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Predicting sulphur and nitrogen deposition using a simple

statistical method

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21 22 HIGHLIGHTS

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- Temporal coherence of precipitation SO₄, NO₃ and NH₄ was demonstrated ٠
- Regional S and N emissions enabled to reconstruct long-term changes in deposition •
- Empirically-based interpolation allowed spatial deposition variations to be mapped

ABSTRACT

Data from 32 long-term (1994 – 2012) monitoring sites were used to assess temporal development 28 29 and spatial variability of sulphur (S) and inorganic nitrogen (N) concentrations in bulk precipitation, 30 and S in throughfall, for the Czech Republic. Despite large variance in absolute S and N 31 concentration/deposition among sites, temporal coherence using standardized data (Z score) was 32 demonstrated. Overall significant declines of SO₄ concentration in bulk and throughfall precipitation, 33 as well as NO₃ and NH₄ concentration in bulk precipitation, were observed. Median Z score values of 34 bulk SO₄, NO₃ and NH₄ and throughfall SO₄ derived from observations and the respective emission 35 rates of SO₂, NO_x and NH₃ in the Czech Republic and Slovakia showed highly significant (p < 0.001) 36 relationships. Using linear regression models, Z score values were calculated for the whole period 37 1900 - 2012 and then back-transformed to give estimates of concentration for the individual sites. 38 Uncertainty associated with the concentration calculations was estimated as 20 % for SO₄ bulk 39 precipitation, 22 % for throughfall SO₄, 18 % for bulk NO₃ and 28 % for bulk NH₄. The application of 40 the method suggested that it is effective in the long-term reconstruction and prediction of S and N deposition at a variety of sites. Multiple regression modelling was used to extrapolate site 41 characteristics (mean precipitation chemistry and its standard deviation) from monitored to 42 43 unmonitored sites. Spatially distributed temporal development of S and N depositions were 44 calculated since 1900. The method allows spatio-temporal estimation of the acid deposition in 45 regions with extensive monitoring of precipitation chemistry.

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47 Keywords: precipitation, sulphur, nitrogen, deposition, monitoring, upscaling

49 **1 INTRODUCTION**

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The acidification of sensitive ecosystems by sulphur (S) and nitrogen (N) deposition has been a 51 widespread environmental problem in Europe since the mid 20th century. More recently, there has 52 been increasing concern that elevated atmospheric N inputs are leading to eutrophication of semi-53 54 natural ecosystems (Bobbink et al., 2010). Monitoring data for the main driving variables, the 55 deposition of S and N species, are generally available only for a relatively short period (Schöpp et al., 56 2003). Therefore estimations of S and N deposition levels over longer periods are based on emission 57 trends (Kopacek et al., 2001; Schöpp et al., 2003). Knowledge of the emission history and deposition trends of major acidifying pollutants is a key factor for understanding changes in those ecosystems, 58 59 and in particular is an important input to process-based models used to predict the long-term 60 impacts of atmospheric deposition on terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems (Bonten et al., 2016; 61 Hofmeister et al., 2008; Oulehle et al., 2015).

62 On a European scale, the EMEP (European Monitoring and Evaluation Programme) Eulerian acid deposition model (Simpson et al., 2003) is used to simulate sulphur, nitrogen oxides and ammonia 63 deposition in grid cells at a 50 km × 50 km resolution. This model has provided the basis for 64 65 optimisation of emissions control legislation at a European scale within the UNECE Convention on 66 Long-Range Transboundary Air Pollution (CLRTAP), most recently the Gothenburg Protocol (UNECE, 67 2004). However, the low spatial resolution of this model may lead to a high within-grid cell 68 variability, particularly in topographically complex areas, and also provides average rather than ecosystem-specific (e.g. forest versus grassland) deposition. As a result, it is difficult to relate the 69 70 large-scale model simulations to specific sites or ecosystems.

71 According to the Gothenburg Protocol, the respective SO₂, NO_x and NH₃ emissions should have been 72 85%, 61% and 35% lower in the Czech Republic in 2010 compared to the 1990 base line. However, already by 2007, SO₂ emissions had decreased by 88% to 217 kt yr⁻¹, NO_x emissions by 62% to 284 kt 73 yr⁻¹ and NH₃ emissions by 62% to 60 kt yr⁻¹ (<u>www.emep.int</u>), therefore target emissions have been 74 75 successfully passed. The decrease of SO₂ emissions in the Czech Republic has been one of the most 76 pronounced examples of pollution reduction anywhere in Europe (Vestreng et al., 2007), and are 77 believed to have had profound consequences for ecosystem biogeochemistry including the carbon 78 and nitrogen cycles (Oulehle et al., 2011).

79 Many countries provide long-term air quality monitoring including assessment of spatial and 80 temporal changes in precipitation chemistry (wet-only, bulk, throughfall), such as National 81 atmospheric deposition program (NADP) across USA and European Monitoring and Evaluation 82 Programme (EMEP) under CLRTAP. European nation based programs operate across many countries 83 (e.g. SWETHRO in Sweden, UKEAP in the UK or GEOMON in the Czech Republic). Precipitation 84 composition often integrates altered air quality over large parts of landscape, thus common 85 coherence in chemistry trends across different monitoring sites may be expected and explored. 86 However, air quality is influenced by different sources of emissions, thus S deposition might be 87 influenced directly by SO2 emissions cuts from big stationary sources over large areas, whereas N 88 deposition may behave less consistently due to the mixing of emissions from small (local) and large 89 stationary sources, as well as mobile (transport) sources (Waldner et al., 2014). Geographical 90 features (e.g. local topography) may also determine different levels and temporal pattern of S and N 91 deposition at sites in the same area (Rogora et al., 2006). Here, we use all stations with available data 92 on precipitation chemistry in the Czech Republic spanning at least 15 years to examine the 93 spatiotemporal variations in SO₄, NH₄ and NO₃ concentrations and fluxes in bulk precipitation and 94 throughfall (only SO₄) in this central European region. Specifically, we (i) evaluate the degree of 95 underlying coherence in deposition trends across the range of monitoring sites, (ii) develop and test 96 a methodology enabling to infer S and N deposition across the spatio-temporal gradients in a study 97 region from the related emission trends, and (iii) apply this method to reconstruct historical trends in 98 S and N deposition in the Czech Republic back to 1900.

100 **2 MATERIALS AND METHODS**

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102 2.1 STATION DATA DESCRIPTION

104 The monitoring stations of precipitation chemistry are located in the Czech Republic and close border 105 areas (Slovakia and Austria) and comprise 32 stations. For their location see the Supplementary 106 Information (SI; Figure S1). Site elevations varied between 180 (Praha-Podbaba) and 2023 m a. s. l. (Chopok station, Slovakia) and mean annual precipitation depths varied between 503 and 1641 mm 107 108 yr⁻¹ during 1961 – 2012. The number of years with available volume weighted mean chemistry varied 109 from 15 to 35 years for individual stations and cover the period from 1978 to 2012 (Table S1). 110 Monitoring stations differ in frequency of precipitation sampling and type of precipitation samplers. 111 The rain water collection comprises daily, weekly and monthly sampling, dependent on site manager. We used only annual weighted means. Precipitation collectors comprise open bulk collectors and wet 112 113 only collectors. Fifteen stations provide throughfall (under the Norway spruce - the dominant tree in 114 the Czech forests) precipitation chemistry data.

We used sulphate (SO₄), nitrate (NO₃) and ammonium (NH₄) concentrations. In general, SO₄ and NO₃ 115 were measured by ion chromatography, NH4 either by potentiometry or by manual/automatic 116 117 spectrophotometric determination by the indophenol blue method (analytical procedures have 118 changed since 1976, thus for further details visit: http://www.chmi.cz/files/portal/docs/uoco/web generator/locality/precipitation locality/index GB. 119 120 html). The reliability of the chemical data was controlled by means of an ionic balance for the annual 121 average concentrations. Data with differences between the sum of cations and the sum of anions 122 lower than \pm 10% of the total ionic content were used without any other control. If the difference exceeded \pm 10%, the data were checked for errors using a trend analysis. If the concentration of 123 124 some ion was outlying the trend and at the same time this difference from the trend explained the 125 error in the ionic balance control, we excluded this ion from other analyses, but used the rest of the 126 data on chemical composition.

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128 2.2 SO₂, NO_x AND NH₃ EMISSIONS

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Historical Czech and Slovak (CS) emission trends for SO₂, NO_x, and NH₃ are based on data from the 130 official databases of EMEP (www.ceip.at/emission-data-webdab) for the 1980 - 2012 period, and on 131 data calculated by (Kopacek and Vesely, 2005) for the 1900 - 1990 period. The calculated CS 132 133 emissions of anthropogenic SO₂, NO_x, and NH₃ were on average 7 % higher, 2 % lower, and 8 % 134 higher, respectively, than the EMEP data for the overlapping 1980 – 1990 period. Data on central 135 European (Austria + Germany + Poland + CS) emissions of SO₂ and NO_x and NH₃ after 1980 were 136 taken from the EMEP database; emissions of SO₂ and NO_x before 1980 are from Mylona (1996) and 137 Schöpp et al. (2003), respectively. Data on central European emissions of NH₃ prior to 1980 were 138 calculated for individual countries using inventories of livestock, use of synthetic N-fertilizers (FAO 139 database, http://faostat.fao.org), and data on population, using the per-capita emission model 140 (Kopáček and Posch, 2011).

The long-term trend in CS emissions of SO_2 was similar to the central European trend, except for 142 1970 - 1990, when CS emissions increased more sharply due to high emission rates in the region 143 (Figure 1). The CS emission rate of NH_3 was lower than that in the central Europe and decreased 144 more in the 1990s, due predominantly to lower areal livestock density and its larger reduction in CS 145 than in Germany. Central European emissions of NO_x were slightly lower in the 1980s and trends 146 were similar to the CS trend in 1990s.



Figure 1. Historical trends (1900 - 2012) in emissions of SO₂, NO_x and NH₃ in the area of the Czech and
Slovak Republic (CS, black line) and in central Europe (circles; Austria, Germany, Poland and CS).



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153 **2.3 TIME SERIES STANDARDISATION**

155 2.3.1 Precipitation chemistry data processing

Recalculation of wet only SO₄, NO₃ and NH₄ concentrations to bulk precipitation was based on parallel measurements of wet - only and bulk precipitation on eleven stations. For SO₄, 64 parallel annual measurements (Figure 2) were available and a linear regression model was obtained:

161 SO₄ bulk (
$$\mu$$
eq L⁻¹) = 1.04 x SO₄ wet (μ eq L⁻¹) + 21.99 (1)

For NO₃, 51 parallel annual measurements (Figure 2) were obtained and the linear regression model
 was:

166 NO₃ bulk (
$$\mu$$
eq L⁻¹) = 0.87 x NO₃ wet (μ eq L⁻¹) + 14.87 (2)

For NH₄, 45 parallel annual measurements (Figure 2) were obtained and the linear regression model
 was:

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172 173



(3)



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- 179 2.3.2 Site standardization
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181 Despite large variance in precipitation chemistry across sites, underlying patterns of temporal 182 variation show strong similarities. To demonstrate these underlying patterns, measured annual 183 concentration of SO₄, NH₄ and NO₃ at each sampling site *s* on respective year *t* (*Cst*) were 184 standardised over time, by subtracting the site mean (*Cs*) for the whole time series (1994–2012) and 185 dividing by the site standard deviation (σs) according to:

186
187
$$Zst = \frac{Cst - Cs}{\sigma s}$$

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The time series of standardised concentrations (*Zst* referred to as 'Z score') thus have a zero mean and a standard deviation equal to 1. This implies that temporal effects are essentially multiplicative, so that sites with generally high concentrations will tend to have high variability over time in absolute but not in relative terms (Evans et al., 2010). The degree of observed between - site coherence was quantified as the mean annual 10th - 90th percentile Z score range for all sites over the monitoring period, following the method of Evans et al. (2010).

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196 2.3.3 Historical trends estimations

198 Median Z scores for SO_4 , NH_4 and NO_3 in bulk precipitation and for SO_4 in throughfall for each year 199 across the whole set of sites was calculated according to Eq. 4. Obtained median values were than 200 related to emissions by linear regression method for the period 1994 - 2012. We used logarithmically 201 transformed emission data because they were better fitted by the regression model than non-202 transformed data. For the modelling we used the CS emission trends because they provided closer 203 relationships with the deposition data than the central European trends. The obtained equations 204 were then used to calculate median SO_4 , NH_4 and $NO_3 Z$ scores for their concentrations in the whole 205 1900 - 2012 period according to the respective emission rates of SO_2 , NH_3 and NO_x (Figure 1).

The median time series of Z scores for whole set of sites was then back-transformed to give estimates of *Cst* for each individual site for the whole period 1900–2012 according to Eq. 5, and following the notation of Eq. 4:

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$$Cst = (Zst \times \sigma s) + Cs$$

(5)

(4)

The *Cs* and the σ s were calculated from the measured data between 1994 and 2012.

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215 2.3.4 Model validation

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Results obtained for individual sites according to Eq. 5 were compared with measured concentrations. The precision of the model outputs was calculated by three measures; the Root Mean Square Error (RMSE), Nash-Sutcliffe Coefficient of Determination (NSCD) and a linear regression coefficient (R²) were used to assess explained variability of model estimations (De Vries et al., 2010; Janssen and Heuberger, 1995; Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970).

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$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (Pi - Oi)^2}{N}}$$
 (6)

225
$$NSCD = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (Oi-Pi)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (Oi-O)^2}}$$
 (7)

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Where *Pi* is predicted value, *Oi* is observed value, *O* is average of observed values and *N* is number of observations.

RMSE describes the deviations between the measurements and the predictions in a quadratic way and is thus rather sensitive to extreme values. RMSE has the same units as the quantity being estimated. An NSCD of 0 indicates that the model predictions are as accurate as the mean of the observed data; the closer the model is to 1, the more accurate the model is.

Finally, we used long-term precipitation chemistry (with years of observations before 1994) from bulk precipitation ANE, JEZ, LYS, NAC, SLA and PCJ (for site abbreviations see SI, Table S1) sites to compare model outputs with measured chemistry within the period 1978 - 2012. This comparison highlighted the model performance at the time of the highest measured S and N depositions across Central Europe.

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239 **2.4 SPATIAL PRECIPITATION CHEMISTRY MODEL**

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The large number of sites with measured precipitation chemistry across the study region allowed us to test whether site characteristics (coordinates, elevation, precipitation amount) may be used to calculate site *Cs* and *os*, and thus to estimate site precipitation chemistry at any given position and year within the period 1900 and 2012, according to Eq. 5.

We used multiple regression analysis to study the relationship between dependent (response) variables and independent variables (predictors) derived from 32 stations. Selection of predictors was based on stepwise regression with forward selection method. The forward selection method, at each step, selects the candidate variable that increases R^2 the most. It stops when none of the remaining variables are significant. Outliers can have a large impact on this stepping procedure, so we made some attempt to remove outliers from dataset before applying this method.

Independent variables entering the stepwise regression model were: latitude (X), longitude (Y),
precipitation depth (P; mm) and elevation (E; m a.s.l.). Latitude and longitude are expressed in
Křovák's projection (JTSK).

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255 2.4.1 Model validation256

257 Results obtained for individual sites (Cs_{SO4} , Cs_{SO4thf} , Cs_{NO3} , Cs_{NH4} , ΔCs_{SO4} , ΔCs_{SO4thf} , ΔCs_{NO3} , ΔCs_{NH4} , σs_{SO4} , σs_{SO4thf} , σs_{SO4} , σs_{SO4thf} , σs_{NO3} , σs_{NH4}), where ΔCs represents annual rate of solute change in $\mu eq L^{-1}$ year⁻¹, were 259 compared with measured concentrations. The precision of the model outputs was calculated by 260 Nash-Sutcliffe coefficient of determination (NSCD) and RMSE was used to assess explained variability 261 of model estimations (Janssen and Heuberger, 1995; de Vries et al., 2010; Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970).

262 2.4.2 Average precipitation estimates and deposition calculations

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264 Precipitation data were estimated from a dataset of about 200 stations (obtained from Czech 265 Hydrometeorological Institute) distributed around the Czech Republic. After the quality control and homogenization (methods are described e.g. in Štěpánek et al., (2013)) new series for given 266 267 individual sites were calculated. The calculation of the "new" series was based on geostatistical interpolation methods, improved by standardization of neighbouring stations values to altitude of a 268 given location by means of regional regression analysis (Štěpánek et al., 2011). Parameters settings of 269 270 the calculation differ for each meteorological element and optimal settings were found by means of 271 cross validation. In this case, series for a given site were obtained from up to 6 nearest stations 272 within maximum distance of 50 km, with the allowed maximum difference in altitude of 700 m. 273 Before applying inverse distance weighting, data at the adjacent stations were standardized relative 274 to the altitude of the base grid point (station location). The standardization was carried out by means 275 of linear regression, dependence of values of a particular meteorological element on altitude, for 276 each day individually, and regionally. Each standardized value was checked to ensure that it did not 277 differ excessively from the original value. Modelled precipitation was used to calculate deposition of

S and N based on estimated SO₄, NO₃ and NH₄ concentrations in precipitation. Median calculated
 bulk deposition for the Czech Republic was based on 1599 points regularly distributed across the
 Czech Republic, thus each point represented an area of 49 km². Median calculated throughfall S
 deposition for the Czech Republic was based on 499 points, representing forested areas.

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283 **3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

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285 3.1 MEASURED TRENDS OF SO4, NH4 AND NO3 CONCENTRATIONS

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Annual mean SO₄, NH₄ and NO₃ concentrations in precipitation differed significantly across individual 287 288 sites (Table S1). Despite high between-site variability of mean concentrations, standardization 289 highlights the degree of underlying temporal coherence in the measured dataset (Figure 3). A highly 290 significant decline in SO₄ annual average precipitation concentration ($R^2 = 0.86$ versus year, p < 0.001), as well as throughfall concentration ($R^2 = 0.81$ versus year, p < 0.001), was observed during 291 the 1990s and 2000s. Moreover, both bulk precipitation and throughfall SO₄ concentrations showed 292 high inter-site coherence (mean annual 10th - 90th percentile range of 1.04 and 0.74 standardised 293 units, respectively). For NO₃ concentrations in bulk precipitation, a significant decline was observed 294 295 in median trend ($R^2 = 0.72$ versus time, p < 0.001), with higher inter-site variability (mean annual 10^{th} - 90th percentile range of 1.80) (Figure 3). A less consistent and coherent decrease in annual average 296 concentrations in bulk precipitation was recorded for NH_4 ($R^2 = 0.58$ versus time, p < 0.001, mean 297 annual 10th - 90th percentile range 1.94). Measured declines in SO₄ concentrations were most 298 pronounced during the 1990s whereas the NO₃ concentration decrease was steepest after 2005 and 299 300 NH₄ concentration has been decreasing linearly since 1994 (Figure 3).

The higher observed 10th - 90th percentile Z scores ranges for NH₄ and NO₃ concentration in bulk 301 precipitation (compared to those observed for SO_4) led us to test significance of the NO_3 and NH_4 302 303 decrease in bulk precipitation at individual sites. For NH₄ concentrations, significant (p < 0.05; linear regression versus year) decreases in bulk precipitation were observed at 15 out of 30 sites. The NO₃ 304 305 concentration significantly decreased at 22 sites (p < 0.05; linear regression versus year) out of 30. 306 Throughfall NO₃ and NH₄ concentrations were not included in the assessment. The absence of a 307 significant overall change of throughfall DIN indicates that canopy N transformation plays a significant role in N delivery to the forest floor (Lovett and Lindberg 1993; Kopáček et al. 2009) and 308 309 was more or less independent of actual N deposition level over the short to medium term. 310





Figure 3. Standardised annual mean (Z score) time series for bulk and throughfall SO₄, bulk NO₃ and NH₄ concentrations for sites listed in Table S1. Bold central line shows median annual Z score for all sites, outer lines show 10th and 90th percentile values. Dashed lines show linear regressions between median annual Z scores and time.

316 **3.2 ESTIMATION OF MEASURED HISTORICAL SO**₄, NH₄ AND NO₃ CONCENTRATIONS

317 3.2.1 Reconstruction of SO₄ precipitation concentrations

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319 The high degree of overall temporal coherence observed among sites in annual mean precipitation SO_4 as well as throughfall SO_4 concentrations, and to a lesser extent precipitation NO_3 and NH_4 320 concentrations, allowed the use of standardised median concentration as a representative measure 321 322 of change in respect of emission rates. For SO₄ in bulk precipitation, a strong relationship with log transformed SO₂ emission rate was found ($R^2 = 0.97$, p < 0.001; Figure 4). According to this log-linear 323 324 regression equation, annual median SO_4 Z scores for precipitation were calculated from emission 325 rates for the whole period of emissions reconstruction (1900 - 2012). Modelled SO₄ concentration (Figure 5) was compared with measured data across all years (including measurements before 1994) 326 and sites. Prediction of SO₄ had RMSE values ranging from 5.6 to 31 μ eq L⁻¹ at individual sites (10th 327 and 90th percentile), with a median of 12.3 μ eq L⁻¹ (20 % of median SO₄ concentration) across all sites 328 329 and years. Explained variability in the measured SO₄ concentration ranged between 41 % and 94 %, 330 with a median of 81 %. NSCD ranged between 0.32 and 0.92 with a median of 0.73 (Figure 6).

Similar results were obtained for throughfall SO₄ (Figure 5). The standardised Z score of SO₄ throughfall was tightly related to the log transformed SO₂ emissions ($R^2 = 0.96$, p < 0.001; Figure 4). Predicted RMSE of SO₄ throughfall varied between 18.5 and 87 µeq L⁻¹ (median 42 µeq L⁻¹, which is 22% of median concentration across sites). Explained variability in the measured throughfall SO₄ concentration ranged between 55 % and 97 %, with a median of 82 %. NSCD ranged between 0.51 and 0.94 with a median of 0.79 (Figure 6).

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343 Figure 5. Modelled concentrations of bulk and throughfall SO4 and bulk NO3 and NH4. Bold central line shows median for all sites, outer lines show 10th and 90th percentile values. 344

1900 1910 1923 1933 1943 1953 1963 1973 1983 1993 2003

Reconstruction of NO₃ and NH₄ precipitation concentrations 345 3.2.2

1900 1910 1923 1933 1943 1953 1963 1973 1983 1993 2003

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For NO₃, a significant relationship ($R^2 = 0.66$, p < 0.001) between median Z score and log transformed 347 NO_x emissions was observed (Figure 4). Variation of NO_3 RMSE was between 4.5 and 19 μ eq L⁻¹ 348 349 (median 7.5 µeq L⁻¹, which is 18 % of median concentration across sites). Explained variability in the measured NO₃ concentration ranged between 2 % and 68 %, with a median of 33 %. NSCD ranged 350

between -0.38 and 0.61 with a median of 0.32 (Figure 6). There was no obvious relationship between model performance and site location. For NH₄, a weaker but still significant relationship ($R^2 = 0.53$, p < 0.01) between median Z score and log transformed NH₃ emissions was found (Figure 4). The RMSE of modelled NH₄ ranged between 7.1 and 41 µeq L⁻¹, with median of 13.5 µeq L⁻¹ (28 % of median concentration across sites). Explained variability in the measured NH₄ concentration ranged between 3 % and 73 %, with a median of 27 %. NSCD ranged between -0.42 and 0.48 with a median of 0.16 (Figure 6).

The somewhat poorer correlations between NH₄ and NO₃ concentrations in precipitation and their 358 359 respective emissions compared to those observed for SO₄ are probably caused by a higher degree of 360 year-to-year variability in the NH₄ concentration in precipitation, as well as higher degree of inter site 361 trend heterogeneity as demonstrated in section 3.1. Moreover, components of NO_x (NO and NO_2) are 362 much more reactive than SO_2 , and therefore the atmospheric chemistry associated with NO_x is more complex than for SO₂ (Seinfeld and Pandis, 1998). The non-linearity between NO_x emissions and 363 364 precipitation concentration may therefore be more strongly influenced by changes in other 365 atmospheric chemical constituents than the equivalent relationship between SO₂ emissions and S precipitation (Fagerli and Aas, 2008). A lack of significant temporal changes in bulk nitrogen 366 367 deposition was confirmed for Sweden (Pihl Karlsson et al., 2011) and for the UK (Kernan et al., 2010). On the other hand, significant correlations between precipitation concentration and emissions were 368 369 found in the eastern USA for both NO_x and SO_2 (Butler et al., 2005; Likens et al., 2001). 370



Figure 6. Box plots showing distribution of statistical results for root mean square error (RMSE), coefficient of determination (R²), and Nash-Sutcliffe coefficient of determination (NSCD) obtained for individual sites. Median, 25th and 75th percentiles, whiskers indicate 5th and 95th percentiles and minimum maximum values are denoted with dots.

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376 **3.2.3** Precipitation SO₄, NO₃ and NH₄ concentrations during the peak of acid deposition

378 The non-linear relationships between standardised SO₄, NH₄ and NO₃ concentrations and their 379 respective emissions were highlighted when long-term precipitation data (measurements from 1970s 380 and 1980s) were used for comparison (Figure S3). Such a dataset was available for the ANE, JEZ, LIZ, 381 NAC, SLA and PCJ for the period 1978-2012. This period covered the peak of emissions reported for central Europe (Figure 1). Taking into account that CS emissions of SO_2 and NO_x were 382 383 disproportionately higher during this period than for central Europe as a whole (Figure 1), the 384 balance of "emission export" from CS minus "emission import" from surrounding countries was 385 higher during the 1980s and 1990s then currently. On the other hand, NH₃ emissions were 386 significantly lower in CS than in surrounding countries, probably leading to a net import. Log transformation appears to correct for the discrepancy between CS and central European emissions, 387 388 by reducing modelled deposition estimates during the peak of CS emissions, leading to more 389 accurate fit between observed precipitation chemistry and emission rates. In future, it is expected 390 that further reductions in emissions should be followed by more linear responses in precipitation 391 concentrations. Similarly, long-term (1965 - 2000) precipitation monitoring at Hubbard Brook 392 Experimental Forest in U.S. showed non-significant relationships between SO₄ bulk precipitation

393 concentrations and SO_2 emissions during the 1965 - 1980 period. A clear strong curvilinear 394 relationship was apparent only for the whole period 1965 - 2000 (Likens et al., 2005), again 395 suggesting a weaker relationship between concentration and emission during the period of peak SO_2 396 emissions.

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3.3 Spatial estimation of precipitation chemistry at unmonitored sites

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$400 \qquad \textbf{3.3.1} \quad \textbf{Spatial distribution of SO}_4 \text{ concentrations in precipitation}$

402 To calculate mean precipitation SO_4 concentration (Cs_{SO4}) all site characteristics (latitude, longitude, 403 precipitation and elevation) entered the regression model. All four predictors together explained 72 404 % of variability in the measured Cs_{SO4} across 32 sites within the Czech Republic:

406 $Cs_{SO4} = 10^{(4.321 + 1.093 \times 10^{-4} \times E - 3.24 \times 10^{-4} \times P + 9.541 \times 10^{-7} \times Y + 1.607 \times 10^{-6} \times X)$

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405

408 Latitude and longitude explained 40 % of variability and reflects a well known spatial gradient in 409 precipitation chemistry within the Czech Republic, due to the cluster of major emission sources in the 410 NW part of the country, i.e. a part of the former Black Triangle (Cerný and Pačes, 1995). Annual 411 precipitation amount added 27 % of explained variability in the regression model - sites with higher 412 precipitation tend to have lower concentrations due to dilution effects. Tight coherence in 413 precipitation SO₄ trends across all sites (Figure 3) and fairly high explanatory power of the regression 414 model (72 %) led us to incorporate the modelled Cs_{SO4} as next predictor for calculations of other 415 chemistry constituents (throughfall SO₄, NO₃ and NH₄).

416 The rate of change in precipitation SO_4 concentration (ΔCs) was a function of Cs_{SO4} (34 % of explained 417 variability), latitude (north-south gradient) and elevation.

418 419 $\Delta Cs_{SO4} = 1.927 - 9.317 \times 10^{-4} \times E - 5.639 \times \log(Cs_{SO4}) - 5.048 \times 10^{-6} \times X$

420

421 Relatively higher annual decreases in bulk SO₄ concentration were modelled for northern sites with 422 higher SO₄ concentrations (Figure S4). All together 44 % of variability in ΔCs was explained. Site 423 standard deviation (σs_{SO4}) was then calculated based on tight relationship between σs and ΔCs 424 (Figure S2):

425

426 $\sigma s_{SO4} = -6.24 \times \Delta C s_{SO4} + 1.57$ (R² = 0.92)

427 428 Model performance is highlighted in Figure 7. Modelled RMSE values were 16 % of site average value 429 for Cs_{SO4} , 32 % of site mean change for modelled ΔCs_{SO4} , and 34 % of mean site standard deviation for 430 modelled σs_{SO4} .

431 Mean throughfall SO_4 concentration (Cs_{sO4thf}) across 15 sites with available data was best explained 432 with three predictors (Cs_{sO4} , precipitation and latitude).

433

434 $Cs_{SO4thf} = 10^{(1.557 + 1.165 \times log(Cs_{SO4}) - 3.57 \times 10^{-4} \times P + 8.941 \times 10^{-7} \times X)$

435

436 All together 90 % of the variability in Cs_{SO4thf} was explained, from which 73 % was related to the 437 respective bulk SO₄ concentration. Thus, sites with high SO₄ concentration in precipitation tend to 438 have high throughfall (Figure 8). Rate of change in throughfall SO₄ concentration (ΔCs_{SO4thf}) was a 439 function of Cs_{SO4thf} (83 % of explained variability) and longitude (Figure S4).

440

441 $\Delta Cs_{SO4thf} = 43.263 - 23.581 \times log(Cs_{SO4thf}) + 8.399 \times 10^{-6} \times Y$

443 444 445 446 447	Sites located in the west and with high throughfall SO_4 concentrations experienced the steepest declines in throughfall SO_4 concentration. Altogether 86 % of the variability in ΔCs_{SO4thf} was explained by Cs_{SO4thf} and longitude. Site standard deviation (σs_{SO4thf}) was then calculated according to linear regression from the Figure S2:
448	$\sigma s_{SO4thf} = -6.83 \times \Delta C s_{SO4thf} - 2.35 \ (R^2 = 0.98)$
449 450 451 452	Modelled RMSE values were 26 % of site average value for Cs_{SO4thf} , 19 % of site mean change for modelled ΔCs_{SO4thf} , and 21 % of mean site standard deviation for modelled σs_{SO4thf} (Figure 7).
453	3.3.2 Spatial distribution of NO $_3$ and NH $_4$ concentrations in precipitation
454	
455	Mean precipitation NO ₃ concentration (Cs _{NO3}) across 30 sites with available data was best explained
456	with two predictors:
457	
458	$Cs_{NO3} = 10^{(1.123 + 5.156 \times 10^{3} \times Cs_{SO4} - 2.643 \times 10^{-7} \times Y)$
459	
460	Mean bulk SO ₄ concentration explained 49 % in variation of mean bulk NO ₃ concentration, another
461	12 % of explanatory power added longitude. Sites with high SO ₄ concentration in the west part of the
462	territory tend to have higher NO $_3$ concentration in bulk precipitation (Figure 8). This further reflects
463	importance of the proximity from large stationary sources of NO_x emissions that dominated NO_x
464	emissions in the Czech Republic in the 1980s and 1990s (Kopacek and Vesely, 2005).
465	Absolute change in the NO_3 concentration was related to latitude (14 % of explained variability in
466	ΔCs_{NO3}), precipitation and elevation. All together 36 % of variability in ΔCs_{NO3} was explained.
467	
468	$\Delta Cs_{NO3} = -4.687 - 8.589 \times 10^{-4} \times E + 4.515 \times 10^{-4} \times P - 3.775 \times 10^{-6} \times X$
469	
470	Higher decreases were observed in northern sites (Figure S4). Site standard deviation (σs_{NO3}) was
471	then calculated based on linear regression from the Figure S2.
472	
473	$\sigma s_{NO3} = -5.35 \times \Delta C s_{NO3} + 3.44$
474	
475	Compared to SO ₄ assessment, predictive performance of regression models were poorer, with the
476	modelled RMSE values of 15 % of site average value for Cs _{NO3} , 36 % of site mean change for modelled
477	ΔCs_{NO3} , and 29 % of mean site standard deviation for modelled σs_{NO3} (Figure 7).
478	Mean precipitation NH ₄ concentration (Cs_{NH4}) across 30 sites with available data was best explained
479	with four predictors.
480	
481	$Cs_{NH4} = 10^{(0.316 - 6.733 \times 10^{-5} \times P + 7.505 \times 10^{-3} \times Cs_{S04} - 4.950 \times 10^{-7} \times Y - 6.026 \times 10^{-7} \times X)$
482	
483	Bulk SO $_4$ concentration alone explained 58 % of Cs $_{ m NH4}$ variability across sites,
484	precipitation added 12 % to explained variability and 8 % was explained by the
485	coordinates. Cs_{NH4} tends to be higher at sites with high SO_4 concentration,
486	reflecting the role of NH_4 as a counter-ion to SO_4 in $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ aerosol.
48/ 100	Furthermore, in contrast to NU_3 , NH_4 tends to be higher in the SW territory of the Crock Bopublic (Figure 8). This is in good spatial approximate with the
400 120	distribution of industrial and agricultural areas across the Crech Perublic
409 490	as well as with closer proximity of NH, emission sources in Germany that are
491	higher than the CS sources (EMEP: www.ceip.at/emission-data-webdab) due to
492	higher density of livestock production (FAO; http://faostat.fao.org).
493	The concentration change was related to Cs _{so4} (29 % of explained variability) and to precipitation and
494	elevation. Overall, 45 % of annual change in NH ₄ concentration was explained.

496 $\Delta Cs_{NH4} = 0.413 - 1.334 \times 10^{-3} \times E + 1.075 \times 10^{-3} \times P - 3.279 \times 10^{-2} \times Cs_{SO4}$

498 The steepest decline tends to be at sites with highest SO₄ concentrations (Figure S4). Site standard 499 deviation (σs_{NH4}) was then calculated based on the linear regression from the Figure S2.

501 $\sigma s_{NH4} = -5.59 \times \Delta C s_{NH4} + 7.2$

502

500

503 Modelled mean Cs_{NH4} RMSE was 25 % of site average value, modelled ΔCs_{NH4} RMSE was 56 % of site 504 mean change and modelled σs_{NH4} RMSE was 39 % of mean site standard deviation (Figure 7).

505 Concentrations of inorganic nitrogen were less satisfactorily predicted than SO_4 concentrations in 506 precipitation. Related to the previous discussion, higher degree of year-to-year variability in the N 507 concentration in precipitation and higher degree of inter site trend heterogeneity caused poorer 508 performance of regression models compared to the well constrained trends in SO_4 concentrations. 509 However, calculated spatial distribution of precipitation chemistry (*Cs*, σ s) can be used to estimate 510 historical deposition gradients across the Czech Republic.

R





Figure 7. 1:1 plots of modelled vs. measured mean SO₄, NO₃ and NH₄ concentrations (*Cs*) at the study sites, annual rate of change (ΔCs), site standard deviation (σs). Root mean square error (RMSE) and

514 Nash-Sutcliffe coefficient of determination (NSCD) are displayed.





6 Figure 8. Spatial distribution of calculated mean Cs and σs across the Czech Republic.

518 3.4 SPATIAL ESTIMATION OF S AND N DEPOSITION ACROSS THE CZECH REPUBLIC 519 BETWEEN 1900 AND 2012

520

521 **3.4.1** Temporal development of S deposition

522

Estimated average S bulk deposition across the Czech Republic was a product of the spatial 523 524 distribution of modelled Cs₅₀₄ and mean precipitation depth. Highest S bulk deposition was modelled for northern part of the Czech Republic, especially in the mountainous landscape. For the calibration 525 period (1994 - 2012), average S bulk deposition ranged between 3.5 and 15 kg S ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ across the 526 Czech Republic (Figure 9). Over the 20th century, estimated median S bulk deposition increased from 527 5 kg S ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (1900) to 11.6 kg S ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (1979) and then declined to 3.8 kg S ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (2012) (Figure 528 529 S5). Current S bulk deposition is thus lower than estimated deposition in 1900. Between peak of the 530 bulk S deposition and the year 2012, deposition declined by 67 %. Between 1979 and 2012, the rate of decline in bulk S deposition (ΔCs_{SO4}) ranged between -0.19 and -0.48 kg S ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (median of -0.29 531 kg S ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) (Figure S4). Over the 20th century (1900 – 2012) cumulative CS (Czechoslovakia area 532 based) SO₂ emissions were on average ~5025 kg S ha⁻¹ and the modelled bulk S deposition (for the 533 same area) was 945 kg S ha⁻¹ for the same period. 534

Forests in the Czech Republic cover ca. 34 % of country area and consist mainly of production forests 535 (75%) with predominantly conifer species (73%). During the 20th century forest area increased by ca. 536 5 %. Because canopy exchange of S is negligible, higher throughfall versus bulk deposition can be 537 attributed to dry S deposition, such that throughfall provides a good measure of the total 538 539 atmospheric deposition of S (Lindberg and Lovett, 1992). Average S throughfall (total) deposition was 540 highest in the northern part of the Czech Republic, with the highest estimated deposition in the mountain areas. Between 1994 and 2012, average S total deposition under the spruce canopy ranged 541 between 5 and 43 kg S ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Figure 9). Over the 20th century, estimated country median S total 542 543 deposition increased from 14 kg S ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (1900) to 41 kg S ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (1979) and then declined to 7.3 544 kg S ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (2012) (Figure S5). Between peak of the S total deposition and year 2012, the throughfall S deposition declined by 82 %, i.e. faster than bulk S deposition. Between 1979 and 2012 the rate of 545 decline in total S deposition (ΔCs_{SO4thf}) ranged between -0.9 and -2.3 kg S ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (median of -1.3 kg S 546 547 ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). The most pronounced decline in S total deposition was modelled for forests close to the 548 biggest stationary SO₂ sources (mostly brown coal burning powerplants) in the NW part of the Czech Republic (Figure S4)(Hůnová et al., 2014). On average, cumulative S deposition in Czech forests is 549 estimated to be 3048 kg S ha⁻¹ during the 20th century. In total, due to the majority of non-forested 550 landscape (66 %) with relatively low dry deposition on vegetation surfaces, 34 % of emitted S in the 551 552 Czech Republic has been deposited within its own territory as bulk or throughfall deposition since 553 1900. Currently, 70 % of Czech SO₂ emissions is deposited within the country boundaries. However, 554 during the peak of SO₂ pollution, 20 % of emitted S in the Czech Republic has been deposited within 555 its own territory.

Based on the analysis, enrichment of throughfall deposition over the bulk deposition (DDF – dry deposition factor) varied between 1.7 and 6.6, with the highest ratio in the NW of the Czech territory. Again, sites closest to the S emission sources had the highest DDF (Figure 10). Over the last hundred years, median DDF peaked in the 1980s at 3.4 (10th and 90th percentile range of 2.9 and 3.8) and declined to 1.7 in 2012 (10th and 90th percentile range between 1 and 2.6) (Figure S5).



562

Figure 9. Modelled average deposition (kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) of S (bulk and throughfall) and N (bulk) compounds in the Czech Republic during 1994–2012.

565 **3.4.2 Temporal development of N deposition**

566

567 Spatial distribution of both NO₃ and NH₄ bulk concentration was statistically related to SO_4 568 concentration in precipitation. Although modelled Cs_{SO4} as a predictor of spatial distribution of Cs_{NO3} 569 and Cs_{NH4} may induce additional error in regression modelling, both N species concentrations were 570 statistically related to the SO₄, likely reflecting common sources (SO₂ and NO_x emissions) or/and 571 linked atmospheric chemistry (SO₄ and NH₄). Modelled deposition of NO₃ was highest in the 572 mountain areas across the Czech Republic, with a south – north gradient. The average NO_3 deposition ranged between 2.3 and 8.9 kg N-NO₃ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ from 1994 – 2012 (Figure 9). Bulk NO₃ deposition was 573 2.4 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in 1900, which is lower than its current level. The peak of NO₃ deposition occurred in 574 1988, with a median value of 5.3 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. Since then, NO₃ deposition declined by 38 % to 3.3 kg 575 N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Figure S5). The median decline was calculated as -0.07 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (range between -0.05 576 577 and -0.11 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). The most pronounced declines in NO₃ deposition were modelled for western 578 and north-western part of the Czech Republic (Figure S4). Cumulative NO₃ deposition over the 1900– 579 2012 period was 409 kg N ha⁻¹, which accounted for 33 % of the emissions of oxidized N forms.

580 The modelled spatial distribution of ammonium deposition was similar to NO₃, with less deposition in the eastern part of the Czech Republic. The average NH₄ deposition ranged between 3.1 and 8.4 kg N 581 ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Figure 9). Bulk NH₄ deposition was 4.2 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in 1900, i similar to its current 582 deposition (Figure S5), and peaked in 1984 with a median of 7.2 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. Since then, NH₄ 583 deposition declined by 46 % to 3.9 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. Modelled decline ranged between -0.11 and -0.2 kg 584 N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (median of -0.14 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). The most pronounced declines occurred in northern and 585 north-eastern parts of the country (Figure S4). Cumulative NH₄ deposition was estimated to 576 kg N 586 587 ha⁻¹ during 1900 – 2012, which accounted for 62 % of the CS emissions of NH₃. Spatially distributed NO₃ and NH₄ precipitation concentrations reflects the nature of country land use, with higher NH₄ to 588 NO₃ ratios in lowland, agricultural landscapes (Figure 10). Temporal development of the NH₄ to NO₃ 589

- ratio in precipitation reflects different temporal changes in energy production (sources and amount)
- and agricultural activities (mostly livestock production) (Kopáček and Veselý, 2005). Two distinct
 period of time highlight those changes after the 2nd World War and then after the political changes
- 593 in 1989 (Figure S5) (Kopáček et al., 2013).



595 Figure 10. Mean modelled ratio between throughfall and bulk S deposition and NH_4 to NO_3 molar 596 ratio in bulk precipitation in the Czech Republic in the period 1994 – 2012.

597

598 **4 CONCLUSIONS**

599

600 The methodology described in this paper represents a novel approach to the temporal reconstruction and spatial interpolation of atmospheric deposition chemistry, based on a simple 601 602 statistical analysis of precipitation and throughfall monitoring data. Standardisation of precipitation 603 chemistry to annual mean Z scores provides a robust method for comparing sites with different levels 604 of absolute concentrations, and relationships between these Z scores and regional S and N emissions 605 enabled us to reconstruct long-term changes in total deposition at the scale of the Czech Republic for 606 the entire 20th century. Empirically-based interpolation, taking into account of key variables such as 607 altitude, precipitation depth and geographical coordinates, allowed spatial variations in deposition to 608 be mapped at a high resolution based on just 30 monitoring sites. The combination of temporal 609 extrapolation and spatial interpolation allowed us to generate whole-country S and N budgets for the 610 Czech Republic, which indicate that the country has undergone a transition from a strong net 611 exporter of S to one in which the majority of (much lower) S emissions are now redeposited within 612 the country.

Our results demonstrate that long-term measurements of atmospheric deposition, in combination 613 614 with a statistical method that exploits observed spatiao-temporal coherence in deposition chemistry, 615 provides a robust approach for upscaling the observed data to other locations. As an important 616 anthropogenic driver in many regions, the capacity to estimate site-specific S and N deposition over 617 long time periods is a requirement for many models that seek to predict the historic and future 618 trajectory of change in natural and semi-natural ecosystems, and a prerequisite for understanding 619 the ecological changes that have occurred in many ecosystems affected by atmospheric pollution 620 over the last 100 years.

621

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ALL ALL

HIGHLIGHTS

- Temporal coherence of precipitation SO₄, NO₃ and NH₄ was demonstrated
- Regional S and N emissions enabled to reconstruct long-term changes in deposition
- Empirically-based interpolation allowed spatial deposition variations to be mapped