, T. F., Slutsker, I., Smirnov, A., Sinyuk, A., Schafer, J., Giles, D., and Dubovik, O.: AERONET's version
678 2.0 quality assurance criteria, in: *Remote Sensing of the Atmosphere and Clouds*, 64080Q, 2006.
- 679 Huang, C. W., Lin, M. Y., Khlystov, A., and Katul, G. G.: The effects of leaf size and microroughness on the branch-scale
680 collection efficiency of ultrafine particles, *J. Geophys. Res. Atmos.*, 120, 3370–3385, 2015.
- 681 Huang, L., Liu, S., Yang, Z., King, J., Zhang, J., Bian, J., Li, S., Sahu, S. K., Wang, S., and Liu, T.-Y.: Exploring deep learning
682 for air pollutant emission estimation, *Geosci. Model Dev.*, 14, 4641–4654, 2021.
- 683 Huang, Y., Chameides, W. L., and Dickinson, R. E.: Direct and indirect effects of anthropogenic aerosols on regional



- 684 precipitation over east Asia, *J. Geophys. Res. Atmos.*, 112, 2007.
- 685 Inness, A., Ades, M., Agustí-Panareda, A., Barré, J., Benedictow, A., Blechschmidt, A.-M., Dominguez, J. J., Engelen, R., Eskes,
686 H., and Flemming, J.: The CAMS reanalysis of atmospheric composition, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 19, 3515–3556, 2019.
- 687 Institute for Health Metrics: State of Global Air 2020. Special Report, 2020.
- 688 Kahn, R. A., Nelson, D. L., Garay, M. J., Levy, R. C., Bull, M. A., Diner, D. J., Martonchik, J. V., Paradise, S. R., Hansen, E. G.,
689 and Remer, L. A.: MISR aerosol product attributes and statistical comparisons with MODIS, *IEEE Trans. Geosci. Remote Sens.*,
690 47, 4095–4114, <https://doi.org/10.1109/TGRS.2009.2023115>, 2009.
- 691 Ke, G., Meng, Q., Finley, T., Wang, T., Chen, W., Ma, W., Ye, Q., and Liu, T.-Y.: Lightgbm: A highly efficient gradient boosting
692 decision tree, *Adv. Neural Inf. Process. Syst.*, 30, 2017.
- 693 Kulmala, M., Aurela, M., Carbone, S., Saarnio, K., Frey, A., Saarikoski, S., Teinilä, K., and Hillamo, R.: Seasonal and diurnal
694 changes in inorganic ions, carbonaceous matter and mass in ambient aerosol particles in an urban, background area, *Boreal*
695 *Environ. Res.*, 19, 71–86, 2014.
- 696 Kursá, M. B. and Rudnicki, W. R.: Feature selection with the Boruta package, *J. Stat. Softw.*, 36, 1–13, 2010.
- 697 Levy, R. C., Remer, L. A., Kleidman, R. G., Mattoo, S., Ichoku, C., Kahn, R., and Eck, T. F.: Global evaluation of the Collection
698 5 MODIS dark-target aerosol products over land, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 10, 10399–10420, 2010.
- 699 Levy, R. C., Mattoo, S., Munchak, L. A., Remer, L. A., Sayer, A. M., Patadia, F., and Hsu, N. C.: The Collection 6 MODIS
700 aerosol products over land and ocean, *Atmos. Meas. Tech.*, 6, 2989–3034, <https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-6-2989-2013>, 2013.
- 701 Lin, C., Lau, A. K. H., Fung, J. C. H., Lao, X. Q., Li, Y., and Li, C.: Assessing the effect of the long-term variations in aerosol
702 characteristics on satellite remote sensing of PM_{2.5} using an observation-based model, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 53, 2990–3000,
703 2019.
- 704 Lin, X., Chamecki, M., Katul, G., and Yu, X.: Effects of leaf area index and density on ultrafine particle deposition onto forest
705 canopies: A LES study, *Atmos. Environ.*, 189, 153–163, 2018.
- 706 Lyapustin, A., Wang, Y., Laszlo, I., Kahn, R., Korkin, S., Remer, L., Levy, R., and Reid, J. .: Multiangle implementation of
707 atmospheric correction (MAIAC): 2. Aerosol algorithm, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 2011.
- 708 Lyapustin, A., Wang, Y., Korkin, S., and Huang, D.: MODIS Collection 6 MAIAC algorithm., *Atmos. Meas. Tech.*, 11, 2018.
- 709 Maag, B., Zhou, Z., and Thiele, L.: A survey on sensor calibration in air pollution monitoring deployments, *IEEE Internet Things*
710 *J.*, 5, 4857–4870, 2018.
- 711 Manders, A. M. M., Schaap, M., Jozwicka, M., Van Arkel, F., Weijers, E. P., and Matthijsen, J.: The contribution of sea salt to
712 PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} in the Netherlands, *BOP Rep.*, 500099004, 2009.
- 713 Martins, N. R. and da Graça, G. C.: Simulation of the effect of fine particle pollution on the potential for natural ventilation of
714 non-domestic buildings in European cities, *Build. Environ.*, 115, 236–250, 2017.
- 715 Meloni, D., Di Sarra, A., Monteleone, F., Pace, G., Piacentino, S., and Sferlazzo, D. M.: Seasonal transport patterns of intense
716 Saharan dust events at the Mediterranean island of Lampedusa, *Atmos. Res.*, 88, 134–148, 2008.
- 717 <https://ladsweb.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/>: <https://ladsweb.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/>.
- 718 O’neill, N. T., Eck, T. F., Smirnov, A., Holben, B. N., and Thulasiraman, S.: Spectral discrimination of coarse and fine mode
719 optical depth, *J. Geophys. Res. Atmos.*, 108, 2003.
- 720 Papayannis, A., Amiridis, V., Mona, L., Tsaknakis, G., Balis, D., Bösenberg, J., Chaikovski, A., De Tomasi, F., Grigorov, I.,
721 and Mattis, I.: Systematic lidar observations of Saharan dust over Europe in the frame of EARLINET (2000–2002), *J. Geophys.*
722 *Res. Atmos.*, 113, 2008.
- 723 Prospero, J. M., Collard, F., Molinié, J., and Jeannot, A.: Characterizing the annual cycle of African dust transport to the
724 Caribbean Basin and South America and its impact on the environment and air quality, *Global Biogeochem. Cycles*, 28, 757–
725 773, 2014.
- 726 Randles, C. A., Da Silva, A. M., Buchard, V., Colarco, P. R., Darmenov, A., Govindaraju, R., Smirnov, A., Holben, B., Ferrare,



727 R., and Hair, J.: The MERRA-2 aerosol reanalysis, 1980 onward. Part I: System description and data assimilation evaluation, *J.*
728 *Clim.*, 30, 6823–6850, 2017.

729 Seinfeld, J. H. and Pandis, S. N.: From air pollution to climate change, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 1326, 1998.

730 Tai, A. P. K., Mickley, L. J., and Jacob, D. J.: Correlations between fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) and meteorological variables
731 in the United States: Implications for the sensitivity of PM_{2.5} to climate change, *Atmos. Environ.*, 44, 3976–3984, 2010.

732 Wei, J., Sun, L., Huang, B., Bilal, M., Zhang, Z., and Wang, L.: Verification, improvement and application of aerosol optical
733 depths in China Part 1: Inter-comparison of NPP-VIIRS and Aqua-MODIS, *Atmos. Environ.*, 175, 221–233, 2018.

734 Xiao, Q., Zhang, H., Choi, M., Li, S., Kondragunta, S., Kim, J., Holben, B., Levy, R. C., and Liu, Y.: Evaluation of VIIRS,
735 GOCI, and MODIS Collection 6 AOD retrievals against ground sunphotometer observations over East Asia, *Atmos. Chem.*
736 *Phys.*, 16, 1255–1269, 2016.

737 Yan, X., Shi, W., Li, Z., Li, Z., Luo, N., Zhao, W., Wang, H., and Yu, X.: Satellite-based PM_{2.5} estimation using fine-mode
738 aerosol optical thickness over China, *Atmos. Environ.*, 170, 290–302, 2017.

739 Yan, X., Zang, Z., Li, Z., Luo, N., Zuo, C., Jiang, Y., Li, D., Guo, Y., Zhao, W., Shi, W., and Cribb, M.: A global land aerosol
740 fine-mode fraction dataset (2001–2020) retrieved from MODIS using hybrid physical and deep learning approaches, *Earth Syst.*
741 *Sci. Data*, 14, 1193–1213, <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-14-1193-2022>, 2022.

742 You, W., Zang, Z., Zhang, L., Li, Z., Chen, D., and Zhang, G.: Estimating ground-level PM₁₀ concentration in northwestern
743 China using geographically weighted regression based on satellite AOD combined with CALIPSO and MODIS fire count,
744 *Remote Sens. Environ.*, 168, 276–285, 2015.

745 Zang, Z., Li, D., Guo, Y., Shi, W., and Yan, X.: Superior PM_{2.5} estimation by integrating aerosol fine mode data from the
746 Himawari-8 satellite in deep and classical machine learning models, *Remote Sens.*, 13, 2779, 2021.

747 Zhang, Y., Li, Z., Bai, K., Wei, Y., Xie, Y., Zhang, Y., Ou, Y., Cohen, J., Zhang, Y., and Peng, Z.: Satellite remote sensing of
748 atmospheric particulate matter mass concentration: Advances, challenges, and perspectives, *Fundam. Res.*, 1, 240–258, 2021.

749 Zhao, B., Jiang, J. H., Diner, D. J., Su, H., Gu, Y., Liou, K. N., Jiang, Z., Huang, L., Takano, Y., Fan, X., and Omar, A. H.: Intra-
750 annual variations of regional aerosol optical depth, vertical distribution, and particle types from multiple satellite and ground-
751 based observational datasets, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 18, 11247–11260, <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-18-11247-2018>, 2018.

752 Zheng, C., Zhao, C., Zhu, Y., Wang, Y., Shi, X., Wu, X., Chen, T., Wu, F., and Qiu, Y.: Analysis of influential factors for the
753 relationship between PM_{2.5} and AOD in Beijing, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 17, 13473–13489, [https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-17-](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-17-13473-2017)
754 [13473-2017](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-17-13473-2017), 2017.

755 Zhou, Y. and Savijärvi, H.: The effect of aerosols on long wave radiation and global warming, *Atmos. Res.*, 135, 102–111, 2014.

756
757
758
759