



## Consistent histories of anthropogenic Western European air pollution preserved in different Alpine ice cores

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**Abstract.** Individual high-Alpine ice cores have been proven to contain a well preserved history of past anthropogenic air pollution in Western Europe. The question, how representative one ice core is with respect to the reconstruction of atmospheric composition in the source region, has not been addressed so far. Here, we present the first study systematically comparing long-term ice-core records (AD 1750-2015) of various anthropogenic compounds, such as major inorganic aerosol constituents ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ), black carbon (BC), and trace species (Cd, F<sup>-</sup>, Pb). Several ice cores from four high-Alpine sites located in the European Alps analysed by different laboratories for this set of air pollutants were used. All seven investigated anthropogenic compounds feature an excellent agreement in the species-dependent long-term concentration trends at the different sites. This is related to common source regions of air pollution impacting the less than 100 km distant four sites including Western European countries surrounding the Alps, i.e. Switzerland, France, Italy, Germany, Austria, Slovenia, and Spain. For individual compounds, the Alpine ice-core composites developed in this study allowed us to precisely time the onset of pollution caused by industrialization in Western Europe. Extensive emissions from coal combustion and agriculture lead to an exceeding of pre-industrial (AD 1750-1850) concentration levels already at the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century for BC, Pb,  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$  (non-dust, non-sea salt  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) and  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , respectively. However, Cd, F<sup>-</sup>, and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations started surpassing pre-industrial values only in the 20<sup>th</sup> century, predominantly due to pollution from zinc and aluminium smelters and traffic. The observed maxima of BC, Cd, F<sup>-</sup>, Pb, and  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$  concentrations in the 20<sup>th</sup> century and a significant decline afterwards, clearly reveal the efficiency of air pollution control measures such as desulphurisation of coal, the introduction of filters and scrubbers in power plants and metal smelters, and the ban of leaded gasoline improving the air quality in Western Europe. In contrast, the composite records of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  show levels in the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, which are unprecedented



in the context of the past 250 years, indicating that the introduced abatement measures to reduce these pollutants were insufficient to have a major effect at high altitudes in Western Europe. Only four ice-core composite records (BC, F<sup>-</sup>, Pb, exSO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) of the seven investigated pollutants correspond well with modelled trends. Our results demonstrate that individual ice-core records from different sites in the European Alps provide a spatial representative signal of anthropogenic pollution  
40 from Western European countries and are essential to constrain emission or deposition data of air pollutants in this region.

## 1 Introduction

High-alpine glaciers and polar ice sheets are invaluable archives of past air pollution and climate. Since direct measurements of the atmospheric composition are basically not available before the 1970s (WMO GAW, 2014), these natural archives are unique to put recent observations into a longer-term context and assess the anthropogenic impact in relation to natural  
45 changes in atmospheric constituents.

Ice-core records extending back to pre-industrial times were extracted from glaciers around the world, illustrating that various regions experienced distinct timing of anthropogenic emissions over the past ~150 years reflecting significant differences in industrialization and emission abatement. European, Greenland, and Devon Island ice-core records have been used to reconstruct the history of anthropogenic pollutants such as NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, Pb, and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> in Western Europe and North America,  
50 characterized by a substantial increase beginning already in the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century (Fischer et al., 1998; Schwikowski, 2004; Shotyk et al., 2005). Air pollutant levels above natural background in Eastern Europe appeared around 1930 based on ice cores from the Altai and Caucasus, indicating a later onset of industrialization (Olivier et al., 2006; Eichler et al., 2014; Preunkert et al., 2019). Concentrations of the majority of anthropogenic air pollutants in Western Europe, North America, and Eastern Europe peaked in the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Fischer et al., 1998; Schwikowski, 2004; Olivier et al., 2006). The  
55 subsequent downward trend is the consequence of changes in fuel type used (from coal to oil and gas), introduction of abatement measures, but also stagnation and downturn in industry after the political, social, and economic instability in the case of Eastern Europe (Eichler et al., 2012). On the contrary, anthropogenic emissions in Asia as reconstructed from Himalayan, Pamir, and Saint Elias Mountain ice-core records increased only after AD 1960-1970 and are still rising at the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, due to a later industrialisation in these regions (Duan et al., 2007; Osterberg et al., 2008; Zhao  
60 et al., 2011).

Ice-core drilling and analyses are very costly, demanding and time consuming processes, taking from months up to years. Thus, generally only one ice core is recovered at a time and replicates are rarely taken. It is assumed that one core is representative for emissions in a particular source region. However, there is a lack of evidence in literature, for which ice-core sites this assumption is actually valid. Only for Greenland ice cores a strong covariance in the trends of black carbon (BC),  
65 NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, Pb, and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> records was observed between close-by sites (less than 100 km), but also for locations being 1000 km apart (Fischer et al., 1998; Koch et al., 2011; Zdanowicz et al., 2018; McConnell et al., 2019). This finding indicates common source regions for the different Arctic sites in North America and Europe, and a similar temporal evolution of anthropogenic



emissions in these two source regions. In contrast, for other Arctic sites, such as the Saint Elias Mountains or Svalbard, significant differences in the anthropogenic trends of BC, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, Pb, or SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> were detected among ice cores from close-by  
70 locations (Gross et al., 2012; Samyn et al., 2012; Beaudon et al., 2013; Osmont et al., 2018). Within the Saint Elias Mountains a distinct vertical profile of aerosol deposition was found. Ice cores from 5000 m above sea level (asl) documented long-range transported air pollution from East Asia, whereas those from 3000 m asl additionally recorded local emissions from North America (Gross et al., 2012). In Svalbard a west-east pollution gradient was detected, with ice cores from western parts reflecting rather boundary layer pollution, whereas those from eastern glaciers are more representative of free tropospheric  
75 conditions (Beaudon et al., 2013). Additionally, latter study reports strong post-depositional melt-water induced disturbance of the ice-core records at the low-altitude Svalbard sites. Differences in SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, Pb or Sb concentration trends have also been observed from two Himalayan ice cores (Mount Everest, Dasuopu, ~100 km distant) (Duan et al., 2007; Kaspari et al., 2009; Gabrielli et al., 2020). Although pollutants from South Asian regions are deposited at both sites, the ~900 m higher elevated Dasuopu probably receives a higher share of long-range transported air masses. Furthermore, in the Himalayas overwhelming  
80 natural dust deposition leads to an additional input of the compounds often strongly exceeding their anthropogenic impact. For such locations an extensive dust correction is required, potentially producing higher uncertainties in the calculated anthropogenic trends. In conclusion, for many mountain ranges or glacier sites one ice core is not representative with respect to the reconstruction of atmospheric composition in a given source region.

This setting is different for the European Alps. Here, high-Alpine ice-core sites are within a short distance of less than 100 km,  
85 altitude differences are <500 m, and the signal of anthropogenic emissions in the ice-core records is overwhelming during industrial times. Individual ice cores from different high-altitude sites in the European Alps have been proven to contain well-preserved records of past Western European air pollution (e.g. (Schwikowski et al., 1999a; Schwikowski et al., 1999b; Eichler et al., 2000a; Fagerli et al., 2007; Preunkert and Legrand, 2013). Generally, ice-core concentrations of anthropogenic major aerosol components and trace constituents increased dramatically during the last two centuries following the onset of  
90 industrialization (Schwikowski, 2004). Since the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century the majority of these species show a clear downward trend in concentrations as a result of the introduction of air pollution control measures in Western Europe. Two comparative studies indicate a good correspondence between NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> records of summer concentrations at the Col Du Dôme site and annual concentrations from the 80 km distant Colle Gnifetti site in the period ~AD 1910-1995 (Preunkert et al., 2003; Wagenbach et al., 2012) and between the concentration trends of BC records from the Colle Gnifetti and 70 km distant  
95 Fiescherhorn site in the period ~AD 1750-2000 (Sigl et al., 2018), respectively. However, a systematic and more holistic investigation of pollution records from different ice cores to evaluate the spatial representativeness of single sites in the European Alps is still lacking.

Here we present the first study comparing long-term records of anthropogenic pollution recovered from various European high-Alpine ice-core sites for the period AD 1750-2015. We focussed on pollutants, for which continuous records from at least  
100 two of the four sites Colle Gnifetti, Fiescherhorn, Grenzgletscher (Swiss Alps) and Col du Dôme (French Alps) were available, i.e. the major inorganic aerosol species NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, exSO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>; BC, and the trace species Cd, F<sup>-</sup>, Pb. This set of air pollutants



analysed by different laboratories covers compounds of various emission characteristics and atmospheric chemistry. Among the seven considered pollutants, BC is the only one, directly emitted to the atmosphere as primary aerosol from incomplete combustion processes.  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  are the dominant species and Cd, F<sup>-</sup>, Pb minor species in secondary inorganic aerosols. These are formed in the atmosphere by chemical reactions involving a set of precursor compounds and condensation of vapours on pre-existing particles or by nucleation of new particles.  $\text{NH}_3$ ,  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{SO}_2$  emissions from agriculture and burning of fossil fuels associated with transportation and industry represent the main anthropogenic precursor compounds for the major inorganic aerosol species (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016). Emissions of Cd(0) or CdO, HF, and PbBrCl from zinc and aluminium smelters and leaded gasoline, respectively, are predominant precursors for the anthropogenic trace species (Biggins and Harrison, 1979; Williams and Harrison, 1984; Abdul-Wahab and Alsubhi, 2019). Chemical reactions of these precursors in the atmosphere include oxidations, such as the formation of  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ , Cd(II) compounds from  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{SO}_2$ , Cd(0), respectively. Emitted precursors or atmospheric reaction products either directly form particles (such as  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ ) or partition into particles by e.g. acid-base reactions ( $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , HF) or by different reaction types (for Cd, Pb compounds) (see e.g. (Biggins and Harrison, 1979)). After an atmospheric lifetime in the order of a few days, wet (and dry) deposition lead to their removal from the atmosphere.

Our study first investigates with a state-of-the-art atmospheric aerosol transport model (FLEXPART), whether the four Alpine sites are influenced by emissions from the same source area in Western Europe. Subsequently, ice-core records of the seven pollutants are systematically compared, to test how representative one ice core from the European Alps is to document the pollution history in the deduced source area. For the investigation of differences in absolute concentration levels at the four ice-core sites, the European-scale atmospheric chemical transport model (MATCH) was used to simulate concentrations of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$  in Alpine precipitation. In addition, we present Alpine composite records for the seven species and their evaluation using time of emergence (TOE) analyses, revealing the time at which Western European pollution levels first exceeded the natural variability of the pre-industrial period (AD 1750-1850). Finally, the ice-core composites of all pollutants were compared with available model estimates of either their emission history, atmospheric concentrations, or deposition data allowing to validate and constrain existing approaches for modelling the development of anthropogenic air pollution in Western Europe.

## 2 Methods

### 2.1 Study sites and ice-core archives

Long-term ice-core data are available from four sites located in the Swiss and French Alps: Monte Rosa in the Valais Alps (Colle Gnifetti and Grenzletscher), Fiescherhorn in the Bernese Alps (Fiescherhorn glacier) and Mont Blanc in the Auvergne-Rhône-Alpes (Col du Dôme). These four Alpine sites are located within a ~100 by 100 km square. Their exact locations are shown in Figure 1 with details about the different ice cores being summarized in Table 1.



### 2.1.1 Colle Gnifetti (CG)

The Colle Gnifetti (4450-4470 m asl) is located in the Monte Rosa massif on the border between Switzerland and Italy in the Southern Alpine chain (Valais Alps). The Colle Gnifetti is a glacier saddle at the uppermost part of the Grenzgletscher between the summits Signalkuppe and Zumsteinspitze. Numerous firn and ice cores have been drilled there since 1976, revealing that this site is prone to wind erosion, preferentially removing parts of the winter snow cover (Wagenbach et al., 2012). The latter explains the low mean annual net accumulation rates of 0.2-0.5 m water equivalent (w.eq.) (Table 1) and the observation that ice at bedrock is more than 15000 years old (Jenk et al., 2009). The dating of the different cores used in this study was achieved by combining a variety of dating methods such as annual layer counting using the seasonally varying signals of different parameters (e.g.  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ),  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  dating, the use of reference horizons (Saharan dust events, 1963  $^3\text{H}$  maximum from atmospheric nuclear tests, volcanic eruptions), application of ice flow models, and  $^{14}\text{C}$  dating (Jenk et al., 2009). In this study, we focus on the ice-core data covering the period AD 1750-2015, as detailed in Table 2.

### 2.1.2 Grenzgletscher (GG)

The Grenzgletscher was the main tributary of the Gornergletscher system in the Monte Rosa massif, until the strong retreat of the Gornergletscher separated them recently. A 125 m long ice core was drilled at 4200 m asl on the upper Grenzgletscher in October 1994 (Eichler et al., 2000b). The ice core covers the period AD 1937-1994 with a mean annual net accumulation rate of 2.7 m w.eq. (Table 1). This was established based on  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  dating, annual layer counting, and detection of reference horizons, such as the Saharan dust layers in AD 1947, 1977, and 1990, as well as the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  maxima in AD 1986 and 1963 from the Chernobyl accident and atmospheric nuclear testing, respectively (Eichler et al., 2000b). Records of chemical species are partly disturbed for the period AD 1984-89, due to an inflow and percolation of meltwater causing partial leaching (Eichler et al., 2001). Thus, for this study only the undisturbed section covering the period AD 1937-1983 was considered.

### 2.1.3 Fiescherhorn (FH)

The Fieschergletscher in the Swiss Northern Alpine chain (Bernese Alps) has an extended plateau flanked by the mountains Grosses Fiescherhorn, Hinteres Fiescherhorn, and Kleines Fiescherhorn. A 150.5 m long ice core was drilled in 2002 at an altitude of 3900 m asl (Jenk et al., 2006). Dating was performed by annual layer counting, time markers such as Saharan dust events in AD 1947, 1977, 2000 and the 1912 Katmai volcanic layer, and ice flow modelling. The ice core covers the period from AD 1660 to 2002 and the mean annual net accumulation rate is 1.4 m w.eq. (Jenk, 2006; Jenk et al., 2006). Similar to the Grenzgletscher site, concentration records of selected chemical species were partly disturbed between AD 1989 and 1997 (Jenk, 2006), and we therefore restricted discussions to the period AD 1750-1988.



#### 2.1.4 Col du Dôme (CDD)

The Col du Dôme is a glacier saddle at 4250 m asl between the Mont Blanc main summit and the Dôme de Goûter in the French Alps. Data used in this study are from three ice cores drilled in 1994 (126 m), 2004 (124 m), and 2012 (140 m). Ice-core sites are less than 20 m apart. Dating was performed by annual layer counting mainly based on the  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations (Preunkert et al., 2000), refined with reference horizons, such as the Saharan dust layers in 1936/37, 1947, and 1977, the 1963  $^3\text{H}$  maximum, and the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  maxima in 1954 and 1986. The mean annual net accumulation rate near the surface is 2.4 m w.eq.. Due to changes in depositional processes upstream of the drilling site, winter layers at the CDD site were found to generally thin with depth relative to summer layers (Preunkert et al., 2000), and prior to 1890, no winter snow was preserved (Legrand et al., 2020). To account for this, only data for the period AD 1890-2012 were considered.

### 170 2.2 Sampling and analyses

#### 2.2.1 $\text{NH}_4^+$ , $\text{NO}_3^-$ , $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ , and $\text{F}^-$

The determination of the major ion concentrations ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Na}^+$ ) and of  $\text{F}^-$  in the CDD, CG15, CG93, FH, and GG cores was performed by Ion Chromatography (IC) with conductivity detection at the Paul Scherrer Institute (PSI) (Eichler et al., 2000a; Eichler et al., 2000b), the Institute for Environmental Physics, Heidelberg (IUP), and the Laboratoire de 175 Glaciologie et Geophysique de l'Environnement, Grenoble (LGGE) (Legrand et al., 1993; Preunkert et al., 2001a).

#### 2.2.2 Pb and Cd

Pb and Cd concentrations were determined in discrete samples by Inductively Coupled Plasma Sector Field Mass Spectrometry (ICP-SFMS) at the PSI (CG95 core) (Schwikowski et al., 2004), by continuous flow analyses (CFA) with Inductively Coupled Plasma Quadrupole Mass Spectrometry (ICP-QMS) at the University of Venice (CG03 core) (Gabrieli, 2008; Gabrieli and 180 Barbante, 2014) and by CFA ICP-SFMS at the Desert Research Institute (DRI) (CDD cores) (Legrand et al., 2020). ICP-SFMS and Laser Ablation Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry (LA-ICP-MS) at the University of Maine was used for the analyses of the CG13 core (More et al., 2017).

#### 2.2.3 Black carbon - rBC and EC

Concentrations of atmospheric soot particles are determined with different analytical techniques. Depending on the method 185 used, the non-organic carbon fraction of soot is denoted as BC or elemental carbon (EC). We here followed the notation recommended by (Petzold et al., 2013). After aerosolizing and drying of the aqueous sample in a jet nebulizer (APEX-Q, Elemental Scientific Inc., USA), concentrations of BC in the CG15 core were determined based on laser-induced incandescence with a Single Particle Soot Photometer (SP2, Droplet Measurement Technologies) and are in the following accordingly denoted as refractory black carbon (rBC) (Wendl et al., 2014; Sigl et al., 2018). Concentrations in the FH core 190 were either measured by a thermal (Jenk et al., 2006) or thermal/optical technique (Cao et al., 2013) and thus here denoted as



EC. For samples covering the period AD 1660-1940, EC was combusted to CO<sub>2</sub> for subsequent manometric quantification (Jenk et al., 2006), while it was quantified by a non-dispersive infrared (NDIR) detector (OC/EC analyzer, Sunset Laboratory Inc., USA) for the more recent samples (Cao et al., 2013).

### 2.3 Data presentation, formation of composite records, time of emergence analyses

195 The datasets for the four individual Alpine ice-core sites were compiled from values reported previously in the studies listed in Table 2. We here used the published data of the seven investigated species (BC, Cd, F<sup>-</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, Pb, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>). For SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> the non-dust and non-sea salt contribution (exSO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) was calculated from the total SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> accordingly to  $[\text{exSO}_4^{2-}] = [\text{SO}_4^{2-}]_{\text{total}} - 0.12[\text{Na}^+] - 0.175[\text{Ca}^{2+}]$ , using Ca<sup>2+</sup> and Na<sup>+</sup> as mineral dust and sea salt tracers, respectively (Schwikowski et al., 1999b). ExSO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> thus represents the part of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, exclusively formed from the atmospheric oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub>.

200 Annual averages were calculated from these non-equidistant data as arithmetic mean of all data points in an annual layer for CG, FH, and GG. For CDD, annual averages were calculated as arithmetic mean of winter and summer concentrations, to account for the observed long-term trend in changing preservation of winter relative to summer snow (see section 2.1.4.).

Based on annual means, 10-year concentration averages were calculated, thereby averaging out any inter-annual fluctuations related to variations in vertical transport to the high altitudes and potential short-term variations in post-depositional processes.

205 Such 10-year averages should better reflect and be most representative of long-term changes in emissions of air pollutants. Averages represent mainly decadal means (e.g. 2000-2009), only for the most recent period a mean from 2010 through 2015 was formed.

Based on the 10-year average records obtained for each site, an ice-core composite record was formed for each species (Figure 4). For this, individual records were transformed into z-scores using the average and standard deviation of the common period  
210 AD 1910-1990. To obtain a sufficiently long overlapping period, the relatively short (< 50 years) GG records were not included. A BC composite record was formed by averaging the FH EC and CG rBC records.

TOE analyses was applied to determine when the composite z-scores exceed the natural variability of the pre-industrial period for the first time. The TOE was defined as the year when the 10-yr-average composite z-scores first exceed (and remain above) the pre-industrial average z-scores (period AD 1750-1850) by at least two standard deviations determined from the variability  
215 in the pre-industrial 10-year averages (Lehner et al., 2017).

### 2.4 Source region of air pollutants using FLEXPART

The potential source regions of the pollutants deposited at the CDD, CG/GG, and FH site were derived using the state-of-the-art Lagrangian particle dispersion model FLEXPART (version 10.4) (Stohl et al., 2005; Pisso et al., 2019). The model maps the emission sensitivity of sub-micrometre aerosol particles deposited at the three sites (Figure 1). The emission sensitivity in  
220 a certain grid cell represents the ratio of aerosol deposition at the respective study site (in μg m<sup>-2</sup> a<sup>-1</sup>) to emission of this aerosol in the grid cell (in kg s<sup>-1</sup>) (“receptor/source” ratio). Most species discussed in this study are mainly present in the atmosphere over the Alps as sub-micrometre aerosols. The model was therefore run for SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> as a target species for dispersion of sub-



micrometre aerosol. FLEXPART was run in its backward-in-time mode simulating dry and wet deposition (Eckhardt et al., 2017) for the period 2000 through 2009, while employing ERA5 re-analysis data at  $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$  horizontal and 1-hourly 225 temporal resolution (137 vertical layers) (Hersbach et al., 2018) as the meteorological input. Particles were released continuously ( $10^6/10^5$  per month for wet/dry deposition, respectively) and traced backward for 30 days. FLEXPART uses a statistic approach to calculate the mean residence time of all released particles in individual grid cells to derive the emission sensitivity. In order to compensate for model surface misrepresentation (the Alps are lower in the model than reality), wet deposition, which is highly sensitive to altitude, was calculated at the actual altitudes of the sites.

## 230 2.5 Modelling of air pollutant concentrations in precipitation

A European-scale atmospheric chemical transport model, MATCH (Robertson et al., 1999; Andersson et al., 2007; Theobald et al., 2019) was used to simulate concentrations of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$  in precipitation at the ice-core sites. To construct secular concentration trends in the period 1900-2020, we utilised a coarser set-up (50 km resolution) developed for the ECLAIRE project (MATCH-ECLAIRE) (Engardt et al., 2017). Additionally, the spatial distribution of  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$  concentration 235 during the 10-year periods 1970-1979 and 1990-1999 were investigated using MATCH-ECLAIRE and a new, high-resolution (12 km) set-up, MATCH-BIODIV. Both configurations of MATCH use recent estimates of European nitrogen and sulphur emissions for the simulated years. The meteorological data to drive the atmospheric chemical transport model are taken from climate simulations representing average conditions during the respective periods. The output from the chemical transport model was finally averaged over the same 10-year periods as the ice-core data.

## 240 3 Results and Discussion

### 3.1 Overall comparison of pollutant records

#### 3.1.1 Long-term trends

Generally, an excellent agreement in the ice-core long-term concentration trends of all investigated pollutants is observed for CDD, CG, FH, and GG (Figure 2). This is in line with the average emission sensitivities during the period 2000-2009 derived 245 with FLEXPART, indicating that in general the four sites are most sensitive to emissions from the countries surrounding the Alps, i.e. Switzerland, France, Italy, Germany, Austria, Slovenia, and Spain, without substantial discrepancies between the four sites (Figure 1). A noticeable extension of the pollution source area into Spain is recognized for the westernmost CDD, and into larger parts of Germany for the northernmost FH site.

The observed, characteristic differences between the concentration trends of the individual seven compounds reflect 250 dissimilarities in emission sources and atmospheric chemistry of their precursor species, and compound specific implementation and efficiency of emission abatement measures, as discussed in sections 3.2.-3.4.





### 3.1.2. Absolute concentration levels

Absolute concentrations are very similar at CG, FH, and GG, whereas CDD concentrations are about a factor of 2 lower on average (1.5-2.5, Figure 2). As discussed in the following, the lower concentrations at CDD could be explained by a west-east  
255 gradient in the deposition of anthropogenic pollutants in the Alps, and/or a higher amount of cleaner winter snow at the CDD site.

Increasing concentrations of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  were observed along an Alpine west-east transect in winter snow samples for the period AD 1991-1993 (Nickus et al., 1997). The findings of this short-term study are supported by MATCH simulations using the MATCH-ECLAIRE set-up (50 km resolution) which produced a factor of 2-3 difference between  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$   
260 concentration in precipitation at CDD and the other sites (Figure 3, Table 3). However, simulated concentrations are a factor of 6-8 higher than the ice-core values. Due to the rather low spatial resolution in MATCH-ECLAIRE, the mean heights of the grid cells including the drilling sites are between 1600 and 1800 m asl, far lower than the actual height of the sites (3900-4450 m asl). Generally, pollution concentrations in precipitation are higher at lower altitudes, where the emission sources are located. To test, whether the model output depends on the spatial resolution of the chemical transport model and its input (meteorology,  
265 emissions, topography etc.), we used data from MATCH-BIODIV with a higher spatial resolution (12 km). Here, the mean height of the grid cells representing the ice-core sites span 2400 to 2700 m asl. Indeed,  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$  concentrations obtained from the MATCH-BIODIV dataset are significantly lower compared to MATCH-ECLAIRE, and are comparable to the ice-core concentrations (Figure 3, Table 3). Furthermore, the simulated concentrations using MATCH-BIODIV are similar at the 4  
270 sites and the high-Alpine region in general (green region in Figure 3e) supporting the FLEXPART results that the same source regions of pollutants impact these high-Alpine sites (see 3.1.1.). Thus, based on the MATCH-BIODIV results we can exclude a high-Alpine west-east concentration gradient of anthropogenic pollutants to explain the lower concentrations at CDD.

The lower concentrations observed at CDD could be related to different snow deposition conditions. In general, concentrations of anthropogenic pollutants at high elevation sites reveal a pronounced seasonal cycle due to the seasonality of the stability of the atmosphere. In summer, more intense radiation causes increased convection and instability of the lower atmosphere,  
275 resulting in an expansion of the planetary boundary layer to the high elevations. During the colder months, mountain sites are decoupled from the boundary layer in the lower-altitude, stronger polluted areas, and encounter free tropospheric, cleaner, conditions. As an example, mean  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  summer-to-winter concentration ratios of 14, 3.9, and 3.7, respectively, were observed at CDD during the period AD 1982-1991 (Preunkert et al., 2000). Thus, the mean annual concentrations at high-altitude sites strongly depend on the seasonality of precipitation. At the FH site in the northern Alps, the precipitation  
280 maximum is in summer due to convective precipitation and the minimum is in winter. Precipitation at the CG and GG in the southern Alpine chain exhibits maxima in spring and autumn due to precipitation from tropical-maritime air masses during foehn situations and likewise a minimum in winter (Eichler et al., 2004). In addition, the CG site is prone to wind erosion, preferentially removing parts of the dry winter snow cover (see section 2.1.1.). This is different at the CDD site in the western Alps, where a more regular distribution of precipitation occurs throughout the year (Vincent et al., 1997). Thus, the hypothesis



285 that the lower ice-core concentrations at the CDD compared to the other three sites CG, FH and GG is related to a higher share  
of winter precipitation seems reasonable. Such small-scale processes like wind erosion or the locally varying seasonal  
precipitation distribution can unfortunately not be tested in the MATCH model due to limitations in resolution.

### 3.2 Trends in major inorganic aerosol species ( $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$ , $\text{NO}_3^-$ , $\text{NH}_4^+$ )

#### 3.2.1. Excess sulfate

290 The five alpine  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$  records (CDD, CG15, CG93, FH, GG) consistently show low pre-industrial background levels (AD  
1750-1850), increasing concentrations from the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century until the 1970s, and declining values afterwards  
(Figure 2). In the pre-industrial period a significant proportion of the  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$  originated from wood combustion for domestic  
heating (Schwikowski et al., 1999b). During the 1880s the Alpine composite  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$  record indicates levels exceeding for the  
first time the variability of the pre-industrial values (Figure 4), denoting the onset of substantial anthropogenic  $\text{SO}_2$  emissions  
295 from coal burning in Western Europe. In the following ~50 years FH concentrations are higher compared to the other sites  
Figure 2), which could reflect a stronger influence of  $\text{SO}_2$  emissions from Germany that increased faster than in other Western  
European countries during that time (Hoesly et al., 2018). After ~1930 there is a consistent increasing trend at all sites,  
cumulating in maximum values in the 1970s. The majority of the anthropogenic  $\text{SO}_2$  emissions during that time was from  
fossil fuel combustion in energy and transformation industries (stationary sources). Decreasing  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$  concentrations from  
300 the 1980s on are the consequence of the implementation of air pollution control measures, such as the desulphurisation of coal,  
the use of low-sulphur fuels, and the introduction of filters and scrubbers in power plants.

The observed long-term trend in the composite  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$  record and modelled  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$  concentrations in precipitation at the  
drilling sites agree exceptionally well during the period AD 1900-2020 (Figures 3 and 4). This finding confirms that European  
 $\text{SO}_2$  emissions and the  $\text{SO}_2/\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  atmospheric chemistry are well described in the MATCH model. The pronounced maximum  
305 in the 1970s and the strong decline afterwards is reproduced on a regional, Western European level within the spatial model  
results (Figures 3b and 3c). The former is in accordance with the  $\text{SO}_2$  emission peak in the main source regions (France,  
Germany, Italy, and Switzerland) during the 1970s (Hoesly et al., 2018). The Alpine ice-core composite record and model  
estimates of  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$  consistently demonstrate that concentrations in the 2010s were again as low as in the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup>  
century, confirming the high efficiency of the introduced abatement measures in Western Europe.

#### 310 3.2.2. Nitrate

Five  $\text{NO}_3^-$  records from CDD, CG15, CG93, FH, and GG are in excellent agreement, generally showing low pre-industrial  
background levels from 1750 to the mid of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, rising values until the 1980s and stabilization during the past  
decades (Figure 2). Major emission sources during the pre-industrial period included  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions from natural soils,  
lightning, wild fires and anthropogenic activities such as biofuel combustion and agricultural waste burning (Preunkert et al.,  
315 2003; Hoesly et al., 2018). The strong  $\text{NO}_3^-$  increase in the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century reflects anthropogenic  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions



from high temperature combustion, pre-dominantly from the traffic and energy sector. The Alpine composite  $\text{NO}_3^-$  record exceeds the variability of the pre-industrial period for the first time during the 1930s (Figure 4), marking the onset of substantial anthropogenic  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions to the atmosphere predominantly from motor vehicles in Western Europe. The delay of 50 years between TOE for  $\text{eSO}_4^{2-}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  potentially reflects the change of fossil fuel use over time in Western Europe; from coal burning during the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century to liquid/gaseous fuel burning during the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Although air pollution control measures such as combustion catalysts have been widely implemented in recent decades in all Western European countries, no prominent decline in the ice-core  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations is observed for the most recent years. During most of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, modelled concentrations in precipitation at the ice-core sites closely resemble the ice-core data (Figure 4). However, starting in the 1980s the composite  $\text{NO}_3^-$  record diverges from the model results and estimated  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions from Western European countries (Hoesly et al., 2018). All relevant European countries show a significant drop of  $\text{NO}_x$  emission estimates by roughly a factor of 2 between the 1980s and 2010s (Hoesly et al., 2018). Hypotheses for the disagreement are potential uncertainties in  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions estimates or model misrepresentation of the  $\text{HNO}_3/\text{NO}_3^-$  partitioning between gas and particle phase and of the atmospheric chemistry. E.g. the formation of nitrate aerosols from  $\text{HNO}_3$  is depending on the presence of alkaline compounds (such as  $\text{NH}_3$ , or mineral dust). Still high recent  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ( $\text{NH}_3$ ) concentration levels (not predicted by the MATCH model, see below) could favor the formation of  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$  aerosols. Nevertheless, the still high Alpine composite  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century indicate that the so far introduced air pollution control actions in Western Europe were still not sufficient to have a major effect on recent  $\text{NO}_3^-$  levels at high altitudes.

### 3.2.3. Ammonium

Overall the available five  $\text{NH}_4^+$  records from CDD, CG15, CG93, FH, and GG agree well, consistently indicating low pre-industrial values in the period AD 1750-1850, with a continuously increasing trend afterwards (Figure 2). The last ~30 years of the records are characterized by the highest  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations, unprecedented during the last 250 years. The major emission sources during pre-industrial times were biogenic and agricultural  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions (Eichler et al., 2009). The observed differences between the CG15, CG93, and FH concentration records during the first 150 years are not related to differences in source regions, since the two CG cores are from the same site (Figure 2). The most likely cause is analytical uncertainty, since  $\text{NH}_4^+$  measurements are prone to contamination from laboratory air (Legrand et al., 1984). This is especially problematic for the very low pre-industrial levels, being often below 30 ppb. Increasing  $\text{NH}_4^+$  levels starting from the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century were caused by rising anthropogenic  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions from agriculture (bacterial decomposition of livestock wastes and fertiliser applications) (Döscher et al., 1996; Hoesly et al., 2018). Based on the TOE analysis of the Alpine composite, the onset of these extensive emissions in Western Europe started in the 1880s (Figure 4). Despite the partial introduction of agricultural emission reduction measures in Western Europe since the end of 20<sup>th</sup>/beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, such as  $\text{NH}_3$  reductions in fertilizer industry and livestock breeding (Giannakis et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2022), no corresponding decline in recent  $\text{NH}_4^+$  levels is observed in the ice-core records. Indeed,  $\text{NH}_3$  emission reductions targeted for the past ~20 years based on environmental policies were not achieved for many European countries (Giannakis et al., 2019).



Observed slight decreasing  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions in some countries during this time could be in part related to different factors than  
350 air pollution control such as the strong focus on animal welfare leading to declining livestock numbers (Kupper et al., 2015).

The observed long-term trends in the Alpine composite  $\text{NH}_4^+$  record and modelled concentrations in precipitation at the drilling  
sites agree well during the period AD 1900-1980 (Figure 4). Similarly to  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , there is a strong deviation after 1980 with  
unprecedented high  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ice-core concentrations, but decreasing simulated concentrations and emission estimates in the  
355 source regions. Spain is the only country, with non-decreasing  $\text{NH}_3$  emission estimates, whereas all other relevant Western  
European source countries show a 10-35% decrease between the 1980s and 2010s. One hypothesis to explain the discrepancy  
is that  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions from soil amplified by increasing temperatures (Skjoth and Geels, 2013; Sutton et al., 2013) are not yet  
considered in the used version of the MATCH model. Another hypothesis is the nonlinearity between  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions and  $\text{NH}_4^+$   
deposition over the Alps not fully covered by the model. The conversion of gaseous  $\text{NH}_3$  to aerosol-borne  $\text{NH}_4^+$  strongly  
360 depends on the presence of acidic species (i.e.  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ ) and the pH of the aerosol. Whereas the decreasing concentrations  
of  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  after the 1970s are well simulated by the MATCH (section 3.2.1.), the still high recent  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations observed  
in the ice-core composite (section 3.2.2.), which also might cause enhanced  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations, are not reflected by them.  
Finally, also uncertain emission estimates can potentially contribute to the observed discrepancy. In any case, the still high  
Alpine composite  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations during the past decades clearly show that the introduced agricultural policies were not  
365 sufficient to create a significant downward trend in recent  $\text{NH}_4^+$  levels at high altitudes in Western Europe.

### 3.3 Trends in black carbon

The CG15 rBC record and FH EC record correspond well in their general trend (Figure 2). The difference in absolute  
concentrations of approximately a factor of 4 was expected, since thermo-optical methods to determine EC produce  
consistently higher values compared to methods utilizing the light-absorbing properties of BC (Currie et al., 2002; Bond et al.,  
370 2007; Lim et al., 2014; Sigl et al., 2018). The rBC and EC concentration trend is marked by low pre-industrial levels, an  
increase during the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, maximum values in the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century and subsequent  
decreasing levels. Pre-industrial rBC and EC sources are anthropogenic or natural biomass burning (Bond et al., 2007; Sigl et al.,  
2018). The significant increase of rBC and EC during the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century is concurrent with the rise in  
 $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$  concentrations and related to emissions from coal burning. The onset of substantial anthropogenic BC emissions from  
375 coal burning in Western Europe exceeding pre-industrial levels was during the 1870s, as determined with TOE of the Alpine  
composite (Figure 4). Coal burning emissions peaked in the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. The still relatively high rBC and EC  
concentrations after the 1950s are due to emission from burning of other fossil fuels, such as petroleum (industrial sector and  
traffic) and domestic emissions (Sigl et al., 2018).

Modelled atmospheric BC mixing ratios at the FH site (FLEXPART model) (Fang et al., 2019) resemble Alpine ice-core  
380 concentrations exceptionally well during the past 150 years. The Alpine composite record together with modelled mixing ratios  
illustrate that BC pollution in Western Europe in the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century was again as low as at the end of the 19<sup>th</sup>



century demonstrating the effect of the substitution of coal with petroleum products (lower emission factors) and of the implemented air pollution control measures such as the requirement of filter systems and certified combustion efficiency and general regulations regarding firing.

### 385 3.4 Trends in trace species (Cd, Pb, F<sup>-</sup>)

#### 3.4.1. Cadmium

The trends of the two Cd records from CG03 and CDD are in excellent agreement for the overlapping period AD 1890-2000 (Figure 2). Cd concentrations remain on a stable low level until the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, start to increase at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century and peak in the 1970s. Cd sources during the pre-industrial period are mineral dust and mining activities.  
390 Rising values from the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century on are attributed to emissions from Zn and Cu smelters and coal burning. These extensive emissions are responsible for the exceeding of pre-industrial Alpine composite Cd levels since the 1900s (Figure 4). The major Cd source during the 20<sup>th</sup> century was growing emissions from Zn smelting followed by Cu smelting, whereas emissions from coal combustion became less important towards the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Legrand et al., 2020). Decreasing Cd concentrations after the 1970s reflect the introduction of air pollution control measures, such as the  
395 implementation of filters to clean the vent gases of Zn and Cu smelters (Legrand et al., 2020).

We find a good correspondence in the trend between the Alpine composite Cd record and estimated Cd deposition until the 1960s (Figure 4). Past Cd deposition fluxes were calculated from emissions estimates in European countries weighted by the FLEXPART emission sensitivities (combined emission scenarios (1) and (2) from (Legrand et al., 2020)). Whereas model estimates strongly decrease after the 1960s, ice-core Cd peaks in the 1970s, suggesting that the applied model emission  
400 reductions, considering the introduction of pollution control devices and other technological improvements, was too optimistic. However, the effectivity of the introduced abatement measures can clearly be detected in the ice-core records with similar Cd levels in the 1990s as in the 1920s.

#### 3.4.2. Lead

Three Pb records from the CG (CG03, CG13, CG95) correspond exceptionally well, revealing low values until the end of the  
405 19<sup>th</sup> century, with elevated levels at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, strongly rising concentrations with a maximum in the 1970s, followed by a declining trend (Figure 2). This correspondence in trace element concentration records in the lower ppb range is remarkable, since the three CG cores were sampled and analysed in three different laboratories, using different analyses methods. The CDD Pb concentrations show a similar trend after AD 1940. The elevated Pb levels in the earlier period from around AD 1890-1940 observed in the CDD core still remain unexplained. Pb emissions during the pre-industrial period  
410 were mainly from soil dust and mining activities in Europe (Schwikowski et al., 2004). During the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century and first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, emissions from nonferrous metal production, iron and steel manufacturing, and coal combustion became dominant. The TOE analysis demonstrates that already from the 1870s on the Alpine composite Pb record



exceeds the mean pre-industrial Pb levels, related to these emissions (Figure 4). The increasing trend in Pb concentrations after the 1940s until the 1970s resulted from the use of lead additives in gasoline, whereas the subsequent decrease after the 1970s is related to the ban of leaded gasoline (Legrand et al., 2020).

Trends of the Alpine composite Pb record and the calculated Pb deposition based on emissions estimates in European countries weighted by the FLEXPART emission sensitivities (emission scenarios (1) and (2) from (Legrand et al., 2020)) agree remarkably well (Figure 4). Ice-core records together with deposition estimates illustrate that, mainly as a result of the ban of leaded gasoline, Pb pollution in Western Europe in the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century was reduced to pre-industrial values.

#### 420 3.4.3. Fluoride

The F<sup>-</sup> concentration record from FH shows low values during the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> century and increasing levels from the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century on. The three records from CDD, FH, and GG consistently reveal a significant rise during the 1930s-1940s peaking in the 1960s and a strong drop afterwards (Figure 2). F<sup>-</sup> sources during the pre-industrial period are mainly soil dust emissions. In the 1930s the Alpine composite F<sup>-</sup> record exceeds for the first time the variability of the pre-industrial period (Figure 4), marking the onset of substantial F<sup>-</sup> emissions from aluminium smelters in Western Europe. Thus, from the 1930s to the 1980s the main contributor to anthropogenic F<sup>-</sup> changes at CDD, FH, and GG was HF emissions from the aluminium industry in France, Germany, and Switzerland, with the main smelters located in the Auvergne-Rhône-Alpes and in the Swiss Rhone valley (Eichler et al., 2000a; Preunkert et al., 2001b). The emission of huge amounts of HF from this source caused severe ecological damage during the 1960s and 1970s (Eichler et al., 2000a). The strong drop of F<sup>-</sup> concentrations after the 1960s was the effect of installing waste-air purification system in aluminium smelters, such as cap systems equipped with Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> filter to chemisorb HF (Preunkert et al., 2001b). During the 20<sup>th</sup> century, also coal burning contributed to anthropogenic F<sup>-</sup> changes, with a share of less than 30% (Preunkert et al., 2001b).

The Alpine composite F<sup>-</sup> record and HF emission estimates from the aluminium industry of France, Germany, and Switzerland during the period AD 1920-1980 show comparable trends (Figure 4). Only in the 1990s the Alpine F<sup>-</sup> level is higher compared to the emission estimates, pointing to an increasing share of other anthropogenic sources like cement and phosphate industrial processes (Preunkert et al., 2001b). However, the efficacy of the introduced abatement measures in Western Europe mainly for the aluminium industry, is well reflected in the ice-core records, revealing F<sup>-</sup> levels in the 1990s similar to the previously lower levels in the 1950s.

#### 4 Summary and Conclusion

440 Here we present the first study considering long-term records (AD 1750-2015) of anthropogenic pollutants from four different high-Alpine ice-core sites in the European Alps. The systematic comparison between ice-core records of BC, Cd, F<sup>-</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, Pb, and exSO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> allowed addressing the question of how representative one ice core is with respect to the reconstruction of atmospheric composition in the source region. At the same time, recent changes of air pollutant concentrations were placed



into the long-term context and the onset of increased pollution levels caused by industrialization in Western Europe was  
445 precisely timed.

Emission sensitivities produced with the atmospheric aerosol transport model FLEXPART give evidence that the considered  
ice-core sites receive air masses from the same source region of pollutants, i.e. from Western European countries surrounding  
the Alps (Switzerland, France, Italy, Germany, Austria, Spain, and Slovenia). All investigated air pollutants feature a uniform  
450 timing in species-dependent anthropogenic impact at the four sites. Our results demonstrate that all ice-core records from the  
different sites in the European Alps provide a representative signal of anthropogenic pollution in Western European countries.  
For studying the representativeness, high-Alpine ice cores have the advantage that the sites are located in less than 100 km  
distance, with altitude differences of < 500 m. Furthermore, the different locations are either not affected by melting processes  
(CDD, CG) or melt-disturbed parts were removed before analyses (FH, GG).

The uniformity of the pollutant concentration trends does not hold fully for the magnitude in concentrations. Absolute  
455 concentration levels are similar at the three sites CG, FH, and GG. However, CDD concentrations of all studied species are on  
average about a factor of 2 lower (1.5-2.5), most probably caused by a higher share of winter precipitation characterised by  
low concentrations.

Based on the time of emergence analyses on the obtained Alpine ice-core composite records the onset of significant air  
pollution exceeding pre-industrial levels (AD 1750-1850) in Western Europe was pinpointed to the 1870s and 1880s for BC,  
460  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$ , Pb, and  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , mainly caused by emissions from coal combustion and agriculture, respectively. Cd,  $\text{F}^-$ , and  $\text{NO}_3^-$   
concentrations in the atmosphere predominantly from emissions of zinc and aluminium smelters and traffic, respectively,  
started surpassing pre-industrial values later; in the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century for Cd and  $\text{F}^-$ , and during the 1960s for  $\text{NO}_3^-$ .

BC concentrations have a maximum in the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, whereas those of Cd,  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{F}^-$ , and Pb peak during  
465 the 1970s. Concentrations of all five pollutants significantly decreased afterwards. This clearly shows the efficiency of  
abatement measures such as desulphurisation of coal, the use of low-sulphur fuels, the introduction of filters and scrubbers in  
power plants and metal smelters, and the ban of leaded gasoline for improving the air quality in Western Europe. In contrast,  
the concentrations of the nitrogen species  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  in the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century are unprecedented in the context  
of the past 250 years, indicating that the introduced air pollution control measures, such as denoxification of industrial and  
470 vehicle emissions or  $\text{NH}_3$  reductions in fertilizer industry and livestock breeding were still not sufficient to have a major effect  
on reducing recent  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  levels at high altitudes, respectively.

Ice-core records of four out of seven investigated pollutants (BC,  $\text{F}^-$ , Pb,  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$ ) are in good correspondence with model  
trends of either their emission history, atmospheric concentrations, or deposition data. This is not the case for the recent, still  
high concentrations of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and the Cd concentration maximum in the 1970s. Hypotheses for the disagreement are  
475 potential uncertainties of the emission estimates, or model misrepresentation of partitioning processes between the gas and  
particle phase (e.g. for  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) and of chemical reactions controlling the atmospheric lifetime. Our results demonstrate  
that the representative signals of anthropogenic pollution from Western European countries preserved in the ice-core records





from different sites in the European Alps are essential to constrain or complement emission and deposition estimates of air pollutants in this region.

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#### **Data availability**

The data presented in this work are archived at the NOAA (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration) data center for paleoclimate (ice core sites): <http://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/paleo/study/xxxxx>.

#### 490 **Author contribution**

AE, ML, and MS conceived the study and wrote the paper. AE, TMJ, and SP contributed to data analyses and interpretation. CA and ME performed the MATCH calculations. AP and SE performed the FLEXPART modelling. All authors contributed to manuscript preparation.

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**Table 1:** Details of the study sites from which the ice cores used in this study are recovered.

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Study site	Country	Year of drilling	Abbreviation	Coordinates	Altitude m asl	Accumulation m w.eq./year	Reference
Colle Gnifetti	CH	1982 (update 1995)	CG95	45°53'33''N; 07°51'52''E	4450	0.33	Schwikowski et al. (1999b, 2004)
		1982 update 1993	CG93	45°55'43''N; 07°52'30.4''E	4470	0.22	Wagenbach et al. (2012)
		2003  update 2015	CG03  CG15	45°55'50''N; 07°52'33''E	4455	0.46	Jenk et al. (2009); Sigl et al. (2018)
		2013	CG13	45°55'44.2''N; 7°52'34.6''E	4450	0.22	Hoffmann et al. (2018)
Grenz-gletscher	CH	1994	GG	45°55'28''N; 07°52'3''E	4200	2.7	Eichler et al. (2000)
Fiescherhorn	CH	2002	FH	46°33'3''N; 08°04'0.4''E	3900	1.4	Jenk et al. (2006)
Col du Dôme	F	1994	CDD	45°50'28''N; 06°50'52''E	4250	2.4	Preunkert et al. (2000)
		2004					Legrand et al. (2013)
		2012					Legrand et al. (2018)



690 **Table 2:** Origin of the datasets for the different ice cores from CDD, CG, FH, and GG.

Species	CG	GG	FH	CDD
NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> , NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> , SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	CG15 (Sigl et al., 2018), CG93 (Wagenbach et al., 2012)	(Eichler et al., 2000b; Eichler et al., 2004)	(Jenk, 2006)	(Preunkert et al., 2001a; Preunkert et al., 2003; Fagerli et al., 2007)
EC, rBC	rBC CG15 (Sigl et al., 2018)		EC (Sigl et al., 2018)	
F-		(Eichler et al., 2000a)	(Jenk, 2006)	(Preunkert et al., 2001b)
Pb	CG03 (Gabrieli and Barbante, 2014) CG13 (More et al., 2017) CG95 (Schwikowski et al., 2004)			(Legrand et al., 2020)
Cd	CG03 (Gabrieli, 2008)			(Legrand et al., 2020)



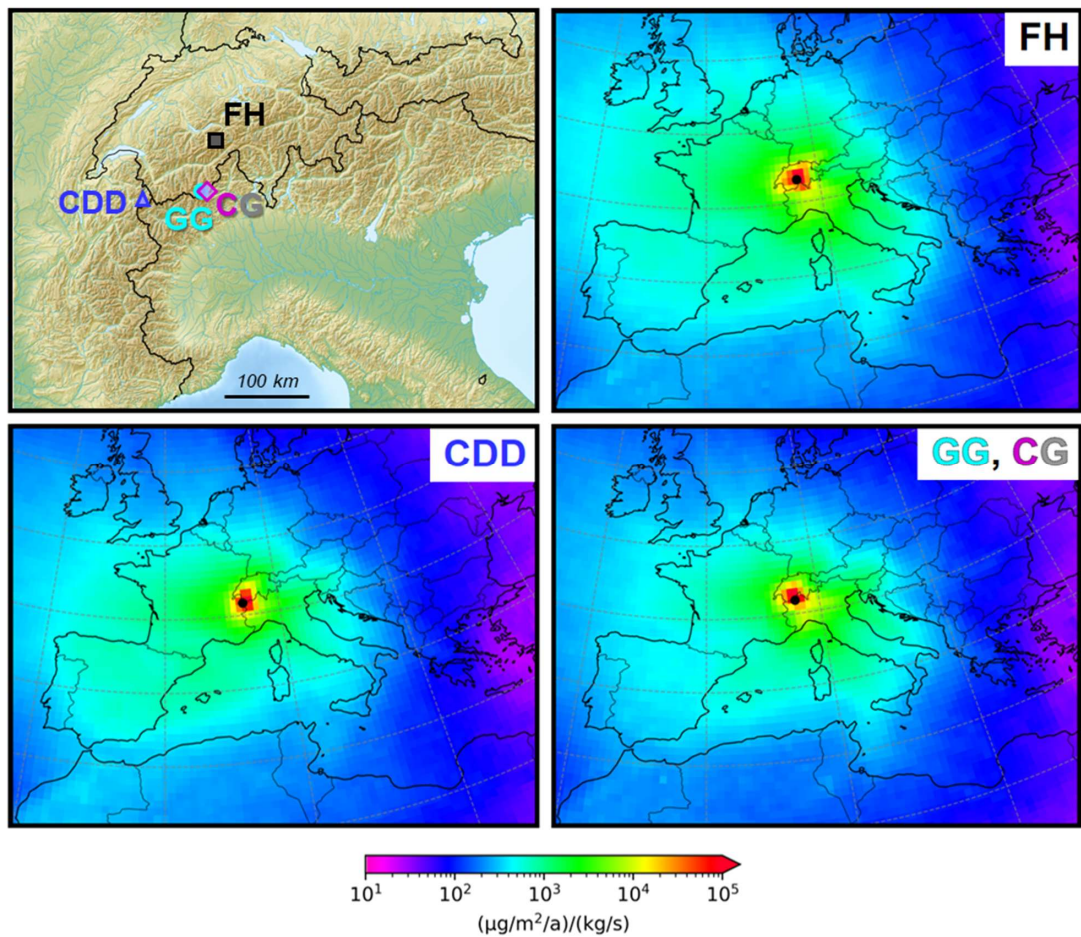
**Table 3:** ExSO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> concentrations for different 10-year periods derived from ice cores and the MATCH model (MATCH-695 ECLAIRE and MATCH-BIODIV datasets). Unit is ppb (corresponding to µg/l).

exSO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> (ppb)	Ice core 1970-1979	MATCH-ECLAIRE 1970-1979	Ice core 1990-1999	MATCH-ECLAIRE 1990-1999	MATCH-BIODIV 1990-1999
CG	827	7257	524	4113	696
GG	876	7257		4113	696
FH	743	5188		2889	696
CDD	381	2311	285	1291	672





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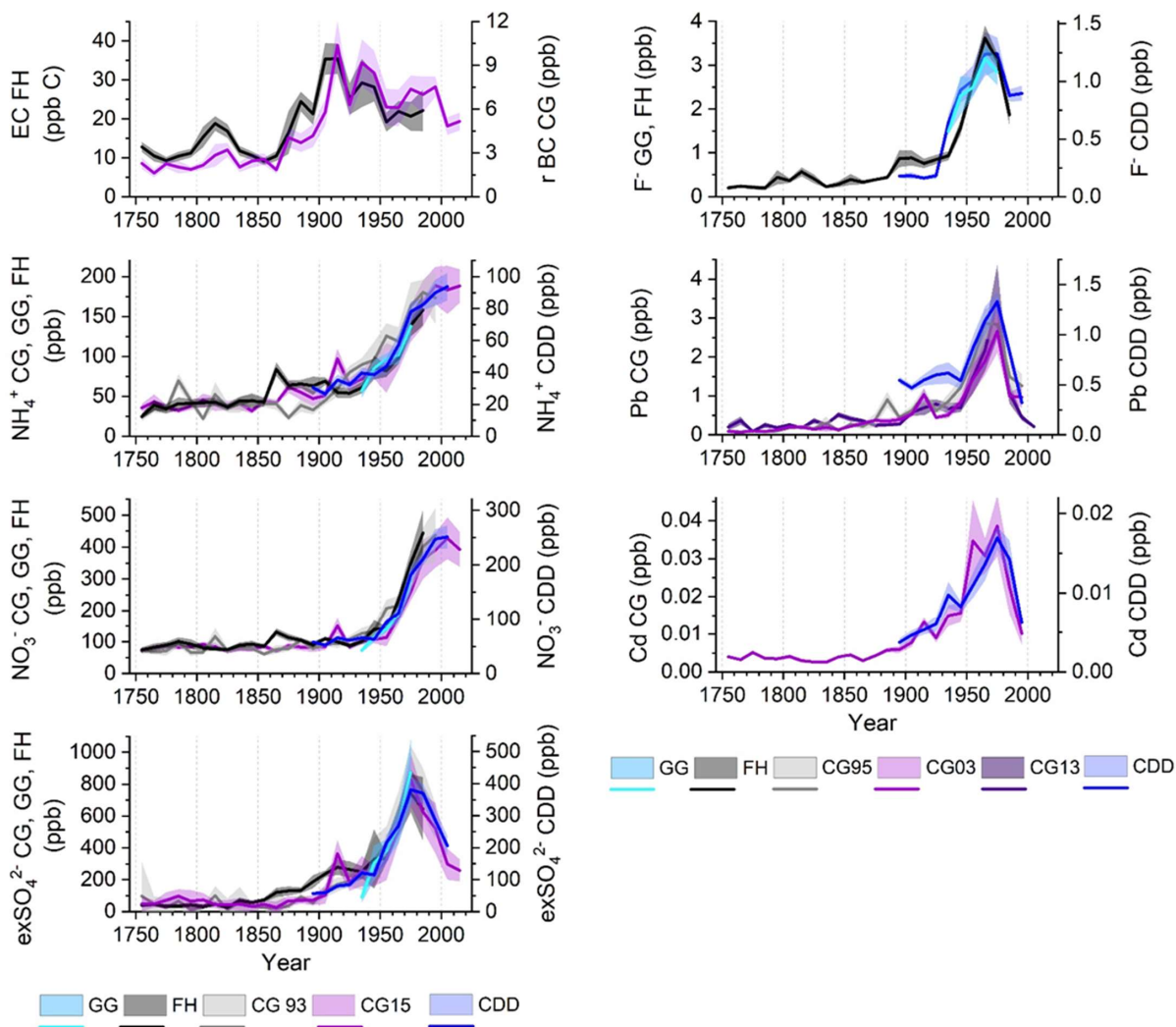


705 **Figure 1:** Topographic map of the European Alps (Credit Lencer/Pechristener, Alps location map borders, CC BY-SA 3.0, <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-sa/3.0> or GFDL, <http://www.gnu.org/copyleft/fdl.html>, via Wikimedia Commons (2010), Date of access: 23/06/2022) together with the four ice-core sites (upper left panel). Average  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  emission sensitivities (in  $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{a}^{-1}/\text{kg s}^{-1}$ ) at the FH, CDD and GG/CG site (black dots) based on FLEXPART model simulations ( $0.5 \times 0.5^\circ$ ) for the period AD 2000-2009 (upper right and lower panels).





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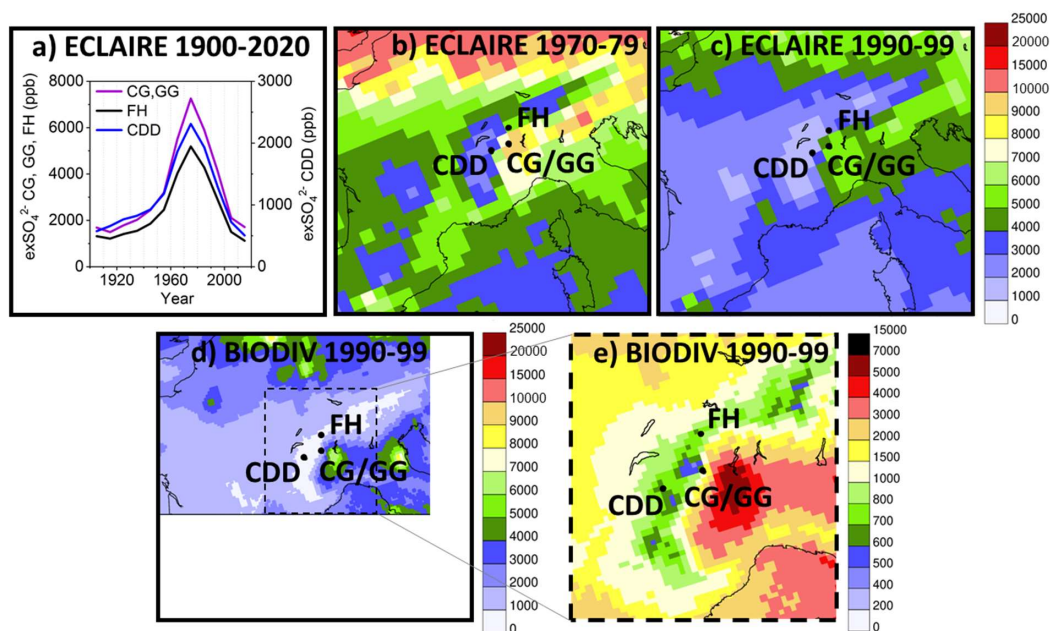


**Figure 2:** Compilation of decadal ice-core concentration records (mean  $\pm 1$  standard error) from the four ice-core sites (CDD, CG, FH, GG) for BC (EC and rBC), major inorganic aerosol species  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$ , and trace species F, Pb, Cd covering the time period 1750-2015.

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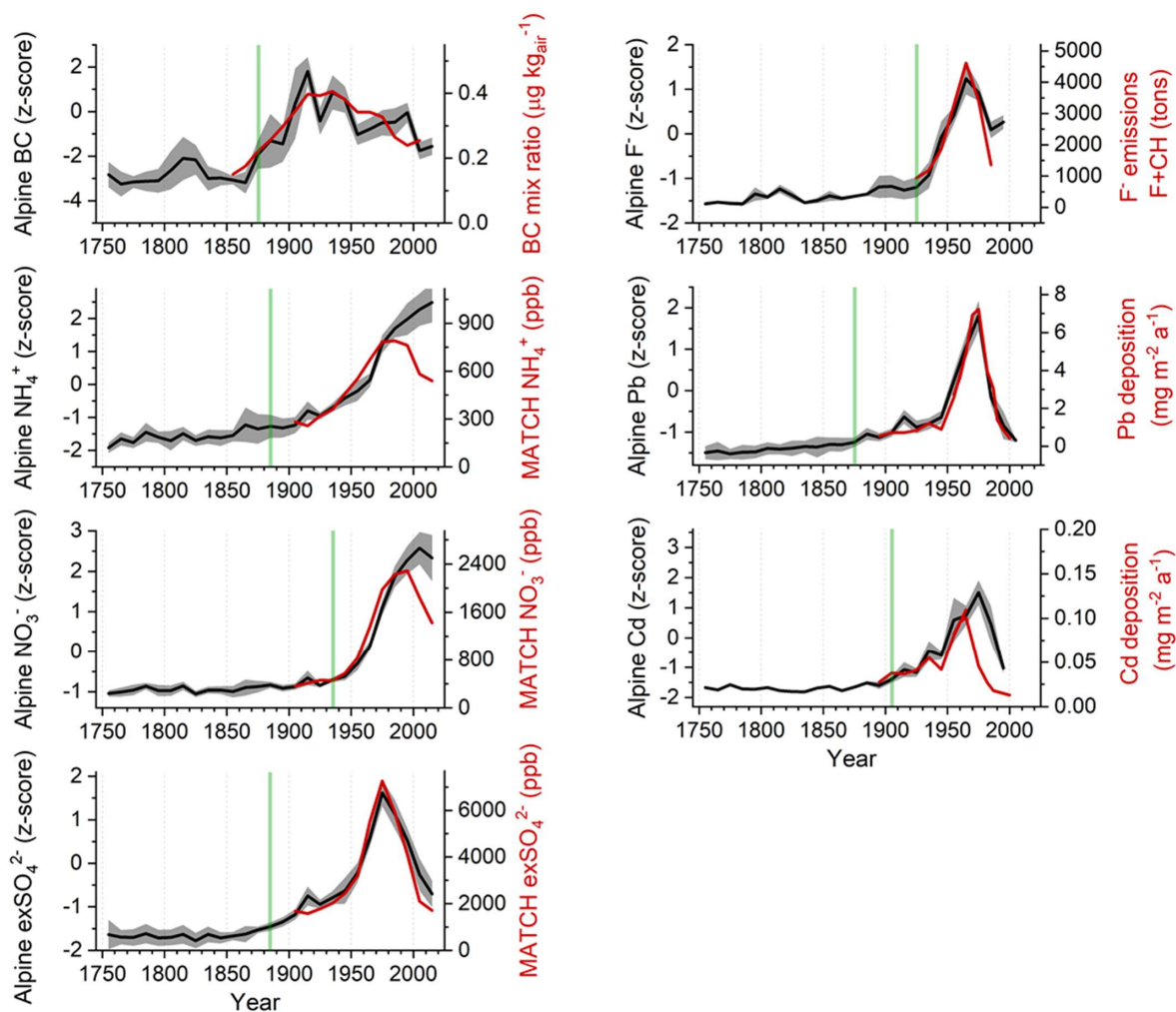


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**Figure 3:** a) Modelled  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$  concentration records at the four ice-core sites CDD, CG/GG and FH using the MATCH model (MATCH-ECLAIRE data set, period AD 1900-2020) and b-e) comparison of spatial  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$  concentrations in precipitation at the surface (ppb) obtained by the MATCH model (b) MATCH-ECLAIRE data set AD 1970-1979, c) MATCH-ECLAIRE data set 1990-1999, d),e) MATCH-BIODIV data set 1990-1999). Note that color codes and covered area are identical for panels b)-d), whereas panel e) represents a magnified inset of panel d) with a different color code to illustrate variations in the high-Alpine regions.



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**Figure 4:** Compilation of decadal Alpine ice-core composite z-scores (mean  $\pm 1$  standard error) based on long-term concentration records of BC, major inorganic aerosol species  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$ , and trace species  $\text{F}^-$ , Pb, Cd from CDD, CG, and FH for the time period AD 1750-2015 (black/gray curves). The TOE (time of emergence, green line) is additionally shown together with modelled concentrations of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{exSO}_4^{2-}$  (MATCH-ECLAIRE data set) (Engardt et al., 2017), estimated BC air mixing ratios (Fang et al., 2019),  $\text{F}^-$  emission estimates of France and Switzerland (Preunkert et al., 2001b), and Pb and Cd deposition estimates (Legrand et al., 2020) (red lines).

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