

**1Characterization of the Eyjafjallajökull volcanic event over the Iberian Peninsula by
2LIDAR remote sensing and ground level data collection**

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9Abstract:

10In April and May 2010 the eruption of the Eyjafjallajökull volcano disrupted air traffic
11across Europe. The vast economic impact of this event has stirred interest on accurate
12plume dispersion estimation and detailed ash characterization, in order to establish a more
13precise threshold for safe aircraft operation. In this work we study the physical and
14chemical properties of volcanogenic aerosol detected at ground level at several locations
15over the Iberian Peninsula, nearly 3000 Km away from the Icelandic volcano. Between 4
16and 13 May, volcanogenic aerosol was detected at ground level, identified by an increase in
17sulfur dioxide, particle mass concentrations, sulfate in precipitation and particulate sulfate
18concentration, at most EMEP/GAW/CAMP stations as well as at the CIEMAT site (for the
19sulfate concentration in PM). At the CIEMAT site, the synergic use of Raman LIDAR and
20on-site instruments provided relevant information on the evolution and properties of the
21plume over the central part of the Iberian Peninsula. Aerosol extinction coefficient profiles
22provided by the LIDAR station show the presence of remarkable aerosol layers between 6
23May and 15 May. Provenance studies using Hysplit backtrajectories and EURAD model
24forecasts confirmed that most of the aerosol layers originated in the Eyjafjallajökull
25eruption. The large suite of semi-continuous instruments present in the latter site allowed a
26better characterization of the aerosol properties. Size distribution and chemical composition
27were continuously monitored during the event, revealing a large increase in the aerosol fine
28mode, in coincidence with increases in ambient sulfate concentration, while the coarse
29mode remained almost unaltered. These results show that the plume carried mainly fine
30particles, with sizes between 0.1 and 0.7 μm in diameter, in contrast with the usual
31assumption that volcanic aerosol is mainly in the range of several μm up to mm. A possible

1explanation for this can be related to the long distance transport suffered by the plume and
2by the secondary formation of particulate sulfate from the gaseous sulfur dioxide. The
3information on volcanic aerosol characteristics after long-range transport, provided by this
4study, might be relevant for establishing a threshold for safe aircraft operation in volcanic
5ash.

6**Keywords:** Eyjafjallajökull, volcanic ash, particulate sulfate, atmospheric aerosols

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81. Introduction

9European airspace was closed from 15 to 20 April 2010 due to the volcanic eruption at
10Iceland. The Eyjafjallajökull volcano (63.63°N, 19.62°W, 1660 m asl) had remained
11dormant for several decades; however, in the 1990s high seismic activity was registered
12(Sturkell et al, 2010; Hjaltadóttir et al, 2009). Volcanic eruptions are not uncommon in
13Iceland, but this one has shown characteristics different from those usually expected.
14Instead of peaking during the first few days and then gradually decreasing, the eruption had
15an explosive phase with mainly tephra and ash production, and a phase of mainly lava
16production before becoming explosive again (Petersen, 2010). As glaciers cover the
17volcano, eruptions are phreato-magmatic by nature (Sturkell et al, 2010). Phreato-magmatic
18eruptions arise from interactions between water and magma. Unlike magmatic eruptions,
19which are driven by the thermal expansion of magma, phreato-magmatic eruptions are
20driven by the thermal contraction of magma when it comes in contact with cold water. The
21temperature difference between the two causes the violent water-lava interactions that make
22up the eruption. On 20 March 2010 a violent eruption started, forcing the evacuation of the
23local population and interfering with air traffic in the region. The eruption entered a strong
24phase of ejection of ash to the atmosphere on 14 April 2010, with large aerosol plumes
25rising up to the high troposphere during the following days (14–17 April). These were
26rapidly advected down the North Sea and then dispersed over a very large area of central
27and northern Europe (Colette et al, 2010; Flentje et al, 2010), disrupting air traffic for
28several weeks. The eruption shifted to a lava producing phase throughout late April (18–30
29April), but after more than a week of relatively subdued activity, the volcano began a new
30round of explosive ash eruptions in the first week of May. The meteorological conditions
31favored the arrival of the volcanic ash cloud at Spain. The plume crossed over the Iberian

1 Peninsula from West to East between 7 and 9 May, and then over the Mediterranean and
2 the Balkans, according to model simulations.

3 The evolution in space and time of the volcanic plume was forecasted by several models,
4 such as NAME (Numerical Atmospheric-dispersion Modelling Environment, Jones et al
5 2007), MOCAGE (Modélisation de la Chimie Atmosphérique Grande Echelle, Josse et al.
6 2004), EURAD (EUROpean Air Pollution Dispersion, Hass et al, 1995) or FLEXPART
7 (Stohl et al, 2005), driven by meteorological fields along with data on concentration,
8 composition and size of the ash particles. The ash plume was observed by a variety of
9 ground-level and satellite sensors (SEVIRI, GOME, IASI, GOES, TOVS, AVHRR, AIRS,
10 MODIS, SCHIAMACHY, OMI, SBUV/2, CALIOP...). The most effective ground-level
11 measurement system for detecting the presence of volcanic plumes is LIDAR (**L**ight
12 **D**etection **A**nd **R**anging), which is an optical remote sensing technology that measures
13 properties of scattered light to find range and/or other information on a distant target based
14 on emitting laser pulses to the atmosphere and detecting the backscattered signal. However,
15 LIDAR signals cannot penetrate thick clouds, so that low-level clouds obscure the detection
16 of aerosol plumes higher up in the atmosphere. During the days of the event, LIDAR
17 systems were the only remote sensing measurements from which vertically resolved mass
18 concentrations could be estimated. The impact on air traffic, with thousand of flights
19 cancelled, generated a demand for timely mass loading estimates in order to determine the
20 damaging potential of the plume. A special effort was made by EARLINET (European
21 Aerosol Research LIDAR NETwork) (Bösenberg et al, 2001) to monitor the ash plume
22 dispersion in order to provide vertically resolved loading estimates.

23 The effects of volcanic ash clouds on civil aircraft are related to the dangers of jet engines
24 ingesting material, leading to immediate loss of power. In at least one well-known incident,
25 a British Airways Boeing 747 lost power from all four engines over Indonesia, but
26 recovered after an emergency restart to make an emergency landing (Przedpelski and
27 Casadevall 1994). Since then, guidelines for safe flight call for the avoidance of all
28 encounters with ash. The “zero tolerance” of ash led directly to a sequence of decisions that
29 reduced air traffic in European airspace to a “zero rate” in those sectors identified as
30 contaminated. Due to the considerable disruption and economic cost of the decisions made,
31 there was an urgent need to identify the density of ash that could be tolerated by jet engines.

1 On 20 April 2010, aircraft and engine manufacturers determined that engines would
2 tolerate operations in an ash density of 2 mg m^{-3} (ICAO, 2010). In order to develop safety
3 policies for air operation in presence of volcanogenic aerosol, a complete physico-chemical
4 and morphological characterization of this aerosol is needed, as well as studies on its
5 impact on airplane engines. The characteristics of the aerosol generated depend on the type
6 of volcanic system and the eruption conditions, as well as on the transformation processes
7 that occur later in the atmosphere. Further experimental data are required to properly
8 address this issue.

9 Volcanoes are very strong sources of sulfur, acids and other gases, as well as particles. Both
10 sulfur dioxide (SO_2) and sulfate (SO_4^{2-}) have been found in volcanic plumes. Sulfate can be
11 either primarily emitted or result from the oxidation of gaseous SO_2 (Allen et al, 2002). A
12 recent study has shown increasing SO_2 depletion and gas phase sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4)
13 enrichment in the volcanic plume of an Antarctic volcano with the distance to the emission
14 source, suggesting a fast SO_2 to SO_4^{2-} oxidation (Oppenheimer et al, 2010). It is known that
15 sulfuric acid and sulfate aerosols are essential precursors for cloud formation over oceans
16 (Charlson et al, 1987). This means that the sulfate aerosol generated near the source is
17 expected to suffer subsequent processing on long-range atmospheric transport. However,
18 the chemical stability of sulfate makes it a feasible candidate for detecting long-range
19 transported volcanogenic aerosols. Ground-based measurements of volcanic emissions have
20 traditionally focused on sulfur dioxide concentrations, but a few studies have also reported
21 continuous measurements of aerosol chemical compounds of volcanogenic origin such as
22 sulfate. In one recent work of this type (Ovadnevaite et al, 2009) the authors also
23 demonstrated that a large amount of sulfur released from Icelandic volcanoes could travel
24 over distances greater than 1,000 Km.

25 Here we report measurements of volcanogenic aerosols at ground level, identified by an
26 increase in gaseous SO_2 and particulate sulfate concentrations in several background air
27 pollution Spanish monitoring stations of the Iberian Peninsula, and detailed observations of
28 the ash layer over Madrid provided by a ground-based Raman LIDAR during the
29 aforementioned event in May. The CIEMAT-Madrid LIDAR station forms part of
30 EARLINET and provided timely measurements from the beginning of the event. This
31 station also has a suite of semi-continuous instrumentation for measuring surface aerosol

1properties and meteorological parameters. The PM_{10} , $PM_{2.5}$ and PM_1 temporal evolution and
2mass distributions, along with particulate sulfate temporal evolution, have been obtained.

3

42. Experimental Setup

52.1. Measurement sites

62.1.1. EMEP/GAW/CAMP network

7The Iberian Peninsula is located in the southwestern part of Europe, about 2800 Km south-
8southeast of the Eyjafjallajökull volcano. EMEP/GAW/CAMP is the Spanish network for
9monitoring reactive gases, particulate matter and chemical precipitation under the EMEP
10(European Monitoring and Evaluation Programme), CAMP (Comprehensive Atmospheric
11Monitoring Programme) and GAW (Global Atmospheric Watch of the World
12Meteorological Organization) Programmes, and is managed by the Spanish Meteorological
13Agency (AEMET). It is formed by 13 stations located throughout the Iberian Peninsula and
14the Balearic Islands. The names and locations of the operative Spanish network stations are
15presented in Figure 1.

16(Approximate location of Figure 1)

17(Approximate location of Table I)

182.1.2. CIEMAT site (Madrid)

19The Madrid Metropolitan Area is located in the center of the Iberian Peninsula, bordered to
20the north–northwest by a high mountain range (Sierra de Guadarrama) 40 km from the city,
21and to the northeast and east by lower mountainous terrain. The population of the
22metropolitan area of Madrid is nearly 6 million inhabitants, with a car fleet of almost 3
23million vehicles. Since its industrial activity consists essentially of light factories, the
24Madrid plume is typically urban, fed by traffic emission and also by domestic heating in
25winter. Previous studies of air pollution episodes in the Madrid air basin have characterized
26their driving meteorological conditions and their typical transport patterns (Plaza et al.,
271997; Pujadas et al., 2000; Artíñano et al., 2003). The general synoptic situation leading to
28the occurrence of episodic events corresponds in winter to stagnant anticyclone conditions,
29light winds and clear-sky conditions, with the usual formation of radiative nocturnal surface
30inversions. In spite of the local-regional transport pattern, the great distance between the
31Madrid metropolitan area and other significant urban or industrial areas in Spain (around

1200 km) allows the study of its plume as a typical urban plume. Long-range transport
2episodes significantly affecting aerosol concentrations in the Madrid region are usually
3limited to Saharan mineral dust intrusions (Salvador et al., 2004). The arrival of Atlantic or
4polar air masses generally has a cleansing effect on the atmosphere, significantly reducing
5particulate matter levels.

6Located in the Madrid NW city outskirts, the CIEMAT area can be considered as an urban
7background or suburban site. It is situated downwind of the city for N to SW wind
8directions and downwind of a great forested area for W to NW wind directions.

9Simultaneous vertical profiles and surface aerosol concentration measurements were
10carried out within this site.

112.2 Instrumentation

12The EMEP/GAW/CAMP network takes samples of particulate matter filters in 24-h
13periods, from 07:00 to 07:00 UTC, using the techniques detailed in Table I. The samples
14are subject to chemical analyses in the laboratory of the Carlos III Health Institute.

15Particulate sulfate and nitrate concentrations are determined by Ion Chromatography.

16Sulfur dioxide is continuously monitored at each of the EMEP/GAW/CAMP sites with UV
17pulsed fluorescence analyzers. Due to technical problems some data are missed along these
18days, in a few stations.

19At the CIEMAT site (Madrid), a ground-based Raman LIDAR station belonging to
20EARLINET is in regular operation. During the days of the event a special effort was made
21by EARLINET (European Aerosol Research LIDAR NETwork) to monitor the ash plume
22dispersion in order to provide vertically-resolved measurements that decision-makers
23required as soon as possible. The LIDAR system is a laboratory equipment based on a
24Nd:YAG laser source (Spectra Physics LAB170-30) operating at the 2nd harmonic (532
25nm), a 30 cm diameter Newtonian telescope and photon-counting acquisition system. The
26laser energy was 115 mJ/pulse, operated vertically due to safety reasons. Other instrument
27characteristics have been described elsewhere (Molero and Jaque, 1999). LIDAR signals
28are recorded with 1-minute resolution (1800 laser pulses), but later 30- to 60-minute files
29are averaged in order to derive vertically a resolved aerosol extinction coefficient profile
30with adequate SNR values. The Klett-Fernald algorithm (Klett, 1981) is used in the
31inversion, with an aerosol extinction-to-backscatter ratio of 50 sr (continental aerosols).

1The Rayleigh extinction coefficient was calculated based on the revision of the theory
2(Bodhaine et al., 1999) using vertical profiles of meteorological data from the nearby
3AEMET radiosonde station at the Barajas airport.

4The LIDAR was co-located with a suite of semi-continuous instrumentation for measuring
5surface aerosol properties and meteorological parameters. The temporal evolution of
6particle number, sulfate and mass concentration for particles smaller than 10, 2.5 and 1 μm
7diameter (PM_{10} , $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, PM_1) were also obtained at surface level in the CIEMAT site.

8Time series of particulate sulfate on PM_1 were obtained by means of a Thermo 5020 sulfate
9particulate analyzer (SPA) (Schwab et al, 2006) on a time basis of 20 minutes. The
10instrument reduces sulfate aerosol by thermal catalysis and analyzes the resulting sulfur
11dioxide gas by pulsed fluorescence. Laboratory conversion efficiencies have been proved to
12be higher for ammonium sulfate than for mineral-type sulfates. The measurements were
13corrected by comparison against daily filter-based measurements.

14Particulate nitrate concentrations on $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ were semi-continuously measured by the
15Rupprecht and Patashnick Series 8400N Ambient Particulate Nitrate Monitor every 10 min.
16(Long and McClenny, 2006). This instrument comprises a pulse generator for the collection
17and vaporization of the particulate matter and a NO_x pulse analyzer. It mainly measures the
18nitrate associated with the ammonium, mineral-type nitrates being refractory to this
19technique. These measurements were also corrected by comparison with daily filter-based
20measurements.

21Two optical particle counters (OPC), models GRIMM1108 and GRIMM1107,
22characterized the aerosol properties at ground level. GRIMM1108 OPC provides size
23distribution in the range from 0.3 to 20 μm . Each particle is sized by the amount of incident
24laser light scattered at an angle of 90° , obtaining a 15-channel particle number
25concentration by optical size. (Peters et al, 2006). These data, in the form of particle counts,
26may be converted to a volume distribution (based on the particulate matter diameter) or a
27mass distribution. In calculating the latter, particulate density information is required.

28Generally, this information is not available, so that a uniform density is assumed.

29According to the manufacturer, the reproducibility of the GRIMM1108 in particle counting
30is +/- 2%. GRIMM1107 OPC employs 31 channels to obtain a similar distribution, which is
31converted into a mass distribution by the internal software. The particle diameter data are

1 first converted to particle volume assuming spherical particles, and then these volume data
2 are converted to mass distribution using a constant density factor, resulting in a PM_{10} - $PM_{2.5}$ -
3 PM_1 mass distribution. (Grimm and Eatough, 2009). Both instruments incorporate a heater
4 at the sample inlet with the purpose of drying the aerosol. GRIMM1107 also incorporates a
5 silica gel dryer. Data were recorded every 10 min by both instruments.

6 The particle size distribution in the particle size range 0.015-0.60 μm was measured using a
7 Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer (TSI SMPS 3936 instrument), combining a long
8 Differential Mobility Analyzer (DMA) and a Condensation Particle Counter (CPC model
9 93775), and working in the scanning mode (Wang and Flagan, 1990). Before entering the
10 DMA the sample was dried by a nafion drier, and particles were neutralized by a Kr-85
11 radioactive source. Once in the DMA, particles were classified according to their electrical
12 mobility and then counted by the CPC.

13 The GRIMM1108 and the SMPS overlap in the size range from 0.3 μm (lower size end of
14 the GRIMM1108) to 0.661 μm (upper size end of the DMA) resulting in a 22 bin overlap
15 region spanning $0.311 < D_p < 0.661 \mu m$ for DMA and a 3 bin overlap region spanning $0.3 <$
16 $D_p < 0.6 \mu m$ for the GRIMM1108. Therefore, it is possible to obtain a single plot for
17 number distributions from 0.015 to 20 μm by joining the data of both instruments under
18 some assumptions. The diameter of a particle can be determined by measuring different
19 physical properties such as light scattering or electrical mobility. SMPS classifies particles
20 according to their electrical mobility. Particles of equal Stokes diameter D_p that carry the
21 same electrical charge will have the same electrical mobility. Hence, for spherical particles,
22 the electrical mobility diameter would equal D_p . D_p , which is independent of density, is also
23 used in size distributions based on light scattering. For spherical particles, the diameter
24 given by optical particle counters will equal D_p if light absorption is negligible and the
25 refractive index is constant for the GRIMM1108 distribution. Mass concentrations
26 ($dM/d\log(D_p)$) were calculated assuming that aerosol particles were spheres with a diameter
27 equal to the center diameter of each bin measured by the instruments.

28 Meteorological information in Madrid was obtained from a permanent tower installed at
29 CIEMAT with the following parameters and heights: wind direction and speed at 52 m agl,
30 precipitation and solar radiation at 31 m agl, temperature and humidity at 4m agl and
31 pressure at ground level. Data were recorded every 10 min.

1 Air mass back trajectories were calculated using two models: the Hybrid Single-Particle
2 Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) dispersion model (Draxler and Rolph, 2010),
3 and the FLEXTRA model (Stohl et al, 1995) installed in AEMET driven by the
4 meteorological analyzed fields from the HIRLAM/AEMET NWP operational suite.

5

63. Results and discussion

73.1. Remote sensing and model results

8 The eruption of the Eyjafjallajökull volcano, which started on March 20, went through
9 several explosive phases followed by lava production before the final degassing phase,
10 about two months later. In these explosive phases aerosol release to the atmosphere was
11 highly enhanced, representing the greatest risk to air traffic. The volcanic event that started
12 on 14 April affected mainly the British Isles and Central Europe. A new round of explosive
13 ash eruptions occurred in the first week of May. The HIRLAM/AEMET meteorological
14 fields analysis at 500 hPa depicts a strong ridge over the West of Iceland located between
15 two depressions, one of them over Newfoundland whereas the other one over the Balearic
16 Islands. This situation favored the arrival the volcanic plume at the Iberian Peninsula. The
17 plume crossed over the Iberian Peninsula from West to East between 7 and 9 May, and
18 several ash layers could be detected over Madrid by LIDAR. Measurements in the time
19 period from 4 to 14 May were analyzed.

20 (Approximate location of Figure 2)

21 Figure 2 shows the first signs of arrival of the volcanic ashes over Madrid, observed on 6
22 May at 00:00 UTC by means of the LIDAR system in a double layer located between 4.5
23 and 5.4 Km asl (bottom left panel) The bottom right panel shows color-coded plots of the
24 range-corrected LIDAR signals averaged to obtain the extinction coefficient profile, where
25 the vertical axis is the same as in the previous panel and the horizontal axis represents time
26 (bottom left panel). The provenance of these layers is confirmed by the backtrajectories
27 provided by Hysplit model ending over Madrid at 2500 m (red), 5000 m (blue) and 7500 m
28 (green) on 6 May 00:00 UTC plotted on Google Earth (top left panel). On this panel, the
29 MODIS image from the near real-time “rapidfire” website service obtained on 2 May,
30 12:20 UTC is also plotted on Google Earth. This image was selected as the one out of the
31 images available closest in time to the situation of the volcano when the ashes that reached

1 Madrid on the 6 May at 00:00 UTC were emitted, which is roughly on 3 May at 00:00 UTC
2 according to the backtrajectories analysis. The image shows the ash from the plume
3 blowing toward the east-southeast, passing over a charcoal-colored ash field on the land
4 surface. Figure 2 also shows the 3-km height plume dispersion provided by the EURAD
5 model (top middle panel), which indicates that the ash plume reached only the north-west
6 of the Iberian Peninsula, while faint traces of it were being detected over Madrid.
7 As mentioned in the introduction, one of the most critical parameters for aviation is aerosol
8 mass concentration, so that there was a demand for timely mass loading estimates during
9 the volcanic event in order to determine the damaging potential of the ash plume on jet
10 engines. LIDAR systems were the only remote sensing measurements from which
11 vertically resolved mass concentration could be estimated, although large uncertainties
12 remain in the conversion from extinction coefficient to mass concentration profiles. In this
13 work the extinction coefficient profiles were converted into mass concentration profiles
14 using a so-called specific extinction coefficient or cross section value of $0.64 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ at 550
15 nm, provided by the OPAC (Optical Properties of Aerosol and Clouds) software (Hess et
16 al., 1998), assuming that the refractive index of volcanic ash is close to that of mineral dust
17 and that the refractive index of sulfate droplets is close to that of water soluble aerosols.
18 The bottom left panel of figure 2 shows the extinction coefficient profile provided by the
19 LIDAR system, with a mixing layer up to 2.5 Km, and a double-sided ash layer between
20 4.5 and 5.4 Km, with a maximum value of $1.83 \times 10^{-5} (\pm 0.32) \text{ m}^{-1}$ (bottom x-axes). This
21 value converts into a mass concentration value of $28.6 (\pm 5) \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (top x-axes), well below
22 the potential hazardous values of 2 mg m^{-3} considered by aircraft and engine manufacturers.
23 The error assigned to the mass concentration value corresponds to the experimental error
24 estimated for the extinction coefficient, but due to the aforementioned uncertainties
25 regarding the specific extinction coefficient, this error can be significantly larger. However,
26 no further estimates can be made for it with the data available.

27 (Approximate location of Figure 3)

28 Figure 3 shows the moment at which the volcanic ash layers reached the highest optical
29 depth observed during the whole event. This occurred on 7 May, at 01:00 UTC in several
30 layers located between 4 and 6.5 Km asl. The extinction coefficient peak reached 4.93×10^{-5}
31 $(\pm 0.63) \text{ m}^{-1}$, corresponding to a maximum detected value for volcanic layers of $77 (\pm 9.6)$

1 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. Therefore, the maximum mass concentration detected is well below the critical
2 limits considered by the U.S. military (50 mg m^{-3}), and even below the reduced values
3 suggested by aircraft and engine manufacturers during the event (2 mg m^{-3}). The
4 provenance of those layers is again confirmed by the backtrajectories provided by the
5 Hysplit model ending over Madrid at 2500 m (red), 5000 m (blue) and 7500 m (green) on 7
6 May 01:00 UTC plotted on Google Earth (top left panel). The MODIS image, obtained on 4
7 May, 14:00 UTC, shows the ash from the volcano extending 300 to 400 km southeast. The
8 ash plume on 4 May reached a height of 5.8 to 6.0 km above sea level, estimated from the
9 Icelandic Coast Guard flight at 10:40 and 15:30 GMT and had spread 65 to 80 km east-
10 southeast of the volcano. The south-blowing ash resulted in flights being cancelled in
11 Ireland and Scotland on 5 May. It reached Madrid two days later. The 3-km height plume
12 dispersion provided by EURAD model (top middle panel) correctly predicts ash layers over
13 Madrid. Several layers were detected during the day, slowly subsiding towards the mixing
14 layer, but low clouds interfered the measurements at some times. During 7 and 8 May,
15 volcanogenic particles were detected at ground level in Madrid and at several
16 EMEP/GAW/CAMP stations, as will be explained further below.

17 (Approximate location of Figure 4)

18 Figure 4 depicts the situation 26 hours after the maximum ash layers were detected. In this
19 case, a mixing layer is observed up to 2.8 km and residual ash layers are detected between 4
20 and 6.9 km, with extinction coefficient values below $0.4 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^{-1}$. The air masses seem to
21 come from North of the British Isles but not directly from Iceland, according to the
22 backtrajectories provided by Hysplit model ending over Madrid on 8 May 03:00 UTC (Top
23 left panel). The MODIS image, obtained on 6 May, 11:55 UTC, shows a thick plume of ash
24 blowing east and then south from the volcano. Clouds bracket the edges of the scene, but
25 the dark blue waters of the Atlantic Ocean show in the middle, and above them, a rippling,
26 brownish-yellow river of ash. The 3-km height plume dispersion provided by EURAD
27 model (Top middle panel) shows how the plume was moving east after passing over
28 Madrid. No further measurements were possible after this, due to low clouds and rain
29 caused by a clean air mass from the Atlantic Ocean that washed the atmosphere from the
30 West. The clean atmosphere observed over Madrid 7 hours before volcanogenic aerosols

1were detected at the CIEMAT site, highlights the inherent difficulty of characterizing the
2plume from a single LIDAR station.

3(Approximate location of Figure 5)

4Figure 5 shows another event detected five days later. In this case, a mixing layer with
5clouds on top is observed up to 3 km and a double-sided ash layer is detected between 4.5
6and 5.5 km, with extinction coefficient values around $1.25 \times 10^{-5} (\pm 0.53) \text{ m}^{-1}$, corresponding
7to a mass concentration value of $19.5 (\pm 8.3) \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. Although in this case backtrajectories
8indicate Icelandic provenance, the 3-km height plume dispersion provided by EURAD
9model (Top middle panel) and the MODIS image, obtained on 12 May, 14:45 UTC over
10the Atlantic, suggest contribution from an Atlantic airmass polluted with volcanic aerosols
11from previous days. A minor event was detected at ground-level on the evening of 13 May,
12as it will be explained below.

133.2. Ground based measurements

14Sulfur dioxide is a major component of volcanic clouds and subsequently sulfuric acid may
15be formed by photochemical conversion, thus giving rise to secondary sulfate formation.
16Accordingly, volcanic ash plumes are generally formed by gaseous pollutants, mainly SO_2 ,
17primary ash particles (micrometer size range) and also secondary smaller particles
18(nanometer size range). Thus, it is interesting to jointly investigate gases, fine and coarse
19aerosols to know the spatial distribution of the different kind of pollutants produced at the
20eruption.

21The passage of the volcanic ash plume over the Iberian Peninsula was detected at ground
22level in most EMEP/GAW/CAMP stations, mainly during three days, from 7 to 9 May
232010, although the first effects were recorded on 2 May at O Saviñao and 4 May on several
24stations. In this period, high pressure atmospheric circulation over the Atlantic favored
25subsidence. There was rainfall irregularly distributed through Spain, which in some cases
26could contribute to wet deposition of pollutants by precipitation scavenging and then reduce
27observed gaseous pollutants and particulate matter in ambient air. There was no rain at
28Doñana and Els Torms, whereas it rained heavily at Noia. The rainfall was accompanied by
29storms that persisted in the following days with variable intensity. The analysis of
30precipitation samples of these days, collected in 24-hours periods, shows enhanced values

1 of sulfate. In Noia and O Saviñao, the highest concentration of sulfates in precipitation
2 samples occurred on 6 May 2010.

3 The first sign of volcanic impact is a rise in SO₂ concentrations, which is not correlated
4 with a similar pattern of other anthropogenic pollutants such as nitrogen oxides and ozone.
5 A sulfur dioxide peak appeared at O Saviñao on 2 May and other noteworthy peaks were
6 detected on 4 May at this site, 13:30 UTC, Peñausende at 15:00 UTC, San Pablo at 15:30
7 UTC and Víznar, on 5 May at 00:00 UTC. Figure 6 shows the temporal evolution of SO₂ at
8 San Pablo de los Montes (ES01), Víznar (ES07), Zarra (ES12) and Els Torms (ES14),
9 between 4 and 14 May 2010. These are the stations where SO₂ maxima not connected with
10 high values of the other pollutant gases (not shown on the figure for clarity), can be seen
11 more clearly during this period. Ash plume effects appeared from West to East of Spain so
12 that the main values were recorded as follows: San Pablo on 7 May, at 17:00 UTC; Víznar
13 on 8 May at 11:00 UTC; Zarra, on 8 May at 16:00 UTC; and Els Torms on 9 May at 8:00
14 UTC. At other stations the origin of SO₂ peaks is disguised by the presence of high values
15 of NO_x; no influence is observed at the Cabo de Creus and Mahón stations. FLEXTRA air
16 mass backtrajectories calculated in AEMET show that the Cabo de Creus and Mahón
17 stations were out of the influence of the air mass coming from South Iceland. In addition,
18 the model proves that this air mass reached Els Torms later than the rest of the sites.
19 (Approximate location of Figure 6)

20 Figure 7 shows the PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} mass concentrations in the top panel, PM₁₀-sulphate,
21 PM₁₀-nitrate (24-h averages) concentrations (middle panel) and the S/N ratio (bottom panel)
22 from 4 to 14 May at the Zarra station. Another consequence of a volcanic eruption is the
23 increased mass concentration of particles in coincidence with high levels of sulfate ion
24 concentration in them. Although the PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} mass concentrations recorded by the
25 EMEP/GAW/CAMP Network during this period were not at unusually high values, at most
26 of the sites relative maxima are observed and sulfate content in PM₁₀ presents very high
27 values together with very low values of nitrates. Therefore, the S/N ratio (where S is sulfur
28 as sulfate and N is nitrogen as nitrate) obtained in daily PM₁₀ filters is high at almost all of
29 the stations of the network. This ratio allows identifying these peaks as volcanogenic
30 aerosols. Filter probes were not taken on 7 May at O Saviñao and on 8 May at Noia. At O
31 Saviñao the S/N ratio stands out on 6 May, the same date of the maximum sulfate in

1precipitation. The situation was clearer at Barcarrota, Peñausende, San Pablo, Víznar,
2Zarra, and Els Torms. At the first sites, maxima concentrations were recorded on 8 May,
3while at Els Torms station the maximum happened on 9 May. The behavior is the same as
4that previously described for sulfur dioxide, and agrees with FLEXTRA backtrajectories
5model results. The Campisábalos station is the only one in which chemical composition of
624-hours PM_{2.5} filters was obtained, on a weekly basis. The sulfate level on 8 May is an
7annual maximum and coincides with a minimum in nitrates. This ratio is similar for PM₁₀
8filters since high levels of sulfates coincide with very low values of nitrates in this period.
9(Approximate location of Figure 7)

10In figure 8, the temporal evolution of the particle mass concentration and particulate sulfate
11and nitrate concentration at the CIEMAT site between 4 and 14 May is depicted together
12with relative humidity (RH) and rain, meteorological parameters with a clear influence on
13particle concentration.

14(Approximate location of figure 8)

15The first remarkable sulfate peak appears on 4 May at 13:00 UTC, in coincidence with the
16sulfur dioxide peaks observed at the O Saviñao, Peñausende and San Pablo
17EMEP/GAW/CAMP stations. PM₁ sulfate concentration increases sharply during 4 hours,
18while RH remains at low values. On the evening of 4 May the concentration descends.
19Nevertheless, the previous level is not recovered until 5 May in the afternoon. The
20percentage of sulfate in PM₁ increases by 20% during this event.

21During the morning of 7 May a significant PM₁₀ peak simultaneously with an increase in
22particulate nitrate levels and no remarkable fine sulfate increases were observed. This
23pollution event, not related with the arrival of volcanic ash, can be compared with the sharp
24increase in PM₁ sulfate levels that took place on 8 May at 11:00 UTC, and five hours later
25sulfate reached a maximum of 3 μg m⁻³. This value is more than three times higher than the
26average level of 2010 (0.72 μg m⁻³) and 3 times higher than the 80th percentile. The sulfate
27concentration in PM₁ increased 20% during the rise of the peak. RH at this time remained
28below 65% at all times, so this increase cannot be attributed to hygroscopic sulfate
29formation. As mentioned previously, sulfate peaks were observed at the San Pablo, Víznar
30and Zarra stations on this day. At the CIEMAT site, particulate sulfate concentrations
31remained steady until the early hours of 9 May, when the aerosol was removed by rain

1scavenging. This increase is also seen in PM_1 concentration, reflecting both the sulfate
2event and also the later increase in nitrate levels. Results suggest that the hygroscopic
3nitrate formation was due to the high RH levels starting after the sulfate concentration
4reached its maximum. Hygroscopic nitrate formation has already been detected at this site
5in previous studies (Gomez-Moreno et al, 2007). The aerosol coarse fraction was not
6affected during this event.

7From 7 to 14 May, PM_1 contribution remained a major fraction of PM_{10} . During this period
8model results show prevailing wind flows from northern Europe. On the evening of 13 May
9a second noticeable sulfate event took place. Shortly after a rain event the concentration
10tripled its value in less than three hours, falling again at midnight. The increase in the
11percentage of sulfate in PM_1 was similar to the events of 4-5 and 7-9 May, but in this case
12RH values remained over 70%. No nitrate production was detected and coarse particulate
13matter did not suffer any significant change. The shorter time period and smaller values
14attained by this event might explain why it was not detected at the EMEP/GAW/CAMP
15network, where samples are averaged in 24-h periods.

16Figures 9 and 10 depict mass distributions, obtained from both SMPS and OPC
17instruments, exhibiting a bimodal size distribution in the range 0.1 – 20 μm . SMPS gives
18number distribution from 0.015 to 0.661 μm , while OPC gives number distribution from
190.3 to 20 μm . Mass concentrations ($dM/d\log(D_p)$) were calculated under the assumptions
20mentioned in the instrumentation section. A constant aerosol density of 1.5 $g\ m^{-3}$ was
21considered for all size fractions. This is an average value for urban aerosols found in
22different works (Pitz et al, 2003; Geller et al, 2006). The overlap region shows some
23discrepancies due to the different techniques employed. However, the results are consistent.
24Lognormal distributions were fitted to the fine mode and coarse mode separately. Values
25for geometric diameter (d_g) and geometric standard deviation (σ_g) of the distributions, given
26by the fitting algorithm, are shown in Table II. The mode (D_p) was obtained from these
27parameters using the Hatch-Choate equations (Hinds, 1982), and is also shown in Table II.

28

1(Approximate location of Table II)

2(Approximate location of Figure 9)

3Figure 9 shows the distributions measured on 7 May at 12:00 (squares), on 8 May at 0:00
4(circles) and on 8 May at 18:00 (triangles). The first situation occurred during the local
5pollution event mentioned before, with a large increase in PM_{10} and nitrate concentration
6values but not affecting PM_1 levels. The nitrate concentration increase reveals the
7anthropogenic origin of pollutants. The second case reflects a clean atmosphere, with low
8values of all parameters measured. In both cases the fine mode was located at $0.25 \mu m$, as
9can be seen in table II. However, when the volcanic event was detected at ground level the
10mode is displaced to $0.39 \mu m$. The coarse distribution was similar under the clean and
11volcanic cases, being significantly higher in magnitude and size mode for the local event.
12Between 7 and 9 May an increase in the fine mode caused by the arrival of the
13volcanogenic aerosol can be clearly seen. Nevertheless, aerosol size at 18:00 might already
14reflect some secondary production due to hygroscopicity since rising RH values reached
1575% around that time. Previous works have stated hygroscopic secondary aerosol
16production at RH levels over 70% (Chen et al, 2003).

17Figure 10 shows the distributions calculated for the second sulfate event. On 13 May at
186:00 (black squares) a local PM_1 event takes place. Again, the increase in nitrate indicates
19an anthropogenic event. On 13 May at 18:00, another volcanogenic event was identified by
20the sulfate peak without nitrate concentration increased. Finally, on 14 May at 0:00, the
21event has nearly ceased and values reflect a clean atmosphere. In the first and last cases the
22fine mode of the distribution is under $0.25 \mu m$, while during the sulfate event it grows to
23over $0.30 \mu m$. The coarse fraction presents a small contribution to the aerosol in all three
24cases. On 13 and 14 May, an increase in the fine mode is seen again during the sulfate
25event. RH is over 80% in the three moments studied, before, during and after the event, so
26that by itself it cannot explain the increase in aerosol size.

27 (Approximate location of Figure 10)

28Size distributions of ions present in aerosols sampled at ground level near volcanoes have
29been obtained by other researchers, finding a major sulfate mode of $0.5 \mu m$ (Mather et al,
302003) and $0.1-0.25 \mu m$ (Ilyinskaya et al, 2010). In both cases the importance of background
31meteorological conditions for particle evolution was stated, observing an increase in sulfate

1aerosol size in high humidity conditions for the former. Our results are consistent with
2these, showing a mode D_p of $0.39 \mu\text{m}$ when volcanogenic sulfate aerosol impacts on the
3ground. This value is distinguishable from the local accumulation mode, typically with a D_p
4on the order of $0.25 \mu\text{m}$. No impact is seen on the coarse aerosol mode, thus suggesting the
5removal of the larger ash particles before the arrival of the plume at the sampling point.

6

74. Conclusions

8We present results on the aerosol characteristics of the volcanic ash emitted by the
9Icelandic volcano Eyjafjallajökull during May 2010 and detected at several sites of the
10Iberian Peninsula. Ground-based on-site observations from the Spanish
11EMEP/GAW/CAMP network were affected by the volcanic ash plume from the eruption of
12the Eyjafjallajökull volcano. The concentrations of sulfur dioxide and sulfate in PM_{10} , $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
13and precipitation reached relative maxima independently of high values of other pollutants
14such as nitrogen oxides and ozone. The first effects appeared on 4 and 5 May from the
15northwest to the southeast of Spain, but they intensified between 7 and 9 May at the sites in
16the center and south of the Iberian Peninsula. In this period no influence was detected in the
17Eastern Spain stations, Cabo de Creus and Mahón. In the northwestern stations of Noia and
18O Saviñao the relative maximum of sulfate in precipitation occurred on 6 May, as did PM_{10}
19at O Saviñao, where there was no PM_{10} filter on 7 May. In the rest of the period, sulfate
20values in PM_{10} are not remarkable, either because of the removal of pollutants by wet
21deposition or because of a lower influence of the plume in this zone. At the CIEMAT site
22(Madrid), an estimation of the vertical profiles of mass concentration was calculated from
23the extinction coefficient profiles, obtaining maximum values ($77 (\pm 9.6) \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) well below
24the threshold established for safe aircraft operation. In this site the size distribution and
25chemical composition were continuously monitored during the event, detecting a large
26increase in the aerosol fine mode in coincidence with an increase in sulfate concentration,
27while the coarse mode remained almost unaltered. Mass distributions at ground level
28indicate particles mainly in the $0.1\text{-}0.7 \mu\text{m}$ size range. These results contrast with the usual
29assumption of volcanic aerosol mainly in the range of several μm up to mm. A possible
30explanation for this can be related to the long distance transport suffered by the plume and
31the secondary formation of particulate sulfate from gaseous sulfur dioxide. The information

1on volcanic aerosol characteristics after long-range transport provided by this study might
2be relevant for establishing a threshold for safe aircraft operation when volcanic ash is
3present.

4

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17agreement with AEMET, is the responsible for the chemical analysis of the PM and
18precipitation samples taken daily at the EMEP Spanish stations. M.A. Revuelta
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20the FPI predoctoral grant BES-2008-007079.

21

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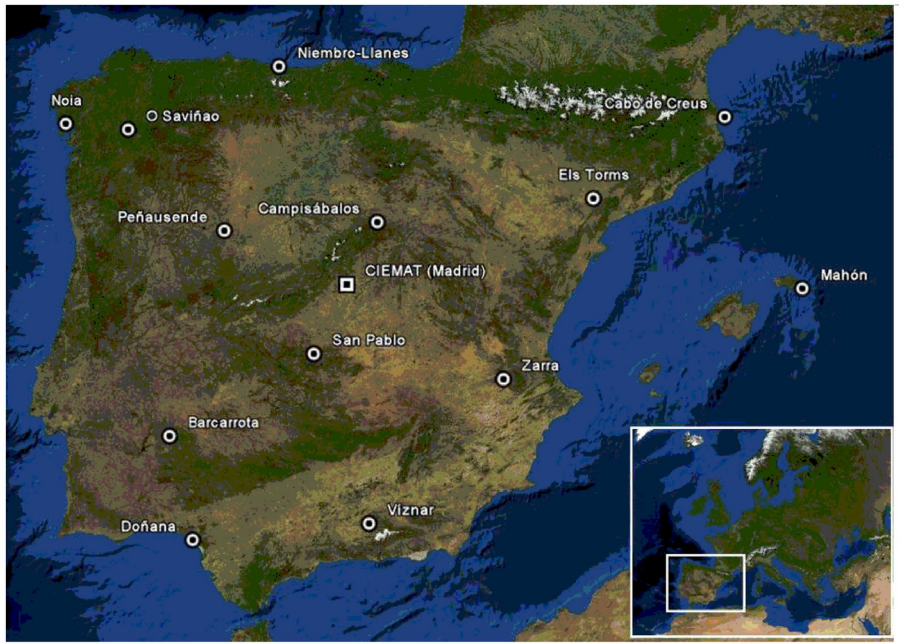
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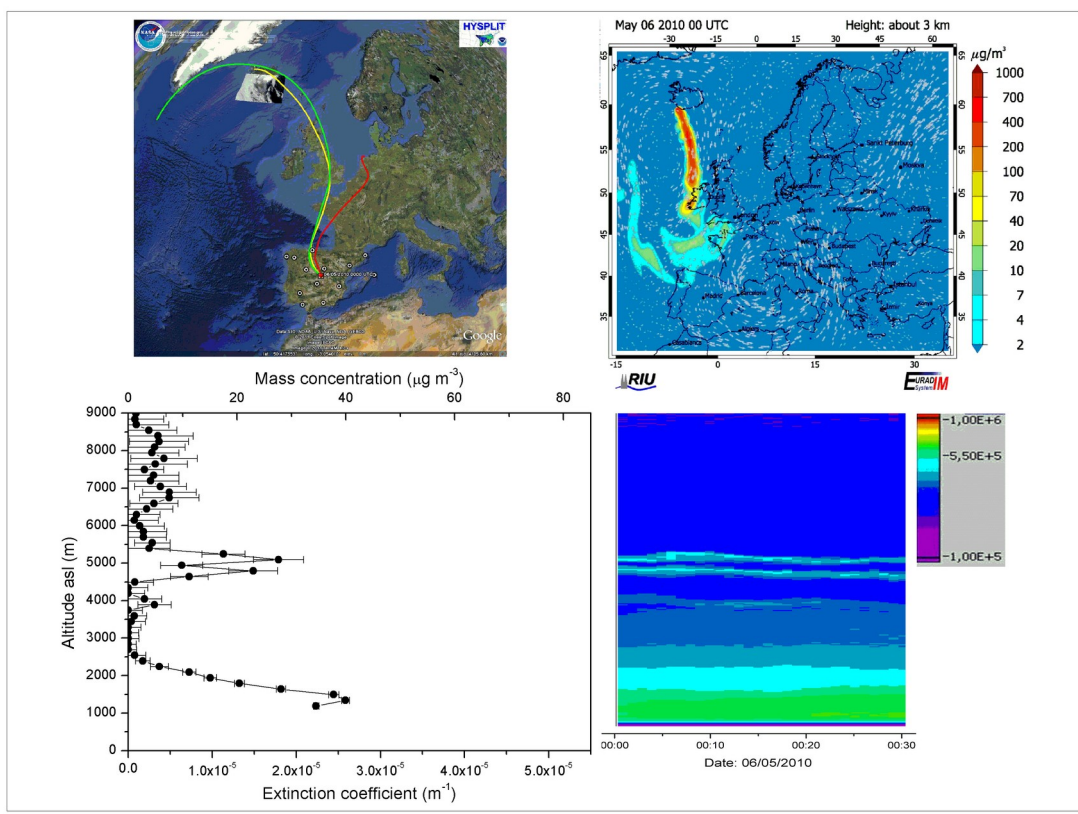
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23**Figures**

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15 **Figure 1.** Geographical situation of the measurements sites, with the Spanish
 16 EMEP/GAW/CAMP stations represented by circles and the CIEMAT site (40.45°N,
 17 3.73°W, 669 m asl) by a square. The coordinates of the EMEP/GAW/CAMP stations are
 18 shown in Table I.

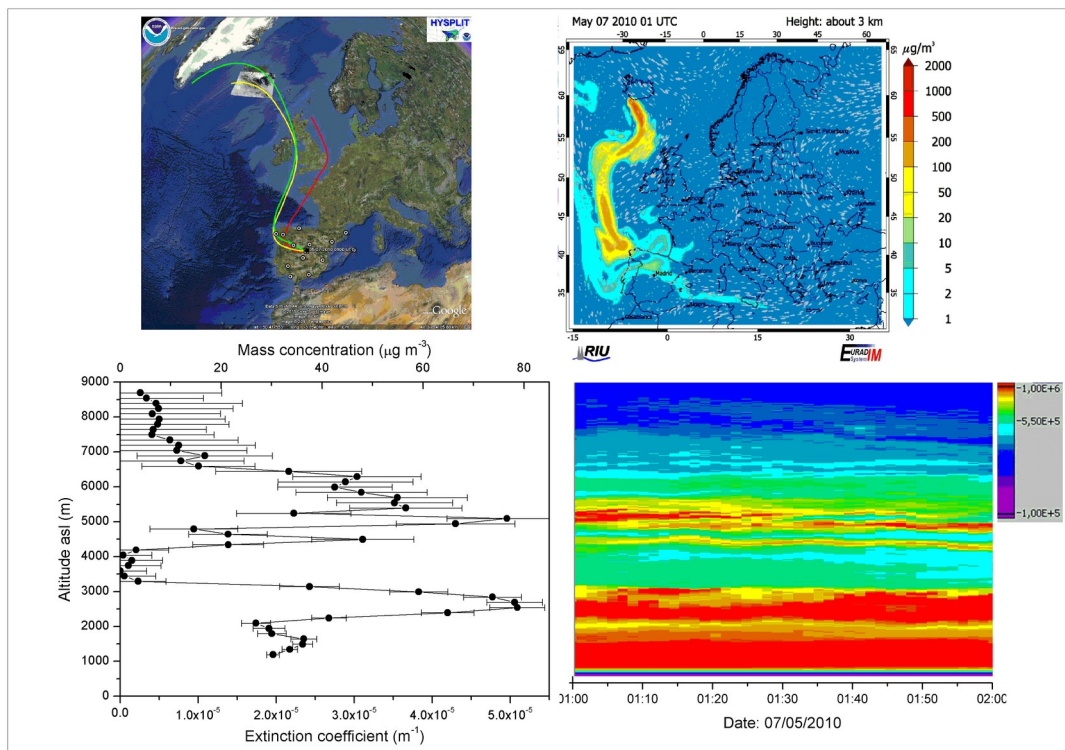


1

1Figure 2

2Characterization of the atmospheric situation over Madrid on 06/05/2010 00:00 UTC by
3means of 72-h backward trajectories provided by Hysplit model ending over Madrid at
42500 m (red), 5000 m (yellow) and 7500 m (green), (top left), 3-km height plume
5dispersion provided by EURAD model (top middle), extinction coefficient vertical profile
6provided by the Raman LIDAR (bottom left) and the quicklook produced as color-coded
7plots of the range-corrected LIDAR signals vs. time and height (bottom right).

8

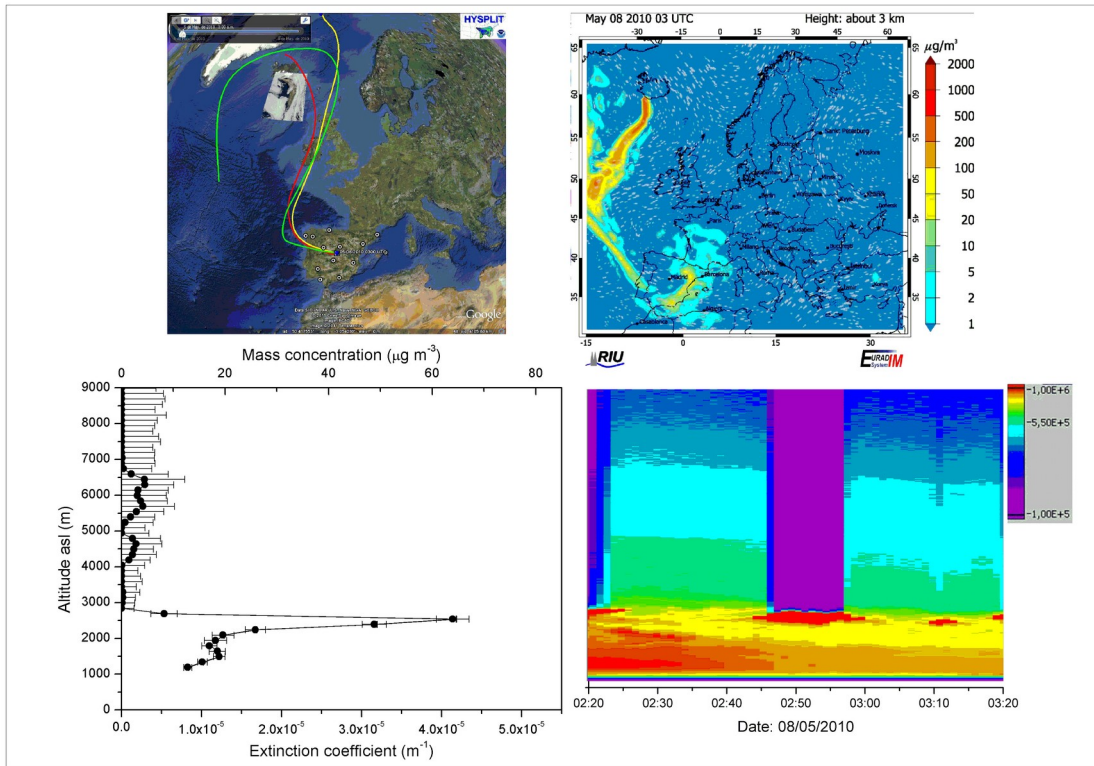


9Figure 3

10Same as figure 2, for 07/05/2010 01:00 UTC.

11

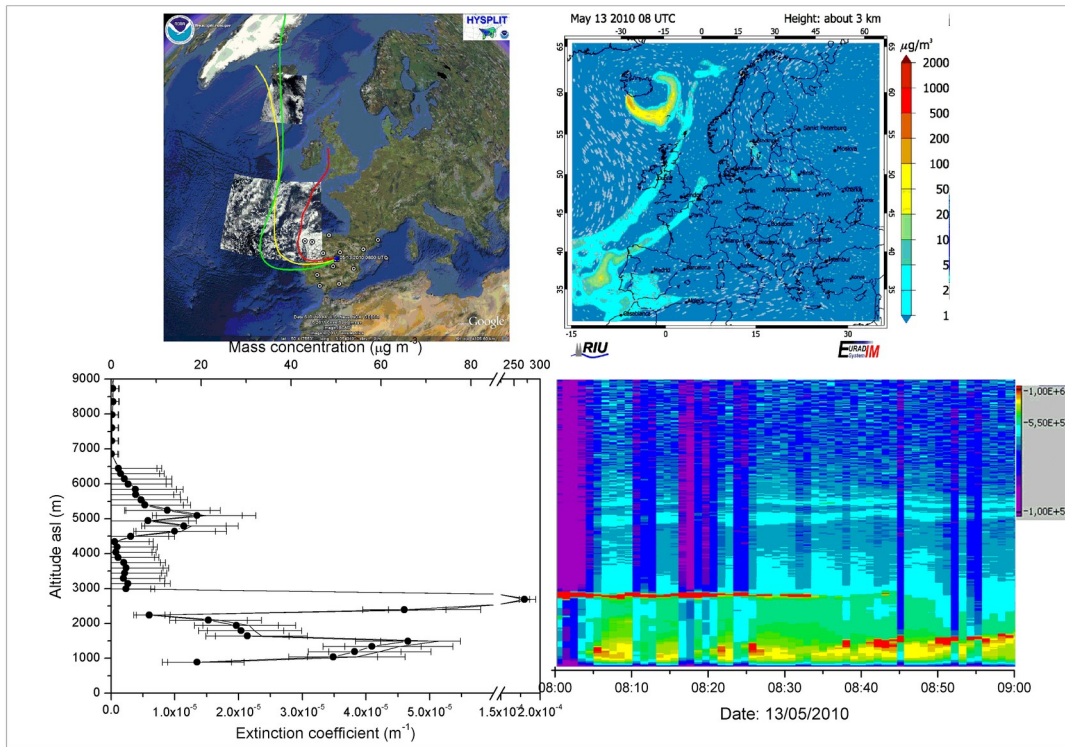
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2Figure 4

3Same as figure 2, for 08/05/2010 02:00 UTC.

4



1Figure 5

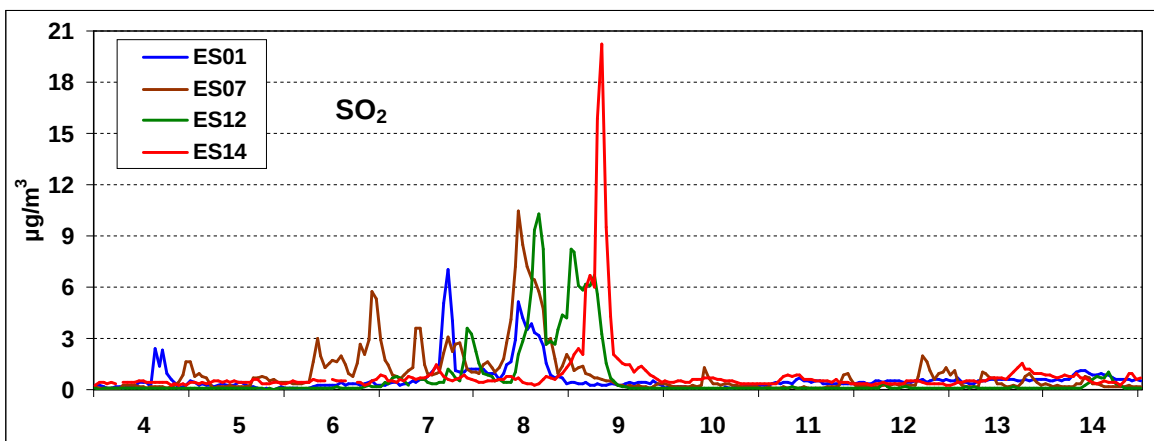
2Same as figure 2, for 13/05/2010 08:00 UTC.

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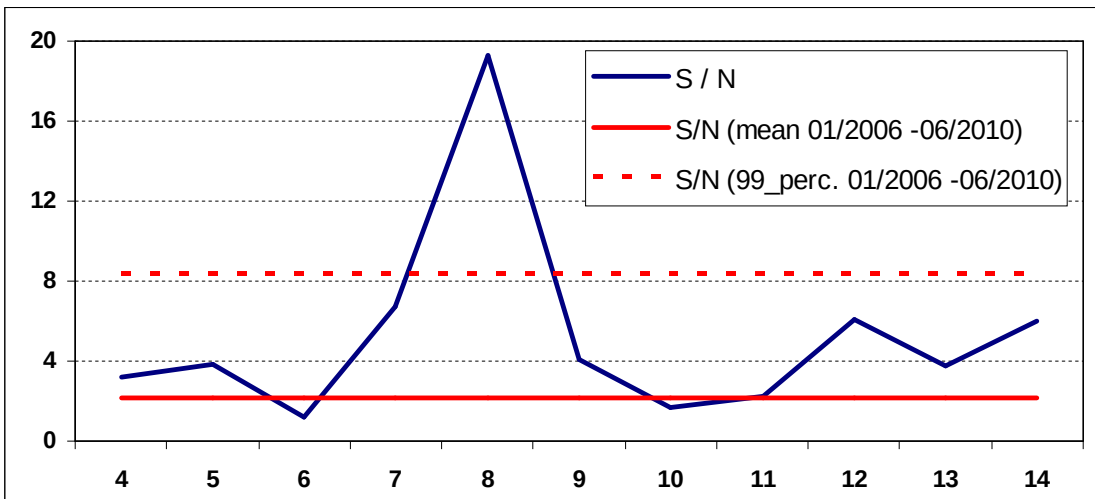
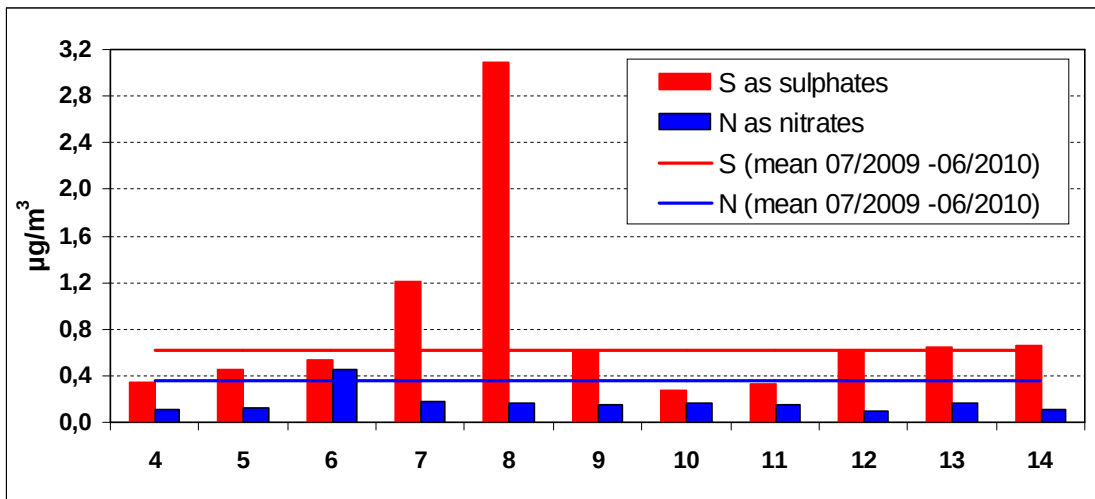
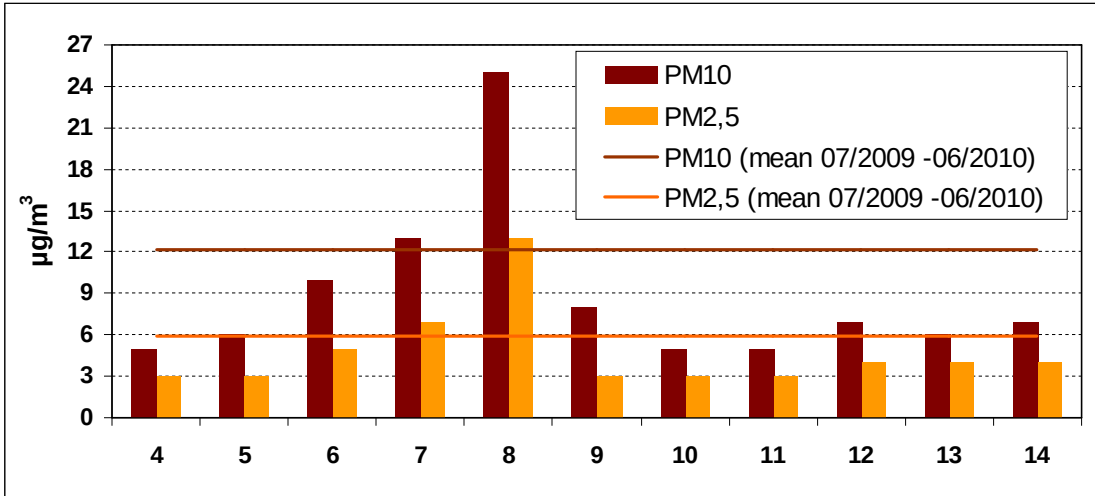
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1Figure 6

2SO₂ concentration at San Pablo de los Montes (ES01), Víznar (ES07), Zarra(ES12) and Els
3Torns (ES14) between 4 and 14 May 2010.

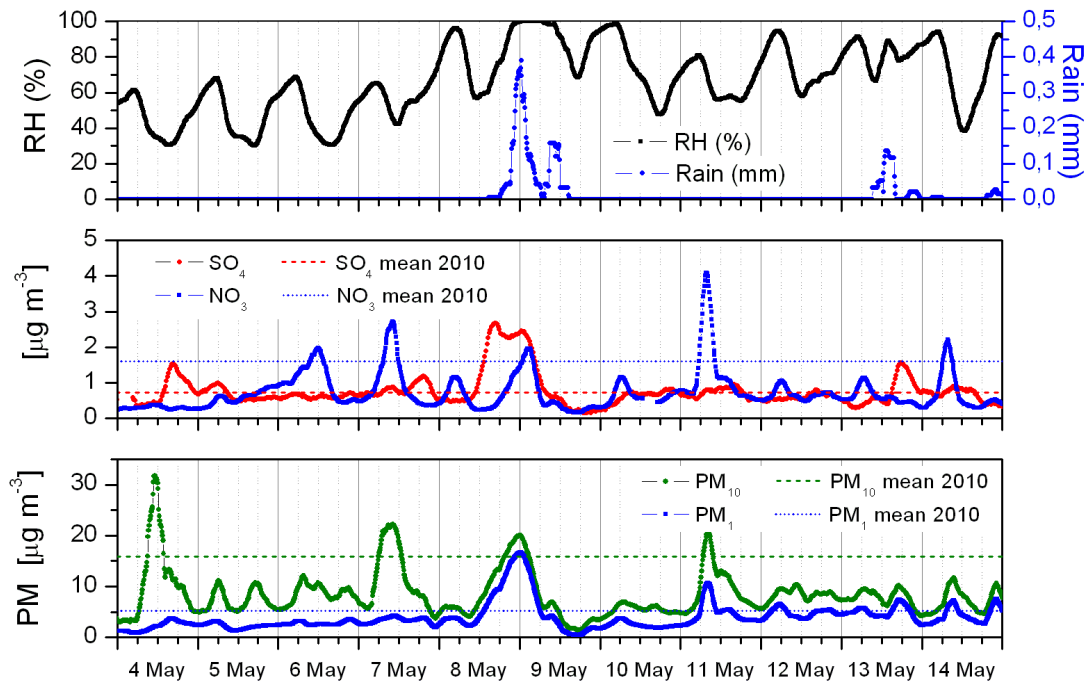
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2Figure 7

1(Top) PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations at Zarra. The mean values are calculated from July 22009 to June 2010. (Middle) Sulfur as sulfates and nitrogen as nitrates concentrations in $3PM_{10}$ at Zarra. The mean values are calculated from July 2009 to June 2010. (Bottom) S/N ratio (where S is sulfur as sulfate and N is nitrogen as nitrate) obtained in PM_{10} at Zarra. The mean values are calculated from January 2006 to June 2010.

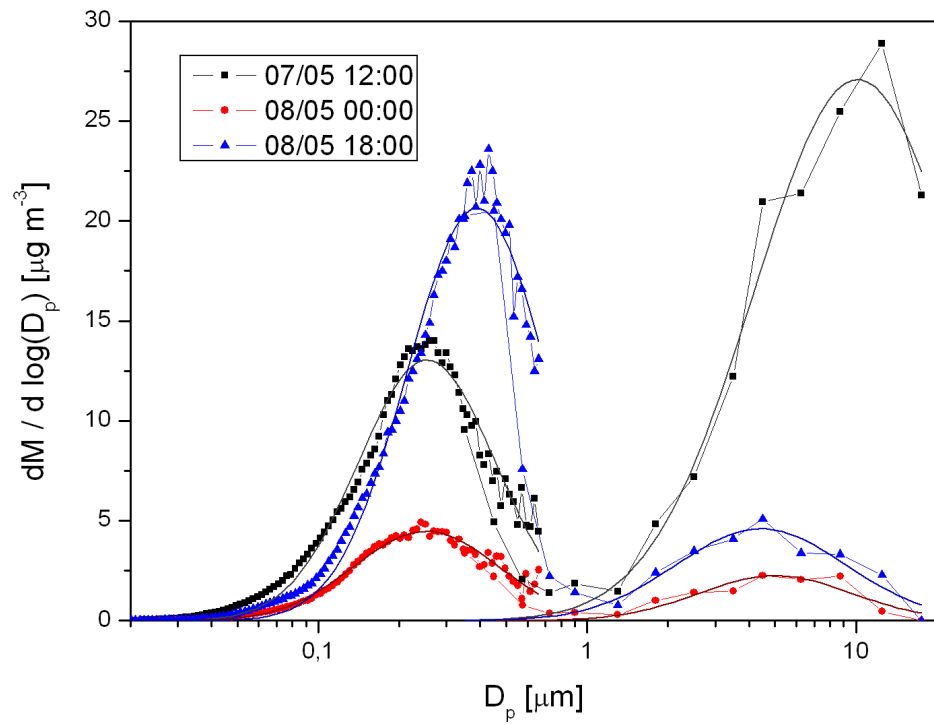
6



7**Figure 8**

8Temporal evolution of relative humidity and rain (top panel), PM_1 particulate sulfate and
 9 $PM_{2.5}$ nitrate concentration (central panel) and particle concentration (bottom panel) from 4
 10to 14 May at CIEMAT.

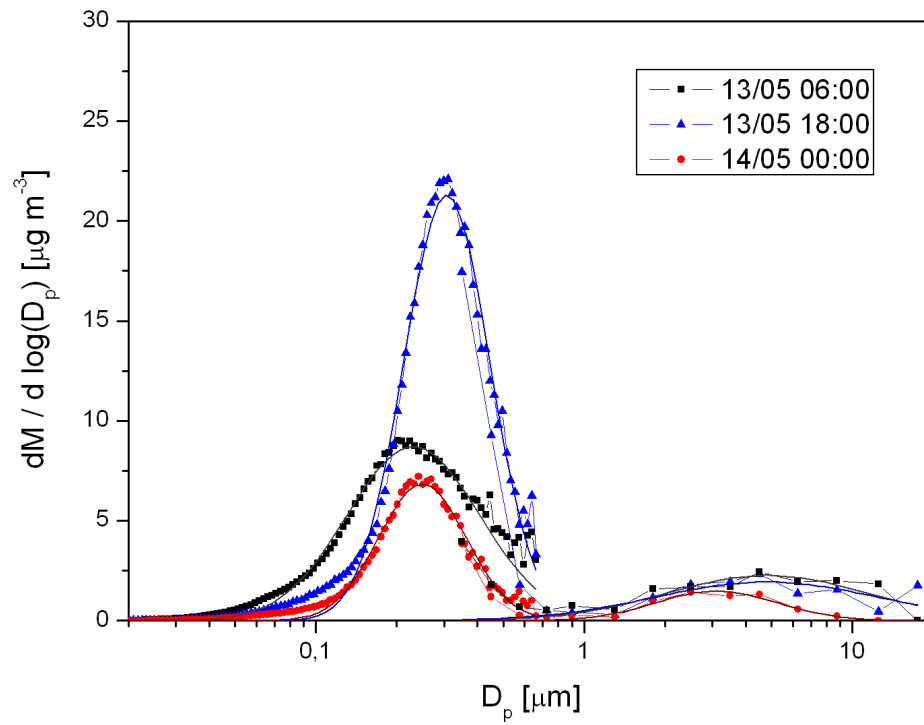
11



1Figure 9

23h-averaged mass distributions for the event of 7-9 May.

3



1Figure 10

23h-averaged mass distributions for the event of the 13-14 May.

3

4**Tables**

5

<i>Code</i>	<i>Station name and coordinates</i>	<i>SO₂</i>	<i>PM₁₀</i>	<i>PM_{2.5}</i>	<i>Precipitation</i>
ES01	San Pablo de los Montes (Toledo). 39,55° N, 4,35° W, 917 m asl.	THERMO 43CTL	ANDERSEN 236091	MCV- CAV	EIGENBRODT D 21225
ES05	Noia (A Coruña). 42,72° N, 8,92° W, 685 m asl.	THERMO 43CTL	TISCH T30 2X	***** *	EIGENBRODT NSA 181/S
ES06	Mahón (Menorca). 39,88° N, 4,32° E, 78 m asl.	THERMO 43CTL	TISCH TE-557	***** *	EIGENBRODT NSA 181/S
ES07	Víznar (Granada) 37,24° N, 3,53° W, 1.230 m asl.	THERMO 43BS	MCV	MCV	ERNI ARS 721
ES08	Niembro-Llanes (Asturias). 43,44° N, 4,85° W, 134 m asl.	THERMO 43BS	MCV	MCV	MCV CPH 004
ES09	Campisábalos (Guadalajara). 41,27° N, 3,14° W, 1.360 m asl.	THERMO 43BS	ANDERSEN GUV15H	DIGITEL DAH 80 A	MCV CPH 004
ES10	Cabo de Creus (Girona). 42,32° N, 3,31° E, 23 m asl.	THERMO 43BS	MCV	MCV	*****
ES11	Barcarrota (Badajoz). 38,47° N, 6,92° W, 393 m asl.	THERMO 43BS	MCV	MCV	MCV CLA 001
ES12	Zarra (Valencia). 39,08° N, 1,10° W, 885 m asl.	THERMO 43BS	MCV	MCV	MCV CPH 004
ES13	Peñausende (Zamora). 41,23° N, 5,89° W, 985 m asl.	THERMO 43BS	MCV	MCV	MCV CPH 001
ES14	Els Torms (Lleida). 41,39° N, 0,73° E, 470 m asl.	THERMO 43BS	MCV	MCV	MCV CPH 004
ES16	O Saviñao (Lugo). 42,63° N, 7,70° W, 506 m asl.	THERMO 43BS	MCV	MCV	ERNI ARS 721
ES17	Doñana (Huelva). 37,05° N, 6,56° W, 5 m asl.	THERMO 43CTL	ANDERSEN 2360	*****	EIGENBRODT NSA 181/S

1Table I

2Coordinates of the EMEP/GAW/CAMP stations and pollutant measurement technique.

3

4

Mode	Date	Time	d_g (μm)	σ_g (μm)	D_p (μm)
Fine	07/05/2010	12:00	0.359±0.005	1.802±0.015	0.254±0.004
	08/05/2010	00:00	0.370±0.006	1.859±0.018	0.252±0.005
	08/05/2010	18:00	0.556±0.011	1.816±0.019	0.390±0.009
	13/05/2010	06:00	0.358±0.005	1.871±0.017	0.242±0.004
	13/05/2010	18:00	0.353±0.002	1.450±0.007	0.307±0.002
	14/05/2010	00:00	0.287±0.002	1.458±0.007	0.249±0.002
Coarse	07/05/2010	12:00	22.4±4.6	2.44±0.19	10.1±2.5
	08/05/2010	00:00	7.8±1.2	1.94±0.19	5.0±1.0
	08/05/2010	18:00	7.5±1.0	2.07±0.15	4.4±0.7
	13/05/2010	06:00	10.3±3.1	2.39±0.37	4.8±2.0
	13/05/2010	18:00	12.1±6.8	2.62±0.70	4.8±3.7
	14/05/2010	00:00	4.1±0.2	1.68±0.07	3.1±0.2

1Table II

2Values obtained for the fitting of lognormal distribution to the fine mode, measured by the
3SMPS instrument, and coarse mode, measured by the GRIMM OPC.