

# Radiative effects of reduced aerosol emissions during the COVID-19 pandemic and the future recovery

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## Key Points:

- New COVID-19 data to parameterize anthropogenic aerosol properties are released for use in climate studies.
- First estimate of anthropogenic aerosol radiative forcing for 2020 suggests a change by  $+0.04 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  due to the pandemic.
- Recovery scenarios for 2050 have a spread in anthropogenic aerosol forcing of  $-0.38$  to  $-0.68 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ .

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## Abstract

The pandemic in 2020 caused an abrupt change in the emission of anthropogenic aerosols and their precursors. We provide the first estimate of the associated change in the aerosol radiative forcing at the top of the atmosphere and the surface. To this end, we perform new simulations with the contemporary Earth system model EC-Earth3 participating in CMIP6, and created new data on the anthropogenic aerosol optical properties and an associated effect on clouds for the implemented aerosol parameterization, MACv2-SP. Our results highlight the small impact of the pandemic on the global aerosol radiative forcing in 2020 compared to the baseline of the order of  $+0.04 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ , which is small compared to the natural year-to-year variability in the radiation budget. Natural variability also limits the ability to detect a meaningful regional difference in the anthropogenic aerosol radiative effects. We identify the best chances to find a significant change in radiation at the surface during cloud-free conditions for regions that were strongly polluted in the past years. The new post-pandemic recovery scenarios indicate a spread in the aerosol forcing of  $-0.68$  to  $-0.38 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  for 2050, which translates to a difference of  $+0.05$  to  $-0.25 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  compared to the baseline. This spread falls within the present-day uncertainty in aerosol radiative forcing and the CMIP6 spread in aerosol forcing at the end of the 21st century. We release the new MACv2-SP data for studies on the climate response to the pandemic and the recovery scenarios.

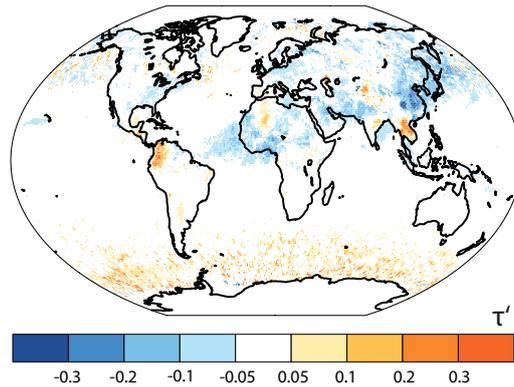
## Plain Language Summary

Anthropogenic aerosols, released into the atmosphere due to human activities, affect the climate by scattering and absorbing sunlight and changing the properties of clouds. The socio-economic impact of the pandemic in 2020 reduced the amount of anthropogenic aerosols. We here estimate the total reduction of anthropogenic aerosols for 2020 and the implication for the radiation budget of our planet. Overall we find only a small impact on the radiation budget due to the change in anthropogenic aerosols in 2020. The post-pandemic recovery pathway influences, however, the magnitude of the total anthropogenic radiative forcing which for instance also accounts for changes in atmospheric greenhouse gas concentrations.

## 1 Introduction

The aerosol burden in 2020 is affected by reduced emissions of anthropogenic aerosols and their precursors associated with the global COVID-19 pandemic. Many countries have witnessed a reduction in socio-economic activities and lockdowns. The associated decline in traffic and industrial productivity have led to marked regional reductions in atmospheric pollution improving the air quality (e.g., van Heerwaarden et al., submitted; Ranjan et al., 2020). Figure 1 illustrates the change in the aerosol burden as the observed anomaly in the mid-visible aerosol optical depth,  $\tau'$ , for northern hemisphere spring in 2020 against the 20-year spring climatology from NASA's MODIS satellite product (Acker & Leptoukh, 2007; Platnick et al., 2015). Pronounced negative  $\tau'$  in spring 2020 are identified for Eastern and Southern Asia as well as the Northwest Pacific. Even regions with typically relatively low aerosol burden like Europe and North America had less aerosol burden. The pandemic restrictions in most of the European countries for instance occurs in parallel with exceptionally blue skies and new extremes in surface irradiance (van Heerwaarden et al., submitted).

The emission reductions due to the COVID-19 pandemic are thought to potentially influence climate (e.g., Forster et al., 2020a), but the emission reductions are not considered in the contemporary climate simulations of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project phase 6 (CMIP6, Eyring et al., 2016), used for assessing climate changes by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). The construction of the CMIP6 scenarios of anthropogenic emissions has therefore been revisited (Forster et al., 2020b).



**Figure 1.** Observed anomaly in aerosol optical depth for northern hemisphere spring 2020. Shown is the anomaly in the aerosol optical depth ( $\tau'$ ) at 550 nm for March–May 2020 against the climatology of the same months for 2000–2020 from MODIS.

67 Based on the new emission data, the scientific community plans to investigate the co-  
 68 occurrence of climate anomalies and the COVID-19 impacts on global air quality. To this  
 69 end, a new climate model inter-comparison project for 2015–2050 with the revised emis-  
 70 sion scenarios is planned (COVID-MIP Lamboll, et al., in prep.) under the umbrella of  
 71 the Detection and Attribution Model Intercomparison Project (DAMIP, Gillett et al.,  
 72 n.d.) endorsed by CMIP6. Some of the participating models use the simple plumes aerosol  
 73 parameterization MACv2-SP (Fiedler et al., 2017; Stevens et al., 2017) and therefore need  
 74 new MACv2-SP input data consistent with the new emission data to participate in COVID-  
 75 MIP. We here derive these new input data for MACv2-SP and provide it for use in cli-  
 76 mate studies.

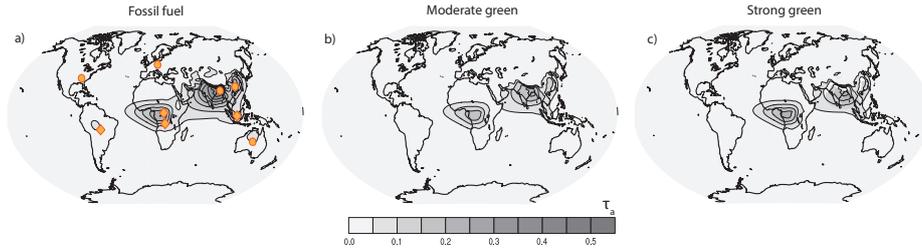
77 The aim of the present study is to give a first estimate of the impact of the COVID-  
 78 19 pandemic on the radiative forcing of anthropogenic aerosols for the pandemic year  
 79 2020 and the recovery scenarios from 2020 to 2050. We further derive and describe the  
 80 new MACv2-SP data for the anthropogenic aerosol optical properties and an associated  
 81 effect on clouds for 2015–2050 from the revised aerosol emissions (Forster et al., 2020b).  
 82 These emission data cover different recovery pathways after the pandemic ranging from  
 83 fossil-fuel based to green developments into the future. We use the here newly constructed  
 84 MACv2-SP data in the CMIP6 model EC-Earth3 (Doescher, et al., in prep.), which uses  
 85 MACv2-SP as standard to represent anthropogenic aerosols. EC-Earth3 simulates aerosol-  
 86 radiation and aerosol-cloud interactions including cloud adjustments from MACv2-SP.  
 87 We perform new atmosphere-only experiments with EC-Earth3 and estimate the effec-  
 88 tive radiative forcing (ERF) of the anthropogenic aerosols in 2020 and 2050 for both the  
 89 top of the atmosphere and the surface. Details of our methods are given in Section 2,  
 90 followed by our results in Section 3, and our conclusions in Section 4.

## 91 2 Methods

### 92 2.1 Emissions of $\text{SO}_2$ and $\text{NH}_3$

93 Forster et al. (2020b) developed five scenarios to explore the impact of the COVID-  
 94 19 pandemic on current and future emissions. These scenarios are:

- 95 • A baseline scenario (*base*) without any impact of the COVID-19 pandemic and  
 96 the measures to contain it;



**Figure 2.** MACv2-SP  $\tau_a$  in 2050. Shown is the annual mean in anthropogenic aerosol optical depth ( $\tau_a$ ) at 550 nm for the (a) fossil-fuel based, (b) moderate green, and (c) strong green scenario. Orange symbols mark the centers of the aerosol plumes associated with industrial pollution (circles) and emissions from both industry and biomass burning (rectangles).

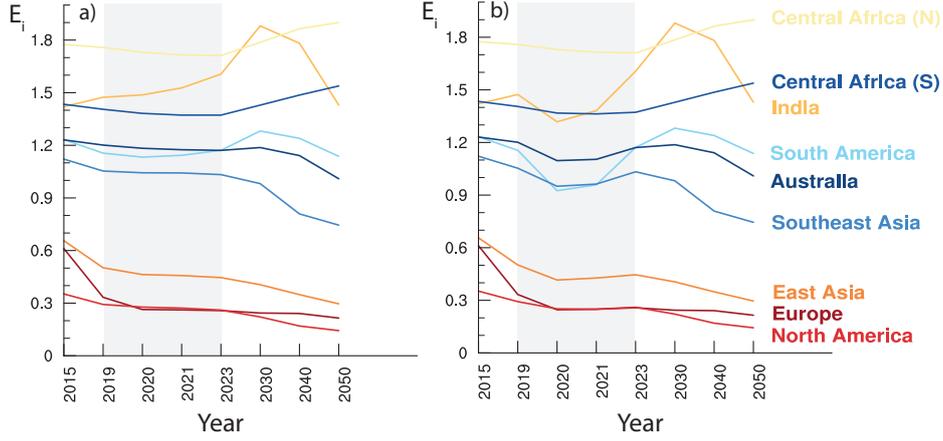
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- A two-year-blip scenario (*blp*) that assumes emissions return to the baseline scenario after a two-year reduction in emissions due to temporary societal lockdowns and disruptions;
  - A fossil-fuel recovery scenario (*ff*) that assumes the recovery from the COVID-19 economic downturn preferentially supports polluting fossil-fuel-based economic sectors;
  - A moderate and strong green recovery scenario (called *mg* and *sg*, respectively) that assume different levels of preferential stimulus of green sectors during the recovery from COVID-19 (e.g., see Andrijevic et al. (2020)) that would lead to limiting global mean temperature increase relative to preindustrial levels to well below  $2^\circ\text{C}$  and to  $1.5^\circ\text{C}$ , respectively (Forster et al., 2020b).

108 The near-term evolution of  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  during the COVID-19 lockdown period uses  
 109 the activity scaling method of (Forster et al., 2020b). For the extensions beyond the COVID-  
 110 19 lockdown period and until 2050, the large-scale global relationships between green-  
 111 house gases, aerosols and aerosol precursors as found in detailed emissions scenarios de-  
 112 rived with integrated assessment models were used (Lamboll et al., 2020). Emissions evo-  
 113 lutions of  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  compatible with each of the above scenario have been estimated,  
 114 based on the relationships found in the scenario ensemble compiled and assessed as part  
 115 of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change’s (IPCC) Special Report on Global  
 116 Warming of  $1.5^\circ\text{C}$  (Rogelj et al., 2018; Huppmann et al., 2018).

## 117 2.2 Anthropogenic aerosol parameterization

118 We use the emissions of  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  from Forster et al. (2020b) to create the new  
 119 input data for the novel simple-plumes parameterization MACv2-SP (Fiedler et al., 2017;  
 120 Stevens et al., 2017) in use for representing anthropogenic aerosol effects in climate mod-  
 121 els of CMIP6 [e.g., Mauritsen2019]. MACv2-SP prescribes month-to-month and year-to-  
 122 year changes of the three dimensional fields of anthropogenic aerosol optical properties  
 123 and associated effects on clouds. Temporal changes from 1850 to 2100 have been derived  
 124 by scaling the anthropogenic aerosol optical depth of 2005 with the CMIP6 emission amounts  
 125 of  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  (Stevens et al., 2017; Fiedler et al., 2019b). This scaling did not account  
 126 for the effect of the pandemic on anthropogenic emissions. We therefore create here new  
 127 MACv2-SP input data, based on the new emission data sets for 2015–2050, which ac-  
 128 count for the COVID-19 pandemic and four recovery scenarios (Forster et al., 2020b).

129 For creating the new MACv2-SP data, we scale the anthropogenic aerosol optical  
 130 depth and the effect on clouds from 2005 to other years by multiplying scaling factors



**Figure 3.** Example of the scaling factors for the aerosol optical depth in the centre of the aerosol plumes for two scenarios. Shown are the annual scaling factors for the color-coded plumes calculated from the (a) baseline and (b) two-year-blip emission data for the years provided in the data. The pandemic period 2019–2023 is marked with grey shading.

131 in the centre of the plumes, marked in Figure 2a. Mathematical functions in MACv2-  
 132 SP use the values in the plume centers to create the three dimensional distribution of  
 133 the aerosol extinction. As an example, Figure 2 shows the maps of the mid-visible anthro-  
 134 pogenic aerosol optical depth in 2050 from MACv2-SP for three scenarios that we  
 135 derive here. Technically, we create annual scaling factors for each plume center and each  
 136 year to be represented in MACv2-SP. A comprehensive technical description of MACv2-  
 137 SP is given by Stevens et al. (2017).

138 Our method for constructing the scaling factors for MACv2-SP is similar to the method  
 139 for the CMIP6 scenarios (Fiedler et al., 2019b). The anthropogenic aerosol optical depth  
 140  $\tau_i$  in each plume center  $i = 1, \dots, 9$  is scaled with the emission scaling factor  $E_i$  for the  
 141 years  $t$  with:

$$\tau_i(t) = E_i(t)\tau_i(2005) \quad (1)$$

142 We use  $\tau_i(2005)$  at 550 nm from Stevens et al. (2017). The scaling factors  $E_i(t)$  are con-  
 143 structed from the anthropogenic emission  $\epsilon_{ik}$  of the species  $k$ . These are the gridded emis-  
 144 sion data for  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  from the emission data version 4 (Forster et al., 2020b). The  
 145 calculation of  $E_i(t)$  follows Fiedler et al. (2019a):

$$E_i(t) = \frac{\sum_{k=1,2} w_k [\epsilon_{ik}(t) - \epsilon_{ik}(1850)]}{\sum_{k=1,2} w_k [\epsilon_{ik}(2005) - \epsilon_{ik}(1850)]} \quad (2)$$

146 The emissions of 1850 and 2005 are taken from the CMIP6 historical emission data. We  
 147 consider emissions from all anthropogenic sectors provided by Forster et al. (2020b), and  
 148 include open burning emissions from the CMIP6 scenario SSP2-45. SSP2-45 is the base-  
 149 line for the experiments to be carried out in COVID-MIP (Lamboll, et al., in prep.). The  
 150 anthropogenic emissions  $\epsilon_{ik}$  are integrated values over the 10x10 grid boxes surround-  
 151 ing the plume center. The weights  $w_k$  for the two species are  $w_1 = 0.645$  for  $\text{SO}_2$  and  
 152  $w_2 = 0.355$  for  $\text{NH}_3$ , representing the forcing ratio of sulphate against ammonia for present  
 153 day (Stevens et al., 2017).

154 Figure 3 shows examples of the scaling factors for each of the nine aerosol plume  
 155 centers  $i$ . Contrasting the baseline against the two-year-blip data illustrates the reduc-  
 156 tion of  $E_i$  for 2020–2021. The reduction for  $E_i$  is particularly strong for the plumes over

157 India and South America. Comparably smaller changes are seen in areas where the an-  
 158 thropogenic aerosol burden has been relatively small in the past decade, i.e., Europe and  
 159 North America, and where biomass burning contributes more to the aerosol burden than  
 160 other anthropogenic sources, namely in the African plumes.

161 MACv2-SP typically uses one  $E_i(t)$  per decade with linear interpolation in between.  
 162 This is the same here, except that we also construct the scaling factors for the individ-  
 163 ual years around 2020 for consistency with the COVID-19 emission data. We note that  
 164 the observed small-scale structures in the aerosol burden, e.g., like in local observations,  
 165 cannot be created with MACv2-SP owing to the design and purpose of this parameter-  
 166 ization (Stevens et al., 2017). As such results from using these individual years in later  
 167 studies should be interpreted as estimates for the large-scale influence and not as local  
 168 constraints of the forcing for individual years.

169 Aerosol absorption is prescribed with the single scattering albedo of  $\omega_0 = 0.93$   
 170 for industrial plumes and  $\omega_0 = 0.87$  for plumes additionally affected by biomass burn-  
 171 ing, marked in Figure 2a. The asymmetry parameter,  $\gamma = 0.63$ , is constant. MACv2-  
 172 SP uses the Angstrom exponent  $\alpha = 2$  to interpolate the aerosol optical properties for  
 173 different wavelengths.

174 Additionally to the aerosol optical properties, MACv2-SP prescribes aerosol effects  
 175 on the cloud droplet number concentrations  $N$ . The latter is induced with the prefac-  
 176 tor  $\eta_N$  to be multiplied with  $N$  in the host model:

$$\eta_N = 1 + \frac{dN}{N} = \frac{\ln[1000(\tau_a(\phi, \lambda, t) + \tau_b(\phi, \lambda, t)) + 1]}{\ln[1000\tau_b(\phi, \lambda, t) + 1]} \quad (3)$$

177 The background aerosol optical depth ( $\tau_b$ ) is a simplified representation that follows the  
 178 plume structure for  $\tau_a$  to parameterize the aerosol effect on clouds. Host models can mul-  
 179 tiply  $\eta_N$  with  $N$  in the radiation transfer calculation to induce a Twomey effect only,  
 180 e.g., in MPI-ESM1.2, or in the cloud microphysics to allow further rapid adjustments  
 181 of clouds, e.g., in EC-Earth3. Additional documentation of MACv2-SP and details on  
 182 the application in climate studies is given elsewhere (e.g., Fiedler et al., 2017; Stevens  
 183 et al., 2017; Fiedler et al., 2019a).

184 The new MACv2-SP input data are provided as supplementary material for use  
 185 in climate studies, e.g., in COVID-MIP (Lamboll, et al., in prep.). It covers the base-  
 186 line and scenarios that assume recoveries after COVID-19 that intensify the use of fos-  
 187 sil fuels, follow a moderate or strong green pathway, and return to a business as usual  
 188 pathway after the assumed two-year interruption by the pandemic in 2020 and 2021.

### 189 2.3 Model experiment strategy

190 We estimate the ERF of the anthropogenic aerosol reduction in 2020 and the ERF  
 191 spread associated with the recovery scenarios in 2050 from the new data. To this end,  
 192 we perform atmosphere-only simulations with EC-Earth3 and compute the ERF of the  
 193 anthropogenic aerosols at the top of the atmosphere and the surface, i.e., the instantane-  
 194 ous radiative effects plus the rapid adjustments in the atmosphere. EC-Earth3 is an  
 195 Earth system model participating in CMIP6. It is based on the atmosphere and land-  
 196 surface model from ECMWF's IFS cycle 36r4, and the ocean and sea-ice model NEMO  
 197 version 3.6. The implementation of MACv2-SP in EC-Earth3 (Doescher, et al., in prep.)  
 198 is such that the model accounts for aerosol-radiation interactions and aerosol-cloud in-  
 199 teractions, including aerosol albedo and cloud lifetime effects (Fiedler et al., 2019a).

200 Our simulations use annually repeating aerosol optical properties and associated  
 201 effects on clouds for the years 2020 and 2050. We run experiment with the setups:

**Table 1.** Global means from the new MACv2-SP data and EC-Earth3 experiments. Shown are the ERF at the top of the atmosphere ( $ERF_{TOA}$ ) and at the surface ( $ERF_{SFC}$ ) calculated against  $pi$  as the mean  $\pm$  95% confidence interval. (\*) marks differences to the baseline that are statistically significant at the 95 % level.

Experiment	$\overline{\tau_a}$	$\overline{\eta_N}$	$ERF_{TOA}$ [ $\text{Wm}^{-2}$ ]	$ERF_{SFC}$ [ $\text{Wm}^{-2}$ ]
2020-base	0.021	1.060	$-0.661 \pm 0.087$	$-1.449 \pm 0.047$
2020-blp	0.019	1.056	$-0.622 \pm 0.072$	$-1.338 \pm 0.038$ (*)
2050-base	0.019	1.054	$-0.631 \pm 0.068$	$-1.324 \pm 0.035$
2050-ff	0.020	1.057	$-0.675 \pm 0.081$	$-1.409 \pm 0.041$ (*)
2050-mg	0.012	1.038	$-0.382 \pm 0.080$ (*)	$-0.875 \pm 0.036$ (*)
2050-sg	0.014	1.040	$-0.461 \pm 0.069$ (*)	$-0.987 \pm 0.039$ (*)

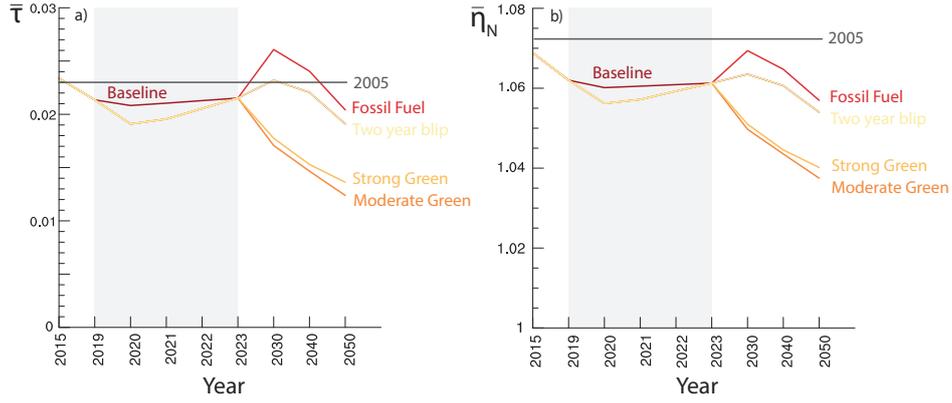
- 202 • *base*: new MACv2-SP properties from the baseline for the year 2020 (*2020-base*)  
203 and 2050 (*2050-base*).
- 204 • *2020-blp*: new MACv2-SP properties from the two-year-blip for 2020,
- 205 • *2050*: new MACv2-SP properties for 2050 from the recovery scenarios that are  
206 either primarily fossil-fuel based (*2050-ff*), moderate (*2050-mg*) or strong green  
207 (*2050-sg*), and
- 208 • *pi*: without anthropogenic aerosol effects for calculating the ERF in 2020 and 2050  
209 relative to the pre-industrial.

210 The setup of the experiments follows Wyser et al. (2020) and is identical except for the  
211 listed changes in the anthropogenic aerosols. We use a pre-industrial experiment setup,  
212 as typical for radiative forcing calculations from contemporary climate model experiments  
213 (Pincus et al., 2016; Fiedler et al., 2019a; Smith et al., 2020). This means we prescribe  
214 annually repeating pre-industrial boundary conditions in atmosphere-only experiments  
215 like for a *piClim-control* experiment in the Radiative Forcing Model Inter-comparison  
216 project (RFMIP, Pincus et al., 2016), i.e., a monthly climatology for sea-surface tem-  
217 peratures and sea ice derived from the model's pre-industrial control experiments for CMIP6.  
218 All simulations are run for 55 years. The first 5 simulation years are discarded in our anal-  
219 yses. We compute 50-year averages for ERF to eliminate the impact of natural year-to-  
220 year variability on the estimate (Fiedler et al., 2019a).

## 221 3 Results

### 222 3.1 Annual means of $\tau_a$ and $\eta_N$

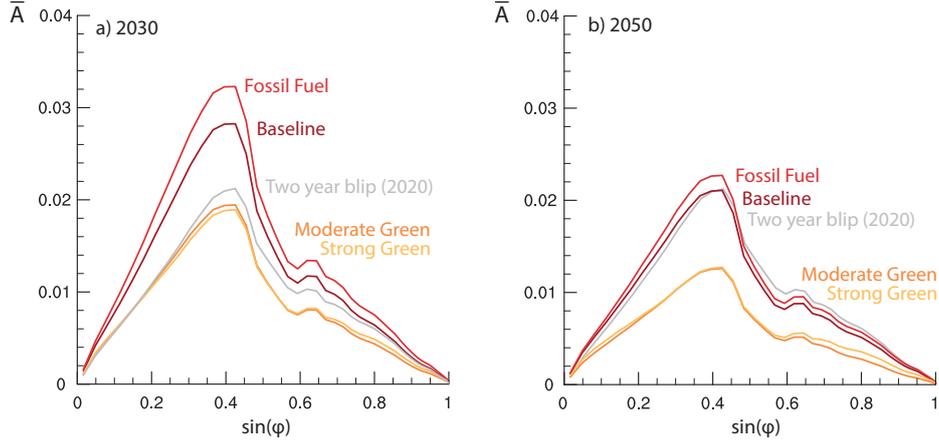
223 We show the global annual means of the anthropogenic aerosol optical depth ( $\overline{\tau_a}$ )  
224 and the prefactor for inducing aerosol effects on clouds ( $\overline{\eta_N}$ ) in Figure 4. Both  $\overline{\tau_a}$  and  
225  $\overline{\eta_N}$  clearly reduce during the pandemic, e.g., by 0.002 for 2020 compared to the baseline  
226 and by 0.005 compared to 2005. These translate to a reduction by about 10% and 25%  
227 for the global  $\overline{\tau_a}$  in 2020 and 2050. The associated effect on  $\overline{\eta_N}$  is consistent with the  
228 change in  $\overline{\tau_a}$ , with a reduction of  $\overline{\eta_N}$  by 0.004 compared to baseline and 0.017 compared  
229 to 2005, i.e., a global reduction in  $\eta_N$  by about 0.5–1%. All data sets have the same emis-  
230 sions for 2015–2023, except the baseline. Hence results from MACv2-SP other than the  
231 baseline are identical with the two-year-blip results for this period (Figure 4 and Table  
232 1).



**Figure 4.** MACv2-SP  $\tau_a$  in 2015–2050. Shown are the global annual means in (a) the anthropogenic aerosol optical depth ( $\tau_a$ ) at 550 nm and (b) the scaling factor the cloud droplet number concentration ( $\eta_N$ ) for the scenarios. The pandemic period 2019–2023 is marked with grey shading. The baseline and two-year blip scenario overlap for 2030–2050. All scenarios except baseline overlap for 2015–2030. The 2005 value from the historical scaling is marked as horizontal line.

233 The post-pandemic recovery of  $\tau_a$  and  $\eta_N$  strongly depends on the scenario. The  
 234  $\bar{\tau}_a$  in 2030 is close to the value in 2005 in the baseline and two-year-blip scenario, larger  
 235 in the fossil fuel scenario, and substantially smaller for both green scenarios (Figure 4).  
 236 By 2050 all scenarios point to a decrease of  $\bar{\tau}_a$  relative to 2005, with the strongest re-  
 237 duction in the moderate green not the strong green scenario. This might be counter in-  
 238 tuitive since a stronger green scenario might suggest cleaner air. The smaller  $\bar{\tau}_a$  in the  
 239 moderate green scenario is due to the lower emissions of  $\text{NH}_3$  compared to the strong  
 240 green by about  $-3.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  in 2050, integrated over the globe and sectors. Al-  
 241 though the emissions of  $\text{SO}_2$  are smaller in the strong green scenario, the total effect of  
 242  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{SO}_2$  on the scaling factor  $E_i$  (Section 2) leads to a slightly larger  $\bar{\tau}_a$  in the strong  
 243 green scenarios.

244 The assumption of larger  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions in the strong green recovery scenario compared to  
 245 the moderate green recovery scenario is the result of changes in the structure  
 246 of the economy in low emissions scenarios, particularly related to agricultural practice  
 247 and energy provision. Stringent emissions scenarios to an increasing degree rely on more  
 248 efficient food and biomass production to support a growing world population while gener-  
 249 ating low-carbon energy and enable possibilities of carbon-dioxide sequestration (Popp  
 250 et al., 2017). The fertilizer use required to achieve this results in an increase in  $\text{NH}_3$  emis-  
 251 sions. Furthermore, stringent climate change mitigation scenarios often rely on very high  
 252 shares of renewable energy, which have intermittent power generation properties and thus  
 253 require energy storage technologies to bridge gaps in supply. One energy storage tech-  
 254 nology that can store energy across seasons and even multiple years is associated with  
 255  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions (Society, 2020). The projected increased use of ammonia, as a fuel and  
 256 for energy storage, results in larger projected emissions of  $\text{NH}_3$  due to leakage and due  
 257 to imperfect transport or storage. Slightly higher  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions in the strong green (*sg*)  
 258 than the moderate (*mg*) recovery scenarios are hence consistent with the general under-  
 259 standing of the technologies and practices that would be required for a transformation  
 260 to a strongly decarbonized society.



**Figure 5.** Hemispheric asymmetry for  $\tau_a$ . Shown is the hemispheric asymmetry ( $A$ ) as function of the sinus of the geographical latitude for (a) 2030 and (b) 2050 for all scenarios. Baseline and two-year blip are identical for these years. We mark the values of the two-year blip scenario in 2020 as a reference.

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### 3.2 Hemispheric asymmetry in $\tau_a$

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The spatial distribution of  $\tau_a$ , measured by the hemispheric asymmetry, is qualitatively similar across the scenarios, but the magnitudes differ. Figure 5 illustrates the hemispheric asymmetry  $A$ :

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$$A = \frac{\overline{\tau_a(\phi)} - \overline{\tau_a(-\phi)}}{2} \quad (4)$$

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using the zonal averages  $\tau_a(\phi)$  at the same geographical latitudes on the northern ( $\phi$ ) and southern hemisphere ( $-\phi$ ). All scenarios have larger  $A$  in the tropics and sub-tropics than further poleward (Fig. 5), consistent with the CMIP6 scenarios (Fiedler et al., 2019a). For 2030, the fossil fuel and baseline scenarios have substantially higher  $A$  than for 2020. In the middle of the 21st century,  $A$  in the fossil fuel and baseline scenarios are more similar to each other and close to  $A$  from 2020.

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The temporal behaviour for  $A$  in the green scenarios is opposite to the fossil-fuel dominated scenarios, i.e., they are close to  $A$  from 2020 in 2030 and differ in 2050. Both green scenarios in 2030 have particularly similar  $A$  to 2020 in the tropics and slightly larger differences poleward. In 2050, the green scenarios are still similar to each other, but have overall smaller  $A$  compared to 2020, e.g., a reduction by 50% in the maximum around  $\phi = 24^\circ$ . This reflects the decrease in  $\tau_a$  due to improved air quality in a green recovery (compare Fig. 4).

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### 3.3 Seasonal cycle in $\tau_a$

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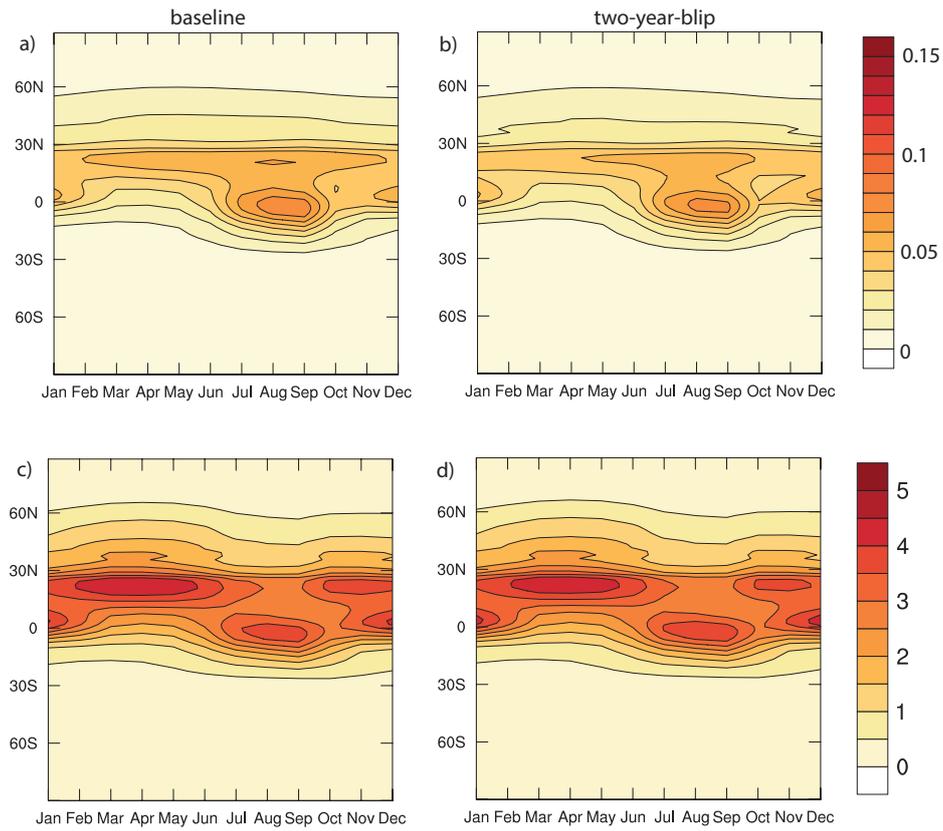
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The month-to-month changes in  $\tau_a$  from MACv2-SP is dominated by the biomass burning seasons. These lead to tropical maxima in  $\tau_a$  between July and October and November and February (Fig. 6a–b). From the sub-tropics to the poles, the seasonal cycle in the scenarios slightly differ from the baseline for 2020. Note here again that all data sets are identical with the two-year-blip in 2020, except the baseline. Overall, the seasonal and zonal patterns are very similar, e.g., seen with the weighting by the global  $\tau_a$  (Fig. 6c–d) with only marginal changes as we go towards 2050 (not shown).

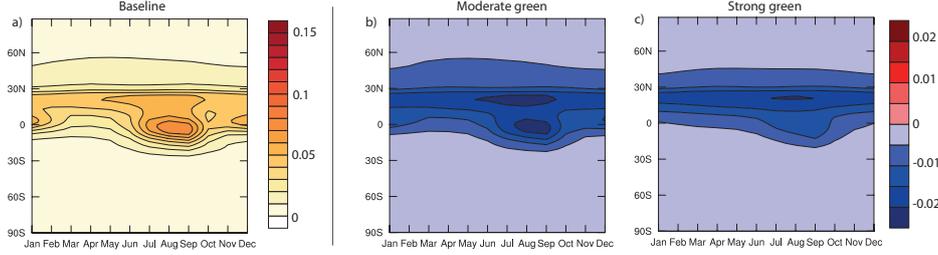
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In 2050, the overall seasonal pattern in  $\tau_a$  remains qualitatively similar, but the magnitudes strongly depend on the scenario. The green scenarios show the largest re-



**Figure 6.** MACv2-SP  $\tau_a$  patterns in 2020. Shown are the annual cycles of the anthropogenic aerosol optical depth ( $\tau_a$ ) at 550 nm as (top) zonal means and (bottom) zonal means weighted by  $\overline{\tau_a}$  for the (left) baseline, and (right) two-year-blip scenario.



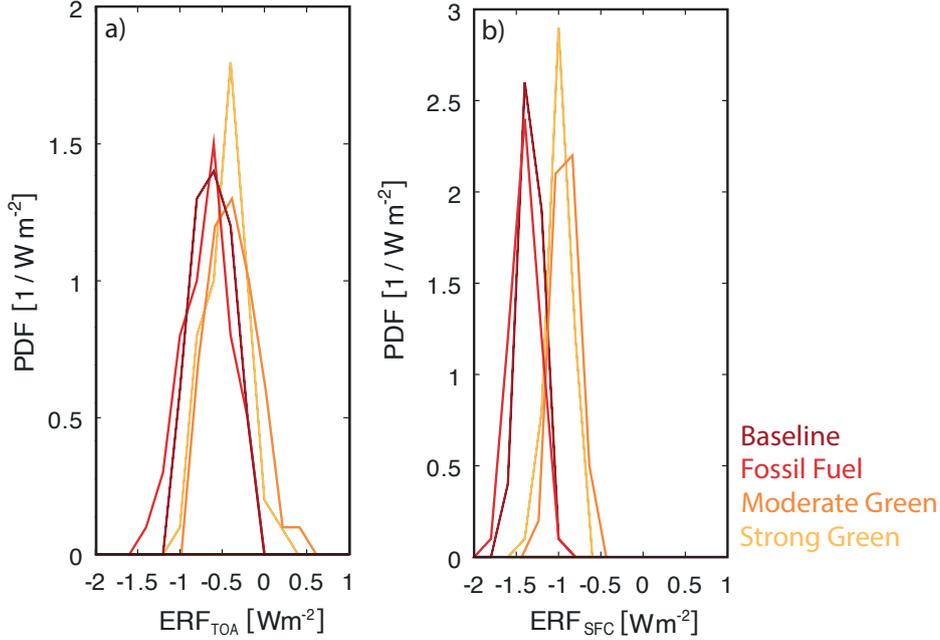
**Figure 7.** MACv2-SP  $\tau_a$  patterns in 2050. Shown is the annual cycles of the anthropogenic aerosol optical depth ( $\tau_a$ ) at 550 nm as (a) zonal mean for the baseline, and (b–c) difference of the green scenarios relative to baseline for 2050.

288 reductions in  $\tau_a$  that are primarily projected in the northern hemisphere equatorward of  
 289  $50^\circ\text{N}$ . Here, the strongest reductions occur between June and October in the moderate  
 290 green scenario. Again the stronger reduction in  $\tau_a$  in the moderate than the strong green  
 291 green scenario is associated with the larger emissions of  $\text{NH}_3$  in the strong green recovery lead-  
 292 ing to larger  $\tau_a$  than for the moderate green scenario.

### 293 3.4 Global radiative forcing

294 We calculate the global ERF of anthropogenic aerosols from our experiments with  
 295 the new MACv2-SP data at the top of the atmosphere and at the surface,  $ERF_{TOA}$  and  
 296  $ERF_{SFC}$ . For 2020, the impact of the reduction in anthropogenic aerosols compared to  
 297 the baseline is a less negative  $ERF_{TOA}$  by about  $+0.04 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  (Table 1). This reduc-  
 298 tion is small compared to the the year-to-year variability in the model, reflected by the  
 299 confidence intervals about the mean of  $\pm 0.07 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  to  $\pm 0.09 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  across our ensem-  
 300 ble of model simulations. Again these estimates are based on fifty years of simulations  
 301 with annually repeating aerosol patterns. It will therefore be difficult to disentangle any  
 302 differences in the TOA radiation budget due to reductions in aerosols during the pan-  
 303 demic from differences arising due to natural variability in both observations and small  
 304 ensembles of simulations. We identify a larger and statistically significant difference in  
 305  $ERF_{SFC}$  associated with the aerosol reduction during the pandemic compared to the  
 306 baseline of the order of  $0.1 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  (Table 1). This implies that radiation observations  
 307 at the surface and sufficiently many model estimates for  $ERF_{SFC}$  can be more informa-  
 308 tive for quantifying the influence of the pandemic on the global radiation and energy bud-  
 309 get than estimates for the TOA.

310 The spread in  $ERF_{TOA}$  of anthropogenic aerosols due to the different scenarios for  
 311 2050 is  $-0.68 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  to  $-0.38 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  (Table 1). Compared to the baseline, these are dif-  
 312 ferences of  $+0.05$  to  $-0.25 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ . The least negative  $ERF_{TOA}$  occurs for the moderate  
 313 green scenario, consistent with the lowest  $\tau_a$  across the MACv2-SP data associated with  
 314 the lower  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions than in the strong green scenario. We obtain  $ERF_{TOA}$  of the  
 315 anthropogenic aerosols for the green scenarios that are statistically significant different  
 316 compared to the baseline. Baseline and the fossil-fuel based scenarios, however, yield very  
 317 similar  $ERF_{TOA}$  for 2050, consistent with small differences in  $\bar{\tau}_a$  and  $\bar{\eta}_N$  for the two sce-  
 318 narios (Figure 8a). The  $ERF_{SFC}$  for 2050 is more negative than  $ERF_{TOA}$  (Figure 8b)  
 319 and has a smaller 95 % confidence interval of about  $\pm 0.04 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  compared to  $ERF_{TOA}$ .  
 320 We therefore find for all scenarios a statistically significant difference in  $ERF_{SFC}$  rel-  
 321 ative to 2050-base (Table 1).



**Figure 8.** Probability density function for the global mean ERF in 2050. Shown are the occurrence frequency of annual mean ERF at (a) the top of the atmosphere (TOA) and (b) the surface (SFC) for the color-coded scenarios in 2050. ERF is calculated from 50 years of data from our EC-Earth3 experiments with anthropogenic aerosols (*2050-base*, *2050-ff*, *2050-mg*, *2050-sg*) against the pre-industrial control experiment (*pi*).

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### 3.5 Pattern of radiative effects

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We assess the spatial distribution of the radiative effects associated with the anthropogenic aerosols. To this end, we calculate the effective radiative effects in all-sky ( $F_{all}$ ), clear-sky ( $F_{clr}$ ), and cloudy-sky ( $F_{cld}$ ) using the relationship:

$$F_{all} = (1 - f)F_{clr} + fF_{cld}, \quad (5)$$

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with the total cloud cover ( $f$ ). Figure 9 and 10 show the results for the top of the atmosphere (TOA) and at the surface.

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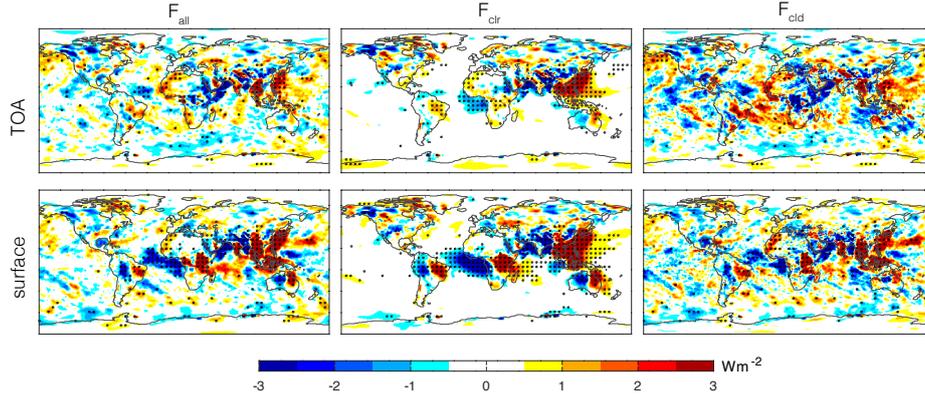
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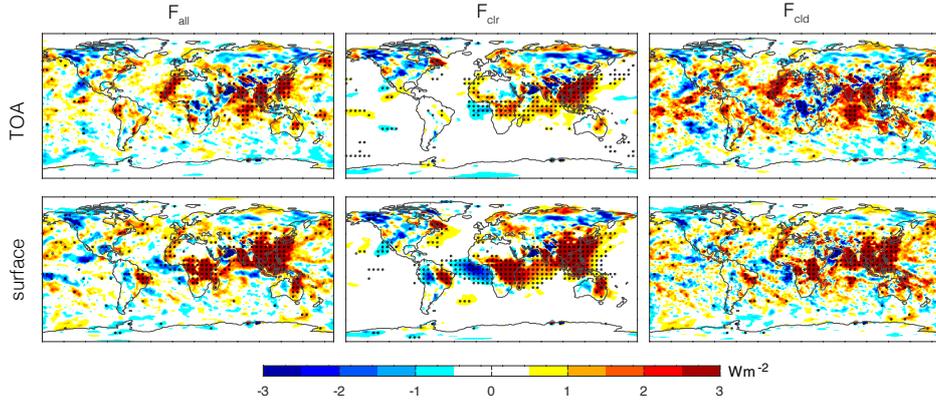
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For 2020, we find some evidence for regionally significant differences in the radiative effects at TOA associated with anthropogenic aerosol reductions due to the pandemic, but the spatial extent of these regions is typically small in  $F_{all}$  (Figure 9). This is primarily explained by the strong variability of clouds, leading to only limited areas offshore of major pollution with a significant increase in  $F_{cld}$ , hence a less negative (weaker)  $F_{cld}$  due to the pandemic. The signal for  $F_{clr}$  at TOA is more distinct, and indicates less negative radiative effects over larger regions, e.g., offshore of typically polluted regions in Asia. At the surface, the regional differences in the described radiative effects are more pronounced and spatially further extended, covering large parts in Southeast Asia and East Asia both over land and ocean. Surface measurements in these regions could potentially help to constrain the aerosol effects on climate. Much of the radiative effects occur over oceans, where the measurement network is typically sparse. Efforts to collect necessary observations during this unique situation could involve sun photometer measurements aboard research vessels as part of the Maritime Aerosol Network (e.g., Smirnov et al., 2009) and in-situ measurements aboard aircrafts based on existing expertises (e.g., Zuidema et al., 2016).



**Figure 9.** Differences in effective radiative effects due to the pandemic in 2020. Shown are differences between *2020-blp* and *2020-base* for the effective radiative effects in (left) all-sky ( $F_{all}$ ), (middle) clear-sky ( $F_{clr}$ ) and (right) cloudy-sky ( $F_{cld}$ ) at (top) the top of the atmosphere and (bottom) the surface. Black dots mark regions where the differences are statistically significant at the 95 % confidence level.



**Figure 10.** As Fig. 9 but for the differences between the moderate green (*2050-mg*) against the baseline (*2050-base*) scenario in 2050.

344 The scenario differences in  $F_{all}$  at TOA for 2050 are largest in South, Southeast  
 345 and East Asia (Figure 10). Here,  $F_{clr}$  shows significant differences with less negative radiative  
 346 effects in the moderate green scenario compared to the baseline by up to  $3 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ .  
 347 The pattern of  $F_{cld}$  is again more inhomogeneous than  $F_{clr}$ . The overall pattern for  $F_{all}$   
 348 differences at the surface is again qualitatively similar, but the magnitude and spatial  
 349 extent are larger. Based on these results, significant scenario differences for the radiative  
 350 effects associated with anthropogenic aerosols are primarily confined to the tropics  
 351 and sub-tropics close to hotspots for industrial activity at present.

## 352 4 Conclusion

353 We show the anthropogenic aerosol optical properties and the associated effect on  
 354 clouds based on the new COVID-19 emission data. Our results point to a reduction in  
 355 the global anthropogenic aerosol optical depth by 10% due to the pandemic compared

356 to the baseline. Scenarios for the post-pandemic recovery indicate a continuous increase  
357 in aerosols until 2030 in half of the scenarios and a general decrease for 2030—2050. The  
358 spread in the anthropogenic aerosol optical depth in 2050 is 0.012 to 0.02, which is lower  
359 than in 2005. These values fall within the lower end of the spread in 2050 obtained from  
360 the original CMIP6 aerosol scenarios (Fiedler et al., 2019b).

361 First estimates of the effective radiative forcing (ERF) associated with the new an-  
362 thropogenic aerosols are calculated from several hundred years of atmosphere-only sim-  
363 ulations with EC-Earth3. The results highlight a weaker (less negative) aerosol ERF of  
364 the order of 10% during the pandemic relative to the baseline. Such small ERF differ-  
365 ences require long averaging, hence our 50 years of simulations for each aerosol pattern  
366 assessed here. The small change in aerosol ERF for the time of the pandemic is not ex-  
367 pected to induce a global climate response that is clearly detectable in light of model-  
368 internal variability. Even regional radiative effects are rather difficult to detect at the  
369 top of the atmosphere. We find, however, more significant effective radiative effects at  
370 the surface in regions typically more strongly polluted by aerosols. Any attempt to use  
371 the pandemic period to constraint aerosol effects should therefore focus on areas in South  
372 and East Asia, primarily focusing on effects at the surface. This may involve station ob-  
373 servations, but our experiments suggest that much of the aerosol signal is expected off-  
374 shore of land with major pollution in the past decades. We therefore propose to also use  
375 other measurements, e.g., from sun photometers aboard research vessels or in-situ in-  
376 struments aboard aircrafts. Measurements outside of clouds might be particularly ben-  
377 efiticial, although much research focuses on aerosol-cloud interactions. Our model results  
378 indeed suggest that there are better chances to obtain a signal in clear sky conditions  
379 at the surface rather than in cloudy and all sky. We mostly find poor prospects to mea-  
380 sure a meaningful regional effect on clouds due to the strong influence of natural vari-  
381 ability.

382 For 2050, we obtain an ERF spread of  $-0.68$  to  $-0.38$   $\text{Wm}^{-2}$ , which is smaller than  
383 the ERF from the same model for 2005 and 1975 (Fiedler et al., 2019a). These ERF es-  
384 timates for 2050 fall within the ERF spread for 2095 associated with the emission path-  
385 ways from CMIP6 and uncertainty in aerosol-cloud interactions (Fiedler et al., 2019b).  
386 Interestingly, the stronger green scenario does not yield the smallest anthropogenic aerosol  
387 optical depth and least negative forcing, but the moderate green recovery does. This is  
388 associated with a relative increase in  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions due to intense land-use paired with  
389 an energy system primarily relying on renewable sources. Such a pathway implies a slightly  
390 stronger warming due to weaker aerosol cooling in the strong green than the moderate  
391 green scenario. We expect, however, a stronger reduction in greenhouse gas emissions  
392 in the strong green pathway. Taken together the anthropogenic warming in the strong  
393 green scenario is therefore expected to be the weakest. Regionally, our simulations sug-  
394 gest the largest differences in the aerosol radiative effects across sub-tropical and trop-  
395 ical regions.

396 Our global ERF estimates for the anthropogenic aerosols fall within the plausible  
397 range of the present-day aerosol ERF (Bellouin et al., 2020) underlining the still large  
398 uncertainty in our understanding of aerosol effects compared to our ability to estimate  
399 a change in ERF from different emission pathways from a complex model. We expect  
400 that models participating in COVID-MIP will show diversity in their aerosol ERF ow-  
401 ing to model-internal variability and model biases, even when they use the same emis-  
402 sions or MACv2-SP data (e.g., Fiedler et al., 2019a; Smith et al., 2020). Reasons for the  
403 model diversity in aerosol ERF include not only uncertainties in the aerosol parameter-  
404 izations, but also the ability of the host model to accurately simulate important processes  
405 influencing the aerosol life cycle and therefore ERF, e.g., the parameterization of clouds  
406 and the representation of circulation. Future research should therefore also address the  
407 relative contributions from host model biases to the model diversity in ERF, e.g., using

408 simulations performed in the framework of the Radiative Forcing Model Inter-comparison  
409 Project (RFMIP, Pincus et al., 2016) endorsed by CMIP6.

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422 freely accessible in the supplement of previous (Stevens et al., 2017; Fiedler et al., 2019a)  
423 and this article. The EC-Earth3 simulations were performed on resources provided by  
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425 the EC-Earth3 simulations used in this study are available from Wyser (2020).

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