

1 **Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, polychlorinated biphenyls, and chlorinated pesticides in**
2 **background air in central Europe - investigating parameters affecting wet scavenging of**
3 **polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons**

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14
15 **Abstract**

16 Concentrations of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs),
17 and chlorinated pesticides (CPs) were measured in air and precipitation at a background site in
18 central Europe. \sum PAH concentrations in air and rainwater ranged from 0.7 to 327.9 ng m⁻³ and
19 below analytical method detection limit (<MDL) to 2.1×10³ ng L⁻¹. The concentrations of PCBs
20 and CPs in rainwater were <MDL. \sum PCB and \sum CP concentrations in air ranged from <MDL to
21 44.6 and <MDL to 351.7 pg m⁻³, respectively. The potential relationships between PAH wet
22 scavenging and particulate matter and rainwater properties were investigated. The concentrations
23 of ionic species in particulate matter and rainwater were significantly correlated, highlighting the
24 importance of particle scavenging process. Overall, higher scavenging efficiencies were found
25 for relatively less volatile PAHs, underlining the effect of analyte gas-particle partitioning on
26 scavenging process. The PAH wet scavenging was more effective when the concentrations of

27 ionic species were high. In addition, the elemental and organic carbon contents of the particulate
28 matter were found to influence the PAH scavenging.

29

30 **1 Introduction**

31 Semi-volatile organic compounds (SOCs), such as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs),
32 polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), and chlorinated pesticides (CPs), can reach remote and
33 background regions through atmospheric transport and deposition processes (Blais, 2005;
34 Hageman et al., 2006; Grimalt et al., 2001). Wet scavenging is an important mechanism through
35 which atmospheric SOCs enter terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems (van Ry et al., 2002). Non-
36 reactive gaseous SOCs are removed from the atmosphere by gas scavenging process, which is
37 controlled by the SOC equilibrium partitioning with falling raindrops, as described by Henry's
38 law. In contrast, particle-associated species are removed from the atmosphere mainly through
39 particle scavenging (Ligocki et al., 1985), a process controlled by physical parameters including
40 particulate matter (PM) characteristics, cloud microphysics, and meteorological conditions
41 (Poster and Baker, 1996). Therefore, factors that affect SOC gas-particle partitioning, such as
42 ambient temperature, relative humidity, PM chemical composition and surface characteristics,
43 and SOC vapor pressure (Lohmann and Lammel, 2004), may play an important role in
44 determining the relative contributions of gas and particle scavenging processes. It was suggested
45 that SOC scavenging efficiencies would be between one to three orders of magnitude higher in
46 case of in-cloud scavenging compared to that of below-cloud scavenging (Ligocki et al., 1985).
47 Potential variability in scavenging efficiencies has also been suggested between rain events
48 originated from warm and cold clouds (Bidleman, 1988). A number of studies observed

49 variations in scavenging efficiencies of SOCs between different precipitation events (Offenberg
50 and Baker, 2002; Agrell et al., 2002; Liu et al., 2013; Kaupp and McLachlan, 2000; McLachlan
51 and Sellström, 2009; Atlas and Giam, 1988). To this date, studies have mainly focused on
52 determining the relative importance of SOC gas and particle scavenging processes. However, to
53 the best of our knowledge, no comprehensive study has been conducted to understand the causes
54 behind the variability in scavenging efficiencies. Therefore, in this study we aimed at filling this
55 gap by investigating the relationships between a set of aerosol and rainwater properties and SOC
56 scavenging. The present study was conducted at a background site in central Europe, as a follow
57 up with a previously published research (Škrdlíková et al., 2011) in which PAH scavenging
58 efficiencies were determined at that site. The specific objectives of the present study were to (1)
59 measure the concentrations of PAHs, PCBs, and CPs in air and rainwater samples, (2) estimate
60 wet depositional fluxes of target compounds in the study area, (3) determine wet scavenging
61 efficiencies and scavenged mass fractions of the analytes, and (4) investigate the potential
62 relationships between analyte scavenging and meteorological parameters as well as aerosol and
63 rain characteristics. PAHs, PCBs, and CPs were selected because they are widespread
64 atmospheric contaminants and have been found in air at background locations across Europe
65 (Dvorská et al., 2009; Gioia et al., 2007; Roots et al., 2010; Halse et al., 2011). In addition, these
66 chemicals can persist in the environment due to their resistance to photolytic, chemical, and
67 biological degradation (Yolsal et al., 2014).

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71 **2 Experimental**

72 **2.1 Sampling site**

73 The sampling was conducted at Košetice observatory located in an open land about 70 km
74 southeast of Prague in the Czech Republic (Fig. S1 in the Supporting Information (SI)). The
75 observatory is classified as a European background site (Dvorská et al., 2008). It is managed by
76 the Czech Hydrometeorological Institute (CHMI) and is part of the European Monitoring and
77 Evaluation Program. The area is covered with snow two to three months per year with the mean
78 annual temperature and precipitation of 7.1 °C and 625 mm. The potential source of pollution in
79 the region is the nearby highway (~ 7 km west of the observatory) connecting Prague to Brno. In
80 addition, due to having dominant westerly winds, atmospherically transported contaminants from
81 the industrial and urban areas of the Czech Republic, notably Prague, may contribute to the
82 pollution in the area.

83

84 **2.2 Sampling procedure**

85 Rainwater and air samples were collected during the period of December 2011 to January 2014
86 (Table S1 in the SI). A total of 231 rain samples were collected using an automatic precipitation
87 sampler (Baghira, Czech Republic) equipped with a 1-m² stainless steel collection funnel, a lid,
88 and a 5-L glass collection bottle. The opening and closing of the lid is triggered by a
89 precipitation sensor mounted on the sampler. During sampling, rain drains from the funnel and
90 accumulates in the collection bottle. The collected sample volumes were between 0.5 and 1 L,
91 depending on the amount of rainfall for each event. Larger or smaller volumes were discarded -
92 the latter was not deemed to provide enough analyte mass for trace analysis.

93 Air samples were collected on quartz fiber filters (QFF) (Grade QM-A, 10.1 cm ID, Whatman,
94 UK) and in polyurethane foam (PUF) plugs (55 cm ID, 50 cm height, Organika, Poland) using a
95 Graseby Andersen PS-1 high-volume sampler (GA, USA) with a flow rate of $17 \text{ m}^3 \text{ h}^{-1}$. For each
96 sampling period, two consecutive PUF plugs and one filter paper were deployed. A total of 162
97 gaseous and particulate air samples were collected during the period of study. Nevertheless, only
98 samples from 54 events were considered for determining scavenging ratios because only these
99 were followed by rain events. The collection of these samples started between 6 to 35hrs prior to
100 the onset of rain (predicted by CHMI) and stopped when rainfall started (Table S2 in the SI).
101 This sampling approach was chosen in order to sample rainwater from the same air mass as that
102 of PM. In addition, PM has been suggested to be removed from a travelling air parcel by up to 8
103 and 23% in the first 24 and 72hrs after the onset of rain, respectively (Wiman et al., 1990;
104 Škrdlíková et al., 2011). This means that prolonging the air sampling beyond the onset of rain
105 would potentially lead to underestimating contaminant concentrations in air and, therefore,
106 overestimating scavenging ratios and washed-out mass fractions. In addition, relative humidity
107 substantially increases during rainfall and this would potentially affect gas-particle partitioning
108 of SOCs in the air leading to underestimation or overestimation of gaseous and particulate
109 fraction of contaminants.

110 Field blanks for air samples were prepared at the site following the standard protocol for
111 mounting QFF and PUF plugs onto the sampler without turning on the sampler. No field blanks
112 were generated for rain samples.

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115 **2.3 Meteorological and other supporting data**

116 Cloud top heights were estimated from radiosonde measurements over Prague (Station ID.
117 11520) (IGRA, 2014) (Table S2 in the SI). Meteorological parameters - i.e. near-ground
118 temperature, precipitation type and intensity, cloud base heights (determined through on-site
119 ceilometer measurements), concentrations of PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀, and their ionic species (i.e. SO₄²⁻,
120 NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺), elemental carbon (EC), and organic carbon (OC) contents - were obtained from
121 CHMI (Table S3 in the SI). Aerosol number size distribution data, used for calculating the
122 aerosol surface area, was obtained from the Academy of Sciences of the Czech Republic.
123 Analyte physico-chemical properties were obtained from Estimation Programs Interface Suite
124 4.11 (USEPA, 2012). The weather charts used to determine the occurrence of frontal passage
125 over the study site were obtained from *Berliner Wetterkarte* (BWK, 2013).

126

127 **2.4 Chemical analysis and quality control**

128 QFF and PUF samples were extracted with dichloromethane using an automatic extraction
129 system (Büchi B-811, Switzerland). PUF plugs ($n = 2$) related to each sampling period were
130 extracted together. Field blanks were extracted along with each set of 10 samples. The extracts
131 were concentrated under a gentle stream of nitrogen in ambient temperature and fractionated
132 using a silica column for PAHs and a sulfuric acid modified silica column for PCBs and CPs.
133 The method performance was tested prior to sample analysis and no degradation of target
134 analytes due to acid treatment was detected. Analytes in rainwater were extracted using solid-
135 phase extraction (C18 Speedisks, Bakerbond, the Netherlands). The analytes were later eluted
136 using 40 ml of (1:1) dichloromethane: *n*-hexane, concentrated under a gentle stream of nitrogen,

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137 and passed through a glass column packed with anhydrous sodium sulfate (1cm ID, 3 cm height)
138 to remove residual water. Prior to extraction, all air and rainwater samples and blanks were
139 spiked with a solution containing d₈-naphthalene, d₁₀-phenanthrene, d₁₂-perylene, PCB 30, and
140 PCB 185, which were used as recovery standards.

141 Samples were analyzed for 26 parent PAHs (i.e. naphthalene (NAP), acenaphthylene (ACY),
142 acenaphthene (ACE), fluorene (FLN), phenanthrene (PHE), anthracene (ANT), fluoranthene
143 (FLT), pyrene (PYR), benzo(*a*)anthracene (BAA), chrysene (CHR), benzo(*b*)fluoranthene
144 (BBF), benzo(*k*)fluoranthene (BKF), benzo(*a*)pyrene (BAP), indeno(123-*cd*)pyrene (IPY),
145 dibenz(*a,h*)anthracene (DHA), benzo(*g,h,i*)perylene (BPE), benzo(*b*)fluorene (BFN),
146 benzo(*g,h,i*)fluoranthene (BGF), cyclopenta(*c,d*)pyrene (CPP), triphenylene (TPH),
147 benzo(*j*)fluoranthene (BJF), benzo(*e*)pyrene (BEP), perylene (PER), dibenz(*a,c*)anthracene
148 (DCA), anthanthrene (ATT), coronene (COR)), one heterocyclic PAH (i.e. benzo-naphtho-
149 thiophene (BNT)), and one alkylated PAH (i.e. retene (RET)) using a Hewlett-Packard gas
150 chromatograph (GC 6890) interfaced to a Hewlett-Packard mass selective detector (MS 5973).
151 Seven PCBs (i.e. PCB 28, PCB 52, PCB 101, PCB 118, PCB 153, PCB 138, PCB 180) and 13
152 CPs, namely α -hexachlorocyclohexane (HCH), β -HCH, γ -HCH, δ -HCH, ϵ -HCH, *o,p'*-
153 dichlorodiphenyldichloroethylene (DDE), *p,p'*-DDE, *o,p'*-dichlorodiphenyldichloroethane
154 (DDD), *p,p'*-DDD, *o,p'*-dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (DDT), *p,p'*-DDT, pentachlorobenzene
155 (PeCB), hexachlorobenzene (HCB), were analyzed using an Agilent GC (7890) coupled with an
156 Agilent Triple Quadrupole MS/MS (7000B). All analytes were separated on a J&W Scientific
157 capillary column (HP-5ms, 0.25 mm ID, 0.25 μ m film thickness). D₁₄-*p*-terphenyl and PCB 121
158 were used as internal standards for PAH and PCB/CP analysis, respectively. The analytical

159 method recoveries for PCBs/CPs and PAHs ranged from 88 to 100% and 72 to 102%,
160 respectively. The measured analyte concentrations were not recovery corrected.

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161 Limits of quantification (LOQ) for analytes were calculated based on instrument detection limits,
162 which in turn are determined using three times the chromatogram baseline noise level. The
163 median LOQs for individual PAHs and PCBs/CPs in air samples were 0.006 and 0.0005 ng m⁻³,
164 respectively. The median LOQs in rainwater samples were 0.05 and 0.45 ng L⁻¹, respectively.
165 LOQ values were used in cases where analyte concentrations in field blanks were <LOQ. The
166 mean concentrations of analytes in five field blanks were subtracted from those in the
167 corresponding samples. The concentrations that were lower than mean + 3 standard deviations of
168 those in field blanks were considered below method detection limit (<MDL) and were
169 substituted with LOQ/2 for calculation of averages.

170 Analysis of ionic species in rainwater was done using a Hewlett-Packard capillary
171 electrophoresis system (HP 3D CE). Measurements were performed using an uncoated silica
172 capillary column (75 µm ID, 70 cm length). The applied separation voltage was 10kV with
173 hydrodynamic injection of 50 mbar/20 sec. Analytes were detected indirectly at 254 nm
174 wavelength. The electrolyte was composed of 5 mM sodium chromate and boric acid with pH
175 adjusted to 8.3 by adding 0.5 mM cetyltrimethylammonium bromide. Quantification was
176 performed using individual calibration curves. Each quantification was performed three times
177 and mean values were used.

178

179 **2.5 Calculations and data analysis**

180 Analyte particulate mass fractions, θ (unit-less), were calculated using equation 1,

$$\Theta = C_{ip}/(C_{ig} + C_{ip}) \quad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

181 where, C_{ip} is analyte (i) air concentration (ng m^{-3}) in particulate phase and C_{ig} is that in gas phase.

182 Daily wet deposition fluxes, F_{wet} (ng m^{-2}), were determined using equation 2,

$$F_{\text{wet}} = C_{ir} \times P \quad \text{Eq. (2)}$$

183 where, C_{ir} is analyte concentration in rainwater (ng L^{-1}) and P is the rain volume received per
184 collection area (L m^{-2}) in each sampling day. Seasonal fluxes were calculated by summing the
185 daily fluxes in each season. Total scavenging ratios, W_t (unit-less), were calculated using
186 equation 3,

$$W_t = \frac{C_{ir} \times 10^3}{(C_{ig} + C_{ip})} \quad \text{Eq. (3)}$$

187 where, multiplication by 10^3 accounts for conversion from ng L^{-1} to ng m^{-3} . The mass fraction of
188 the total analyte burden in air washed out by below- and in-cloud scavenging, ϵ_t (unit-less), is
189 calculated according to Škrdlíková et al. (2011) using equation 4,

$$\epsilon_t = \frac{b_r}{b_a} = \frac{C_{ir} \times P}{(C_{ig} + C_{ip}) \times h} \quad \text{Eq. (4)}$$

190 where, b_r and b_a are analyte burdens (ng m^{-2}) in rainwater and air, respectively, and h (m) is the
191 height of the air column subject to precipitation, which corresponds to the cloud height from
192 which precipitation originates.

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197 **3 Results and Discussion**

198 **3.1 Concentrations and distribution of analytes**

199 **3.1.1. Concentrations in air**

200 NAP was targeted for analysis but it did not pass our quality control criteria and, therefore, is not
201 discussed hereafter. In addition, only analytes that were detected in >10% of the samples are
202 discussed herein (Table 1 and 2). Σ PAH (i.e. the sum of 27 PAHs) concentrations in gas phase
203 ranged from 0.6 to 138.6 (mean \pm standard deviation (SD): 11.3 ± 15.7) ng m^{-3} (Table 1). PAHs
204 with molecular mass <228 Da, namely ACY, ACE, FLN, PHE, ANT, FLT, and PYR, were
205 predominant in gas phase and, on average, accounted for 93% of the Σ PAH concentrations.
206 PHE, FLN, and FLT showed the highest mean contributions accounting for 42, 24, and 12% of
207 the Σ PAH gaseous concentrations, respectively. BKF, BAP, IPY, DHA, BPE, BNT, CPP, BJB,
208 BEP, PER, DCA, ATT, and COR were detected in <10% of the gaseous samples ($n = 162$)
209 (Table 1). The Σ PAH concentrations in the particulate phase ranged from 0.1 to 189.3 (mean \pm
210 SD: 9.3 ± 21.2) ng m^{-3} (Table 1). In sum, PAHs with molecular mass > 228 Da were predominant
211 in particulate phase and, on average, contributed to 67% of the Σ PAH particulate
212 concentrations. However, FLT and PYR showed the highest individual contributions and, on
213 average, accounted for 13 and 11% of the Σ PAH concentrations, respectively. The sum of the
214 concentrations of gas and particulate phase PAHs ranged from 0.7 to 327.9 ng m^{-3} , with the
215 mean \pm SD being 20.6 ± 35.9 ng m^{-3} . The PAH concentration ranges in gas and particulate phase
216 are noticeably higher than those measured by Škrdlíková et al. (2011) (i.e. 0.9 to 34.6 and 0.1 to
217 16.8 ng m^{-3} , respectively) for samples collected from the same site during 2007-2008 period, but

218 are slightly lower than those reported by Holoubek et al. (2007) for the period between 1996 and
219 2005 (i.e. 0.4 to 208 and 0.1 to 359 ng m⁻³, respectively).

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220 Except for *p,p'*-DDE, the targeted chlorinated compounds were mainly detected in gas phase (i.e.
221 <10% in particulate phase) (Table 2). The concentrations of *p,p'*-DDE in particulate phase
222 ranged from <MDL to 6.8 (mean ± SD: 0.4±0.7) pg m⁻³. In gas phase, *β*-HCH, *δ*-HCH, *ε*-HCH,
223 and *o,p'*-DDD were detected in <10% of all samples (*n* = 162). The concentrations in gas phase
224 ranged from <MDL to 43.5 (mean ± SD: 8.1±7.2) pg m⁻³ for ∑ PCBs (i.e. the sum of the
225 concentrations of PCB 28, 52, 101, 118, 138, 153, 180), <MDL to 73.8 (11.0±11.6) pg m⁻³ for ∑
226 HCHs (i.e. the sum of the concentrations of *α*- and *γ*-HCH), <MDL to 104.3 (23.2±19.8) pg m⁻³
227 for ∑ DDTs (i.e. the sum of the concentrations of *o,p'*-DDE, *p,p'*-DDE, *p,p'*-DDD, *o,p'*-DDT, and
228 *p,p'*-DDT) and <MDL to 332.3 (96.1±42.0) pg m⁻³ for ∑ CBs (i.e. the sum of the concentrations
229 of PeCB and HCB) (Table 2). On average, PCB 28 (40%), *γ*-HCH (56%), *p,p'*-DDE (83%), and
230 HCB (90%) predominated ∑ PCB, ∑ HCH, ∑ DDT, and ∑ CB concentrations, respectively. The
231 sum of the concentrations of gas and particulate phase PCBs and CPs ranged from <MDL to 44.6
232 and <MDL to 351.7 pg m⁻³, respectively. The measured concentrations in the present study are
233 considerably lower than those reported by Holoubek et al. (2007) for the samples collected from
234 the same location between 1996 and 2005 (i.e. <MDL to 390 pg m⁻³ for ∑ PCBs, <MDL to 771
235 pg m⁻³ for ∑ HCHs, 1 to 207 pg m⁻³ for ∑ DDTs, and <MDL to 831 pg m⁻³ for HCB). As
236 production and use of these compounds are banned in Europe, the relatively low concentrations
237 in the present study could indicate emission due to volatilization from contaminated soil around
238 Košetice (Fig. S1). This argument is supported by significant correlations found between the
239 ambient temperature at the sampling site and the measured concentrations of PCB 28 (*r* = 0.70, *P*
240 <0.05, *n* = 162), *γ*-HCH (*r* = 0.74, *P* <0.05), and *p,p'*-DDE (*r* = 0.71, *P* <0.05). Despite having the

241 highest mean concentration among the other chlorinated analytes, relatively small correlation
242 was found between the concentrations of HCB and ambient temperature changes ($r = 0.25$). This
243 could be due to the fact that this compound has different source pathways compared to all other
244 chlorinated chemicals investigated in this study. Although banned, HCB could potentially be
245 released to the environment as an unintended byproduct of organic solvent and aluminum
246 manufacturing and waste burning (EPER, 2014). In addition, this compound is present in some
247 pesticide formulations, such as chlorothalonil, which is currently registered for use in Europe.

248

249 **3.1.2. Concentrations in rain**

250 \sum PAH concentrations in rainwater ranged from <MDL to 2.1×10^3 (mean \pm SD: 173.3 ± 256.1) ng
251 L^{-1} (Table 3), predominated (mean: 69%) by congeners with <228 Da molecular mass. FLT,
252 PHE, and PYR showed the highest individual contributions and, on average, accounted for 35,
253 14, and 10% of the \sum PAH concentrations. The \sum PAH concentration range in the present study
254 was higher than the one reported by Škrdlíková et al. (2011) for Košetice (i.e. 7.1 to 485.9 ng L^{-1})
255 but noticeably lower than that measured by Holoubek et al. (2007) (i.e. 2.4 to 6310 ng L^{-1}).
256 The concentrations of PCBs and CPs, targeted for analysis in rainwater samples, were below
257 LOQs and, therefore, are not discussed hereafter.

258

259 **3.2 Wet deposition fluxes**

260 \sum PAH daily wet deposition fluxes ranged from <MDL to 5.5×10^3 (mean \pm SD: 632.9 ± 900.1) ng
261 m^{-2} (Table 4). \sum PAH seasonal fluxes were noticeably higher during winter and spring compared

262 to summer and autumn (Table 5), which is in agreement with previous observations in Europe
263 (Kiss et al., 2001; Škrdlíková et al., 2011). Seasonal changes in SOC fluxes could be due to
264 different factors, such as variations in atmospheric concentration, precipitation amount
265 (providing that atmospheric concentrations do not change drastically between seasons), and SOC
266 gas-particle partitioning behavior. The increase in PAH fluxes during winter and spring cannot
267 be explained by changes in precipitation amounts, as indicated in Table 5. However, atmospheric
268 concentrations of PAHs were noticeably higher in winter than they were in other seasons (Fig.
269 1), in agreement with a previously published study in Europe (Lammel et al., 2011). This may be
270 due to higher emission rate, lower boundary layer mixing height (Birgül et al., 2011), and lower
271 concentrations of OH radicals in winter (Halsall et al., 2001). This may partly explain the higher
272 fluxes seen during winter periods. Finally, lower temperatures in winter could potentially shift
273 partitioning of the more temperature sensitive SOCs towards particulate phase, and particle
274 scavenging, as opposed to gas scavenging, was suggested to be the dominant wet scavenging
275 mechanism for the removal of PAHs from the atmosphere (Bidleman, 1988; Poster and Baker,
276 1996; Offenberg and Baker, 2002). In the present study, significant negative regressions were
277 found between near-ground temperature and θ for a number of PAHs including PYR ($r^2 = 0.72$,
278 $P < 0.05$, $n = 150$), FLT ($r^2 = 0.69$, $n = 155$), RET ($r^2 = 0.75$, $n = 156$), and TPH ($r^2 = 0.73$, $n =$
279 162) (Table S4 in the SI), which could provide further explanation for higher fluxes during cold
280 seasons.

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284 3.3 Scavenging ratios

285 Scavenging ratios were only determined for those events with air and rainwater sampled from the
286 same air mass ($n = 54$). The rejection criterion was that frontal passage did *not* occur over the
287 site prior (± 1 hour uncertainty) to the onset of rain. Out of 54 pair samples, only 32 met the
288 abovementioned criterion (Table S2 in the SI) and, hence, W_t ratios were determined for 32 rain
289 events.

290 The relative importance of gas and particle scavenging can be calculated theoretically using W_t
291 and gas scavenging ratio obtained through dimensionless Henry's law constant (Offenberg and
292 Baker, 2002; Poster and Baker, 1996). However, this approach was avoided in the present study
293 due to the fact that the equilibrium partitioning of SOCs between gas phase and raindrops, and
294 consequently gas scavenging ratios, is greatly affected by temperature, which may change
295 drastically from cloud to ground level. This process is non-linear and a representative
296 temperature is unknown. This means that Henry's law constants, which are corrected using
297 ground temperatures, may not necessarily represent the true gas scavenging ratios related to
298 falling raindrops. One should also note that theoretical gas scavenging ratios for SOCs in gas
299 phase, being the inverse of their Henry's law constants, may not entirely reflect the underlying
300 mechanism of the compound removal from the atmosphere. For instance, PAHs with higher
301 vapor pressure normally show higher Henry's law constants, as can be seen from experimental
302 data (Bamford et al., 1999). This would result in relatively lower gas scavenging ratios for
303 gaseous PAHs with higher vapor pressure and solubility, which contradicts the concept of SOC
304 gas scavenging.

305 In the present study, the concentrations of ionic species (i.e. the sum of SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^-) in PM and
306 those in adjacent rainwater samples were significantly correlated ($r = 0.71$, $P < 0.05$, $n = 23$). This
307 indicates the efficient removal of PM by rainfall and highlights the importance of particle
308 scavenging in the present study. In general, W_i ratios for individual PAHs ranged from 0 (in cases
309 where concentrations in rainwater were <LOQ) to 3.5×10^5 , with the exception of FLT for which
310 W_i ranged between 3.7×10^3 and 1.3×10^6 (median: 1.4×10^4) (Table 6). Overall, W_i values for
311 relatively more volatile PAHs ($\log K_{oa}$ between 6.27 and 7.57), namely ACY, ACE, FLN, ANT,
312 and PHE, were up to 10^4 , whereas the values for the rest of PAHs ($\log K_{oa} > 8.70$) were up to
313 10^6 , but mainly dominated by the values close to 10^5 (Table 6). Taking into account that SOCs
314 are more efficiently removed from the atmosphere by particle scavenging, the current results
315 may imply that increase in affinity of individual PAHs towards organic phase would overall lead
316 to higher scavenging efficiencies. This, together with other parameters that affect analyte gas-
317 particle partitioning, namely temperature, aerosol surface area and chemical composition (e.g.
318 EC and OC contents) (Junge, 1977; Pankow, 1987; Bidleman, 1988), and factors that affect
319 particle removal rate including rain intensity, aerosol and raindrop size and collision efficiency
320 (Mircea et al., 2000; Poster and Baker, 1996; Slinn et al., 1978), may contribute to the observed
321 variability in measured scavenging ratios.

322 Since chlorinated compounds in the present study were mainly detected in gas phase in the air
323 (Table 2), it is likely that their removal from the atmosphere was determined by gas scavenging.
324 The fact that concentrations of these analytes in rainwater were below detection limits may
325 provide further evidence for this argument, as the magnitude of gas scavenging is negligible.

326 The upper- and lower-bound scavenged mass fractions of target analytes corresponding to cloud
327 base and top heights were determined for 32 events, except in one case for which cloud top

328 height was not available (Table S2). Σ PAH upper-bound scavenged mass fractions ranged from
329 1.2×10^{-3} to 0.8 (median: 5.3×10^{-2}), whereas lower-bound mass fractions were between 5.2×10^{-4}
330 and 0.1 (median: 9.7×10^{-3}) (Table 7). The median ratios for the analyte lower-bound mass
331 fractions were nearly an order of magnitude different from those reported by Škrdlíková et al.
332 (2011) for the same site, except for FLN and CHR, which were found to be in agreement (Table
333 7). This could potentially be related to the relatively small number of events considered in that
334 study ($n = 10$). It should be noted that scavenged mass fractions were calculated assuming that
335 analyte concentrations near ground represented those within the air column up to cloud top - i.e.
336 assuming perfect mixing throughout the column. The true scavenged mass fractions could
337 potentially be higher due to a negative vertical concentration gradient (Škrdlíková et al., 2011).

338

339 **3.4 Factors affecting the scavenging ratios**

340 As can be seen from Tables 6 and S3, W_i ratios for Σ PAHs in the present study ranged from
341 2.4×10^3 to 2.3×10^5 , with noticeable variability between the events (mean \pm SD:
342 $1.7 \times 10^4 \pm 3.8 \times 10^4$). As discussed earlier, different parameters could contribute to the variability
343 seen in scavenging ratios. In this section, we investigate potential relationships between PAH
344 scavenging efficiencies and precipitation intensity, near-ground temperature, the concentrations
345 of $PM_{2.5}$ and PM_{10} , PM ionic species (i.e. the sum of the concentrations of SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , and
346 NH_4^+), EC and OC contents, PM surface area, and rainwater ionic species (i.e. the sum of SO_4^{2-} ,
347 NO_3^- , and Cl^-). As can be seen from Table S3, the highest Σ PAH W_i was found for the samples
348 collected on 14 April 2012. The ratio was nearly two orders of magnitude higher compared to
349 that obtained for another event with similar precipitation type and ambient temperature (i.e. 11 –

350 12 October 2012). Apart from the concentrations of PM₁₀ and ionic species in PM and rainwater,
351 the rest of the parameters were somewhat similar for these two events (Table S3). The
352 concentrations of PM₁₀ as well as those for ionic species in PM and rainwater for the former
353 event were 1.4, 1.8, and 11 times the values found for the latter event. This observation suggests
354 that PM removal by rain, and consequently wet scavenging of PAHs that are sorbed to PM, is
355 enhanced in conditions where PM contains high quantities of soluble species. This argument is
356 supported by considerably higher scavenging ratios found for particulate PAHs (a factor of 50 on
357 average) in the former event. This difference was much smaller for gaseous species (a factor of
358 five on average).

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359 In order to explore the relative importance of the abovementioned parameters in relation to
360 scavenging ratios, correlation analysis was performed between these variables. Among all
361 parameters, aerosol surface area was only available for 2012. In addition, aerosol EC and OC
362 contents could only be obtained for 15 rain events out of 32, as they were recorded once every
363 six days (Table S3). Owing to the fact that EC and OC have high importance in SOC gas-particle
364 partitioning (Lohmann and Lammel, 2004), and in order to enhance the comparability of results,
365 for all other parameters, correlation analysis was only performed for the corresponding rain
366 events. The results showed that the concentrations of rainwater ionic species were significantly
367 correlated with \sum PAH scavenging ratios ($r = 0.70$, $P < 0.05$, $n = 15$), whereas weak correlations
368 were found for all other parameters, except the ratio of PM ionic species/PM₁₀, for which a
369 moderate correlation was found ($r = 0.34$, $P > 0.05$). However, when the data related to 14 April
370 2012 (with exceptionally high W_t ratio) was excluded from the analysis, the suggested
371 importance of rainwater and PM ionic species decreased ($r = 0.14$ and 0.07 , respectively, P
372 > 0.05 , $n = 14$). This indicates that the initial analysis may have been overpowered by

373 significantly high values of ionic species related to a single event. Without the data point related
374 to 14 April 2012, moderate correlations were obtained between \sum PAH W_t ratios and EC/PM₁₀ (r
375 = 0.34, $P > 0.05$) and OC/PM₁₀ ($r = 0.37$, $P > 0.05$). Although not statistically significant, the
376 current results suggest that the aerosol EC and OC contents are important parameters in
377 determining PAH scavenging efficiencies. This may reflect the affinity of PAHs towards EC and
378 OC, representing adsorption and absorption processes (Lohmann and Lammel, 2004). However,
379 the magnitude of these effects could be different when considering individual PAHs. For
380 instance, the coefficients of correlation between W_t and EC/PM₁₀ ratios for PAHs with moderate
381 to high particulate mass fractions, namely PYR (mean $\theta = 0.40$), CHR (mean $\theta = 0.74$), and
382 BBF (mean $\theta = 0.97$), were 0.38, 0.20, and 0.33 ($n = 10$), whereas the coefficients for
383 correlation with OC/PM₁₀ ratios were 0.51, 0.53, and 0.03, respectively. Despite not having
384 statistical significance, the results may indicate that the aerosol OC content was more effective
385 than EC for wet scavenging of PYR and CHR. It should be noted that precipitation type (i.e.
386 snow vs. rain) was only available for eight events out of 15. These were mainly identified as
387 rainfall (Table S3), which ruled out the potential impact of precipitation type on scavenging
388 efficiencies. The lack of significant linear relationships between scavenging ratios and aerosol
389 and rainwater properties indicates that the process is not controlled by a single factor but rather
390 by a combination of parameters. The findings of the present study highlight the need for
391 incorporating other PM components, such as EC and OC, in air pollution models for more
392 accurate estimation of particulate PAH scavenging.

393

394

395 **4 Conclusions**

396 The results suggest that volatilization from contaminated soil was the main source of chlorinated
397 compounds in the air over Košetice. Higher Σ PAH fluxes in winter were possibly related to
398 higher PAH atmospheric concentrations and particulate mass fractions in that season. Particle
399 scavenging was found to be significant in the present study, as indicated by the strong correlation
400 between rainwater and PM ionic species. In sum, greater scavenging ratios were found for less
401 volatile PAHs, highlighting the importance of SOC gas-particle partitioning in determining their
402 scavenging efficiencies. The results indicated that PAH wet scavenging could be more efficient
403 in cases where the concentrations of ionic species in PM and rainwater are high. In addition, the
404 high affinity of PAHs towards EC and OC were found to be reflected in the scavenging
405 efficiency. In most model applications which study PAHs, particulates are scavenged either as in
406 conventional air pollution modeling - i.e. accounting for PM ionic composition, but no other PM
407 components (parameterization based on Köhler theory or empirical approaches based on cloud
408 droplet number) (Abdul-Razzak and Ghan, 2000; Gong et al., 2003) - or with insoluble aerosols
409 or aerosol modes (Sehili and Lammel, 2007; Friedman and Selin, 2012). Future studies would
410 need to focus on in-depth analysis of PM chemical composition with the aim to include OC and
411 EC in the parameterizations of particulate PAH wet deposition.

412

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421

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531

Table 1. PAH concentrations and detection frequencies in air.

	<i>Gaseous Cons. (ng m⁻³)</i>				<i>Particulate Cons. (ng m⁻³)</i>			
	Min.	Max.	Mean ± SD	DF %	Min.	Max.	Mean ± SD	DF %
ACY	<MDL	34.5	1.0±3.0	87	<MDL	1.9	7.8×10 ⁻² ±2.4×10 ⁻¹	53
ACE	<MDL	3.2	0.3±0.5	90	<MDL	0.2	1.1×10 ⁻² ±3.1×10 ⁻²	22
FLN	<MDL	26.3	2.7±4.0	98	<MDL	2.5	1.1×10 ⁻¹ ±3.4×10 ⁻¹	49
PHE	<MDL	45.0	4.7±5.9	98	<MDL	14.6	0.8±2.2	72
ANT	<MDL	4.7	1.3×10 ⁻¹ ±4.0×10 ⁻¹	81	<MDL	1.5	6.3×10 ⁻² ±1.9×10 ⁻¹	53
FLT	7.0×10 ⁻²	13.8	1.3±1.6	100	3.0×10 ⁻³	26.1	1.3±3.3	99
PYR	3.9×10 ⁻³	7.7	0.6±0.8	93	3.5×10 ⁻³	20.7	1.1±2.5	99
BAA	<MDL	0.3	1.4×10 ⁻² ±3.7×10 ⁻²	38	<MDL	11.1	0.5±1.2	87
CHR	<MDL	0.4	6.0×10 ⁻² ±6.8×10 ⁻²	95	<MDL	15.8	0.7±1.7	97
BBF	<MDL	0.9	1.3×10 ⁻² ±8.2×10 ⁻²	14	<MDL	13.6	0.7±1.5	96
BKF	<MDL	0.3	6.2×10 ⁻³ ±2.6×10 ⁻²	4	<MDL	5.0	0.3±0.6	88
BAP	<MDL	0.5	8.7×10 ⁻³ ±4.2×10 ⁻²	3	<MDL	9.1	0.4±0.9	83
IPY	<MDL	0.5	7.2×10 ⁻³ ±4.6×10 ⁻²	3	<MDL	10.4	0.5±1.0	81
DHA				2	<MDL	1.2	4.1×10 ⁻² ±1.1×10 ⁻¹	56
BPE	<MDL	0.5	7.4×10 ⁻³ ±4.2×10 ⁻²	3	<MDL	6.6	0.4±0.7	90
RET	6.5×10 ⁻³	5.0	0.2±0.4	100	<MDL	4.0	0.2±0.5	73
BFN	<MDL	0.8	5.2×10 ⁻² ±8.2×10 ⁻²	80	<MDL	4.7	0.2±0.5	72
BNT	<MDL	2.1×10 ⁻²	2.4×10 ⁻³ ±2.2×10 ⁻³	6	<MDL	0.5	2.3×10 ⁻² ±6.2×10 ⁻²	46
BGF	<MDL	0.4	5.1×10 ⁻² ±5.4×10 ⁻²	93	<MDL	7.7	0.3±0.8	92
CPP	<MDL	0.2	5.0×10 ⁻³ ±2.2×10 ⁻²	3	<MDL	10.3	0.3±0.9	73
TPH	<MDL	0.1	1.5×10 ⁻² ±1.5×10 ⁻²	87	<MDL	2.8	1.4×10 ⁻¹ ±3.2×10 ⁻¹	86
BJF	<MDL	0.4	8.4×10 ⁻³ ±3.9×10 ⁻²	6	<MDL	7.5	0.4±0.9	91
BEP	<MDL	0.5	1.0×10 ⁻² ±4.6×10 ⁻²	5	<MDL	7.2	0.4±0.8	87
PER				2	<MDL	1.5	6.9×10 ⁻² ±1.5×10 ⁻¹	61
DCA				2	<MDL	0.6	2.9×10 ⁻² ±6.7×10 ⁻²	55
ATT				2	<MDL	1.7	4.7×10 ⁻² ±1.5×10 ⁻¹	48
COR				2	<MDL	3.3	1.3×10 ⁻¹ ±3.2×10 ⁻¹	64
∑ PAHs	0.6	138.6	11.3±15.7		0.1	189.3	9.3±21.2	

SD: standard deviation; DF: detection frequency ($n = 162$); <MDL: below method detection limit; ∑ PAHs: the sum of the concentrations of individual PAHs with DF >10% in either gas or particulate phase. Concentration ranges and means are only reported for analytes with DF >2%.

Table 2. PCB and CP concentrations and detection frequencies in air.

	<i>Gaseous Cons. (pg m⁻³)</i>				<i>Particulate Cons. (pg m⁻³)</i>			
	Min.	Max.	Mean ± SD	DF %	Min.	Max.	Mean ± SD	DF %
PCB 28	<MDL	14.3	3.2±2.4	88				1
PCB 52	<MDL	8.4	1.5±1.4	68				1
PCB 101	<MDL	13.9	1.2±1.8	60				1
PCB 118	<MDL	4.0	0.3±0.5	10				<MDL
PCB 138	<MDL	3.9	0.5±0.5	24				2
PCB 153	<MDL	8.0	1.0±1.2	62	<MDL	3.1	0.3±0.3	4
PCB 180	<MDL	2.1	0.3±0.2	14	<MDL	3.3	0.2±0.3	6
α -HCH	<MDL	44.5	4.4±6.0	57				1
β -HCH				2				<MDL
γ -HCH	<MDL	31.4	6.6±6.5	75				1
δ -HCH	<MDL	2.0	0.4±0.3	5				1
ϵ -HCH				1				<MDL
<i>o,p'</i> -DDE	<MDL	1.9	0.4±0.3	27				<MDL
<i>p,p'</i> -DDE	<MDL	87.3	19.5±15.9	98	<MDL	6.8	0.4±0.7	31
<i>o,p'</i> -DDD	<MDL	2.2	0.3±0.2	6				<MDL
<i>p,p'</i> -DDD	<MDL	2.4	0.4±0.4	17				1
<i>o,p'</i> -DDT	<MDL	8.9	1.5±1.9	45				<MDL
<i>p,p'</i> -DDT	<MDL	11.2	1.6±2.3	36				1
PeCB	<MDL	52.8	9.6±7.3	99				2
HCB	<MDL	279.5	86.5±40.4	99	<MDL	62.7	0.9±6.2	7
Σ PCBs	<MDL	43.5	8.1±7.2					
Σ HCHs	<MDL	73.8	11.0±11.6					
Σ DDTs	<MDL	104.3	23.2±19.8					
Σ CBs	<MDL	332.3	96.1±42.0					

SD: standard deviation; DF: detection frequency ($n = 162$); <MDL: below method detection limit; Σ PCBs : the sum of the concentrations of PCB 28, 52, 101, 118, 138, 153, and 180; Σ HCHs: the sum of the concentrations of α - and γ -HCH; Σ DDTs: the sum of the concentrations of *o,p'*-DDE, *p,p'*-DDE, *p,p'*-DDD, *o,p'*-DDT, and *p,p'*-DDT; Σ CBs: the sum of the concentrations of PeCB and HCB. Note that only analytes with DF>10% in either gas or particulate phase were considered for calculating the sums. Concentration ranges and means are only reported for analytes with DF >2%.

Table 3. PAH concentrations and detection frequencies in rainwater.

	<i>Concentrations (ng L⁻¹)</i>			DF %
	Min.	Max.	Mean ± SD	
ACY	<MDL	23.7	2.1±2.8	67
ACE	<MDL	7.0	1.0±1.2	54
FLN	<MDL	41.6	6.0±5.8	99
PHE	<MDL	268.0	23.5±29.2	99
ANT	<MDL	41.2	1.1±3.2	56
FLT	<MDL	1.1×10 ³	61.4±144.6	99
PYR	<MDL	282.5	17.7±27.0	91
BAA	<MDL	76.9	3.1±6.7	63
CHR	<MDL	141.8	9.1±14.9	75
BBF	<MDL	85.2	6.5±13.0	69
BKF	<MDL	42.3	2.8±4.8	63
BAP	<MDL	50.0	2.3±4.9	55
IPY	<MDL	58.2	3.6±7.1	60
DHA	<MDL	3.9	0.3±0.4	25
BPE	<MDL	50.9	3.6±6.5	59
RET	<MDL	44.0	3.1±4.6	73
BFN	<MDL	67.2	3.1±6.0	62
BNT	<MDL	6.7	0.5±0.7	43
BGF	<MDL	70.8	4.9±7.7	70
CPP	<MDL	17.4	1.1±2.2	48
TPH	<MDL	44.2	3.5±5.4	67
BJF	<MDL	63.0	5.6±9.7	64
BEP	<MDL	60.0	4.8±7.6	73
PER	<MDL	7.8	0.5±0.9	39
DCA	<MDL	7.7	0.4±0.7	27
ATT	<MDL	8.0	0.3±0.7	18
COR	<MDL	22.1	1.5±2.9	52
∑ PAHs	<MDL	2.1×10 ³	173.3±256.1	

SD: standard deviation; DF: detection frequency ($n = 231$); <MDL: below method detection limit; ∑

PAHs: the sum of the concentrations of 27 individual PAHs listed on the table.

Table 4. PAH daily wet deposition fluxes (F_{wet}).

	F_{wet} (ng m ⁻²)		
	Min.	Max.	Mean \pm SD
ACY	<MDL	94.8	8.4 \pm 14.0
ACE	<MDL	76.1	4.3 \pm 8.8
FLN	<MDL	305.3	29.8 \pm 43.7
PHE	<MDL	816.8	102.1 \pm 133.1
ANT	<MDL	332.4	4.4 \pm 22.6
FLT	<MDL	4.0 $\times 10^3$	204.1 \pm 413.0
PYR	<MDL	753.7	66.6 \pm 106.0
BAA	<MDL	182.7	10.6 \pm 23.1
CHR	<MDL	407.5	34.0 \pm 60.6
BBF	<MDL	569.9	21.5 \pm 51.4
BKF	<MDL	165.7	9.8 \pm 19.0
BAP	<MDL	180.5	7.1 \pm 17.9
IPY	<MDL	178.3	12.2 \pm 25.9
DHA	<MDL	13.5	0.6 \pm 1.8
BPE	<MDL	161.2	12.1 \pm 24.5
RET	<MDL	234.3	12.7 \pm 24.3
BFN	<MDL	163.5	11.6 \pm 23.0
BNT	<MDL	18.1	1.3 \pm 2.7
BGF	<MDL	240.6	18.4 \pm 31.7
CPP	<MDL	94.5	3.4 \pm 9.8
TPH	<MDL	104.1	12.4 \pm 20.0
BJF	<MDL	374.2	20.6 \pm 43.4
BEP	<MDL	249.1	16.8 \pm 29.8
PER	<MDL	34.7	1.4 \pm 3.6
DCA	<MDL	16.7	0.8 \pm 2.3
ATT	<MDL	21.3	0.7 \pm 2.5
COR	<MDL	66.5	5.0 \pm 10.5
Σ PAHs	<MDL	5.5 $\times 10^3$	632.9 \pm 900.1

SD: standard deviation; <MDL: below method detection limit.

Table 5. Σ PAH seasonal wet deposition fluxes (F_{wet}) and precipitation amounts.

2012				2013			
Winter	Spring	Summer	Autumn	Winter	Spring	Summer	Autumn
Σ PAH F_{wet} (ng m ⁻²)							
3.0×10^4	2.3×10^4	6.3×10^3	7.3×10^3	4.0×10^4	1.6×10^4	9.4×10^3	1.1×10^4
Precipitation (mm)							
147.8	76.9	272.4	107.2	169.8	131.6	315.0	82.3

Table 6. PAH scavenging ratios (W_t).

	W_t			Log K_{oa}	Log K_{aw}
	Min.	Max.	Median		
ACY	NA	6.9×10^4	4.7×10^3	6.27	-2.33
ACE	NA	3.0×10^4	4.5×10^3	6.31	-2.12
FLN	863.9	5.0×10^4	4.8×10^3	6.79	-2.41
ANT	NA	8.4×10^4	2.4×10^3	7.55	-2.64
PHE	2.2×10^3	2.5×10^4	5.4×10^3	7.57	-2.76
RET	NA	3.2×10^4	6.2×10^3	8.70	-2.35
PYR	NA	1.1×10^5	1.2×10^4	8.80	-3.31
FLT	3.7×10^3	1.3×10^6	1.4×10^4	8.88	-3.44
BAA	NA	1.5×10^5	4.7×10^3	9.07	-3.31
CHR	NA	1.6×10^5	1.3×10^4	9.48	-3.67
BFN	NA	1.6×10^5	8.6×10^3	9.57	-3.80
BGF	NA	1.4×10^5	1.4×10^4	9.78	-4.26
PER	NA	1.5×10^5	1.8×10^3	10.08	-3.83
CPP	NA	1.8×10^5	563	10.15	-4.45
BBF	NA	1.4×10^5	7.5×10^3	10.35	-4.57
BJF	NA	1.4×10^5	9.2×10^3	10.59	-4.48
TPH	NA	2.0×10^5	1.9×10^4	10.69	-5.20
BKF	NA	1.4×10^5	5.6×10^3	10.73	-4.62
BAP	NA	9.1×10^4	1.6×10^3	10.86	-4.73
DCA	NA	1.4×10^5	NA	11.11	-4.70
BEP	NA	1.4×10^5	1.3×10^4	11.35	-4.91
IPY	NA	1.5×10^5	7.4×10^3	11.55	-4.85
DHA	NA	1.6×10^5	NA	11.78	-5.24
BPE	NA	1.4×10^5	6.5×10^3	11.97	-5.27
COR	NA	1.8×10^5	4.3×10^3	13.70	-6.06
BNT	NA	3.5×10^5	6.8×10^3	NA	-4.36
ATT	NA	2.3×10^5	NA	NA	NA
Σ PAHs	2.4×10^3	2.3×10^5	8.8×10^3		

K_{oa} : analyte octanol-air partitioning coefficient; K_{aw} : analyte air-water partitioning coefficient. For ease of interpretation, analytes are sorted based on their log K_{oa} values. Log K_{oa} and log K_{ow} values were obtained from Estimation Programs Interface Suite 4.11(USEPA, 2012); NA: indicates an event in which analyte concentration in rainwater was <LOQ.

Table 7. PAH scavenged mass fractions (ε).

	^a Upper-bound ε			^b Lower-bound ε			^c Median
	Min.	Max.	Median	Min.	Max.	Median	
ACY	NA	2.2	1.4×10^{-2}	NA	1.7	2.3×10^{-3}	5.3×10^{-4}
ACE	NA	0.3	8.9×10^{-3}	NA	8.1×10^{-2}	1.8×10^{-3}	5.2×10^{-4}
FLN	5.4×10^{-4}	1.5	1.5×10^{-2}	4.3×10^{-4}	0.3	3.6×10^{-3}	3.7×10^{-3}
ANT	NA	0.4	1.3×10^{-2}	NA	0.1	2.4×10^{-3}	9.4×10^{-3}
PHE	1.3×10^{-3}	0.3	2.6×10^{-2}	5.4×10^{-4}	5.1×10^{-2}	5.5×10^{-3}	1.5×10^{-2}
RET	NA	0.4	1.2×10^{-2}	NA	0.1	2.8×10^{-3}	NA
PYR	NA	1.1	5.2×10^{-2}	NA	0.2	1.0×10^{-2}	7.5×10^{-3}
FLT	2.8×10^{-3}	0.9	8.1×10^{-2}	1.1×10^{-3}	0.2	1.3×10^{-2}	9.9×10^{-3}
BAA	NA	0.9	1.2×10^{-2}	NA	5.7×10^{-2}	1.9×10^{-3}	4.8×10^{-2}
CHR	NA	1.8	5.2×10^{-2}	NA	0.1	1.2×10^{-2}	1.0×10^{-2}
BFN	NA	1.2	3.0×10^{-2}	NA	0.2	4.1×10^{-3}	NA
BGF	NA	2.4	6.1×10^{-2}	NA	0.1	9.1×10^{-3}	NA
PER	NA	1.9	NA	NA	2.7×10^{-2}	NA	NA
CPP	NA	0.5	3.6×10^{-3}	NA	6.8×10^{-2}	4.6×10^{-4}	NA
BBF	NA	3.0	2.4×10^{-2}	NA	5.0×10^{-2}	3.6×10^{-3}	NA
BJF	NA	3.6	2.7×10^{-2}	NA	0.2	1.6×10^{-3}	NA
TPH	NA	3.2	7.4×10^{-2}	NA	0.3	1.4×10^{-2}	NA
BKF	NA	2.0	2.9×10^{-2}	NA	6.8×10^{-2}	1.9×10^{-3}	NA
BAP	NA	1.5	4.1×10^{-3}	NA	3.9×10^{-2}	5.2×10^{-4}	NA
DCA	NA	2.9	NA	NA	0.1	NA	NA
BEP	NA	2.9	4.0×10^{-2}	NA	7.5×10^{-2}	6.5×10^{-3}	NA
IPY	NA	3.5	1.7×10^{-2}	NA	0.3	1.8×10^{-3}	NA
DHA	NA	3.1	NA	NA	3.8×10^{-2}	NA	NA
BPE	NA	3.6	2.3×10^{-2}	NA	0.2	2.5×10^{-3}	NA
COR	NA	4.8	2.2×10^{-3}	NA	0.2	7.2×10^{-4}	NA
BNT	NA	2.8	NA	NA	0.2	NA	NA
ATT	NA	3.8	NA	NA	4.7×10^{-2}	NA	NA
Σ PAHs 27	1.2×10^{-3}	0.8	5.3×10^{-2}	5.2×10^{-4}	0.1	9.7×10^{-3}	NA

^a Upper- and ^b lower-bound ε correspond to cloud base and top height, respectively; ^c median ε values reported by Skrdlíková et al., (2011) for cloud top heights ($n = 10$); NA: indicates an event in which analyte concentration in rainwater was <LOQ. Analytes are sorted based on their log K_{oa} values.

Figure 1 caption

Fig. 1. Σ PAH median air concentrations in winter (D.J.F.), spring (M.A.M.), summer (J.J.A.), and autumn (S.O.N.) at Košetice.