

1 **A multi-meteorological comparison for episodes of PM₁₀ concentrations in the Berlin**
2 **agglomeration area in Germany with the LOTOS-EUROS CTM**

3 **M. Thürkow¹, I. Kirchner¹, R. Kranenburg², R. M. A. Timmermans² and M. Schaap^{1,2}**

4 ¹Institute of Meteorology, Freie Universität Berlin, Carl-Heinrich-Becker-Weg 6-10, 12165
5 Berlin, Germany

6 ²TNO, department Climate Air and Sustainability, Princetonlaan 6, 3584 CB Utrecht, the
7 Netherlands

8

9 Corresponding author: Markus Thürkow (markus.thuerkow@met.fu-berlin.de)

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

Submitted to

23

Atmospheric Environment

24

July 2020

25 **Highlights:**

- 26 • An interface of the LOTOS-EUROS CTM to the COSMO-CLM model was developed
- 27 • Planetary boundary layer conditions were significantly improved by the COSMO-CLM
28 model compared to the ECMWF reference data, but no clear bias correction was found
29 when applying different parametrization simulations
- 30 • Higher resolved model simulations lead to a more realistic representation of the urban-
31 increment, with the impact on the PM mass concentration of the refined vertical layering
32 is much larger compared to the meteorological input-data
- 33 • Ammonium and Nitrate responded highly sensitive to different simulation set-ups

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46 **Abstract**

47 Particulate matter (PM) remains as one of the most relevant air-quality concerns in urban
48 environments. The Berlin agglomeration area is still affected by exceedances of the daily limit
49 value of the PM concentration, especially during wintertime PM episodes. In this study, we present
50 test-case studies with the LOTOS-EUROS CTM to improve the representation of PM episodes in
51 the Berlin agglomeration area. A variety of simulations were compared for two winter episodes
52 characterized by cold stagnant conditions, using different meteorological input data (from the
53 European Centre for Medium Weather Forecast (ECMWF) and the Consortium for Small-Scale
54 Modelling-Climate Limited-area Modelling (COSMO-CLM)) and horizontal and vertical
55 resolutions of the LOTOS-EUROS CTM. The LOTOS-EUROS CTM indicates too high mixing
56 from the planetary boundary layer (PBL) to higher layers, leading to an underestimation of the PM
57 mass concentration in the Berlin agglomeration. As major impact factor the mixing-layer height
58 (MLH) can be identified. Through applying the COSMO-CLM model the meteorological
59 representation of the PBL and MLH can significantly be improved, whereas sensitivity studies
60 only exhibit a small variation of the PBL meteorology and did not further improve the MLH. As
61 the MLHs of both models are underestimated compared to observations and their derivation is
62 questionable, we advise not to use this quantity any longer in CTMs. By contrast, applying a multi-
63 level approach excluding the MLH, provides a considerable increase in the total PM mass
64 concentration amount. The redistribution and increased nitrate and ammonium concentration can
65 be mentioned as the main culprit. However, the best-fit simulations were obtained for the multi-
66 level configuration fed by COSMO-CLM input data, additionally representing a more realistic
67 urban increment.

68

69 *Keywords: particulate matter, LOTOS-EUROS, COSMO-CLM, planetary boundary layer,*
70 *composition of PM*

71

72

73 **1 Introduction**

74 Poor air quality is one of the most important environmental concerns of the 21st century
75 (Lim et al., 2012). Exposure to particulate matter (PM) is thought to dominate the health impacts
76 of air pollution (Boldo et al., 2006; Brook et al., 2010; Costa et al., 2014). According to the
77 European Environment Agency each year about 62.300 premature deaths in Germany are caused
78 by fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) (EEA, 2018). Although a large part of the urban population in
79 Germany is exposed to concentrations above the PM target value of the World Health Organization
80 (WHO, 2005), the annual limit values for both PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ as introduced by the European
81 Ambient Air Quality Directive (EC, 2008) are currently not exceeded across Germany (UBA,
82 2019). In practice, the daily mean limit value for PM is more stringent than the annual mean limit
83 values (Engler et al., 2012) and is still exceeded at traffic sites throughout Germany (UBA, 2019).
84 To enable the development of cost-effective mitigation strategies to further reduce the health
85 impacts by PM and the number of limit value exceedances it is required to understand the sources
86 and processes leading to the enhanced concentration levels in episodes as compared to normal
87 conditions (Belis et al., 2020).

88 PM concentrations are the result of processes involving direct emissions, chemical
89 transformations, vertical mixing, long-range transport and dry and wet deposition, all depending
90 on meteorological parameters (H. Zhang et al., 2015). Hence, establishing the origin of PM is
91 complex as the contributions from local and distant, natural and anthropogenic, as well as
92 individual source sectors vary largely with season and synoptic situation (Tai et al., 2010; Mues et
93 al., 2012; H. Zhang et al., 2015). High concentrations of PM are often associated with cold and
94 stagnating weather conditions (Tai et al., 2010). Although the exceedances of limit values occur
95 especially at the local urban scale (van Pinxteren et al., 2019), the regional background provides
96 the most important mass contribution to observed PM levels in European cities (Beekmann et al.,
97 2015; Garg & Sinha, 2017). Berlin, and East Germany in general, are affected by air masses from
98 different European regions, i.e. western Europe through westerly air masses and central Europe
99 through (south-) easterly air masses (Lenschow et al., 2001). In winter, the latter are associated
100 with cold, stagnant weather conditions (Spindler et al., 2004; Brüggemann et al., 2009; Engler et
101 al., 2012). Recent receptor modelling results showed combustion and secondary inorganic
102 aerosols, e.g. ammonium, nitrate and sulphate, to be the main source groups during such cold spells
103 (van Pinxteren et al., 2019). The same conditions also cause large trans-boundary contributions

104 from Eastern European countries (van Pinxteren et al., 2019; Timmermans et al., 2020). As
105 methodologies combining measurements and back trajectories as well as receptor models usually
106 provide a limited number of source sectors and are less suitable to quantitatively identify the source
107 regions (Belis et al., 2020), one cannot rely on observations alone to quantify the relevant
108 (geographic) source contributions.

109 Chemistry transport models (CTMs) are deterministic and can provide quantitative source
110 attribution estimates, which is an advantage above qualitative results based on empirical studies
111 (Potier et al., 2019). Numerous model studies have been carried out to point out the sources of PM
112 and their composition (Hendriks et al., 2013; Garg & Sinha, 2017; Potier et al., 2019; Thunis et
113 al., 2018). However, a prerequisite for using these modelling results is that they reproduce the
114 observed concentration levels and their variability. Previous studies have highlighted the
115 challenges of modelling PM episodes under stable conditions. Underestimation of the observed
116 PM concentration can be related to insufficient treatment of temporal emission variability (Mues
117 et al., 2014) or underestimation of residential wood combustion emissions (Spindler et al., 2004;
118 van der Gon et al., 2015). In addition, the reliability of simulations with CTMs to quantify
119 concentrations strongly depends on the quality of the meteorological input data (Vautard et al.,
120 2012). A multi-model comparison for an winter episode in 2003 revealed a characteristic
121 underestimation of the PM concentrations in modern CTMs (Stern et al., 2008). Parametrizations
122 of the mixing layer height (MLH) in meteorological models are identified as one source of the
123 underestimation of PM under stable conditions and shallow boundary layers as shown by Seibert
124 et al. (2000). Still, only a few studies have addressed the improvement of planetary boundary layer
125 (PBL) variables for use in air quality model simulations (Hu et al., 2010; Buzzi et al., 2011; Banks
126 & Baldasano, 2016).

127 In this study we explore if we can improve the modelling of PM episodes during winter in
128 east-Germany by high resolution nonhydrostatic meteorological modelling (dynamical
129 downscaling) using the COSMO-CLM model. Sensitivity studies were conducted to investigate
130 the representation of the PBL conditions. Meteorological quantities as the MLH were evaluated
131 against radiosonde observations. The impact of different PBL parameterizations on modelled PM
132 concentrations was analyzed. In addition, we investigated the impact of using two different vertical
133 structures in the LOTOS-EUROS CTM. The impact of the dynamical downscaling was compared
134 to the operational set-up of the LOTOS-EUROS CTM using the ECMWF meteorological driver.

135 **2 Methodology**

136 A dynamical downscaling approach with the COSMO-CLM model has been applied to generate
137 high resolution meteorological input data for the LOTOS-EUROS CTM. First, we performed
138 sensitivity studies to investigate the representation of the PBL conditions on the modelled PBL
139 height and PM concentrations for January 2016. Accounting for the lessons learned, we applied
140 the system to the next winter (September 2016 to March 2017) to further investigate and validate
141 the impact of different horizontal and vertical set-ups. To assess the added value of the dynamical
142 downscaling we used a simulation with meteorological input data of the ECMWF forecast model
143 system (Flemming et al., 2009) as reference.

144 **2.1 Study Area and Periods**

145 The Berlin metropolitan area is the largest conurbation of Germany covering an area of
146 891 km². With more than 3.75 million inhabitants Berlin is densely populated. Berlin's dynamic
147 population increase combined with a pronounced tourist impact of about 13.50 million visitors per
148 year is reflected in the air pollution management plan by targeting e.g. the construction
149 (agglomeration) and traffic sectors (SenStadt, 2019). Berlin is situated in the North German Plain

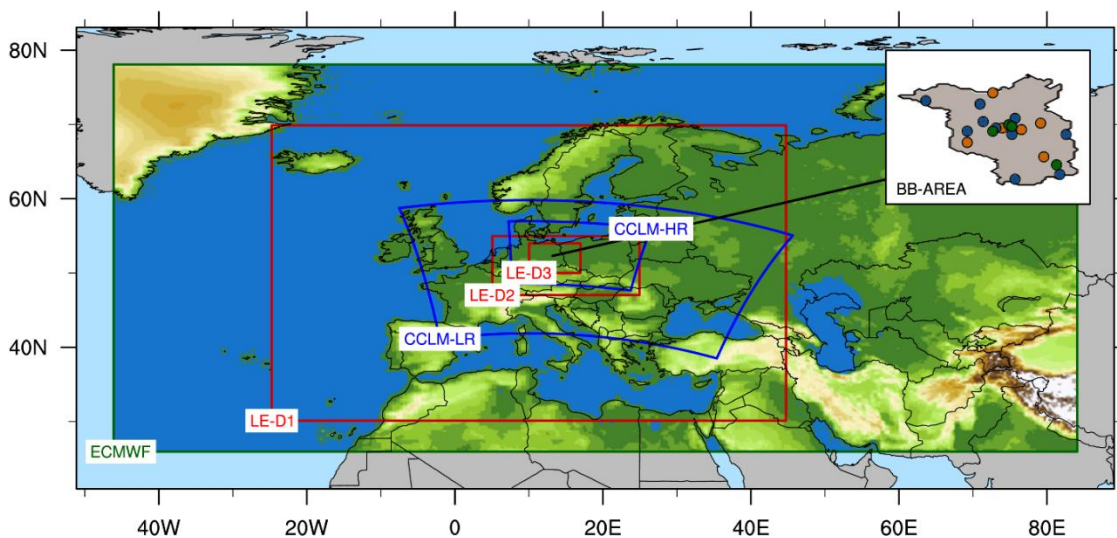


Fig. 1 Domain configuration of the model area. Three zooming domains are used for the LOTOS-EUROS CTM simulations (red). Meteorological boundary datasets are provided by the ECMWF model (green) and the COSMO-CLM (blue) model. As the COSMO-CLM model is applying a dynamical downscaling approach, two set-up areas are needed. The investigation area of Berlin Brandenburg (BB) is attached on the right-hand side and contains the location of the rural- (orange), suburban- (blue) and urban-background observation sites.

150 at 52°30' N and 13°30' E (Fig. 1). The neighboring republic of Poland is about 80 km from the
151 eastern edge of the city. Berlin's conurbation is characterized by low orography features and
152 intersected by the Spree valley. The average altitude above sea level is about 35-70 m increasing
153 towards the border of the city. The maximum elevation is about 115 m. According to the prevailing
154 season, Berlin is dominated by maritime climate in summer and continental climate in winter. The
155 ambient air pollution in Berlin and its vicinity can be regarded as moderate. Annual average PM₁₀
156 concentrations in 2016 ranged between 22.0 µg/m³ and 26.8 µg/m³ for urban background and
157 traffic stations, respectively (SenStadt, 2019). Levels in the surrounding rural area are typically
158 about 17.0 µg/m³ and thus about 5.0 µg/m³ lower than recorded in the urban background (LFU,
159 2018). In recent years, exceedances of daily mean limit values of the PM concentration were
160 limited and have only been recorded at traffic locations (LFU, 2018; SenStadt, 2019).

161 This study focuses on two periods, i.e. January 2016 and September 2016 to March 2017.
162 These periods were selected as they contain episodes exceeding the daily PM limit value, caused
163 by cold and stable weather conditions (Fig. 2). January 2016 was selected as this month is split
164 into two major periods differing in their meteorological conditions. The first cold spell in the first
165 week (2nd to 7th) was characterized by an easterly wind inflow. Temperature minima down to -
166 10.0° C were observed at the surface. A second (19th to 22nd) took place with a low-pressure system
167 crossing inducing inversion layering. Temperatures during the westerly wind period reflect the
168 typical variation of a frontal passage and therefore vary between 0°C and -10.5°C. Apart from the
169 differing wind direction the meteorological conditions during both periods were quite similar. Low
170 wind speeds were recorded for both periods resulting in a monthly mean of about 3.4 m/s at the
171 surface. The MLH derived from radiosonde data was on average about 647 m and showed a large
172 day-to-day variability. A PM episode with concentrations reaching values well above 90 µg/m³
173 was observed from the 2nd to the 7th, (see Fig. 2). Despite similar meteorological conditions, during
174 the westerly wind inflow period (19th to 22nd), no exceedances of the daily limit values were
175 identified.

176 As the period of January 2016 is quite short, a second investigation period containing a
177 winter PM episode has been examined. Therefore, the September 2016 to March 2017 was
178 selected, with similar meteorological conditions compared to the reference period of January 2016
179 during wintertime of January to February 2017. The January to February 2017 was affected by low
180 mixing and a mean mixing layer height of about 545 m. Mean temperatures were close to zero

181 with minima of about -10° C. The average wind speed below 3 m/s is quite low, whereas
 182 exceedances of the daily limit values again only occur during easterly wind periods. An advantage
 183 of investigating this winter is that we could use the data of the PM-OST campaign (van Pinxteren
 184 et al., 2019) for evaluating the modelled PM composition.

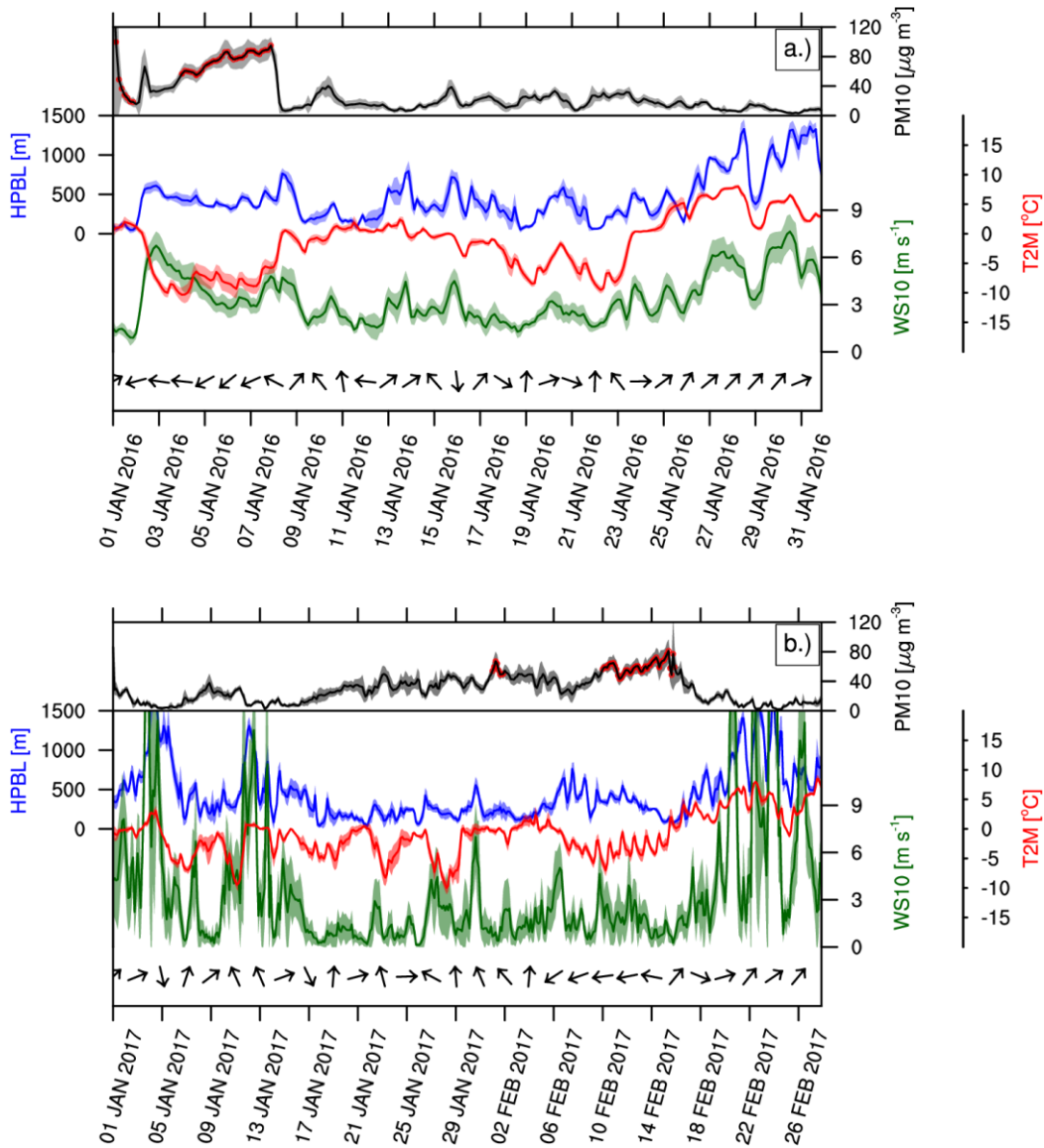


Fig. 2 Time series of investigation periods, representative for January 2016 (a) and January to February 2017 (b) for the Berlin agglomeration. PM mass concentration levels (black) are plotted on top with meteorological fields, as the mixing layer height (blue), the 2m-temperature (red), the 10m-wind-speed (green) and the 10m-wind-direction above. Red dots indicate exceedances of the daily limit value. Parameters representing the spatial average of all observation sites.

185 **2.2 Nonhydrostatic Meteorological Modelling**

186 A dynamical downscaling of the ERA-Interim reanalysis (Dee et al., 2011) was performed
187 using the COSMO-CLM version 5.00 (Consortium for Small-Scale Modelling-Climate Limited-
188 area Modelling) model (Doms et al., 2011; Doms & Baldauf, 2018) by using a double nesting
189 approach. The first nested domain of the COSMO-CLM model (Fig. 1) covers Europe from 4° W
190 down to 40° E and 42° N - 59° N with a horizontal resolution of 0.0625° (7 x 7 km²). The second
191 nested domain covers Germany and Poland between 8° E - 25° E to 48° N - 57° N with a resolution
192 of 0.025° (2.8 x 2.8 km²). Independent of the spatial resolution 40 vertical levels were used, with
193 at least 11 levels below 1 km to be able to represent the vertical behavior in the PBL. The domain
194 configuration was chosen to resemble the DWD COSMO-DE configuration to allow for future
195 operational use of COSMO-DE to provide air quality forecasts.

196 The convective scale operational numerical weather prediction model COSMO-LM, was
197 originally developed at the German Weather Service (DWD). The aim was to be able to simulate
198 nonhydrostatic processes which appear on the meso- β and meso- γ scale. The model focuses on
199 deep moist convection and severe weather events. In Rockel et al. (2008) a documentation of the
200 COSMO-CLM, the climate mode of the COSMO-LM, is given. The climate mode is designed for
201 longer simulation periods using numerous lateral boundary conditions (e.g. sea surface
202 temperatures, vegetation parameters). COSMO-CLM is a limited-area model defined on spherical
203 rotated geographical coordinates, following a generalized terrain height coordinate in the vertical.
204 A staggered Arakawa C-grid is used to represent the orthogonal discretization (ARAKAWA &
205 LAMB, 1977), with a Lorenz hybrid z-layering applied in the vertical (Herzog, Schubert, et al.,
206 2002).

207 The representation of the PBL was investigated for January 2016 by an ensemble of turbulence
208 parameterization schemes of the COSMO-CLM model (Tab. 1). Ranging from basic meso- β flow
209 systems to more sophisticated ones, the spectra of turbulent closure approaches is broad. Three
210 closure approaches of the vertical diffusion and two surface flux schemes are available in the
211 COSMO-CLM model. A detailed description of the implemented parameterizations can be found
212 in (Doms et al., 2011). In this study a combination of all 6 parameterizations have been applied
213 (Tab. 1). The most simple closure approach as shown by Muller (1981) (1-D Diagnostic Closure)
214 is based on the assumption of the boundary layer approximation neglecting horizontal turbulent

215 fluxes. Mellor & Yamada (1974) developed a more extensive second-order parameterization (1-D
 216 TKE-Based Diagnostic Closure), extended by Louis (1979) with a surface flux formulation for the
 217 Prandtl-layer dependent on stability and roughness-length. The most sophisticated closure
 218 approach (3-D TKE-Based Prognostic Closure) focuses on highly resolved LES-like model
 219 simulations of subgrid-scale processes to avoid current boundary layer approximations (Herzog,
 220 Schubert, et al., 2002; Herzog, Vogel, et al., 2002). According to Louis (1979) analytical functions
 221 are applied to solve the transfer coefficients of roughness length and stability parameters of the
 222 surface flux formulation based on the Businger relations (Businger et al., 1971) (Standard Bulk-
 223 Transfer Scheme). Based on the coefficients of the Mellor-Yamada closure, the second surface
 224 flux scheme applies two layers by using a transport resistance of the laminar turbulent roughness
 225 layer and a constant Prandtl-layer. As described in Doms et al. (2011) an advanced surface layer
 226 scheme (TKE-Based Surface Transfer Scheme) is implemented into COSMO-CLM relating to the
 227 Mellor-Yamada closure approach (Mellor & Yamada, 1974). The surface layer is sub-divided into
 228 roughness layer and Prandtl-layer. Additional control parameters like as the turbulent length and
 229

230 **Tab. 1**

231 List of planetary boundary layer sensitivity parameterizations used in this work.

	PBL Parameterization		
	Turbulence Scheme	Surface Scheme	Tuning Parameter
CCLM-TC-V1-1	1-D Diagnostic Closure	Standard Bulk-Transfer Scheme	-
CCLM-TC-V1-2		TKE-Based Surface Transfer Scheme	-
CCLM-TC-V2-1	1-D TKE-Based Diagnostic Closure	TKE-Based Surface Transfer Scheme	-
CCLM-TC-V2-2		Standard Bulk-Transfer Scheme	lexpcor, ltmpcor, lcpfluc and ltkcon are applied
CCLM-TC-V2-3		TKE-Based Surface Transfer Scheme	-
CCLM-TC-V3-1	3-D TKE-Based Prognostic Closure	TKE-Based Surface Transfer Scheme	-
CCLM-TC-V3-2		Reduction of the turbulent length scale (50 m)	
CCLM-TC-V3-3		Lowering of the diffusion coefficient of heat ($0.1 \text{ m}^2\text{s}^{-1}$)	
CCLM-TC-V3-4		Adopting both parameters used in V3-2 and V3-3	

232 the diffusion coefficients of heat enlarge the range of possible configuration options. Different
233 setups such as the impact of the turbulent heat and moisture fluxes and their reliance to
234 condensation processes (l_{exp}cor), the computation of thermal sources (l_{tmp}cor) as well as the
235 consideration of the convective buoyancy (l_{tke}con) for the TKE equation and variations in the heat
236 capacity of air (l_{cp}fluc) have been used as further test properties (Tab. 1). A more detailed
237 description of the applied control parameters are available in the COSMO-CLM users guide
238 (Schättler et al., 2019). For the winter of 2016-2017 we performed a single dynamical downscaling
239 using the advised setup using the “1-D TKE-Based Diagnostic Closure” and the “TKE-Based
240 Surface Transfer Scheme”.

241 **2.3 Chemical Transport Modelling**

242 Air quality simulations were performed using the chemistry transport model (CTM)
243 LOTOS-EUROS version 2.1 (Manders et al., 2017). LOTOS-EUROS is an open-source 3D CTM,
244 developed at TNO (Netherlands Organisation for Applied Scientific Research) in cooperation with
245 partners such as the FUB (Freie Universität Berlin). The aim of the model is to analyze and forecast
246 air pollution concentrations in the lower troposphere. The model is part of the European regional
247 ensemble of the Copernicus Atmospheric Monitoring Service (CAMS) (Marécal et al., 2015),
248 providing operational forecasts and analyses for Europe. An important application of the model is
249 for source apportionment in different regions worldwide, e.g. Netherlands, China, and Germany
250 (Kranenburg et al., 2013; Timmermans et al., 2017, 2020).

251 LOTOS-EUROS is based on a regular Eulerian grid with variable horizontal resolution
252 over Europe (Manders et al., 2017) and terrain following vertical coordinates. The gas-phase
253 chemistry is solved with the TNO CBM-IV scheme, a simplified version of the original scheme
254 by Whitten et al. (1980). The hydrolysis of N₂O₅ (Schaap et al., 2004) and the cloud chemistry
255 sulfate formation (Banzhaf et al., 2012) are explicitly treated. Computations for aerosol chemistry
256 are performed with the ISORROPIA-II module (Fountoukis & Nenes, 2007). Dry deposition
257 processes for the gas-phase are derived based on the DEPAC (DEPosition of Acidifying
258 Compounds) module (Wichink Kruit et al., 2012; Van Zanten et al., 2010). Dry deposition of
259 particles is implemented using the scheme of Zhang et al. (2001). Wet deposition processes are
260 solved as described by Banzhaf et al. (2012). The horizontal advection of pollutants is calculated

261 applying a monotonic advection scheme as shown by Walcek (2000). For a more detailed
 262 description of the LOTOS-EUROS model we refer to Manders et al. (2017) and references therein.

263 For Europe, a regional inventory of the CAMS emissions developed by the TNO for 2015
 264 was applied. The GRETA (Gridding Emission Tool for ArcGIS, Schneider et al. (2016)) inventory
 265 is used for the German anthropogenic emission distribution (Tab. 2). A separate annual time profile
 266 for each source category represents the temporal variation that breaks down the annual emission
 267 totals. The CAMS fire product (Kaiser et al., 2012) provides information on wildfire emission
 268 sources. Chemical boundary conditions were taken from the Integrated Forecasting System
 269 provided by ECMWF (European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts) (C-IFS, Marécal
 270 et al. (2015)).

271

272 **Tab. 2**

273 Model runs and settings performed for the LOTOS-EUROS model.

		COSMO-CLM		ECMWF IFS 12h forecasts
Meteorological Input Data	Spatial Resolution	0.0625° x 0.0625° @ 7 x 7 km ² (LR)	0.025° x 0.025° @ 2.8 x 2.8 km ² (HR)	0.14° x 0.14° @ 15 x 15 km ²
	Vertical Resolution	Lorenz hybrid z-level (40 layers)		3-layer-interval-averaged product of the ECMWF-L91 hybrid-sigma pressure levels (20 layers)
	Domain	4° W - 40° E to 42° N - 59° N	8° E - 25° E to 48° N - 57° N	46° W - 84° E to 26° N - 78° N
	PBL Sensitivity	See Tab. 2		/
Chemical Transport	Spatial Resolution	0.125° x 0.0625° @ 7 x 8 km ² (D2)		0.0625° x 0.03125° @ 4 x 4 km ² (D3)
	Vertical Structure	Multi layering approach @ 15 layers up to 2 km	Mixed layer approach @ 5 layers up to 5 km	Multi layering approach @ 15 layers up to 12 km

Domain	5° E - 25° E to 47° N - 55° N	10° E - 12° E to 50° N - 54° N
Period	January 2016	September 2016 – March 2017
Boundary Conditions	LOTOS-EUROS climatological simulation with ECMWF IFS 12 h forecast conditions (0.5° x 0.25° @ 28 x 32 km ²)	
Anthrop. Emissions	CAMS-RWC-AP 2015 (v1.1) and CAMS-2015-RWC-update-GrETa-gridding (v.1.1)	

274

275 The standard meteorological input data of the LOTOS-EUROS CTM is derived from the
 276 operational meteorological dataset of the IFS (Integrated Forecasting System) provided by the
 277 ECMWF (Flemming et al., 2009). The meteorological forecasts offer a spatial resolution of about
 278 0.14°, with hybrid-sigma pressure layers define the vertical coordinate system (Eckermann, 2009).
 279 The vertical resolution of the input data corresponds to a selection of 20 layers by vertical interval
 280 averaging of 3 layers derived from the ECMWF-L91 product, with the lowest level matching the
 281 initial layer of the ECMWF meteorology. The meteorological forecast is stored to enable re-
 282 analyses of past periods. The ECMWF data cover Europe from 46° W down to 84° E and 26° N -
 283 78° N (Fig. 1).

284 The standard approach for increasing resolution by nesting the LOTOS-EUROS air
 285 pollution modelling is performed by a statistical downscaling of the ECMWF meteorological input
 286 data. In this study an interface between COSMO-CLM and LOTOS-EUROS was developed to
 287 make further use of the dynamically downscaled COSMO-CLM meteorology. To implement the
 288 meteorological input data of the COSMO-CLM model, the spherical rotated horizontal and the
 289 hybrid z-layering vertical grid information's has been described within the LOTOS-EUROS CTM.
 290 A corresponding specification of the transformation of the available COSMO-CLM variables into
 291 the required fields within the LOTOS-EUROS CTM was performed like it was already
 292 implemented for the ECMWF model (Manders et al., 2017) and for the WRF model (Escudero et
 293 al., 2019). Both the horizontal and vertical grid configuration correspond to the model specification
 294 as provided by the DWD model family, avoiding interpolation of the data. The LOTOS-EUROS
 295 simulations were performed for three different regions and spatial resolutions using a one-way
 296 nesting approach (Fig. 1). The large scale European simulation (28 x 32 km²) was performed with

297 ECMWF meteorology, the higher resolution nests over Germany-Poland (7 x 8 km²) and East-
298 Germany (4 x 4 km²) were performed by both meteorological drivers (Fig. 1).

299 Two concepts of the vertical structure were tested in the LOTOS-EUROS CTM. The
300 current operational LOTOS-EUROS model set-up uses a dynamic mixed layer approach (MIX)
301 consisting of 5 layers extending up to 5 km above sea level to determine the vertical (Manders et
302 al., 2017). The vertical is structured by using a static surface layer of 25 m followed by a dynamic
303 layer. The height of the dynamic layer equals the MLH, derived by the meteorological input data.
304 Up to 3.5 km two equally thick dynamic reservoir layers are implemented. Hence, the depth of the
305 vertical layers varies in time and space. To resolve free tropospheric transport processes like
306 mineral dust transport, a fifth layer exceeding the 3.5 km altitude is used. As prerequisite for
307 applying the dynamic mixed layer approach a homogenous pollutant distribution is presumed
308 within the PBL. However, assuming a well-mixed PBL can lead to a wrong representation of the
309 vertical mixing in the model system. Due to deep reservoir layers overestimated mixing, particular
310 during stable weather conditions with low MLHs, occurs. Therefore, recent model developments
311 apply a much larger number of vertical layers in the LOTOS-EUROS CTM to reproduce the
312 vertical structure of the planetary boundary layer (Escudero et al., 2019) and to provide a better
313 understanding of the vertical distribution of pollutants, the multi-level version (MUL) negates the
314 assumption of a well-mixed PBL and better accounts for the residual layer dynamics. The multi-
315 level model version uses the vertical level information as provided by the meteorological input
316 data. Here, the multi-level approach of LOTOS-EUROS was applied using the lowest 15 hybrid
317 z-level of COSMO-CLM and hybrid-sigma pressure layers of the ECMWF as input data.

318 **2.4 Observational Data and Metrics**

319 The meteorological simulations were evaluated compared to radiosonde observation from
320 Lindenberg, Schleswig, Greifswald in Germany and Leba, Legionowa and Wroclaw in Poland. To
321 compare to both meteorological model systems, the radiosonde observations were vertically
322 interpolated to the corresponding model layering. To derive the MLH for both, observations and
323 model results, the bulk Richardson method was used (Seibert et al., 2000). Defined as an
324 dimensionless quantity and used in the turbulent kinetic energy (TKE) equation, the bulk
325 Richardson number describes the bulk-ratio of the buoyant consumption term and the mechanical
326 production term (Stull, 1988). The MLH refers to the altitude at which the bulk Richardson number

327 is reaching a pre-set threshold, known as the critical Richardson number. Critical values of 0.2 to
328 1.0 are indicated in literature. Here we used the COSMO-CLM thresholds of 0.33 at stable
329 conditions (Wetzel, 1982) and 0.22 during convection (Vogelezang & Holtslag, 1996) to determine
330 the MLH based on the thermo-dynamical parameters and moisture variables.

331 To evaluate the modelled PM mass concentrations, observation data were collected from
332 the ground-based monitoring networks in Germany collected by the German Environment agency
333 UBA (www.uba.de). As we evaluated relatively short time periods, we chose to ensure full data
334 coverage by using monitoring sites with 99% data availability. Traffic sites were neglected as these
335 are not representative for the model resolution. The monitoring sites were clustered into rural-
336 background (6), suburban-background (10) and urban-background (4). To determine the
337 contribution of individual components to the total PM concentration, data from the PM-OST
338 monitoring campaign were used (van Pinxteren et al., 2019). The spatial-temporal mass
339 concentration characteristics were illustrated by box plots. Mean diurnal and weekly cycles were
340 calculated for all sites clustered by station type to examine the temporal variability of modelled
341 and measured mass concentration. When analyzing the mass concentration per station type the
342 data for all stations within a type were averaged in advance. To quantify the impact of
343 meteorological conditions on the PM mass concentration level, a classification was carried out.
344 The classification is based on three meteorological quantities. 2m-temperature ($T_C \leq 273.15$ K and
345 $T_W > 273.15$ K), 10m-wind speed ($WS_{10L} \leq 3.3$ m/s and $WS_{10H} > 3.3$ m/s) and 10m-wind
346 direction ($WD_{10} [0^\circ \dots 360^\circ, 90^\circ]$). Equally sized clusters were defined by using a bootstrapping
347 algorithm. To include vertical mixing, the classified PM concentration data were plotted against
348 the MLHs of both meteorological input data sets. To assess the different model configurations
349 used in this study, model statistics based on Chang & Hanna (2004) were used.

350 **3 Results**

351 **3.1 January 2016**

352 A comparison of both meteorological data from COSMO-CLM and ECMWF against
353 radiosonde data was carried out for January 2016 before investigating the impact on the chemical
354 transport modelling. Here we focus on thermodynamic parameters such as the MLH, temperature

355 and wind speed. To evaluate the COSMO-CLM model, an ensemble of the PBL parameterization
356 simulations is used.

357 Observed temperature profiles of the lower PBL are rather well captured by both
358 meteorological input datasets (Fig. 3, left). The ensemble of the COSMO-CLM model predicts
359 systematically lower temperatures in the model domain compared to the ECMWF model, with an
360 underestimation of observed values increasing towards the surface. The ECMWF model
361 overestimates the temperatures compared to observations, most pronounced above the 700 m
362 altitude. The structure of the vertical profile in the observations is considerably better reflected by
363 the COSMO-CLM ensemble than the ECMWF model. Both models do not represent the cold
364 easterly wind inflow period as well as the westerly wind inflow period.

365 For wind speed both meteorological datasets show a striking underestimation (of up to a
366 factor of three) of the measured values (Fig. 3, right). The underestimations are visible over the
367 entire vertical of the PBL and are most pronounced at about the 700 m altitude. The ensemble of
368 the COSMO-CLM model provides higher wind speeds and a closer resemblance of the observed
369 profile than the ECMWF model.

370 In general, the MLHs (Fig. 4) derived from both model simulations are lower compared to
371 those derived from radiosonde measurements. The monthly mean bias of the ECMWF model is
372 about -226 m and about -123 m for the COSMO-CLM ensemble mean. This could be attributed to
373 an insufficient representation of the sensible and latent heat flux of the used model systems in the
374 target area, which leads to lower near surface temperature estimates compared to the observations
375 and the subsequent formation of inversion layers. Further research studies are required to
376 investigate this issue. Deviations from the mean provide information of the variability and the
377 temporal evolution. With this respect a large spatial variability between observation sites can be
378 recognized, with the largest variation appearing in Leba. A rather good representation of the
379 temporal evolution, with a correlation coefficient of 0.76, can be achieved using the COSMO-

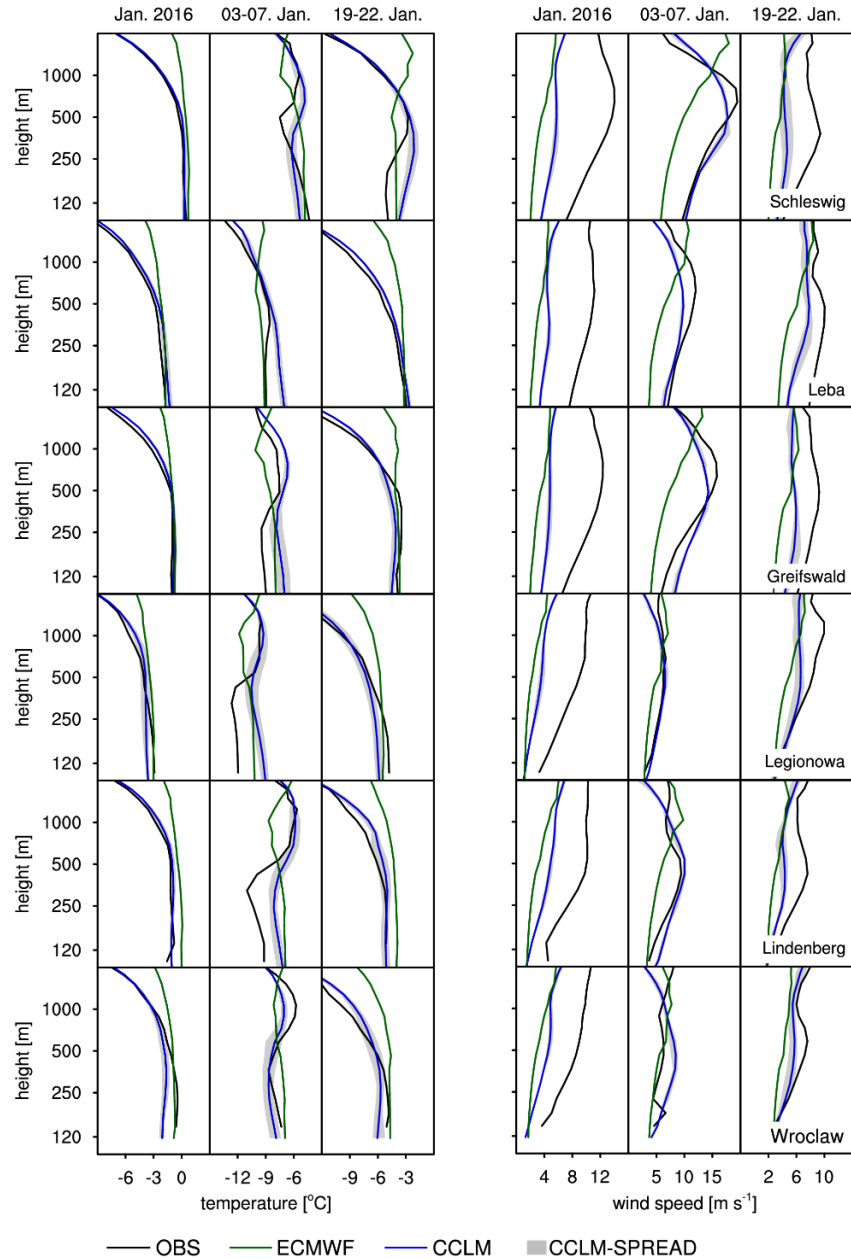


Fig. 3 Profiles of the temperature (left hand side) and the wind-speed (right hand side) for January 2016, split into sub-periods of 01.-31., 03.-07. and 19.-22. 01. 2016. Observation data are selected out of radiosonde measurements at Schleswig, Leba, Greifswald, Legionowa, Lindenberg and Wroclaw and color-coded in black. Model simulations are color-coded in green (ECMWF) and blue (COSMO-CLM). The COSMO-CLM model data is plotted as ensemble mean of the boundary layer parameterizations with their related spread marked as grey area.

381 evolution (correlation coefficient 0.13) of the MLH. The main weakness of both models is
 382 indicated by the standard deviation of the MLH. Even though the standard deviation of the

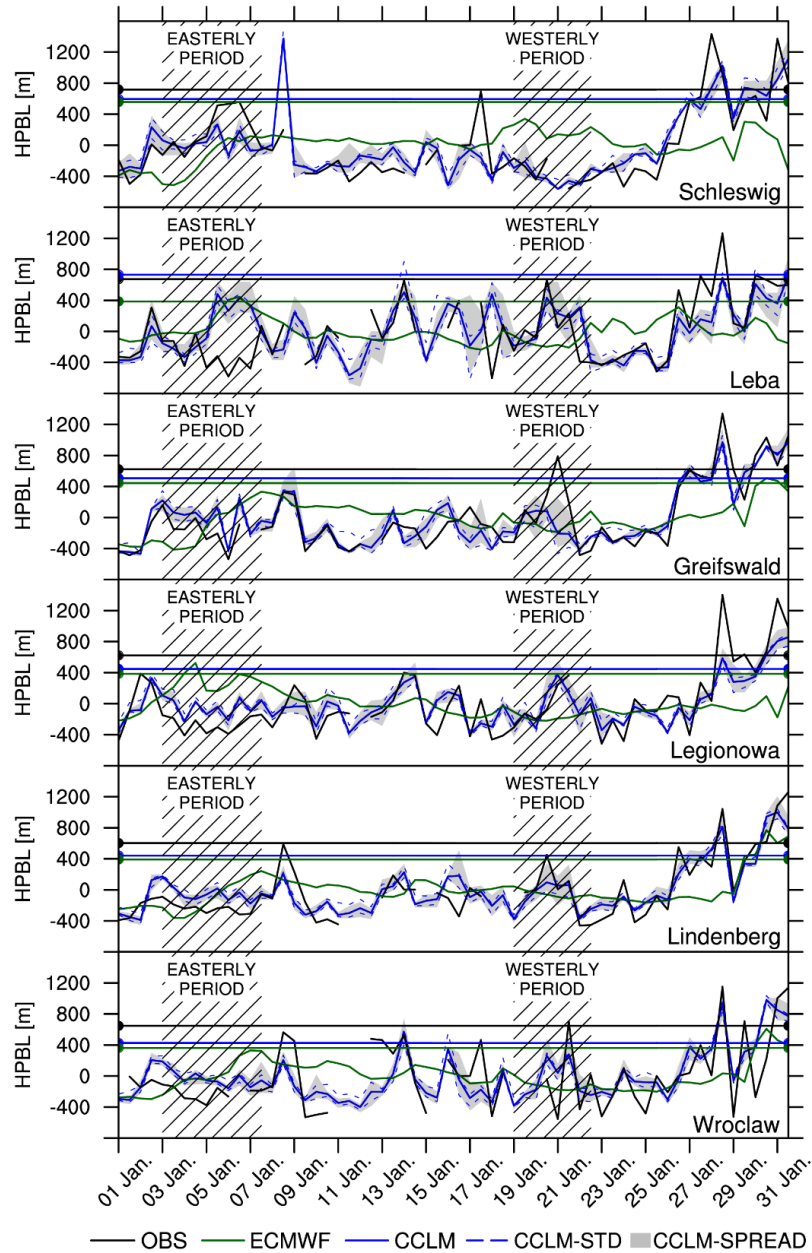


Fig. 4 Time series of the mixing layer height and deviation from mean, for January 2016. Observations are derived from radiosonde data in Schleswig, Leba, Greifswald, Legionowa, Lindenberg and Wroclaw is color-coded in black. Meteorological boundary data is color-coded in green (ECMWF) and blue (COSMO-CLM). The COSMO-CLM data is plotted as ensemble mean of the boundary layer parameterizations, the related spread marked as grey area and with the standard deviation coded as dashed line.

383 COSMO-CLM ensemble MLH is closer to the observation, modelled values (about 340 m) are
384 lower than observed (424 m). A noticeable lower standard deviation around the mean MLH is
385 computed for the ECMWF model (189 m). Hence, the dynamical downscaling using COSMO-
386 CLM provides improved meteorological information compared to the standard dataset from
387 ECMWF.

388 The impact of different PBL parameterizations of the COSMO-CLM model can be
389 regarded as small (grey area in Fig. 3). Main impact can be noted in the lower atmosphere, with
390 largest differences near the surface compared to the ensemble mean, which can be explained by a
391 lower vertical layer thickness near the surface. Lowering the diffusion coefficient of heat leads to
392 cooler conditions with increased wind speeds, whereas e.g. the 3-D TKE-based prognostic closure
393 approach leads to a warming in the PBL. Largest differences with a temperature variance of about
394 1 K can be observed especially during cooling events. Changes in wind speed are about 1 m/s
395 during the PM episode and about 0.5 m/s for the entire month. The MLH and the corresponding
396 temporal evolution are not significantly affected (see grey area in Fig. 4). Although the spread
397 between members is up to 200 m and thus comparatively large, no single ensemble member
398 provides a consistent indication of a better performance in representing the PBL meteorology.

399 Below, the COSMO-CLM ensemble and the reference ECMWF data are used to drive the
400 LOTOS-EUROS CTM.

401 Monthly mean PM mass concentration levels in the rural background during January 2016
402 were about $24 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (see Fig. 5 and Tab. 3). The LOTOS-EUROS CTM simulations fed with the
403 COSMO-CLM ensemble underestimate the observed concentrations by $8.1 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ on average. The
404 modelled variability is much lower than observed in reality. This can be explained by an
405 overestimation during the westerly wind period of about $0.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, and a relatively large
406 underestimation during the easterly wind regime (up to $-43.6 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). Despite of a similar
407 meteorological situation with a stagnant weather condition, this discrepancy can be explained by
408 a high transboundary PM contribution. The simulations with the COSMO-CLM ensemble of PBL
409 parameterizations do not provide large differences in the modelled PM mass concentration (Tab.
410 3). On average, PM levels modelled by individual members are deviating less than $0.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ from
411 the ensemble mean (Fig. 5). The model performance statistics for the ensemble mean of all
412 LOTOS-EUROS simulations show small positive impacts on the temporal correlation and the

413 normalized mean squared error compared to the individual simulation members (Tab. 3). In Table
 414 3 we also compare the validation statistics of simulations using ECMWF and different model
 415 resolutions. Using ECMWF meteorological data instead of COSMO-CLM provides larger
 416 correlation coefficients and lower error statistics. Independent on meteorological driver the vertical
 417 structure leads to a substantial increase in levels and modelled variation. The increase in horizontal
 418 resolution (D3 vs D2) leads to a slightly larger increment between rural and urban sites.

419 In short, the impacts of the COSMO-CLM ensemble (members) is small compared to the
 420 use of different meteorological input data (COSMO-CLM vs ECMWF) and using different vertical
 421 model resolutions. The latter are discussed in more detail below for the winter 2016-2017, for
 422 which we did not pursue to perform the full ensemble calculations.

423
 424

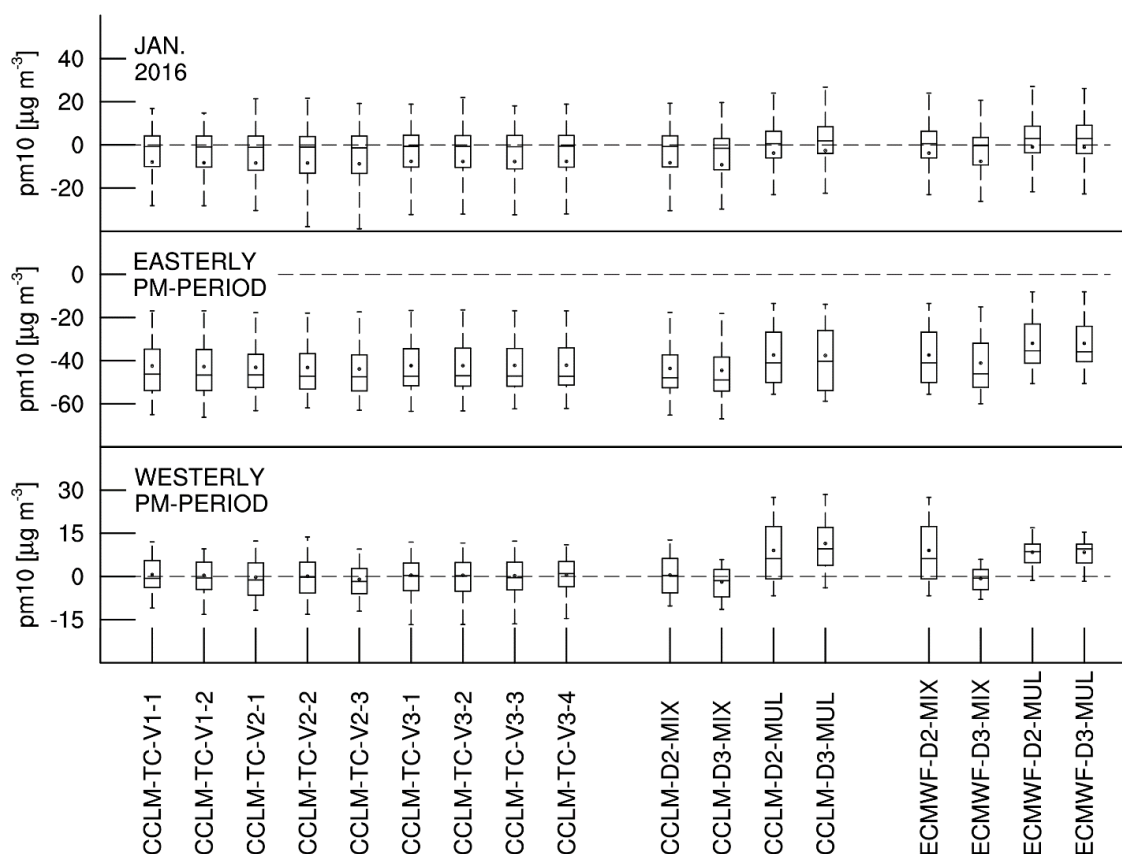


Fig. 5 PM mass concentration of the LOTOS-EUROS CTM dependent on the meteorological boundary conditions, the boundary layer parameterization, the horizontal resolution, and the vertical grid structure for the Berlin agglomeration. Three sub-periods have been investigated and are presented from top to bottom (01.-31., 03.-07. and 19.-22. 01. 2016).

426 **Tab. 3**

427 Statistics on modelled and observed means (μ), standard deviation (σ), temporal correlation
 428 coefficient (R_T), spatial correlation coefficient (R_S), geometric mean bias (MG), normalized mean
 429 square error (NMSE), geometric variance (VG), fractional bias (FB) and number of sites (NoS)
 430 for January 2016.

			$\mu_{\text{mod}} \pm \sigma_{\text{mod}}$	$\mu_{\text{obs}} \pm \sigma_{\text{obs}}$	R_T	R_S	VG	MG	NMSE	FB	NoS
COSMO-CLM	MIX	D2	15.70 ± 06.43	23.99 ± 21.76	0.53	0.52	1.68	1.25	1.16	0.42	6 RUBG
		D2	15.23 ± 06.20	27.26 ± 25.61	0.50	0.53	1.74	1.46	1.64	0.57	10 SUBG
		D2	20.08 ± 09.47	31.88 ± 35.17	0.24	0.88	1.80	1.36	2.03	0.45	4 URBG
		D3	14.77 ± 06.19	23.99 ± 21.76	0.55	0.59	1.72	1.34	1.27	0.48	6 RUBG
		D3	14.16 ± 05.50	27.26 ± 25.61	0.51	0.58	1.82	1.57	1.82	0.64	10 SUBG
		D3	21.31 ± 10.74	31.88 ± 35.17	0.17	0.94	1.82	1.28	1.96	0.40	4 URBG
	ENS	D2	15.93 ± 06.63	23.99 ± 21.76	0.58	0.53	1.62	1.24	1.09	0.40	6 RUBG
		D2	15.55 ± 06.36	27.26 ± 25.61	0.51	0.57	1.69	1.44	1.57	0.55	10 SUBG
		D2	20.18 ± 09.49	31.88 ± 35.17	0.26	0.89	1.76	1.35	2.00	0.45	4 URBG
		D3	20.20 ± 11.41	23.99 ± 21.76	0.56	0.65	1.42	1.06	0.70	0.17	6 RUBG
		D3	19.75 ± 11.29	27.26 ± 25.61	0.50	0.64	1.42	1.24	1.02	0.32	10 SUBG
		D3	23.32 ± 13.14	31.88 ± 35.17	0.36	0.90	1.42	1.24	1.55	0.31	4 URBG
ECMWF IFS	MUL	D2	21.33 ± 11.31	23.99 ± 21.76	0.51	0.71	1.43	0.98	0.70	0.12	6 RUBG
		D2	20.92 ± 10.99	27.26 ± 25.61	0.47	0.74	1.38	1.15	0.95	0.27	10 SUBG
		D2	26.09 ± 14.07	31.88 ± 35.17	0.28	0.94	1.48	1.08	1.43	0.20	4 URBG
		D3	20.15 ± 06.69	23.99 ± 21.76	0.62	0.64	1.42	1.17	1.00	0.37	6 RUBG
		D3	16.72 ± 06.66	27.26 ± 25.61	0.57	0.62	1.46	1.31	1.35	0.48	10 SUBG
		D3	19.39 ± 08.51	31.88 ± 35.17	0.36	0.88	1.56	1.35	2.01	0.49	4 URBG
	MIX	D2	16.35 ± 06.76	23.99 ± 21.76	0.64	0.72	1.41	1.17	0.99	0.38	6 RUBG
		D2	16.77 ± 06.67	27.26 ± 25.61	0.60	0.58	1.45	1.31	1.30	0.48	10 SUBG
		D2	20.12 ± 08.98	31.88 ± 35.17	0.36	0.95	1.54	1.31	1.91	0.45	4 URBG
		D3	23.02 ± 11.00	23.99 ± 21.76	0.67	0.86	1.35	0.87	0.50	0.04	6 RUBG
		D3	22.91 ± 11.05	27.26 ± 25.61	0.60	0.69	1.30	1.00	0.73	0.17	10 SUBG
		D3	24.61 ± 12.00	31.88 ± 35.17	0.46	0.95	1.33	1.10	1.32	0.26	4 URBG
D3	D2	22.95 ± 11.00	23.99 ± 21.76	0.67	0.93	1.35	0.87	0.50	0.05	6 RUBG	
	D2	23.00 ± 11.08	27.26 ± 25.61	0.61	0.61	1.29	1.00	0.70	0.18	10 SUBG	
	D2	24.98 ± 12.14	31.88 ± 35.17	0.46	0.95	1.33	1.08	1.30	0.24	4 URBG	

431 **3.2 September 2016 to March 2017**432 **3.2.1 Meteorological Input Data**

433 Classifying the PM concentration by meteorological conditions for September 2016 to
 434 March 2017, more detailed information can be obtained on their relationship to thermodynamical
 435 quantities. Figure 6 illustrates the well-known feature of high PM concentration levels

436 predominant during cold periods when a shallow mixing layer is observed. By contrast, a low mass
 437 concentration is evident during relative mild winter periods. Periods with weak wind speeds are
 438 linked to local impacts like urban emissions, high wind speeds are associated to long-range
 439 transport. Concentration levels are higher at south-east wind directions than at north-west ones in
 440 the investigation area of Berlin. Summarizing, high concentration levels in Berlin can be linked to
 441 long-range transport of air masses from East-European countries, during cold stagnant conditions.
 442 PM concentrations during westerly wind periods are well represented while an underestimation of
 443 PM concentrations is present for all mixed-layer model versions during easterly wind periods with
 444 respect to the UBA measurements. Warm periods are better reproduced than colder episodes.
 445 Largest PM underestimations for September 2016 to March 2017 are obvious for conditions with

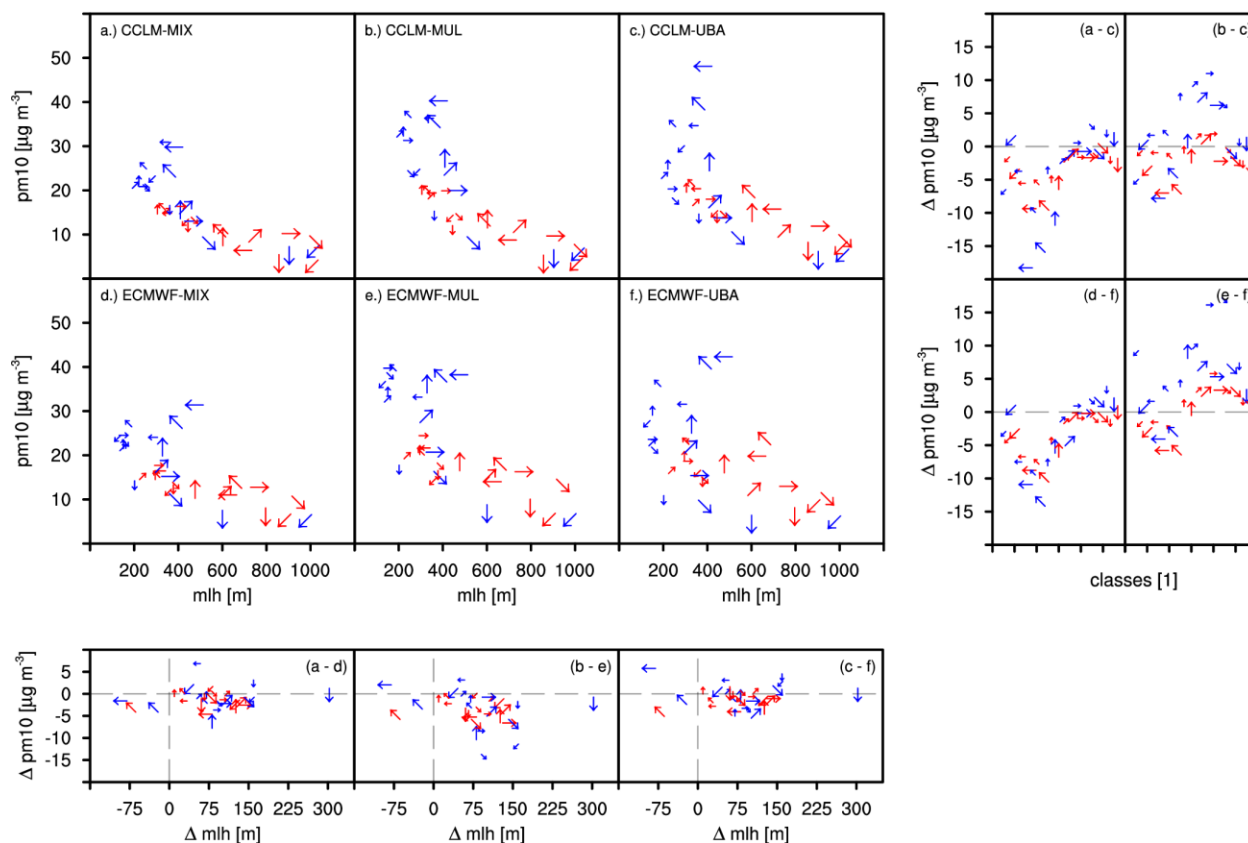


Fig. 6 Modelled (left: mixed layer approach [MIX], middle: multi-layering concept [MUL]) and observed (right) PM mass concentration levels are plotted over the MLH (a-f) for September 2016 to March 2017. Rural-background sites are used as evaluation sites, with the COSMO-CLM model (top) and ECMWF model (bottom) representing the meteorological boundary data. The PM mass concentration levels are divided into different classes depending on the meteorological condition. Anomalies of the different configurations are plotted on each side. The temperature impact is color-coded: $T_C \leq 273.15K$ as blue and $T_W > 273.15K$ as red. Wind speed is marked by the arrow length: $WS_{10L} \leq 3.3m/s$ and $WS_{10H} > 3.3m/s$. The wind direction is associated to the arrow direction: $WD_{10} [0^\circ \dots 360^\circ, 90^\circ]$.

446 cold south-easterly high wind periods by up to $15.0 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ compared to the observation. LOTOS-
 447 EUROS CTM simulations driven by the COSMO-CLM model and ECMWF input data differ,
 448 depending on the meteorological condition, in their mean MLH by about 75 m with the ECMWF
 449 model providing lower values for most of the time. Related PM mass concentration levels vary
 450 within $5.0 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, with largest deviations during cold periods. Simulation results of the LOTOS-
 451 EUROS CTM using input data of the COSMO-CLM model are on average about $-1.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ lower
 452 in rural areas than ones computed by using the ECMWF model, with the more striking difference
 453 of about $-7.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ evident during cold stagnant PM episodes, which could be related to higher
 454 wind speeds of the COSMO-CLM model.

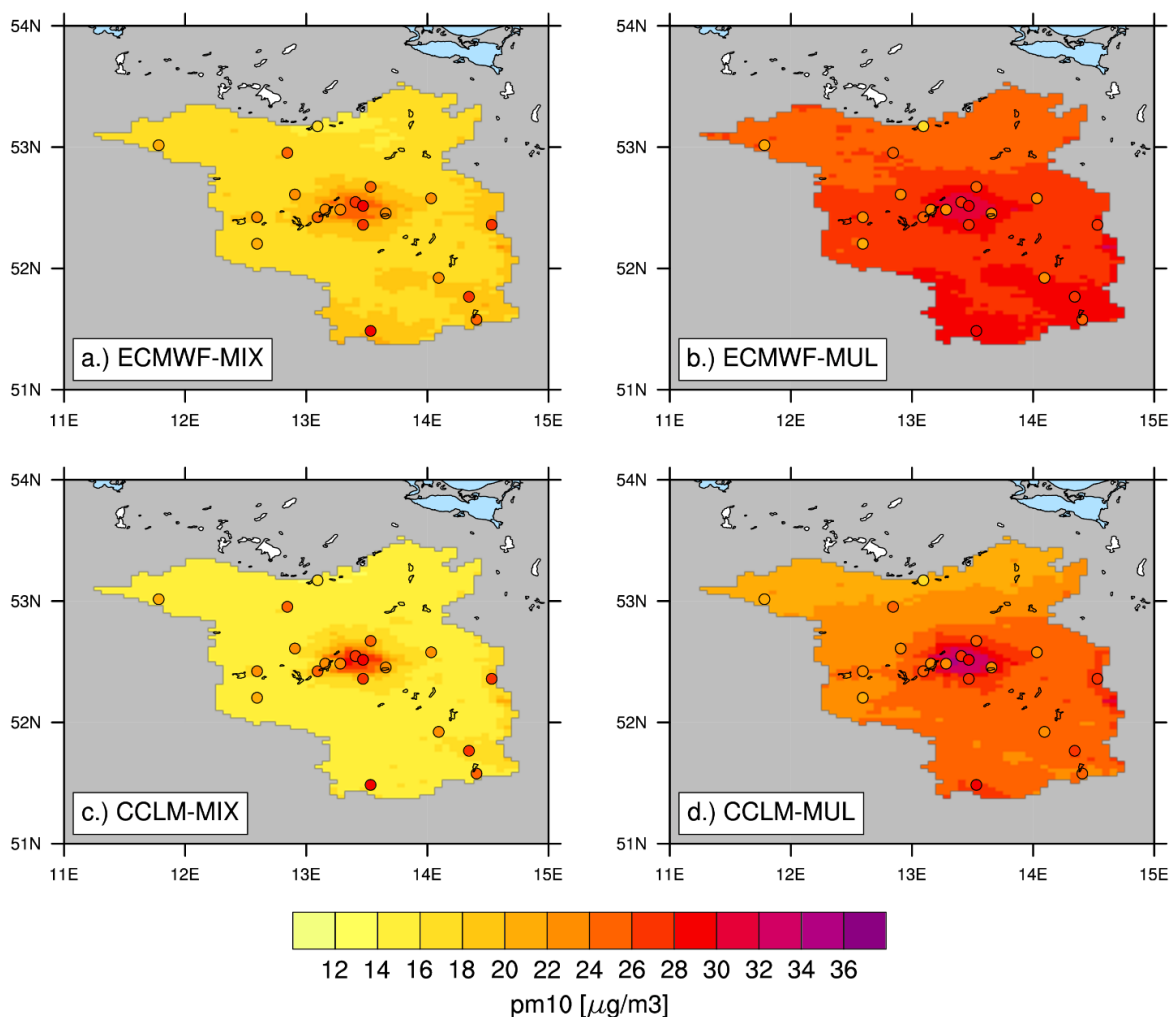


Fig. 7 Map of the observed (dots) and the modelled (ECMWF-MIX: a, ECMWF-MUL: b, COSMO-CLM-MIX: c and COSMO-CLM-MUL: d) PM mass concentration level for December 2016 to February 2017.

D3	27.70 ± 16.18	21.67 ± 14.89	0.76	0.87	1.30	0.74	0.26	-0.24	6 RUBG
	27.98 ± 15.69	24.71 ± 16.27	0.81	0.61	1.19	0.83	0.16	-0.12	10 SUBG
	30.44 ± 19.02	27.36 ± 18.69	0.64	0.85	1.21	0.87	0.32	-0.11	4 URBG

471 PM mass concentration levels of urban agglomerations. More gradients are visible in the PM
472 distribution across highly polluted areas such as Berlin. Whereas the rural background
473 concentration estimates for winter December 2016 to February 2017 are slightly higher by using
474 the COSMO-CLM model compared to the observations (bias of $-3.1 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) than those of the
475 ECMWF model system. In the urban background area, an underestimation of $-4.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ is obvious
476 with respect to the observations. This results in an urban increment of $4.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.

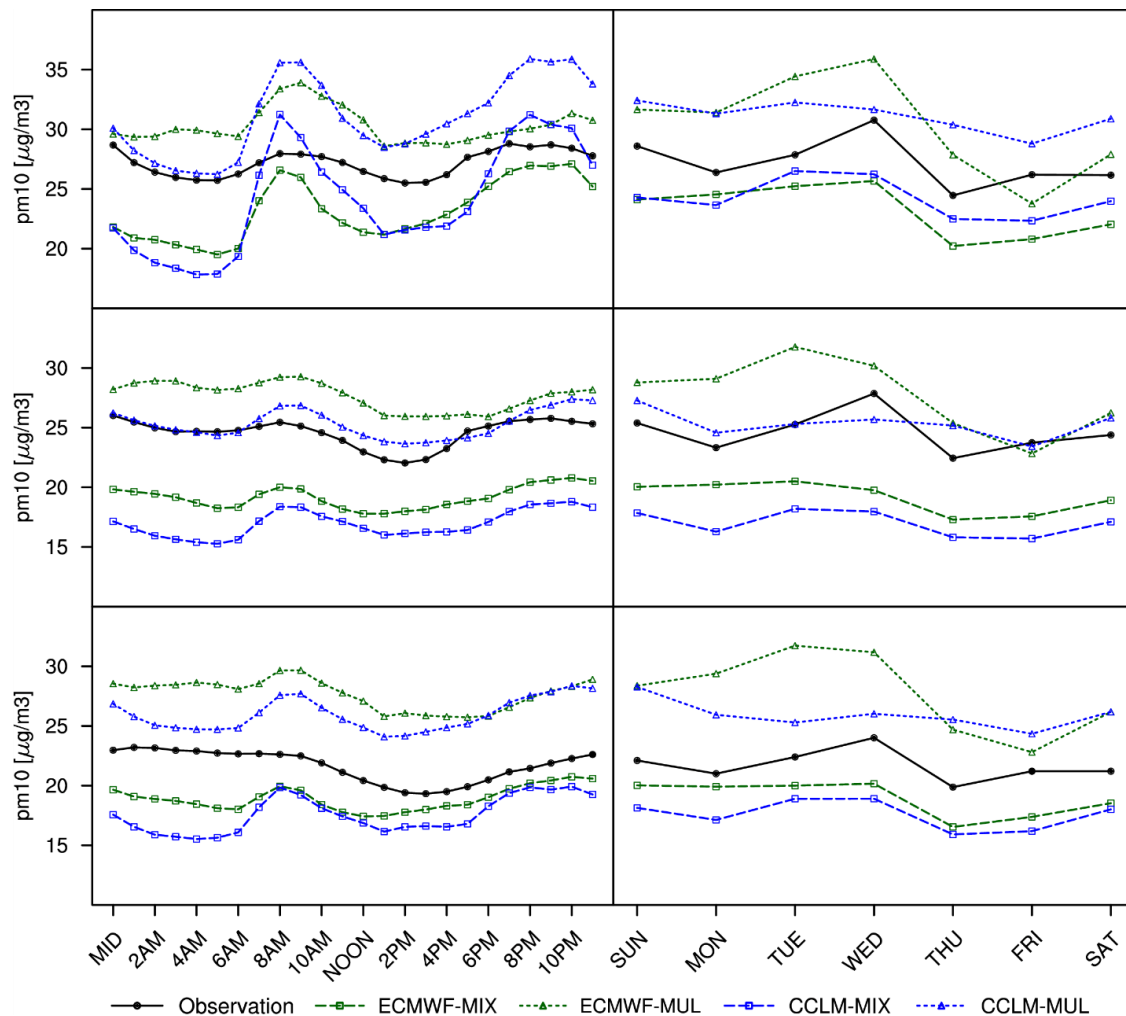


Fig. 8 Diurnal (left) and weekly (right) cycle of the observed (black solid line) and the modelled (green: dashed line – ECMWF-MIX, dotted line – ECMWF-MUL; blue: dashed line – COSMO-CLM-MIX, dotted line – COSMO-CLM-MUL) PM mass concentration levels for December 2016 to February 2017, split into urban- (top), suburban- (mid) and rural-background (bottom) areas.

477 Figure 8 provides observed and modelled diurnal and weekly cycles of surface PM
478 concentration levels for winter December 2016 to February 2017. The observed diurnal cycle is
479 characterized by a minimum during lunchtime and a maximum at night, caused by the natural
480 development of the MLH. Whereas, in the urban area two peak values are observed during
481 daytime, between 8-11 GMT and 19-22 GMT, mainly attributed to the impact of traffic rush hours
482 and heating in conurbation areas. Diurnal cycles are too pronounced in the LOTOS-EUROS CTM
483 simulations. Lower concentration levels are predominant in the early morning hours from midnight
484 to 6:00 GMT, with about $-5.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in rural areas and about $-6.8 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in the urban background
485 compared to the observation. Towards the evening the bias is reduced to about $-3.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in rural
486 areas and about $-2 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in the urban background with respect to the UBA measurements. The
487 mean correlation of the diurnal cycle for urban sites is 0.81, with simulations driven by COSMO-
488 CLM input data showing smaller correlation coefficients by about 0.07. The more pronounced
489 overshooting of peak concentration levels in urban areas by using the COSMO-CLM model
490 reduces the temporal correlation to 0.57. Overall higher correlations can be provided using the
491 ECMWF input data in the rural and sub-urban background area by about 0.05.

492 As the impact for different horizontal (D2 vs. D3) and vertical resolutions (MIX vs. MUL)
493 of the LOTOS-EUROS CTM simulations is similar for varying meteorological input-data, we will
494 focus on the COSMO-CLM model system.

495 **3.2.2 Model Resolution**

496 Differences by increasing the horizontal resolution are particularly evident when applying
497 the dynamical downscaling approach of the COSMO-CLM model, with the major benefit of the
498 higher resolution recognized in a more detailed representation of the spatial concentration
499 distribution. For instance, increasing the horizontal resolution applying the zooming approach of
500 the LOTOS-EUROS CTM (D2 to D3) is slightly affecting the PM mass concentration and reduces
501 the rural background levels of the LOTOS-EUROS CTM model (Tab. 4 and Fig. 7). On average
502 lower values of $-1.1 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ were computed compared to the coarser resolution for winter December
503 2016 to February 2017. In contrary, the concentration amount in the urban background of the
504 LOTOS-EUROS CTM is increased by about $0.9 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ when increasing the resolution from 7 km
505 to 2 km. This increases the urban increment to about $6.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. Simulation results show that

506 different horizontal resolutions applying different vertical structures delivered similar results, thus
507 for the remainder discussions we will stick with the higher resolved model version.

508 Changing the vertical structure (MIX vs. MUL) of the LOTOS-EUROS CTM exhibits a
509 larger impact than increasing the horizontal resolution. By applying the multi-level approach,
510 higher levels of the PM mass concentration are obvious in almost all meteorological conditions
511 with respect to the mixed layer approach (Fig. 6). The multi-level version leads to a considerably
512 reduction of the underestimation during cold south-easterly high wind periods from $-14 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ to
513 about $-4.0 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ compared to the observations. At the same time, an overestimation during cold
514 westerly wind conditions is apparent by now of up to $10.0 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ with respect to the observations.
515 Regarding warm westerly conditions a mean overestimation of about $4.0 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ system can be
516 recognized applying the multi-layering concept compared to the UBA measurements. Increased
517 PM mass concentration levels are predominant in the whole model domain when using the multi-
518 level model version (Tab. 4 and Fig. 7). In particular, the rural background concentration levels
519 are increased by up to $8.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ on average compared to the mixed layer approach. This leads to
520 an average overestimation of rural background concentrations of up to $4.3 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. The urban
521 concentration levels are overestimated by up to $3.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. The urban increment is about $4,9 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
522 but is only slightly underestimated compared to the UBA measurements.

523 **3.2.3 Model Performance**

524 Model statistics show high agreement of the model simulations compared with
525 observations (Tab. 4). An overall good representation of the observations can be achieved, with
526 highest model performance evident for the multi-level version of the LOTOS-EUROS CTM. On
527 average, high-resolution model simulations of the LOTOS-EUROS CTM show the best spatial
528 performance with spatial and temporal correlation increasing with higher vertical model
529 resolution. Best agreements can be observed for the dynamical downscaling approach of the
530 COSMO-CLM input data combined with increased vertical resolution of the LOTOS-EUROS
531 CTM, with spatial averaged model statistics of about 0.74 for the temporal correlation, 0.70 for
532 the spatial correlation, -0.11 for the fractional bias, 0.23 for the normalized mean square error, 1.29
533 for the geometric variance and 0.91 for the geometric mean bias.

534 **3.2.4 Composition of PM**

535 In the following section, the comparison of the observed and modelled PM concentration
536 is extended by chemical compounds (Fig. 9 and Fig. 10). This provides more information on the
537 mechanisms causing to different results in the applied model configurations. The modelled and
538 observed data were spatially averaged over the entire investigation area.

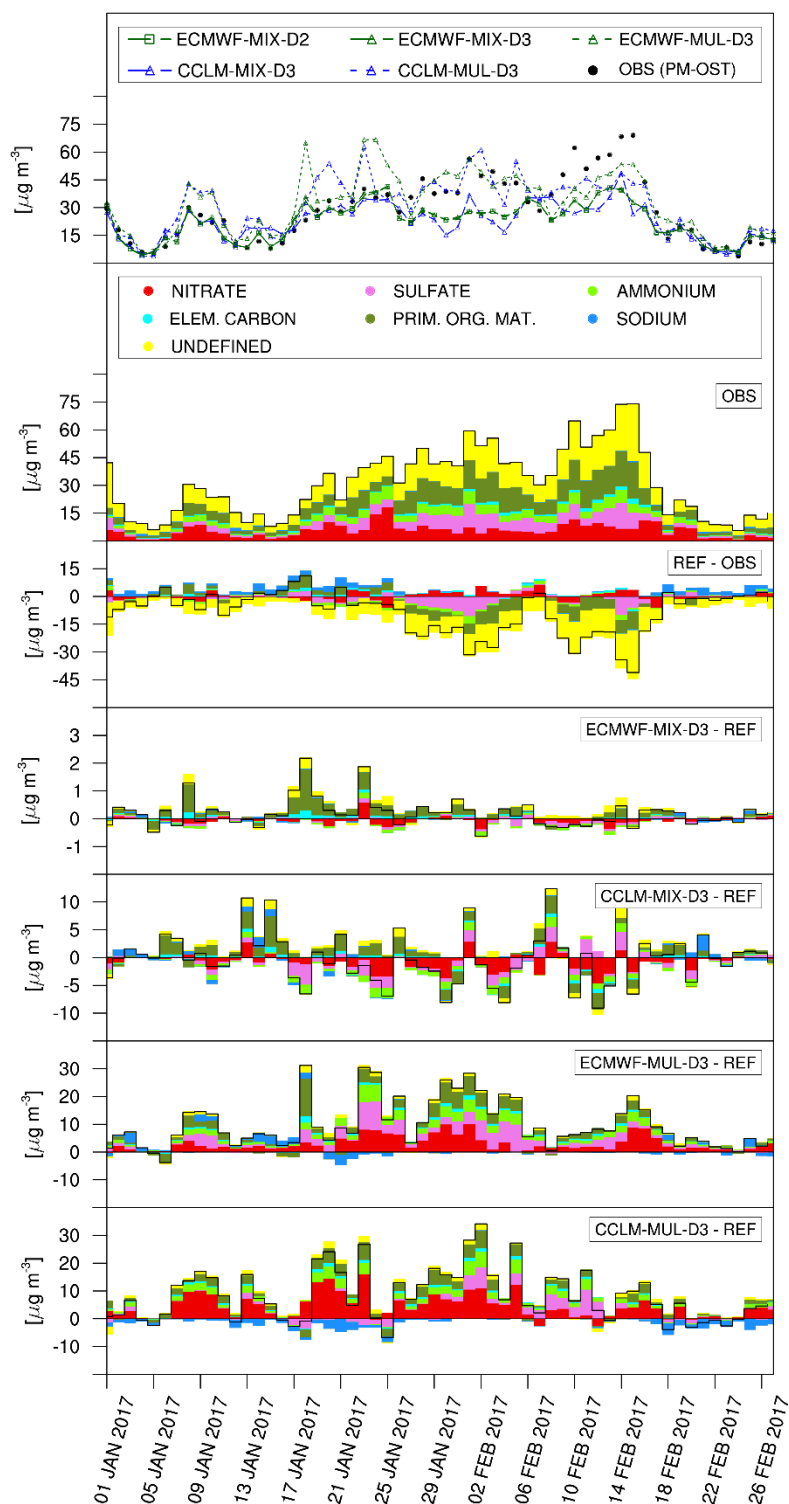


Fig. 9 Time series of observed (PM-OST) and modelled PM mass concentration levels (on top) for January to February 2017. Difference (black line) to the Observation (PM-OST) and the reference model (ECMWF-MIX-D2) are listed below and separated into their chemical composition (bar charts).

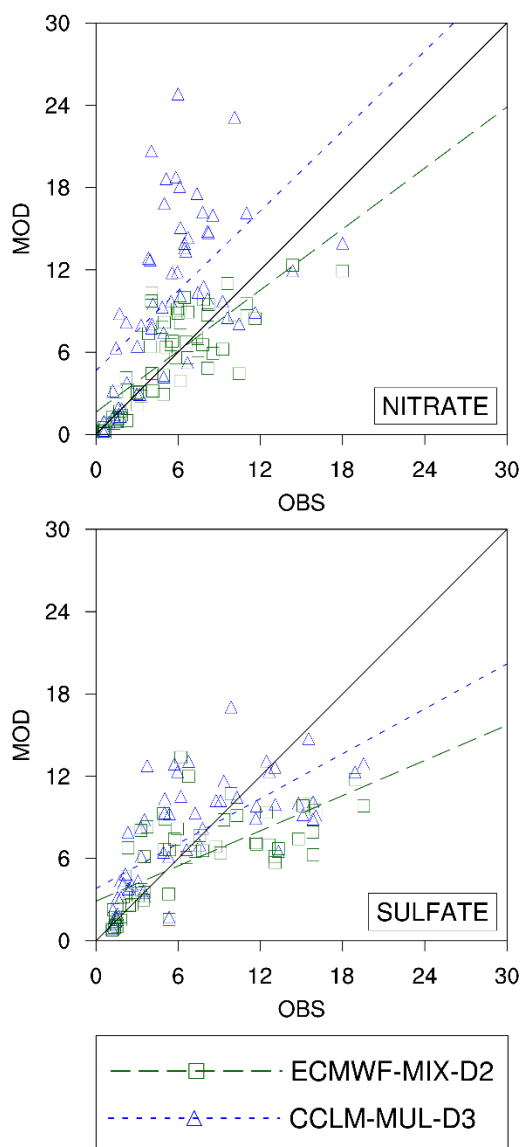


Fig. 10 Scatter plot of modelled (MOD) compared to of observed (OBS: PM-OST) mass concentration levels of nitrate (on top) and sulfate (bottom) for January to February 2017.

541 The observed PM composition shows high levels of nitrate (18 %), ammonium (10 %) and
 542 sulfate (13 %) as well as organic matter (23 %) for January to February 2017. Lower contributions
 543 can be attributed to sodium (1 %) and elemental carbon (3 %). The predominant compound is
 544 classified as undefined (34 %) which includes mineral dust, oxides, and other trace materials.

545 As mentioned in the previous section model simulations of the mixed-layer version indicate
546 an overall underestimation of the total PM mass concentration especially during PM episodes in
547 comparison to the observations. The largest part of the model bias can be attributed to an
548 underestimation of sulfate, primary organic matter (POM), and the undefined fraction with
549 estimated average underestimations ranging between $-1.2 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ for Sulfate and POM and of -8.0
550 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ for the undefined fraction, respectively. By contrast, the components sodium, and elemental
551 carbon show positive biases up to $1.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ compared to the observations. Ammonium is slightly
552 underestimated, whereas nitrate shows a small overestimation of (both about $\pm 0.2 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$).

553 Simulations by using different model resolutions in the horizontal or the vertical grid
554 structure and different meteorological input data, especially affects individual chemical
555 components as e.g. nitrate, and sulfate, which are highly sensitive compounds in the used model
556 systems (Fig. 10). These observed sensitivities and their related overestimation of PM
557 concentration levels compared to observations are primarily induced by the multi-level version of
558 the LOTOS-EUROS CTM. The largest gain in mass concentration in the order of about $4.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
559 is evident for nitrate, leading to an averaged overestimation of the same order of magnitude
560 compared to the observations. Similar results are obvious for ammonium, which results in an
561 overestimation of the averaged fraction of about $1.3 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ compared to the measurements.
562 Ammonium nitrate is a semi-volatile component and its formation depends a combination of
563 factors including temperature, relative humidity, stability, and the precursor concentrations. In this
564 case, the absence of the meteorological impact on ammonia emissions may increase the effects as
565 the rise of ammonium nitrate occurs at (colder) moments when ammonia emissions are below
566 average. The mass concentration of POM is increasing with higher vertical layering also by about
567 $0.6 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. By contrast, the sodium mass concentration was reduced and leads to a reduction of the
568 model bias ($0.2 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). In all simulations a below average performance is found for the formation
569 of sulfate. Compared to the observations, the model bias ($-0.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) for sulfate is considerably
570 reduced on average, but still the temporal trend is difficult to capture.

571 Using different meteorological input data is not as large reflected in the distribution of the
572 chemical compounds. The results differ in the concentration mass corresponding to the conclusions
573 mentioned above with small changes in the model bias of nitrate and POM ranging within 0.5
574 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ when using the COSMO-CLM model. By contrast, the fraction of sulfate is changed for

575 January to February 2017 and counteracts the model bias. In comparison to the ECMWF driven
576 model system, a negative difference prior to and a positive one during the PM episode appears.

577 The smallest variations in the component distribution can be observed by increasing the
578 model resolution using the zooming approach in the LOTOS-EUROS CTM, with higher POM
579 concentration and lower nitrate levels modelled for the observation sites for January to February
580 2017. Averaged differences of up to $0.3 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ with respect to the lower resolution can be
581 recognized. The impact of elemental carbon becomes more relevant with higher resolution
582 increasing the mass concentration in the order of $0.1 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, which results in a larger
583 overestimation of about $0.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ compared to the observation.

584 **4 Discussion and Conclusions**

585 We successfully developed an interface to the COSMO-CLM model and explored the
586 impact of different meteorological input data and horizontal and vertical resolutions for the
587 LOTOS-EUROS CTM. The quality of the meteorological input data are a major impact factor on
588 chemical transport modelling and can thus be one reason for excessive mixing (Vautard et al.
589 (2012)). Our study shows that meteorological conditions can significantly be improved by
590 applying the dynamical downscaling approach of the COSMO-CLM model compared to the
591 ECMWF reference data. Especially the comparison to observed MLHs, derived from radiosonde
592 data using the bulk Richardson method (Seibert et al., 2000), exhibits a good agreement.
593 Weaknesses are apparent representing the MLH top with a low bias, while the temporal evolution
594 and the variability are well reflected. Previous studies also mentioned a systematic underestimation
595 of the PBL height of the COSMO model during convective situations or frontal crossings,
596 comparable to the prevailing conditions during the selected investigation period (Fay &
597 Neunhäuserer, 2005). Baars et al. (2008) also published model simulation results of the COSMO
598 model indicating a too low MLH of about 20%. In the study of Baars et al. (2008) the dependency
599 to cloud cover was emphasized with highest underestimation appearing when clouds are predicted
600 by the model but are not existent at all. By contrast, the study by Collaud Coen et al. (2014)
601 indicates a general overestimation of the COSMO model caused by a too rapid increase in the early
602 morning hours, with larger differences during cloudy conditions as well. As reason of these
603 positive and negative model bias compared to the observations, differences in the stratification of

604 atmospheric parameters can be regarded as the main impact factor, caused in particular by the
605 orographic situation in the studies mentioned above.

606 To provide reliable meteorological conditions of the PBL for the investigation area of
607 Berlin, we attempted to improve the variability of the MLH by using different PBL
608 parameterizations of the COSMO-CLM model. Neither the simulation of the mean nor the
609 representation of the variability can be improved much by the sensitivity simulations of the
610 COSMO-CLM model. The overall total variation caused by the parameterizations is small and no
611 clear bias correction can be achieved. Previous studies already mentioned similar difficulties
612 adopting parametrizations. Buzzi et al. (2011) for instance indicates a loss of information of the
613 near-surface temperature inversion when too low diffusion coefficients are applied, with high
614 values are required to avoid low mixing. A further study by Meissner et al. (2009) indicates minor
615 impact of varying physical model parameters compared to changing meteorological driving data
616 of the COSMO-CLM model. This may indicate that the downscaling domain of COSMO should
617 be increased substantially in the future to widen the ensemble spread.

618 In fact, the MLH is not a physical parameter, it is simply a diagnostic quantity and cannot
619 be directly measured with the determination associated with certain limitations (Schäfer et al.,
620 2006). However, studies on the comparability of MLH retrievals deliver significant differences
621 especially depending on the meteorological conditions. Based on the algorithm used to derive the
622 MLH, such as temperature profiles, sodar results and lidar, various solutions can be obtained
623 (Coulter, 1979; Seidel et al., 2010; Haeffelin et al., 2012; Beyrich & Leps, 2012). The differences
624 even increase when complex methods are used to distinguish between several PBL types (Collaud
625 Coen et al., 2014). This leads to a validation and implementation problem in CTMs. To avoid the
626 issue of the derivation problem, we advise not to use the MLH as input or validation data for CTMs
627 in contrast to previous recommendations by studies like as Geiß et al. (2017). In accordance with
628 the suggestion of Hanna & Yang (2001) we therefore increased the vertical grid resolution of the
629 model to better reflect shallow inversion conditions by applying the recent multi-layering version
630 of the LOTOS-EUROS CTM.

631 The impact on the PM mass concentration of the vertical layering in the LOTOS-EUROS
632 CTM is much larger than the planetary boundary layer meteorology, with the multi-level approach
633 of the LOTOS-EUROS CTM significantly increasing the concentration mass in the investigation

634 area of Berlin. Major impact can be associated to cold stagnant weather conditions, especially
635 easterly wind periods and a better representation of high transboundary PM contributions. By
636 contrast, warm periods are not as large modified by using the high vertical grid structure. This can
637 be attributed to a modified distribution of the chemical compounds, especially nitrate, and
638 ammonium, which responded highly sensitive within the used model set-ups. Compared to the
639 mixed-layer version the nitrate and ammonium concentration levels are increased and lead to an
640 increased total PM mass concentration when applying the higher resolved vertical layering
641 structure.

642 This study and recent assessment for NO₂ and ozone show that the multi-level approach of
643 the LOTOS-EUROS CTM keeps the pollutants closer to the surface than the mixed layer approach
644 (Escudero et al. (2019); Fallah et al (2020)). Fallah et. al. (2020) further reveals a seasonal
645 relationship of the nitrogen oxide mass concentration levels dependent on the applied vertical set-
646 up, with an overestimated mixing in the mixed-layer version of the LOTOS-EUROS CTM. The
647 similarity of the results for summer was large, where a better performance for the multi-level model
648 version was found for the winter season compared to the mixed-layer approach. However, the
649 refined vertical layering still results in too high PM concentration levels in urban areas and non-
650 polluted periods, thus further investigations of the model set-up must be carried out.

651 Higher resolved model simulations and the use of the COSMO-CLM model as
652 meteorological input data, leads to a more realistic representation of the urban-increment compared
653 to coarser model simulations driven by the EMCWF model. Especially the spatial distribution of
654 the PM background concentration is considerably improved. The higher horizontal resolution of
655 the LOTOS-EUROS-CTM in combination with high resolution meteorological input data hence
656 leads to less artificial dilution in urban areas.

657 Individual chemical compounds should be examined and considered separately by
658 applying a labelling approach. Underestimated processes like as resuspension due to traffic,
659 construction or agriculture could then easily be identified to improve the emission inventory for
660 the Berlin agglomeration. Further investigations based on source apportionment and receptor
661 studies and their comparison to PMF observations should be carried out to further enhance the
662 insight of long-range and local contributions in the investigation area of Berlin.

663

664 **Acknowledgment**

665 The work presented here was funded through the German Environment Agency (UBA), Dessau-
666 Roßlau, Project number: FKZ 3716 51 203 0. The authors gratefully acknowledge the provision
667 of data in the project “PM-Ost” from the Berlin Senate Department for the Environment,
668 Transport and Climate Protection, Berlin, the Saxon State Office for Environment, Agriculture
669 and Geology (LfULG), Dresden-Pillnitz, the State Office for Environment (LfU) of the Federal
670 State of Brandenburg, Potsdam, and the State Office for Environment, Nature and Geology
671 (LUNG) of the Federal State of Mecklenburg-Western Pomerania, Güstrow.

672

673 **References**

674 ARAKAWA, A., & LAMB, V. R. (1977). Computational Design of the Basic Dynamical
675 Processes of the UCLA General Circulation Model. In J. CHANG (Ed.), *General*
676 *Circulation Models of the Atmosphere* (Vol. 17, pp. 173–265). Elsevier.
677 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-460817-7.50009-4>

678 Baars, H., Ansmann, A., Engelmann, R., & Althausen, D. (2008). Continuous monitoring of the
679 boundary-layer top with lidar. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 8(23), 7281–7296.
680 <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-8-7281-2008>

681 Banks, R. F., & Baldasano, J. M. (2016). Impact of WRF model PBL schemes on air quality
682 simulations over Catalonia, Spain. *Science of the Total Environment*, 572, 98–113.
683 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2016.07.167>

684 Banzhaf, S., Schaap, M., Kerschbaumer, A., Reimer, E., Stern, R., Van Der Swaluw, E., &
685 Builtjes, P. (2012). Implementation and evaluation of pH-dependent cloud chemistry and
686 wetdeposition in the chemical transport model REM-Calgrid. *Atmospheric Environment*.
687 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2011.10.069>

688 Beekmann, M., Prévôt, A. S. H., Drewnick, F., Sciare, J., Pandis, S. N., Denier Van Der Gon, H.
689 A. C., et al. (2015). In situ, satellite measurement and model evidence on the dominant
690 regional contribution to fine particulate matter levels in the Paris megacity. *Atmospheric*
691 *Chemistry and Physics*, 15(16), 9577–9591. <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-15-9577-2015>

692 Belis, C. A., Pernigotti, D., Pirovano, G., Favez, O., Jaffrezo, J. L., Kuenen, J., et al. (2020).

693 Evaluation of receptor and chemical transport models for PM10 source apportionment.
694 *Atmospheric Environment: X*, 5, 100053. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.AEAOA.2019.100053>

695 Beyrich, F., & Leps, J. P. (2012). An operational mixing height data set from routine
696 radiosoundings at Lindenberg: Methodology. *Meteorologische Zeitschrift*, 21(4), 337–348.
697 <https://doi.org/10.1127/0941-2948/2012/0333>

698 Boldo, E., Medina, S., LeTertre, A., Hurley, F., Mücke, H. G., Ballester, F., et al. (2006).
699 Aphis: Health impact assessment of long-term exposure to PM2.5 in 23 European cities.
700 *European Journal of Epidemiology*, 21(6), 449–458. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s10654-006-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10654-006-9014-0)
701 9014-0

702 Brook, R. D., Rajagopalan, S., Pope, C. A., Brook, J. R., Bhatnagar, A., Diez-Roux, A. V., et al.
703 (2010, June 1). Particulate matter air pollution and cardiovascular disease: An update to the
704 scientific statement from the american heart association. *Circulation*.
705 <https://doi.org/10.1161/CIR.0b013e3181dbee1>

706 Brüggemann, E., Gerwig, H., Gnauk, T., Müller, K., & Herrmann, H. (2009). Influence of
707 seasons, air mass origin and day of the week on size-segregated chemical composition of
708 aerosol particles at a kerbside. *Atmospheric Environment*, 43(15), 2456–2463.
709 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.ATMOSENV.2009.01.054>

710 Businger, J. A., Wyngaard, J. C., Izumi, Y., & Bradley, E. F. (1971). Flux-Profile Relationships
711 in the Atmospheric Surface Layer. *Journal of the Atmospheric Sciences*, 28(2), 181–189.
712 [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0469\(1971\)028<0181:fprita>2.0.co;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0469(1971)028<0181:fprita>2.0.co;2)

713 Buzzi, M., Rotach, M. W., Holtslag, M., & Holtslag, A. A. M. (2011). Evaluation of the
714 COSMO-SC turbulence scheme in a shear-driven stable boundary layer. *Meteorologische*
715 *Zeitschrift*, 20(3), 335–350. <https://doi.org/10.1127/0941-2948/2011/0050>

716 Chang, J. C., & Hanna, S. R. (2004). Air quality model performance evaluation. *Meteorology*
717 *and Atmospheric Physics*, 87(1–3), 167–196. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00703-003-0070-7>

718 Collaud Coen, M., Praz, C., Haefele, A., Ruffieux, D., Kaufmann, P., & Calpini, B. (2014).
719 Determination and climatology of the planetary boundary layer height above the Swiss
720 plateau by in situ and remote sensing measurements as well as by the COSMO-2 model.
721 *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 14(23), 13205–13221. <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-14->

722 13205-2014

723 Costa, S., Ferreira, J., Silveira, C., Costa, C., Lopes, D., Relvas, H., et al. (2014, August 18).
724 Integrating health on air quality assessment - Review report on health risks of two major
725 european outdoor air pollutants: PM and NO₂. *Journal of Toxicology and Environmental*
726 *Health - Part B: Critical Reviews*. Taylor & Francis.
727 <https://doi.org/10.1080/10937404.2014.946164>

728 Coulter, R. L. (1979). A Comparison of Three Methods for Measuring Mixing-Layer Height.
729 *Journal of Applied Meteorology*, 18(11), 1495–1499. [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0450(1979)018<1495:ACOTMF>2.0.CO;2)
730 [0450\(1979\)018<1495:ACOTMF>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0450(1979)018<1495:ACOTMF>2.0.CO;2)

731 Dee, D. P., Uppala, S. M., Simmons, A. J., Berrisford, P., Poli, P., Kobayashi, S., et al. (2011).
732 The ERA-Interim reanalysis: configuration and performance of the data assimilation
733 system. *Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society*, 137(656), 553–597.
734 <https://doi.org/10.1002/qj.828>

735 Doms, G., & Baldauf, M. (2018). *A Description of the Nonhydrostatic Regional COSMO-Model*
736 *Part I: Dynamics and Numerics - COSMO-Model 5.5* ([http://www.cosmo-](http://www.cosmo-model.org/content/model/documentation/core/cosmoDyncsNumcs.pdf)
737 [model.org/content/model/documentation/core/cosmoDyncsNumcs.pdf](http://www.cosmo-model.org/content/model/documentation/core/cosmoDyncsNumcs.pdf)). P.O. Box 100465,
738 63004 Offenbach, Germany.

739 Doms, G., Förstner, J., Heise, E., Herzog, H.-J., Mironov, D., Raschendorfer, M., et al. (2011). *A*
740 *Description of the Nonhydrostatic Regional COSMO-Model Part II: Physical*
741 *Parameterization - LM_F90 4.20* ([http://www.cosmo-](http://www.cosmo-model.org/content/model/documentation/core/cosmoPhysParamtr.pdf)
742 [model.org/content/model/documentation/core/cosmoPhysParamtr.pdf](http://www.cosmo-model.org/content/model/documentation/core/cosmoPhysParamtr.pdf)). P.O. Box 100465,
743 63004 Offenbach, Germany.

744 Eckermann, S. (2009). Hybrid σ -p coordinate choices for a global model. *Monthly Weather*
745 *Review*, 137(1), 224–245. <https://doi.org/10.1175/2008MWR2537.1>

746 EEA. (2018). Air quality in Europe - 2018 report. *European Environment Agency (EEA) Report*
747 *No 12/2018*. Retrieved from [https://www.eea.europa.eu/publications/air-quality-in-europe-](https://www.eea.europa.eu/publications/air-quality-in-europe-2018)
748 [2018](https://www.eea.europa.eu/publications/air-quality-in-europe-2018)

749 Engler, C., Birmili, W., Spindler, G., & Wiedensohler, A. (2012). Analysis of exceedances in the
750 daily PM₁₀ mass concentration (50 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) at a roadside station in Leipzig, Germany.

751 *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 12(21), 10107–10123. [https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-12-](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-12-10107-2012)
752 10107-2012

753 Escudero, M., Segers, A., Kranenburg, R., Querol, X., Alastuey, A., Borge, R., et al. (2019).
754 Analysis of summer O₃ in the Madrid air basin with the LOTOS-EUROS chemical
755 transport model. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics Discussions*, 1–40.
756 <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-2019-334>

757 European Parliament; European Council. (2008). Directive 2008/50/EC on ambient air quality
758 and cleaner air for Europe. *Official Journal of the European Communities*, 152, 1–43.
759 [https://doi.org/http://eur-](https://doi.org/http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2008:152:0001:0044:EN:PDF)
760 [lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2008:152:0001:0044:EN:PDF](https://doi.org/http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2008:152:0001:0044:EN:PDF)

761 Fay, B., & Neunhäuserer, L. (2005). Evaluation of very high-resolution simulations with the
762 non-hydrostatic numerical weather prediction model Lokalmodell for urban air pollution
763 episodes in Helsinki, Oslo and Valencia. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics Discussions*,
764 5. <https://doi.org/10.5194/acpd-5-8233-2005>

765 Flemming, J., Inness, A., Flentje, H., Huijnen, V., Moinat, P., Schultz, M. G., & Stein, O. (2009).
766 Coupling global chemistry transport models to ECMWF's integrated forecast system.
767 *Geoscientific Model Development*, 2(2), 253–265. <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-2-253-2009>

768 Fountoukis, C., & Nenes, A. (2007). ISORROPIA II: a computationally efficient thermodynamic
769 equilibrium model for
770 K⁺–Ca²⁺–Mg²⁺–NH₄⁺–Na⁺–SO₄²⁻–NO₃⁻. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 7(17), 4639–4659. Retrieved from [https://www.atmos-chem-](https://www.atmos-chem-phys.net/7/4639/2007/)
771 [phys.net/7/4639/2007/](https://www.atmos-chem-phys.net/7/4639/2007/)

772

773 Garg, S., & Sinha, B. (2017). Determining the contribution of long-range transport, regional and
774 local source areas, to PM₁₀ mass loading in Hessen, Germany using a novel multi-receptor
775 based statistical approach. *Atmospheric Environment*, 167, 566–575.
776 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2017.08.029>

777 Geiß, A., Wiegner, M., Bonn, B., Schäfer, K., Forkel, R., Von Schneidemesser, E., et al. (2017).
778 Mixing layer height as an indicator for urban air quality? *Atmospheric Measurement*
779 *Techniques*, 10(8), 2969–2988. <https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-10-2969-2017>

780 van der Gon, H. A. C., Bergström, R., Fountoukis, C., Johansson, C., Pandis, S. N., Simpson, D.,
781 & Visschedijk, A. J. H. (2015). Particulate emissions from residential wood combustion in
782 Europe – revised estimates and an evaluation. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 15(11),
783 6503–6519. <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-15-6503-2015>

784 Haeffelin, M., Angelini, F., Morille, Y., Martucci, G., Frey, S., Gobbi, G. P., et al. (2012).
785 Evaluation of Mixing-Height Retrievals from Automatic Profiling Lidars and Ceilometers
786 in View of Future Integrated Networks in Europe. *Boundary-Layer Meteorology*, 143(1),
787 49–75. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10546-011-9643-z>

788 Hanna, S. R., & Yang, R. (2001). Evaluations of mesoscale models' simulations of near-surface
789 winds, temperature gradients, and mixing depths. *Journal of Applied Meteorology*, 40(6),
790 1095–1104. [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0450\(2001\)040<1095:EOMMSO>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0450(2001)040<1095:EOMMSO>2.0.CO;2)

791 Hendriks, C., Kranenburg, R., Kuenen, J., van Gijlswijk, R., Wichink Kruit, R., Segers, A., et al.
792 (2013). The origin of ambient particulate matter concentrations in the Netherlands.
793 *Atmospheric Environment*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2012.12.017>

794 Herzog, H.-J., Schubert, U., Vogel, G., Fiedler, A., & Kirchner, R. (2002). LLM- the high-
795 resolving nonhydrostatic simulation model in the DWD-project LITFASS.Part I: Modelling
796 technique and simulation method. *Technical Report No. 4*. Retrieved from
797 [https://www.dwd.de/SharedDocs/downloads/DE/modelldokumentationen/nwv/veroeffentic](https://www.dwd.de/SharedDocs/downloads/DE/modelldokumentationen/nwv/veroeffentlichungen/Cosmo_tech_rep/costr4.pdf?__blob=publicationFile&v=2)
798 [hungen/Cosmo_tech_rep/costr4.pdf?__blob=publicationFile&v=2](https://www.dwd.de/SharedDocs/downloads/DE/modelldokumentationen/nwv/veroeffentlichungen/Cosmo_tech_rep/costr4.pdf?__blob=publicationFile&v=2)

799 Herzog, H.-J., Vogel, G., & Schubert, U. (2002). LLM - a nonhydrostatic model applied to high-
800 resolving simulations of turbulent fluxes over heterogeneous terrain. *Theoretical and*
801 *Applied Climatology*, 73(1–2), 67–86. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00704-002-0694-4>

802 Hu, X. M., Nielsen-Gammon, J. W., & Zhang, F. (2010). Evaluation of three planetary boundary
803 layer schemes in the WRF model. *Journal of Applied Meteorology and Climatology*, 49(9),
804 1831–1844. <https://doi.org/10.1175/2010JAMC2432.1>

805 Kaiser, J. W., Heil, A., Andreae, M. O., Benedetti, A., Chubarova, N., Jones, L., et al. (2012).
806 Biomass burning emissions estimated with a global fire assimilation system based on
807 observed fire radiative power. *Biogeosciences*, 9(1), 527–554. [https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-9-](https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-9-527-2012)
808 [527-2012](https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-9-527-2012)

809 Kranenburg, R., Segers, A. J., Hendriks, C., & Schaap, M. (2013). Source apportionment using
810 LOTOS-EUROS: module description and evaluation. *Geoscientific Model Development*,
811 6(3), 721–733. <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-6-721-2013>

812 Lenschow, P., Abraham, H. J., Kutzner, K., Lutz, M., Preuß, J. D., & Reichenbacher, W. (2001).
813 Some ideas about the sources of PM10. *Atmospheric Environment*, 35(SUPPL. 1).
814 [https://doi.org/10.1016/s1352-2310\(01\)00122-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/s1352-2310(01)00122-4)

815 LFU. (2018). *Luftqualität in Brandenburg Jahresbericht 2018*. Potsdam. Retrieved from
816 https://lfu.brandenburg.de/cms/media.php/lbm1.a.3310.de/Luftqualitaet_BB_2018.pdf

817 Lim, S. S., Vos, T., Flaxman, A. D., Danaei, G., Shibuya, K., Adair-Rohani, H., et al. (2012). A
818 comparative risk assessment of burden of disease and injury attributable to 67 risk factors
819 and risk factor clusters in 21 regions, 1990-2010: A systematic analysis for the Global
820 Burden of Disease Study 2010. *The Lancet*, 380(9859), 2224–2260.
821 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(12\)61766-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(12)61766-8)

822 Louis, J.-F. (1979). A parametric model of vertical eddy fluxes in the atmosphere. *Boundary-*
823 *Layer Meteorology*, 17(2), 187–202. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00117978>

824 Manders, A. M. M., Bultjes, P. J. H., Curier, L., van der Gon, H. A. C., Hendriks, C., Jonkers,
825 S., et al. (2017). Curriculum vitae of the LOTOS--EUROS (v2.0) chemistry transport
826 model. *Geoscientific Model Development*, 10(11), 4145–4173. [https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-](https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-10-4145-2017)
827 [10-4145-2017](https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-10-4145-2017)

828 Marécal, V., Peuch, V.-H., Andersson, C., Andersson, S., Arteta, J., Beekmann, M., et al. (2015).
829 A regional air quality forecasting system over Europe: the MACC-II daily ensemble
830 production. *Geoscientific Model Development*, 8(9), 2777–2813.
831 <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-8-2777-2015>

832 Meissner, C. S., Panitz, H.-J. F., & Kottmeier, C. (2009). High-resolution sensitivity studies with
833 the regional climate model COSMO-CLM. *Meteorologische Zeitschrift*, 18(5), 543–557.
834 <https://doi.org/10.1127/0941-2948/2009/0400>

835 Mellor, G. L., & Yamada, T. (1974). A Hierarchy of Turbulence Closure Models for Planetary
836 Boundary Layers. *Journal of the Atmospheric Sciences*, 31(7), 1791–1806.
837 [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0469\(1974\)031<1791:AHOTCM>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0469(1974)031<1791:AHOTCM>2.0.CO;2)

- 838 Mues, A., Manders, A., Schaap, M., Kerschbaumer, A., Stern, R., & Bultjes, P. (2012). Impact
839 of the extreme meteorological conditions during the summer 2003 in Europe on particulate
840 matter concentrations. *Atmospheric Environment*, 55, 377–391.
841 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2012.03.002>
- 842 Mues, A., Kuenen, J., Hendriks, C., Manders, A., Segers, A., Scholz, Y., et al. (2014). Sensitivity
843 of air pollution simulations with LOTOS-EUROS to the temporal distribution of
844 anthropogenic emissions. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 14(2), 939–955.
845 <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-14-939-2014>
- 846 Muller, E. (1981). Turbulent flux parameterization in a regional-scale model. In *Workshop on*
847 *Planetary Boundary Layer parameterization, 25-27 November 1981* (pp. 193–220).
848 Shinfield Park, Reading: ECMWF. Retrieved from <https://www.ecmwf.int/node/11313>
- 849 van Pinxteren, D., Mothes, F., Spindler, G., Fomba, K. W., & Herrmann, H. (2019). Trans-
850 boundary PM10: Quantifying impact and sources during winter 2016/17 in eastern
851 Germany. *Atmospheric Environment*, 200, 119–130.
852 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2018.11.061>
- 853 Potier, E., Waked, A., Bourin, A., Minvielle, F., Péré, J. C., Perdrix, E., et al. (2019).
854 Characterizing the regional contribution to PM10 pollution over northern France using two
855 complementary approaches: Chemistry transport and trajectory-based receptor models.
856 *Atmospheric Research*, 223, 1–14.
857 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosres.2019.03.002>
- 858 Rockel, B., Will, A., & Hense, A. (2008). The Regional Climate Model COSMO-CLM (CCLM).
859 *Meteorologische Zeitschrift*, 17(4), 347–348. <https://doi.org/10.1127/0941-2948/2008/0309>
- 860 Schaap, M., van Loon, M., ten Brink, H. M., Dentener, F. J., & Bultjes, P. J. H. (2004).
861 Secondary inorganic aerosol simulations for Europe with special attention to nitrate.
862 *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 4(3), 857–874. <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-4-857-2004>
- 863 Schäfer, K., Emeis, S., Hoffmann, H., & Jahn, C. (2006). Influence of mixing layer height upon
864 air pollution in urban and sub-urban areas. *Meteorologische Zeitschrift*, 15(6), 647–658.
865 <https://doi.org/10.1127/0941-2948/2006/0164>
- 866 Schättler, U., Doms, G., & Schraff, C. (2019). *A Description of the Nonhydrostatic Regional*

867 *COSMO-Model Part VII: User's Guide*. P.O. Box 100465, 63004 Offenbach, Germany.

868 Schneider, C., Pelzer, M., Toenges-Schuller, N., Nacken, M., & Niederau, A. (2016). ArcGIS
869 basierte Lösung zur detaillierten, deutschlandweiten Verteilung (Gridding) nationaler
870 Emissionsjahreswerte auf Basis des Inventars zur Emissionsberichterstattung -
871 Kurzfassung ; UBA TEXTE 71/2016. *Für Mensch & Umwelt*. Retrieved from
872 <http://www.umweltbundesamt.de/publikationen>

873 Seibert, P., Beyrich, F., Gryning, S. E., Joffre, S., Rasmussen, A., & Tercier, P. (2000). Review
874 and intercomparison of operational methods for the determination of the mixing height.
875 *Atmospheric Environment*. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1352-2310\(99\)00349-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1352-2310(99)00349-0)

876 Seidel, D. J., Ao, C. O., & Li, K. (2010). Estimating climatological planetary boundary layer
877 heights from radiosonde observations: Comparison of methods and uncertainty analysis.
878 *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 115(D16).
879 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2009JD013680>

880 SenStadt. (2019). *Luftreinhalteplan für Berlin 2. Fortschreibung (Air pollution management plan*
881 *Berlin 2. Update)* (Berlin: lebenswerter). Berlin. Retrieved from
882 [https://www.berlin.de/senuvk/umwelt/luft/luftreinhaltung/luftreinhalteplan_2025/download/](https://www.berlin.de/senuvk/umwelt/luft/luftreinhaltung/luftreinhalteplan_2025/download/Luftreinhalteplan.pdf)
883 [Luftreinhalteplan.pdf](https://www.berlin.de/senuvk/umwelt/luft/luftreinhaltung/luftreinhalteplan_2025/download/Luftreinhalteplan.pdf)

884 Spindler, G., Müller, K., Brüggemann, E., Gnauk, T., & Herrmann, H. (2004). Long-term size-
885 segregated characterization of PM 10, PM 2.5, and PM 1 at the IfT research station Melpitz
886 downwind of Leipzig (Germany) using high and low-volume filter samplers. In
887 *Atmospheric Environment* (Vol. 38, pp. 5333–5347).
888 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2003.12.047>

889 Stern, R., Builtjes, P., Schaap, M., Timmermans, R., Vautard, R., Hodzic, A., et al. (2008). A
890 model inter-comparison study focussing on episodes with elevated PM10 concentrations.
891 *Atmospheric Environment*, 42(19), 4567–4588.
892 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2008.01.068>

893 Stull, R. B. (1988). *An Introduction to Boundary Layer Meteorology*. Dordrecht, Boston and
894 London, 666 p.: Kluwer Academic Publishers. [https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-](https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-94-009-3027-8)
895 [94-009-3027-8](https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-94-009-3027-8)

896 Tai, A. P. K., Mickley, L. J., & Jacob, D. J. (2010). Correlations between fine particulate matter
897 (PM_{2.5}) and meteorological variables in the United States: Implications for the sensitivity
898 of PM_{2.5} to climate change. *Atmospheric Environment*.
899 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2010.06.060>

900 Thunis, P., Degraeuwe, B., Pisoni, E., Trombetti, M., Peduzzi, E., Belis, C. A., et al. (2018).
901 PM_{2.5} source allocation in European cities: A SHERPA modelling study. *Atmospheric*
902 *Environment*, 187, 93–106. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.ATMOSENV.2018.05.062>

903 Timmermans, R., Kranenburg, R., Manders, A., Hendriks, C., Segers, A., Dammers, E., et al.
904 (2017). Source apportionment of PM_{2.5} across China using LOTOS-EUROS. *Atmospheric*
905 *Environment*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2017.06.003>

906 Timmermans, R., Kranenburg, R., Hendriks, C., Thürkow, M., Kirchner, I., van Pinxteren, D., &
907 Schaap, M. (2020). Establishing the Origin of Particulate Matter in Eastern Germany Using
908 an Improved Regional Modelling Framework (pp. 3–8). [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-22055-6_1)
909 [22055-6_1](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-22055-6_1)

910 UBA. (2019). *Luftqualität 2018. Für Mensch & Umwelt*. Retrieved from
911 www.umweltbundesamt.de/publikationen/

912 Vautard, R., Moran, M. D., Solazzo, E., Gilliam, R. C., Matthias, V., Bianconi, R., et al. (2012).
913 Evaluation of the meteorological forcing used for the Air Quality Model Evaluation
914 International Initiative (AQMEII) air quality simulations. *Atmospheric Environment*.
915 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2011.10.065>

916 Vogelesang, D. H. P., & Holtslag, A. A. M. (1996). Evaluation and model impacts of alternative
917 boundary-layer height formulations. *Boundary-Layer Meteorology*, 81(3), 245–269.
918 <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02430331>

919 Walcek, C. J. (2000). Minor flux adjustment near mixing ratio extremes for simplified yet highly
920 accurate monotonic calculation of tracer advection. *Journal of Geophysical Research:*
921 *Atmospheres*, 105(D7), 9335–9348. <https://doi.org/10.1029/1999JD901142>

922 Wetzel, P. J. (1982). Toward Parameterization of the Stable Boundary Layer. *Journal of Applied*
923 *Meteorology*, 21(1), 7–13. [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0450(1982)021<0007:TPOTSB>2.0.CO;2)
924 [0450\(1982\)021<0007:TPOTSB>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0450(1982)021<0007:TPOTSB>2.0.CO;2)

925 Whitten, G. Z., Hogo, H., & Killus, J. P. (1980). The carbon-bond mechanism: a condensed
926 kinetic mechanism for photochemical smog. *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, *14*(6), 690–700.
927 <https://doi.org/10.1021/es60166a008>

928 Wichink Kruit, R. J., Schaap, M., Sauter, F. J., van Zanten, M. C., & van Pul, W. A. J. (2012).
929 Modeling the distribution of ammonia across Europe including bi-directional surface–
930 atmosphere exchange. *Biogeosciences*, *9*(12), 5261–5277. <https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-9-5261-2012>

932 World Health Organization, W. (2005). *WHO Air quality guidelines for particulate matter, ozone, nitrogen dioxide and sulfur dioxide: Global update 2005. WHO.*
933 [https://doi.org/10.1016/0004-6981\(88\)90109-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/0004-6981(88)90109-6)

935 Van Zanten, M. C., Sauter, F. J., Wichink Kruit, R. J., Van Jaarsveld, J. A., & Van Pul, W. A. J.
936 (2010). *Description of the DEPAC module: Dry deposition modelling with*
937 *DEPAC_GCN2010 ; Report 680180001/2010.* RIVM, P.O. Box 1, 3720 BA Bilthoven, the
938 Netherlands Tel +31 30 274 91 11 www.rivm.nl. Retrieved from
939 <https://www.rivm.nl/bibliotheek/rapporten/680180001.pdf>

940 Zhang, H., Wang, Y., Hu, J., Ying, Q., & Hu, X. M. (2015). Relationships between
941 meteorological parameters and criteria air pollutants in three megacities in China.
942 *Environmental Research*, *140*, 242–254. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2015.04.004>

943 Zhang, L., Gong, S., Padro, J., & Barrie, L. (2001). A size-segregated particle dry deposition
944 scheme for an atmospheric aerosol module. *Atmospheric Environment*, *35*(3), 549–560.
945 [https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S1352-2310\(00\)00326-5](https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S1352-2310(00)00326-5)

946