



1 **Aerosol immission maps and trends over Germany with hourly data at four rural**
2 **background stations from 2009 to 2018**

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11 Abstract

12 Ten years of hourly aerosol and gas data at four rural German stations have been combined
13 with hourly back trajectories to the stations and inventories of the European EDGAR emission
14 database yielding immission maps over Germany of PM₁₀, particle number concentrations, and
15 equivalent black carbon (eBC). The maps reflect aerosol emissions modified with atmospheric
16 processes during transport between sources and receptor sites. Compared to emission maps
17 strong Western European emission centers do not necessarily dominate the downwind
18 concentrations because their emissions are reduced by atmospheric processes on the way to the
19 receptor area. PM₁₀, eBC, and to some extent also particle number concentrations are rather
20 controlled by emissions from Southeastern Europe from which pollution transport often occurs
21 under dryer conditions. Newly formed particles are found in air masses from a broad sector
22 reaching from Southern Germany to Western Europe which we explain with gaseous particle
23 precursors coming with little wet scavenging from this region.

24 Annual emissions for 2009 of PM₁₀, BC, SO₂, and NO_x were accumulated along each
25 trajectory and compared with the corresponding measured time series. The agreement of each
26 pair of time series was optimized by varying monthly factors and annual factors on the 2009



27 emissions. This approach yielded broader summer emission minima than published values that
28 were partly displaced from the midsummer positions. For BC, SO₂, and NO_x stronger emission-
29 reductions were determined than what GEA and EEA reported. These findings are emphasized
30 with 2017 as endpoint of the trend from which on our study shows emission increases.
31 Comparing calculated trends with emission trends in neighboring countries as published by
32 EEA supports the explanation that the observed trends are to some extent due to changes in
33 imported air masses. Most strongly this holds for SO₂, the trend of which follows that of
34 Romanian emissions rather well.

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37 **1 Introduction**

38

39 The atmospheric aerosol is known to influence the Earth's radiation budget because it directly
40 scatters and absorbs solar radiation (Schwartz, 1996; Bond et al., 2013), and acts as cloud
41 condensation nuclei, thus modulating the optical properties and lifetimes of clouds (Twomey,
42 1974; Penner et al., 2004). In many regions of the globe that had undergone industrialization
43 early on, anthropogenic aerosol concentrations are currently in decline (Leibensperger et al.,
44 2012; Zanatta et al., 2016). With respect to declining concentrations and emissions, Samset et al.
45 (2018) suggest that removing present-day anthropogenic aerosol emissions – assuming constant
46 greenhouse gas emissions, could lead to a global mean surface heating as high as 0.5–1.1°C.

47

48 Besides climate, the atmospheric aerosol has been acknowledged to influence human health
49 through respiratory and cardiovascular health endpoints (Anderson et al., 2012). Lelieveld et
50 al., (2015) quantified the world-wide burden of disease (premature mortality) due to outdoor
51 pollution, large part of which was attributed to airborne particulate matter. It is apparent that
52 the distribution of adverse health effects is very uneven among the world-wide population,
53 depending on the local level of outdoor pollution.

54

55 In view of the described man-driven effects it seems imperative to develop instruments to
56 reliably monitor changes in anthropogenic aerosol concentrations as well as an understanding
57 of the balance between aerosol sources and measured concentrations. Researchers have strived
58 to obtain a spatial picture of the distribution of pollutants, and to achieve a connection between
59 the sources of pollution and concentrations downwind. A widely used method has been the
60 extrapolation of concentrations measured in one or several locations into two-dimensional
61 space through the use of meteorological dispersion approaches: The first maps of particulate



62 air pollutants over Europe were constructed in the 1970s with the help of coarse emission data
63 and simple trajectory models (Eliassen, 1978). Statistical methods were developed to connect
64 pollution sources and ensuing aerosol concentrations at receptor sites (Miller et al., 1972;
65 Friedlander, 1973; Cass and McRae, 1983). By combining statistics with back trajectory data
66 sectorial information about sources controlling the composition of the aerosol over Southern
67 Sweden was derived by Swietlicki et al., (1988). Later the approach of using back trajectories
68 to map aerosol sources was refined by Stohl (1996) and tested with one-year sulfate data from
69 the co-operative program for monitoring and evaluation of the long-range transmission of air
70 pollutants in Europe (EMEP, www.emep.int). In a similar approach with five years of aerosol
71 data from a single Siberian receptor site Heintzenberg et al. (2013) identified potential source
72 regions over Eurasia and with aerosol data from four Swedish icebreaker expeditions over the
73 Central Arctic (Heintzenberg et al., 2015). Charron et al. (2008) constructed concentration field
74 maps to identify the source regions of specific types of aerosol particle size distributions
75 arriving in England. All these works share the approach that time-dependent information on
76 concentrations measured at receptor site(s) are transformed into space, thus allowing
77 conclusions on the potential source regions of gaseous and/or particulate emissions.

78

79 With more comprehensive air quality models concentrations of specific aerosol were
80 mapped over Europe together with short temporal developments (e.g., Schell et al., 2001). For
81 specific episodes high spatial resolution aerosol concentration maps in urban and non-urban
82 European areas have been generated with sophisticated chemistry transport models (e.g.,
83 Beekmann et al., 2015; Riemer et al., 2004; Wolke et al., 2004). For the years 2002 and 2003
84 Marmer and Langman (2007) analyzed the spatial and temporal variability of the aerosol
85 distribution over Europe with a regional atmosphere-chemistry model. They found that
86 meteorological conditions play a major role in spatial and temporal variability in the European
87 aerosol burden distribution. Regionally, year to year variability of modeled monthly mean



88 aerosol burden reached up to 100% because of different weather conditions. In the present
89 study ten years of hourly aerosol data at four German stations were available for the
90 identification of potential source regions. As it appears unrealistic to analyze such a large
91 database with advanced chemical transport models we resorted to the well proven approach of
92 utilizing back trajectories cited above and connected the results to emission fields. We define
93 the resulting concentration maps of particulate and gas parameters as immission maps because
94 they represent long-term average emissions of air pollutants modified by the controlling
95 atmospheric processes along the pathways to the receptor sites. In Charron et al. (2008) this
96 approach is termed “concentration field map method”.

97

98 Recent political, economic and technological developments in Europe have caused
99 substantial changes in the emission of air pollutants. Lavanchy et al. (1999) deduced a trend in
100 atmospheric black carbon from preindustrial times to 1975. Strong downward trends in major
101 aerosol components before and after the German reunification (1983-1998) over rural East
102 Germany were reported by Spindler et al., (1999). For the years 2003 – 2009 Kuenen et al.,
103 (2014) published trends in the development of aerosol emissions as elaborated from reported
104 emissions. The German Environmental Agency (GEA) publishes trends in air pollution as
105 measured at a number of ca. 380 federal and state air quality stations (Minkos, 2019).
106 According to these records, PM₁₀ mass concentrations declined by approximately 25 % over
107 the period 2000-2019

108

109 Combining long-term aerosol and gas data at the four stations of the present study provide
110 an excellent data base for identifying both the most important source regions and possible
111 temporal changes. During the ten recent years covered by our data we expected noticeable
112 systematic changes in our time series that can be interpreted in terms of emissions. As a side



113 result in the process of deriving long-term emission trends of major air pollutants over Germany
114 information of the monthly disaggregation of annual aerosol emissions can be derived.

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116

117 **2 Aerosol and trace gas data**

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119 The core data of the present study have been measured at the stations Melpitz (ME),
120 Neuglobsow (NG), and Waldhof (WA) of the German Ultrafine Aerosol Network GUAN
121 network (Birmili et al., 2016) and at station Collmburg (CO) operated by the Saxonian
122 Environment Agency. These four rural background stations lie in the northeastern lowlands of
123 Germany at distances between 30 and 205 km from each other. Table 1 gives an overview over
124 their characteristics. Ten-year-average particle mass concentrations under 10 μm particle
125 diameter (PM_{10}) and their standard deviations at the four stations are rather similar: 15 ± 13 ,
126 22 ± 12 , 14 ± 10 , and $15\pm 11 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ at CO, ME, NG, and WA, respectively. The corresponding
127 long-term average particle number concentrations between 10 and 800 nm particle diameter
128 (N_{10-800}) and their standard deviations at the three GUAN-stations are 5400 ± 4100 , 3600 ± 2300 ,
129 and $4300\pm 2800 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, respectively. Basic statistics on particle number and eBC mass
130 concentrations of the three GUAN-stations were presented in Sun et al. (2019b) whereas details
131 about instrumentation and their maintenance can be found in Birmili et al., (2016). The
132 ensemble of hourly data at the four stations is the base of the pollution maps derived in this
133 work.

134

135 TROPOS-type mobility particle size spectrometers (SMPS, Wiedensohler et al., 2012) were
136 used to record particle number size distributions across the particle size range 10-800 nm.
137 Quality assurance of the long-term measurements followed the recommendations of



138 Wiedensohler et al. (2018) including weekly inspections as well as monthly and annual
139 maintenance intervals. Equivalent Black Carbon (eBC) was determined by multi-angle
140 absorption photometers (MAAP) using a mass absorption cross section of $6.6 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ (Petzold
141 et al., 2013). An intercomparison of multiple MAAP instruments resulted in an inter-device
142 variability of less than 5% (Müller et al., 2011). For hourly measurements of PM_{10} continuous
143 oscillating microbalances (Thermo Scientific TEOM 1400) were utilized at stations CO, NG,
144 and WA. At station ME PM_{10} data were determined in daily filter samples (0:00 to 24:00 CET),
145 Spindler et al. (2013).

146 Hourly aerosol data from the three GUAN-stations during 2009 – 2015 ($\text{NG} \geq 2011$) have
147 been utilized in a previous study (Heintzenberg et al., 2018) to understand aerosol processes
148 during air mass transport between the stations. In the present study the data set was enlarged
149 to include the additional station Collmberg and data at all stations from the years 2016 through
150 2018. Of the total number of 87648 hours during the ten-year period 77516 hours with at least
151 concurrent PM_{10} -data at all four stations could be utilized. The integral aerosol parameters
152 particle number concentration (N_{10-800} , cm^{-3}), number concentrations below 10 - 26 nm (N_{10-26} ,
153 cm^{-3}), and light absorption-equivalent mass concentration of Black Carbon (eBC, $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), were
154 utilized. Both, N_{10-800} and N_{10-26} are based on integrals over measured particle size distributions
155 from 10 to 800 nm.

156

157 Through combustion processes the trace gases NO_x and SO_2 are related to anthropogenic
158 aerosol formation. At the three GUAN stations both are measured with the same temporal
159 resolutions as the aerosol data. Additionally, at Collmberg NO_x -data could be utilized in the
160 interpretation of the aerosol data, (cf. Table 1 for instrumental details).

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164 **3 Back trajectories**



165

166 With the HYSPLIT4 model (Stein et al., 2015) and based on the meteorological fields from the
167 Global Data Assimilation System with one-degree resolution (GDAS1) three-dimensional
168 trajectories were calculated arriving every hour at a height of 500m above ground level at the
169 four stations. The trajectories were calculated backward for up to five days using the
170 meteorological fields from the server at Air Resources Laboratory (ARL), NOAA
171 (<http://ready.arl.noaa.gov>), where more information about the GDAS dataset can be found.
172 Precipitation along the trajectories was used in the interpretation of the immission maps. The
173 precipitation given by HYSPLIT is just the precipitation rate at the grid cell taken from the
174 GDAS1-fields used by HYSPLIT where the trajectory is located and does not depend on the
175 cloud value at the height of the trajectory. Average wind speeds in between two one-hour
176 trajectory steps were derived from the distance covered between the steps. With the hourly
177 back trajectories from the four stations the time series of N_{10-800} , N_{10-26} , PM_{10} , and eBC were
178 extrapolated over Germany and part of the neighbor countries. At Melpitz PM_{10} -data were only
179 available as daily averages. Thus, the daily average concentrations were extrapolated along
180 each hourly trajectory of the respective day.

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182

183 **4 Emission data**

184

185 For the interpretation of the immission maps we used the emission data set version 4.3.2 for
186 2009 of the components particle mass concentrations below $10\ \mu\text{m}$ (PM_{10}), BC, NO_x and SO_2
187 as compiled in the Emissions Data Base for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR,
188 https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/overview.php?v=432_AP, DOI (https://data.europa.eu/doi/10.2904/JRC_DATASET_EDGAR)). This emission data set has been introduced by Crippa et al.,



190 (2018). In our calculations we applied the grid values of emission data that were listed in the
191 EDGAR inventories no more than 30 km away from any trajectory time step.

192

193

194 **5 Results and discussion**

195

196 The trajectory-extrapolated N_{10-800} , N_{10-26} , PM_{10} , and eBC from the four stations yielded
197 immission maps averaged over the period 2009 – 2018, that are collected in Figs. 1-2. The
198 highest map-coverage was reached with PM_{10} with at least 3951 data points in each geocell.
199 As eBC and size distribution data were only available at the three GUAN-stations the derived
200 maps contained a minimum of 751 data points per geocell. The maps of N_{10-800} , PM_{10} , and eBC
201 exhibit a clear Northwest-to-Southeast structure with the cleanest sector being in the Northwest
202 covering the coastal area of the North Sea, the BENELUX countries Belgium, the Netherlands,
203 and Luxemburg, and Northwestern Germany. Highest average concentrations are measured in
204 airmasses from the Southeastern half of the map, most strongly expressed in PM_{10} and eBC
205 with maxima in a region leading from Southwest Poland through the Czech Republic, Slovakia,
206 Austria, and former Yugoslavia to Northeastern Italy. The back trajectories in the Southeastern
207 sector of the maps for PM_{10} and eBC point towards countries, in which the emissions of air
208 pollution in the past 20 years developed very differently as compared to those in Western
209 Europe. According to the European Environment Agency ([https://www.eea.europa.eu/data-](https://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/dashboards/air-pollutant-emissions-data-viewer-2)
210 [and-maps/dashboards/air-pollutant-emissions-data-viewer-2](https://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/dashboards/air-pollutant-emissions-data-viewer-2)) the latter parts of Europe
211 experienced a strong and nearly monotonous decrease in emissions of PM_{10} whereas the
212 emissions in the former countries stayed nearly constant or even increased in recent years after
213 the dramatic decreases in the course of the political developments of the 1990ies.

214



215 In air masses from the extreme Southeastern sector of the map relatively low total number
216 concentrations were measured. Even more so this holds for the relatively newly formed N_{10-26}
217 concentrations that exhibit a broad maximum in the Southwestern half of its map whereas N_{10-}
218 $_{800}$ has its maxima in a rather narrow band of air masses reaching from Switzerland through
219 Southeastern Germany, Western Czech Republic to the former so called “Black Triangle”
220 region near the Southeastern corner of Germany.

221

222 Current explanations of the new particle formation process (as indicated by N_{10-26}) point
223 towards photochemical processes that take place in plumes that contain sulfur dioxide (Größ et
224 al., 2018). Several authors have stressed the possibility of particles to be formed in lofted layers,
225 which are subsequently mixed to the ground (Platis, 2016), and/or in sulfur-rich plumes
226 downstream of industrial point sources such as power plants (Junkermann and Hacker, 2018).

227

228 The trajectory extrapolated PM_{10} -concentrations in Fig. 1 most strongly show the contrast
229 between the relatively clean Northwest sector and the high concentrations in the Southeast
230 sector of the maps. In Fig. 2 we collected annual average PM_{10} -emissions for 2009 according
231 to the EDGAR emission database. Except for absolute numbers the corresponding maps for
232 SO_2 , and NO_x (not shown) look very similar. Fig. 2 has little in common with the immission
233 maps of Figs. 1. PM_{10} -emissions are largely concentrated around major conurbations and
234 highly populated and industrialized regions such as the German Ruhr area, and the BENELUX
235 countries whereas highest PM_{10} -concentrations were measured to some extent in air masses
236 from the East and much more so in air masses from the Southeast.

237

238 Two major atmospheric processes will reduce the concentrations of emitted or in situ formed
239 aerosol particles: dilution through mixing with cleaner air masses and wet scavenging through
240 in-cloud and sub-cloud processes. As a tracer of the first of these two processes Fig. 3a gives



241 the long-term average geographical distribution of trajectory derived wind speed over the study
242 area. Highest average wind speeds and ensuing atmospheric mixing is seen over the major
243 emission centers of Northwestern Germany, the BENELUX countries and adjacent seas
244 whereas lowest wind speeds are seen over Northern Germany and the Southeastern neighbor
245 countries. The long-term average geographical distribution of precipitation as taken by
246 HYSPLIT from the GDAS meteorological fields in Fig. 3b corroborates the results about
247 atmospheric cleaning processes indicated in Fig. 3a. The small absolute numbers in Fig. 3b are
248 due to the episodic nature of precipitation: most of the time it does not rain or snow. The blue
249 crescent reaching from the North Sea through the BENELUX countries, Eastern France,
250 Switzerland and the alpine region exhibits maximum precipitation values while Southern and
251 Eastern Germany with the adjoining countries to the East and Southeast show minimum
252 precipitation values. Thus, in the long term we expect much of the high Western European
253 emissions to be scavenged to a substantially by wet processes. In addition, air masses arriving
254 from Western and Northwestern directions at the three stations usually cross the Western
255 European emission centers with much lower pollution burdens than air masses coming from
256 the polluted countries of Southeastern Europe arriving at the corresponding map borders (cf.
257 Fig. PM₁₀ — 36th maximum daily average value in $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, 2005 in EEA, 2009).

258

259 Besides the map comparison a second approach was used to connect emission data with the
260 measured aerosol time series. Along each of the hourly back trajectories the emissions
261 according to the EDGAR database were summed up. Then monthly medians of the emission
262 sums and the measured parameters were formed. The EDGAR database reports annual average
263 emissions. PM₁₀, black carbon and other combustion related air pollutants show substantial
264 annual variations with high winter and low summer values at non-urban sites (e.g.,
265 Heintzenberg and Bussemer, 2000). In emission modeling the temporal variation of annually
266 reported emissions is considered by disaggregating the annual values with monthly, weekly and



267 daily factors (Matthias et al., 2018). For the time-resolved comparison of PM₁₀ and BC-
268 emissions with PM₁₀ and eBC-concentrations at the GUAN-sites monthly medians of PM₁₀ and
269 eBC-values at the stations were formed and plotted in Fig. 4. PM₁₀, BC, SO₂, and NO_x-
270 emissions were summed up along the hourly back-trajectories to the stations and monthly
271 medians of these sums were calculated. We expected both, seasonal variations and a long-term
272 trend in the emissions. In order to optimize the agreement of summed emissions and measured
273 concentrations we used Excel's® Generalized Reduced Gradient (GRG) solver. The GRG-
274 solver minimizes the average absolute deviation between the two monthly time series by
275 varying ten annual and 12 monthly adjustment factors at the summed emissions. The solver
276 procedure was repeated for a fit of the trajectory-summed emissions of PM₁₀, BC, SO₂, and
277 NO_x with the respective measured time series. After optimization of trends and month factors
278 the average relative deviation between the two curves is 14%, 21%, 25%, and 18% for PM₁₀,
279 eBC, SO₂, and NO_x, and respectively. The optimized monthly median emission sums are for
280 all four parameters are displayed in Fig. 4 together with the measured monthly median
281 concentrations.

282

283 A ten-year trend in emissions of PM₁₀, BC, SO₂, and NO_x, and average monthly factors for
284 the respective parameters are the two essential results derived from the optimization approach.
285 The ten-year trends relative to 2009 are collected in Fig. 5. The general trend is downward to
286 minima between 30 and 70% of the 2009 values in 2016/17 after which all parameters exhibit
287 increases, most strongly PM₁₀. SO₂ shows the strongest decrease whereas PM₁₀ and NO_x-
288 emissions diminished the least. The increase in PM₁₀ in 2010 is also visible in the trend curves
289 relative to 2005 published by the German Environment Agency
290 ([https://www.umweltbundesamt.de/daten/luft/luftschadstoff-emissionen-in-](https://www.umweltbundesamt.de/daten/luft/luftschadstoff-emissionen-in-deutschland/emissionen-prioritaerer-luftschadstoffe)
291 [deutschland/emissionen-prioritaerer-luftschadstoffe](https://www.umweltbundesamt.de/daten/luft/luftschadstoff-emissionen-in-deutschland/emissionen-prioritaerer-luftschadstoffe)) and can be linked to a recovery of
292 economic activity after the world-wide financial and economic crisis during 2007-2009.



293

294 The results of two comparisons of our trends with data reported by the German and European
295 Environment Agencies are added to Fig. 5. In general, the trends reported by the German
296 Environment Agency for all German emissions exhibit weaker reductions than the results of
297 the present study. Only for PM₁₀ in 2011 and 2013 the present study yields higher values than
298 GEA. We note that PM₁₀-emissions may have substantial contributions from wind erosion of
299 agricultural soils (Panagos et al., 2015) that are not incorporated in present anthropogenic
300 inventories. SO₂ exhibits the strongest trend discrepancies with much stronger reductions in
301 trend of the present study as compared to GEA results. As Germany has been reducing SO₂
302 emissions systematically since the nineteen eighties one would not expect any further strong
303 trends during the time period of the present study. As other studies have demonstrated before,
304 (e.g., van Pinxteren et al., 2019), the maps in Fig. 1 indicate the possibility of imported
305 pollution, in particular from the Southeast. Consequently, we searched for similar trends in
306 emission data reported by EEA for neighboring countries until 2017 directly West, South, and
307 East of Germany, going in the East all the way to Romania. Excel's solver optimized
308 combinations of the EEA-trends for Germany and neighboring countries in order to fit the
309 trends derived in the present study. The solver did not choose German trends for any of the
310 four parameters PM₁₀, BC, SO₂, and NO_x. For PM₁₀ a combination of emission trends for the
311 BENELUX countries and France was optimum, albeit without being able to simulate the
312 relative maxima in 2011 and 2013 and the minimum around 2016. For BC the emission trend
313 for the BENELUX countries came closest to the trend of the present study. For SO₂ mostly
314 emissions in Romania with minor contributions from French and BENELUX trends simulated
315 the trends observed over Germany best. NO_x-trends were best simulated by emissions over
316 The Czech and Slovakian countries. Emissions trends over Switzerland, Austria, Hungary and
317 Poland were not utilized by the solver. All simulated trends are displayed as curves EEA in
318 Fig. 5. We do not claim that these simulated trends numerically correspond to imported



319 pollution over Germany. However, the good fit of SO₂-trend with emissions over Romany
320 corroborates our finding of pollution import from Southeastern Europe to Northeastern
321 Germany while the development of BC appears to follow better emission trends over Western
322 neighbor countries than over Germany.

323

324 Sun et al., (2019a) investigated trends of particle number and eBC mass concentrations at
325 16 observational sites in Germany from 2009 to 2018 including the three GUAN-sites of the
326 present study. Based on monthly median time series they report average decreases for ME,
327 NG, and WA of -5.5%, -6.1, and -3.9%, respectively. The corresponding result for eBC of the
328 present study is -4.6%, albeit with a high variability (cf. Fig. 5) of 20 percent units expressed
329 in terms of a standard deviation.

330 The second important result of our optimized trend analysis are the average monthly factors
331 disaggregating the annual emissions. In general the summer minima of the month factors
332 determined in the present study are broader than the curve given by Matthias et al., (2018) for
333 combustion emissions. The decrease of the month factor of PM₁₀, BC, and NO_x in December
334 and the late winter maxima of PM₁₀ and SO₂ are not reflected in the Matthias et al., (2018)
335 results. Interestingly, both PM₁₀ and SO₂ show a minor secondary peak in June. As an example
336 of the seasonal variability of eBC within an urban source region we averaged the relative annual
337 variation of eBC-concentrations at the station Leipzig Eisenbahnstraße (plotted as curve L-EBS
338 in Fig. 6) exhibiting a smaller seasonal swing than all other curves. The curve for PM₁₀ comes
339 closest to that for L-EBS, probably because of agricultural non-combustion emissions in
340 summer.

341

342 In general the downward trends in particulate parameters determined in the present study are
343 similar to temporal trends of particle number and black carbon mass concentrations at 16
344 observational sites in Germany from 2009 to 2018 (Sun et al., 2019a). The long-term emission-



345 decrease of PM₁₀ as determined in the present study from 2009 to 2018 is smaller than the
346 corresponding number published by the EEA as average over all 28 EU member-states but
347 similar to the figures published by GEA until 2017 (cf. Table 2). For BC, SO₂, and NO_x the
348 present study yields substantially stronger emission-reductions than both GEA and EEA. These
349 findings are emphasized when considering 2017 as endpoint of the trend calculation (cf. Table
350 2) at and after which our study shows consistent emission increases of all studied parameters.
351 Comparing the calculated trends with emission trends in neighboring countries as published by
352 the European Environment Agency supports the explanation that the observed trends are to
353 some extent due to changes in imported air masses. Most strongly this holds for SO₂, the trend
354 of which follows that of Romanian emissions rather well.

355

356 The last issue we take up in this discussion concerns the frequent residual difference between
357 measured and emission-simulated time series. In Fig. 4, e.g., in most winters there are months
358 when optimized BC-emissions remain substantially lower than the measured monthly medians
359 of eBC. Some information can be gleaned from the “Großwetterlagen”, (GWL), representing
360 29 classifications of large scale weather types after Hess and Brezowsky for Central Europe,
361 (Gerstengarbe and Werner, 1993), provided by the German Weather service for each day
362 (<http://www.dwd.de/DE/leistungen/grosswetterlage/grosswetterlage.html>). During the winter
363 months with the strongest difference between measured and simulated time series the
364 probabilities of high-pressure systems over Fennoscandia with south-to-southeasterly flow to
365 the four stations is substantially higher than the respective probabilities averaged over the whole
366 ten-year period of the study. This GWL-information is consistent with the back trajectories
367 during the high pollution winter months coming predominantly from the southeasterly sector
368 of the map. While the classified large-scale weather situation with weak dilution of pollution
369 during the winter months is conducive of high particulate concentrations at the receptor sites it
370 does not explain the discrepancy. In principle our simplistic approach of accumulating



371 emissions along back trajectories may be flawed during certain weather situations. However,
372 an alternative explanation could be that the emissions inventories over Eastern and Southeastern
373 Europe in the EDGAR database are somewhat lower than the real emissions.

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375

376 **6 Summary and conclusions**

377

378 Ten years of hourly aerosol and gas data at three stations of the German Ultrafine Aerosol
379 Network GUAN and one station of the Saxonian Environment Agency have been combined
380 with hourly back trajectories to the stations and emission inventories. Measured PM₁₀, particle
381 number concentrations in two size ranges, and equivalent black carbon were extrapolated along
382 the trajectories. This process yielded what we termed immission maps of these four aerosol
383 parameters over Germany. They reflect aerosol emissions modified with atmospheric processes
384 along the air mass transport between sources and the four receptor sites at which potential
385 effects of the particulate air pollution would be realized.

386

387 The ten-year average immission maps do not simply show the distribution of pollution
388 sources upwind of the receptor sources. The comparison with emission maps based on the
389 European EDGAR emission database shows that strong Western European emission centers do
390 not necessarily dominate the downwind concentrations because their emissions on average are
391 reduced by wet scavenging and dilution processes on the way to the receptor area. Maps of
392 average precipitation and wind as they occurred along the trajectories illuminated these
393 processes. In the receptor region mass related aerosol parameters such as PM₁₀, equivalent
394 black carbon, and to some extent also the particle number concentration instead is rather
395 controlled by emissions from Eastern and Southeastern Europe from which pollution transport



396 often occurs under dryer meteorological conditions in continental high-pressure air masses.
397 This finding corresponds to the air mass results derived for the sub-micrometer particle number
398 size distribution by Birmili et al., (2001), by Engler et al., (2007) for the size distribution of
399 non-volatile particles, by Ma et al., (2014) for optical particle properties all evaluated at the
400 station Melpitz, and by van Pinxteren et al., (2019) for transboundary transport of PM10 to ten
401 stations in Eastern Germany from neighboring countries. Newly formed particles on the other
402 hand are found in air masses from a broad geographical sector reaching from Southern Germany
403 to the BENELUX countries which we explain with gaseous particle precursors being
404 transported with little wet scavenging from this region.

405

406 As a test of the justifiability of our trajectory approach we accumulated the annual EDGAR
407 emissions for 2009 of PM₁₀, BC, SO₂, and NO_x, along each trajectory and compared the
408 calculated emission sums with the corresponding measured time series on a monthly basis.
409 With the generalized reduced gradient solver provided by EXCEL[®] we optimized the
410 agreement of each pair of monthly time series e.g., measured eBC and BC-emissions by letting
411 the solver determine both monthly emission factors disaggregating the annual EDGAR
412 emission fields and adjusting the emissions with annual factors on the 2009-fields. Compared
413 to published emission monthly factors by Matthias et al., (2018) the present approach yielded
414 broader summer minima that were partly displaced from the midsummer positions given by
415 Matthias et al., (2018). As an aside we note that during the winter months with extremely high
416 particulate pollution the emissions accumulated along back trajectories often are substantially
417 lower than the measured concentrations which raises the question of the validity of the emission
418 figures in Eastern and Southeastern European source regions.

420

421 There are clear limits in the methodology of the present study. Meteorological processes
422 affecting the aerosol during air mass transport are only considered rather coarsely whereas



423 aerosol dynamics are not considered at all. Possible future improvements concern trajectories
424 with higher resolution, better meteorological information along the trajectories e.g., radar-
425 derived precipitation as used in Heintzenberg et al., (2018), emission inventories with higher
426 spatiotemporal resolution and higher numbers of involved stations.

427

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429

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651 Table 1: Characteristics of the four stations of the present study, see text for instrumental details.

Station	Acronym	Latitude	Longitude	PM0.8 ¹	eBC ²	PM10 continuous ^{3,4}	PM10 discontinuous ⁵	NO _x ⁶	SO ₂ ⁷
Collmberg	CO	51.3	13			X	X	X	
Melpitz	ME	51.5	12.9	X	X		X	X	X
Neuglobsow	NG	53.1	13	X	X	X		X	X
Waldhof	WA	52.8	10.8	X	X	X		X	X

¹SMPS - scanning mobility particle size spectrometer TROPOS (10 – 800 nm); ²MAAP - Multi-angle absorption photometer 5012 Thermo Fischer Scientific; ³TEOM-FDM - Tapered element oscillating microbalance fitted with a filter dynamics measuring system 1405 Thermo Scientific Fischer; ⁴SCHARP - Synchronized Hybrid Ambient Real-time Particulate Monitor 5030 Thermo Fischer Scientific; ⁵HVS – High Volume Sampler DIGITEL DH-80; ⁶TLA-NO_x – Trace Level NO_x Analyzer 42i-TL Thermo Fischer Scientific; ⁷TLA-SO₂ - Trace Level SO₂ Analyzer 43i-TLE Thermo Fischer Scientific

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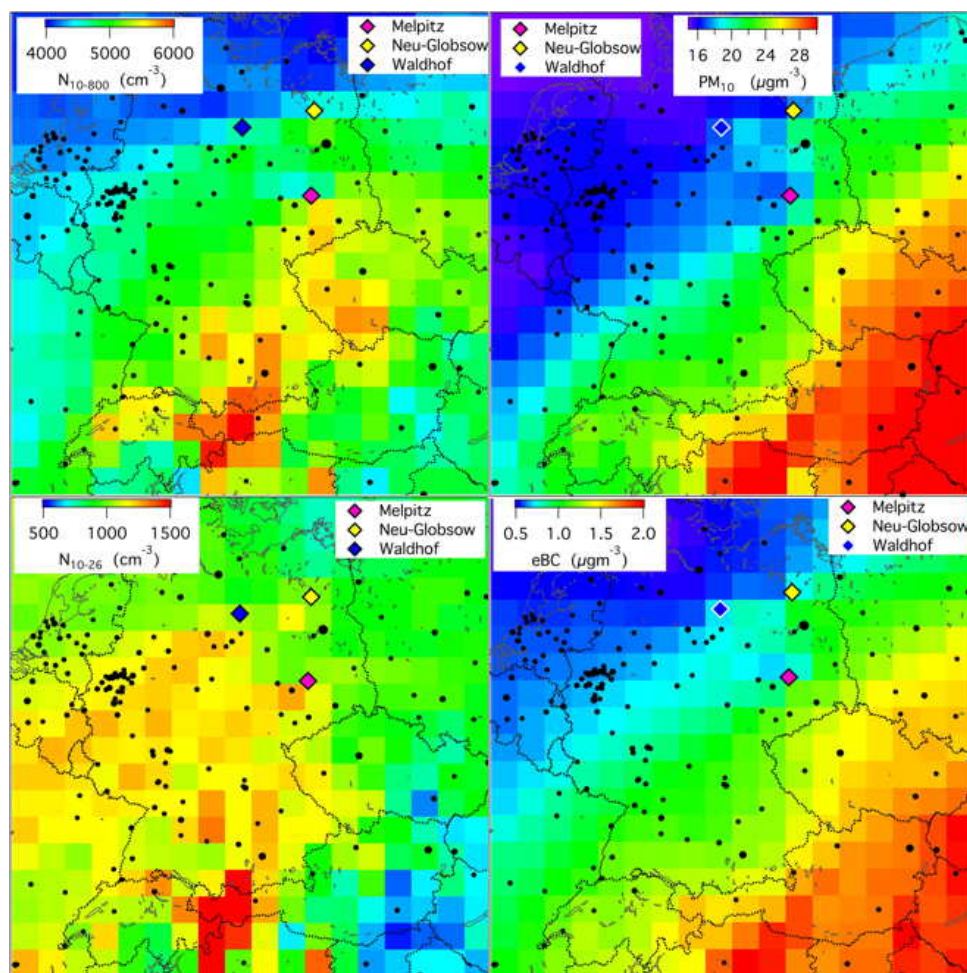
654 Table 2 Percental decreases in the anthropogenic emissions of PM₁₀, BC, SO₂, and NO_x
655 relative to 2009 as reported by the European Environment Agency (EEA,
656 [https://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/dashboards/air-pollutant-emissions-data-](https://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/dashboards/air-pollutant-emissions-data-viewer-2)
657 [viewer-2](https://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/dashboards/air-pollutant-emissions-data-viewer-2)), the German Environment Agency (GEA), and calculated in the present
658 study. The EEA and GEA only report data until 2017, (*=BC until 2016).

659

Component	EEA 2009- 2017	GEA 2009- 2017	Present study until 2017	Present study until 2018
PM ₁₀	12%	4.2%	16%	6%
BC*	29%	35%*	63%	44%
SO ₂	33%	20%	68%	59%
NO _x	20%	11%	43%	30%

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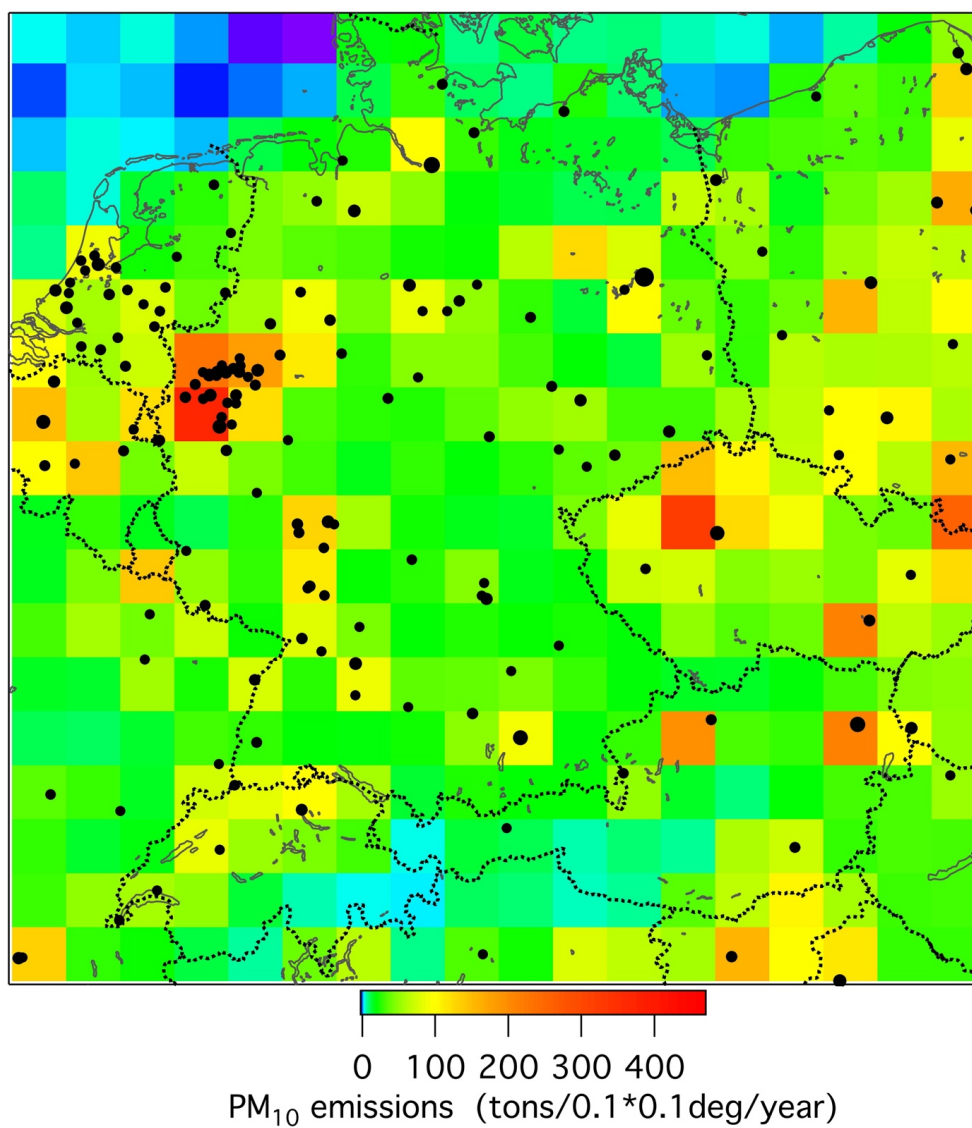
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663 Fig. 1 Maps of particle number concentrations (top left, N_{10-800} , cm^{-3}), and below 26 nm
664 diameter (bottom left, N_{10-26} , cm^{-3}), particle volume concentrations (top right, PM_{10} ,
665 μgcm^{-3}), and black carbon concentrations (bottom right, eBC, μgcm^{-3}), extrapolated
666 along back trajectories from hourly data at the four stations from 2009 to 2018. The
667 GUAN-stations are marked with colored diamonds. The Collmberg station lies 30 km
668 Southeast of station Melpitz. Here and in the following maps the black dots represent
669 cities larger than 100000 inhabitants with the size of the dots being proportional to the
670 number of inhabitants.

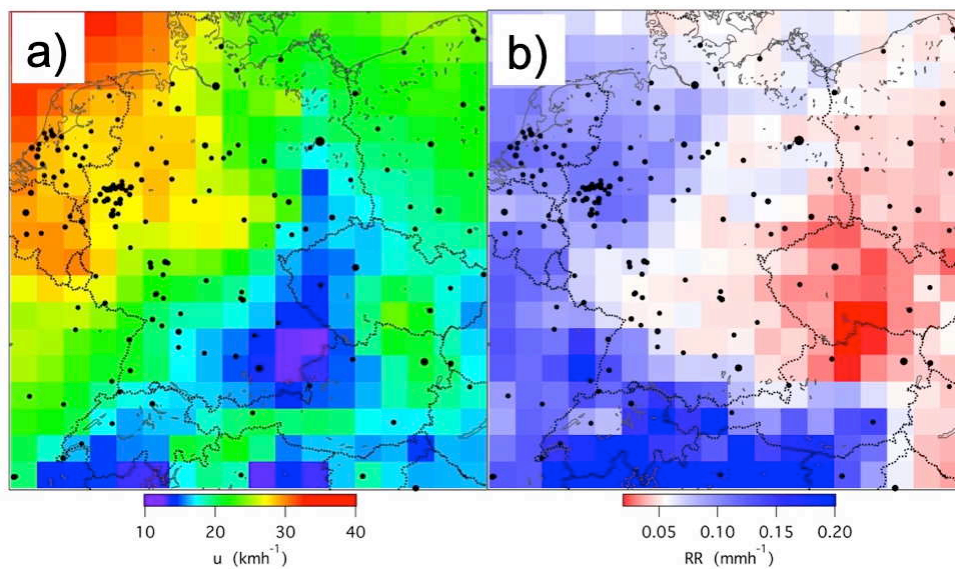
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673 Fig. 2 As Fig. 1 but for PM₁₀ emissions (tons/0.1*0.1deg./year) according to the EDGAR
674 emission database (https://data.europa.eu/doi/10.2904/JRC_DATASET_EDGAR) for
675 2009 averaged over the geogrid of the present study.

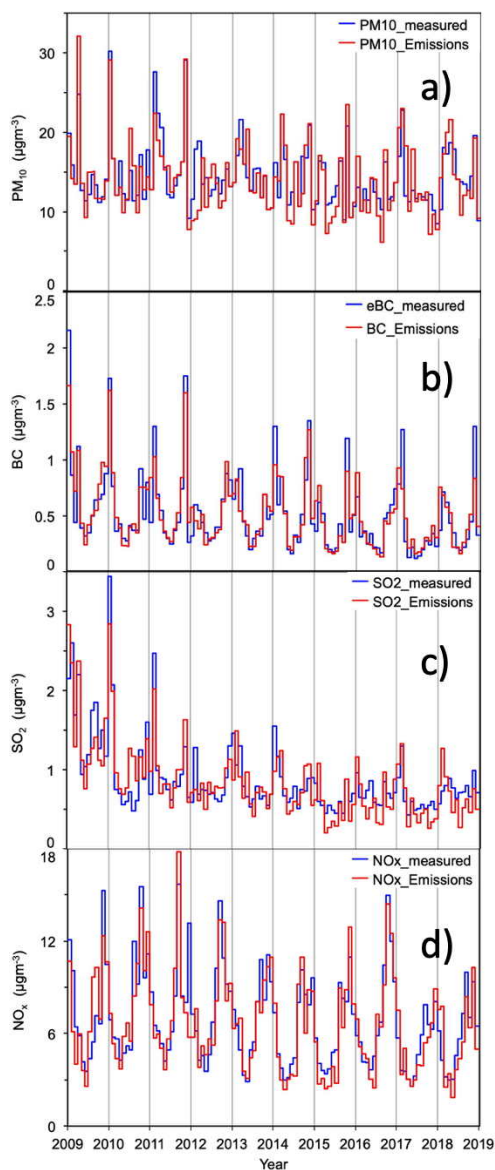
676



677

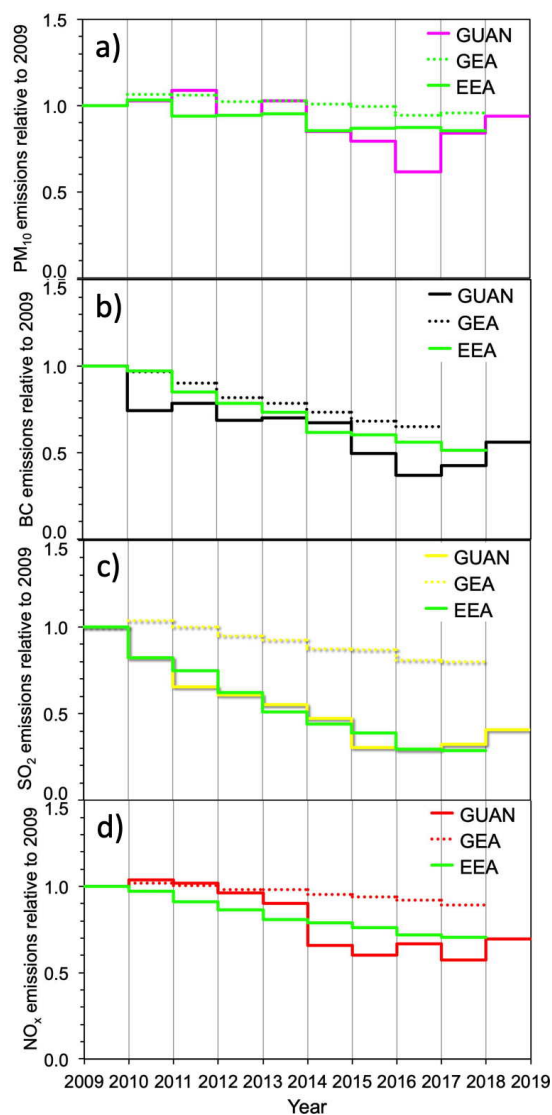
678 Fig. 3 a) Map of horizontal wind speed (u , kmh^{-1}) as reported by HYSPLIT along hourly five-
679 day back trajectories to the four stations marked in the graph averaged over the time
680 period 2009 to 2018; b) as a) but for precipitation (RR , mmh^{-1}).

681



682

683 Fig. 4 a) Monthly medians of PM₁₀-concentrations at the four stations of the present study
684 (blue), and monthly medians of optimized sums of PM₁₀-emissions along back
685 trajectories leading to the stations (red). b) as a) but for measured eBC-concentrations
686 and BC-emissions along back trajectories. c) as a) but for measured SO₂-concentrations
687 and SO₂-emissions along back trajectories. d) as a) but for measured NO_x-
688 concentrations and NO_x -emissions along back trajectories.



690

691 Fig. 5 GUAN: Trends in the emissions of a) PM₁₀, b) BC, c) SO₂, and d) NO_x, relative to 2009

692 as calculated by optimizing the agreement between 2009-EDGAR-emissions and

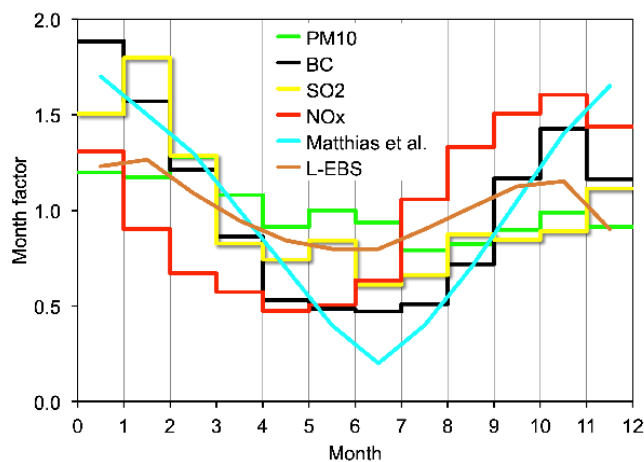
693 concentrations measured at the four stations of the present study. GEA: Trends as

694 reported for Germany by the German Environment Agency. EEA: Trends as optimized

695 from combinations of trends over Germany and neighboring countries, (see text for

696 details).

697



698

699 Fig. 6 Month factors for the emissions of PM₁₀, BC, SO₂, and NO_x as determined by
700 optimizing the agreement between EDGAR-emissions and concentrations measured at
701 the four stations of the present study. For comparison the month factors of Matthias et
702 al., (2018) for combustion emissions are plotted and the relative annual variation of eBC
703 concentrations measured at the station Leipzig-Eisenbahnstraße (L-EBS) averaged over
704 the time period of the present study.

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