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34 Introduction

35 Pollen is one of the leading causes of allergic diseases worldwide (World Allergy
36 Organization, 2013), affecting an estimated 15-40 % of the European population (Rojo et
37 al., 2024). The prevalence of allergic rhinitis and other pollen-related conditions
38 continues to increase globally (Adams-Groom et al., 2022; Beggs et al., 2023; D'Amato et
39 al., 2007). The severity of allergic responses depends on several factors, including pollen
40 concentration, species-specific sensitization thresholds and individual susceptibility
41 (Rapiejko et al., 2007; Rodríguez-Rajo et al., 2010).

42 In recent decades, climate change has become a key factor influencing the dynamics of
43 pollen production and dispersion (Anderegg et al., 2021; Lake et al., 2017). Rising
44 temperatures and elevated atmospheric CO₂ levels contribute to increased pollen
45 production and cause earlier, longer and more intense pollen seasons for many allergenic
46 taxa. As a result, exposure periods are becoming more variable and less predictable, with
47 the timing of peak pollen concentrations often shifting from year to year, which
48 complicates forecasts of allergy risk (Pacheco et al., 2021; Paudel et al., 2021; Tomczyk
49 et al., 2025; Ziska et al., 2019).

50 Given these shifts, continuous and precise monitoring of airborne pollen has become
51 crucial for understanding exposure patterns and supporting public health management,
52 allergy forecasting and early-warning systems (Grewling et al., 2023; Maya-Manzano et
53 al., 2023). Pollen monitoring networks were initially established to support allergy
54 diagnosis and treatment but are now also used to study climate change impacts, track
55 invasive species and monitor airborne biological particles (Galan et al., 2014)

56 Most monitoring sites still rely on manual sampling methods, such as the Hirst-type
57 pollen trap (Hirst, 1952), which, despite being standardized and quality-controlled
58 through aerobiological networks (CEN/TS 16868, 2015), have several limitations. These
59 include delays of 1-9 days before data are available, low temporal resolution and
60 uncertainties related to airflow variations, counting methodology, adhesives and
61 observer differences (Adamov et al., 2024; Triviño Triviño et al., 2023). However, Hirst-
62 type traps remain the reference against which other pollen and fungal spore detection
63 methods are evaluated (Tummon et al., 2024). At the same time, the development and
64 validation of low-cost sensors are essential for expanding monitoring networks, as they
65 can help identify optimal locations for the subsequent deployment of automatic
66 samplers and improve overall spatial coverage. However, Hirst-type traps remain the
67 reference against which other pollen and fungal spore detection methods are evaluated
68 (Tummon et al., 2021).

69 In recent years, technological advances have enabled real-time detection of pollen and
70 other bioaerosols, using diverse approaches and instruments (Buters et al., 2024; Maya-
71 Manzano et al., 2023). These systems allow continuous monitoring, higher temporal
72 resolution and improved responsiveness for public health and research applications. The

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Sprawdź pisownię i gramatykę

73 rapid evolution of these technologies is transforming pollen monitoring, providing critical
74 real-time information for allergy management, climate studies and environmental
75 research (Sauvageat et al., 2020). One of the devices is the Swisens Poleno Jupiter, an
76 ~~advanced~~ instrument designed for real-time bioaerosol monitoring, capable of detecting
77 and identifying airborne particles such as pollen. It combines digital holography with
78 fluorescence measurements, providing detailed information on both the morphology and
79 composition of particles to support the development of automatic pollen detection
80 systems (Erb et al., 2025). The recent studies highlight that automatic pollen detection
81 even with ~~advanced~~ machine learning, has not achieved full accuracy or maturity and
82 further work is needed to generalize such models across more pollen species and
83 conditions. They emphasize that significant improvements in algorithms, training data and
84 validation strategies are still required before automated pollen identification can match
85 expert human analysis (Farooq et al., 2025; Gimenez et al., 2024; Shamrat et al., 2024).
86 ~~We have undertaken some of these gaps by the extending and refining the reference~~
87 ~~pollen database for the Swisens Poleno Jupiter automatic monitoring system. The~~
88 ~~reference pollen database provided with the Swisens Poleno System comprises 14~~
89 ~~taxonomic classes and an additional class for water droplets. It was originally developed~~
90 ~~based on data collected at the site where the detector was built in Switzerland, without~~
91 ~~adaptation to new locations. In this study, the reference database used in the Swisens~~
92 ~~Poleno Jupiter system was further developed through extension and refinement in order~~
93 ~~to improve detection performance.~~

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95 ~~For this purpose, during the pollination seasons, local pollen samples were collected and~~
96 ~~used to retrain the neural network model. The new data enabled the incorporation of~~
97 ~~fluorescence measurements, whereas the initial model was based solely on holography~~
98 ~~prior to retraining. We hypothesised that the retrained model would provide more~~
99 ~~accurate and timely predictions of airborne pollen concentrations compared to models~~
100 ~~trained exclusively on foreign datasets, as well as improved performance due to the~~
101 ~~addition of fluorescence data.~~
102 ~~For this purpose, during the pollination seasons, local~~
103 ~~pollen samples were collected and used to retrain the neural network model. We~~
104 ~~hypothesised that the retrained model would provide more accurate and timely~~
105 ~~predictions of airborne pollen concentrations compared to models trained solely on~~
106 ~~foreign datasets.~~
107 The study describes the measurement campaigns carried out as part of
108 the development of automatic pollen detection methods. To date, there are no studies
109 explicitly emphasizing the importance of retraining neural network models using locally
110 collected pollen datasets that reflect real environmental conditions. Secondly, we
111 analysed the similarities and differences in the diurnal concentration patterns of five
112 pollen taxa — *Alnus* (alder), *Betula* (birch), *Fraxinus* (ash), *Pinus* (pine) and *Quercus* (oak).
These tree ~~species-genera~~ are known for their allergenic potential, particularly *Alnus* and
Betula from the Betulaceae family (Biedermann et al., 2019). Owing to their high pollen

113 productivity, airborne concentrations of these taxa can fluctuate substantially
114 (Malkiewicz et al., 2016). We hypothesised that diurnal variability would show
115 comparable patterns among taxa with similar pollen release mechanisms, while differing
116 among ~~species-taxa~~ with distinct phenological or aerodynamic characteristics.
117 Additionally, the availability of high-resolution hourly data enabled us to assess the
118 influence of meteorological conditions on short-term variability in pollen concentrations.
119 We used standard meteorological parameters, including temperature, relative humidity,
120 precipitation, wind and sunshine duration, to obtain a comprehensive understanding of
121 the factors influencing pollen concentrations. However, in order to obtain a broad view of
122 the factors influencing pollen concentrations, we also included the planetary boundary
123 layer height among the analysed parameters. Although frequently mentioned in
124 aerobiology, its influence on hourly pollen variability derived from automatic
125 measurements has rarely been investigated compared to standard local meteorological
126 drivers, with the first attempt in this direction made by Chappuis et al. (2020).~~Although~~
127 ~~frequently mentioned in aerobiology, its influence on hourly pollen variability has rarely~~
128 ~~been investigated compared to standard local meteorological drivers.~~

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129 This study provides two years analysis of diurnal airborne pollen dynamics using data
130 from an automatic real-time monitoring system. It is the first to employ the Swisens
131 Poleno Jupiter detector for continuous, high-resolution assessment of diurnal variability
132 across multiple pollen seasons. In contrast to previous studies based on traditional Hirst-
133 type volumetric traps (Clot, 2001; Kapyla, 1984; Kasprzyk et al., 2001; Scevkova et al.,
134 2015), this approach allows for a more detailed and consistent evaluation of hourly
135 fluctuations and interannual trends in pollen concentrations.

136 **2. Data and methods**

137 2.1 Automatic detection

138 Location and time frame

139 The Swisens Poleno Jupiter detector is installed in Wroclaw (southwestern Poland), on
140 the roof of the Department of Climatology and Atmosphere Protection, University of
141 Wroclaw, at an elevation of 20 meters above ground level, with no other high-rise
142 structures in the immediate surroundings.~~The detector Swisens Poleno Jupiter is installed~~
143 ~~in Wroclaw (southwestern Poland), on the roof of the Department of Climatology and~~
144 ~~Atmosphere Protection, University of Wroclaw, at an elevation of 20 meters above ground~~
145 ~~level.~~The instrument is co-located with a standard Hirst-type volumetric trap, allowing
146 for direct comparison between automatic and manual monitoring methods. The
147 measurements cover the periods of 2024 and 2025, encompassing two complete pollen
148 seasons.

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Figure 1. Location of the Swisens Poleno Jupiter detector in Wrocław, Poland (red dot); the inset shows the location of Poland within Europe. The European map is based on Natural Earth data, while the city map uses data from OpenStreetMap contributors.

Description of the detector

The Swisens Poleno Jupiter (Swisens AG) is an ~~airborne-cytometer~~ ~~airflow cytometer~~ designed for real-time analysis of individual particles ranging from 0.5 to 300 μm , operating at a sampling flow rate of 40 liters per minute. As particles pass through the instrument, they are concentrated within the measurement chamber, where two orthogonally positioned lasers detect each particle, providing estimates of size and velocity based on light scattering. Once detected, the particle is captured by two greyscale holographic cameras positioned at 90° angles to each other and perpendicular to the airflow. The holographic images are reconstructed numerically to a resolution of 200×200 pixels, with each pixel representing $0.595 \times 0.595 \mu\text{m}$ in the physical domain. These images enable precise characterization of particle morphology. Immediately after imaging, laser-induced fluorescence (LIF) is measured. Particles are sequentially excited by three laser sources (280, 365 and 405 nm) and the resulting fluorescence is recorded across five spectral channels (333-381, 411-459, 465-501, 539-585 and 658-694 nm),

hereafter referred to by their central wavelengths: 357, 435, 483, 562 and 676 nm. Fluorescence emission is captured by silicon photomultipliers (SiPMs), producing up to 15 intensity measurements per particle. Due to saturation and single-photon excitation effects, the effective number of usable fluorescence channels is 13. The fluorescence data undergo additional preprocessing to enhance usability and robustness. In this work, analysis focuses on particle morphology (from holographic images) and chemical composition (from fluorescence intensities). The instrument also performs polarized-scattered-light measurements, which are not used here (Erb et al., 2024; Erb et al., 2025; Sauvageat et al., 2020).

Model architecture

The pollen classification model was based on a customised convolutional neural network architecture specifically optimised for processing greyscale images generated by the SwisensPoleno digital holography module. Unlike standard pre-trained architectures such as VGG16, which are primarily designed for RGB image recognition tasks, the applied network was adapted to the characteristics of monochromatic holographic data, reducing unnecessary model complexity and improving compatibility with the input format. The model processed two orthogonal pollen images separately before combining the extracted features through fully connected layers. Additionally, fluorescence measurements could be incorporated through a dedicated network branch, enabling classifications both with and without fluorescence input (Crouzy et al., 2025; Erb et al., 2025; Sauvageat et al., 2020).

Non-biological particles were removed prior to classification using a deterministic morphological filter described by Sauvageat et al. (2020). Water droplet training datasets were created from operational measurements collected during fog and rain events and manually cleaned to remove artefacts such as aggregates and debris. The model was trained entirely from scratch without the use of pre-trained neural networks. As emphasised by Erb et al. (2025), reliable pollen classification requires training datasets that reflect the full variability of each pollen taxon, including samples collected from different plants, locations, and meteorological conditions. This underlines the importance of the present study. The detailed network architecture is available on GitHub (MeteoSwiss Biometeorology Team, 2025)."

Measurement campaigns

The measurement campaigns were designed to collect high-quality reference data for retraining and validating the automatic pollen detection model. A total of five taxa- *Alnus*, *Betula*, *Fraxinus*, *Quercus* and *Pinus* - were included in the experiments, with the number of campaigns, recorded events, measurement duration and amount of pollen adjusted to

209 the availability and characteristics of each species (see Table 1). The total number of
210 recorded events ranged from 3 622 for *Fraxinus* to 7 233 for *Betula*, with measurement
211 durations between 19 min and 68 min and pollen quantities from 0.5 ml to 1.25 ml.

212 Each campaign consisted of a series of controlled laboratory experiments aimed at
213 introducing locally collected pollen into the automatic detector under standardized
214 conditions. The main goal was to extend the pollen database with accurately identified
215 local taxa and to ensure the consistency and reliability of data used for model
216 development.

217 The campaigns were carried out using the Swisens Poleno Atomizer, a device that enables
218 controlled aerosolization of pollen grains directly from a test tube into the Swisens Poleno
219 Jupiter detector. Swisens Atomizer delivers the particles directly to the Swisens Poleno
220 detector under controlled conditions. This system disperses selected particles at a stable
221 rate by combining vibration and airflow. The vibration frequency, amplitude and blower
222 speed can be precisely adjusted. The Swisens Atomizer is positioned directly above the
223 SwisensPoleno Jupiter so that the sampled air contains the target pollen particles. This
224 setup allows simultaneous measurement and labeling of all collected data with the
225 corresponding particle type (Erb et al., 2025). The entire process is managed via an
226 integrated computer system, which provides feedback on instrument performance and
227 enables data recording when the conditions are optimal.

228 Each campaign followed a structured workflow:

- 229 1. Pollen preparation - Inflorescences of *Alnus*, *Betula*, *Fraxinus*, *Quercus* and *Pinus*
230 were collected during their natural pollination periods and processed to obtain
231 clean pollen grains. It is important to monitor meteorological conditions and
232 collect catkins when they open naturally (during sunny weather and temperatures
233 above 10 °C) or to collect inflorescences and let them open in warm, dry
234 conditions.
- 235 2. Measurement phase - The Atomizer introduced the pollen into the detector, with
236 continuous monitoring to ensure high-quality data.
- 237 3. Data validation and selection - Collected signals were reviewed to remove artifacts
238 or non-pollen particles.
- 239 4. Dataset compilation - Verified data were organized using *Swisens Data Explorer*
240 software, forming the basis for neural network retraining.
- 241 5. Model retraining and testing - The new model was trained on a subset of the
242 dataset and evaluated on an independent portion to assess detection
243 performance.

244 The campaigns were repeated for each taxon to ensure representative coverage of the
245 dominant allergenic species in the region. Each dataset contained thousands of

individual particle measurements, reflecting both the natural variability of pollen availability and the specific conditions of each measurement session.

Table 1. Summary of total dataset sizes for each pollen taxon

Taxa	Total number of recorded events	Number of campaigns	Duration of the measurement phases	Amount of pollen per campaigning
<i>Alnus</i>	6 409	5	50 min	1.25 ml
<i>Betula</i>	7 233	2	68 min	1.25 ml
<i>Fraxinus</i>	3 622	1	19 min	0.5 ml
<i>Quercus</i>	5 975	2	52 min	1 ml
<i>Pinus</i>	6 572	1	45 min	1 ml

For reliable particle identification, input data must contain only the target pollen type. Environmental samples often include unwanted particles such as dust, other pollen, or plant debris, necessitating a data cleaning step. Using the SwisensDataExplorer tool, expert annotators manually removed non-target particles, producing “clean” datasets for training. Typical exclusions included double particles, irregular shapes and out-of-range sizes, while blurred images were retained to preserve natural variability. Although manual cleaning is subjective and not an absolute ground truth, it ensures that essential particle characteristics are maintained. These cleaned datasets were then used to retrain a neural network and provide a new detection model.

2.2. Station surroundings

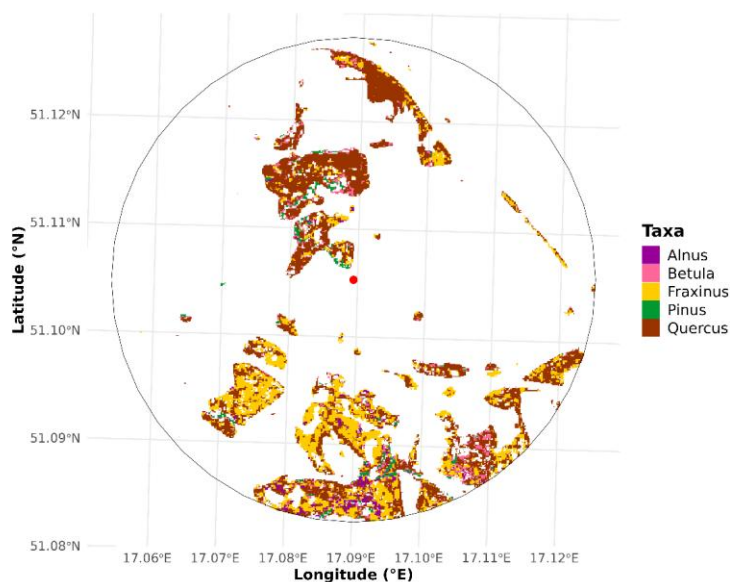


Figure 2. Station surroundings based on data from Grabska-Szwagrzyk et al. (2024); map prepared by the author.

A buffer of 2.5 km around the monitoring station was selected to characterize the local vegetation potentially contributing to airborne pollen concentrations. This distance was chosen to ensure the inclusion of the main surrounding tree stands, particularly Park Szczytnicki to the north and the Odra River corridor to the south, which represent the most important local sources of tree pollen. The choice is further supported by studies indicating that local pollen emissions can influence concentrations at distances of approximately 1 km or more (Sofiev et al., 2013). Within this buffer, the analyzed tree species are predominantly distributed to the north and south of the monitoring station. The northern area, corresponding to Park Szczytnicki, is mainly dominated by *Quercus*, *Pinus*, and *Betula*. In contrast, the southern sector, located near the Odra River, contains the highest density of trees, particularly *Fraxinus* and *Quercus*, with additional occurrences of *Betula* and *Alnus* along the riverbanks. The western and eastern directions are sparsely vegetated, containing only isolated individual trees rather than larger clusters. Within a 2.5 km buffer around the monitoring station, the analyzed tree species are predominantly located to the north and south of the site. The northern area, corresponding to Park Szczytnicki, is mainly dominated by *Quercus*, *Pinus* and *Betula*. In contrast, the southern sector, located near the Odra River, contains the highest density of trees, particularly *Fraxinus* and *Quercus*, with additional occurrences of *Betula* and *Alnus*.

~~along the riverbanks. The western and eastern directions are sparsely vegetated, containing only isolated individual trees rather than larger clusters.~~

2.3. Hirst trap measurements

For validation purposes, airborne pollen samples were collected using a volumetric 7-day Hirst-type trap (Hirst, 1952), co-located with the Swisens Poleno detector at the same height on the roof of the Institute of Climatology and Atmospheric Protection. The Hirst trap continuously draws in air and pollen grains, along with other particles, adhere to a prepared sticky tape. After one week, the tape is replaced and laboratory slides are prepared, from which pollen grains are counted following European standards (Galán et al., 2014), i.e., from four continuous horizontal bands. These Hirst-type measurements served as reference data to validate the results obtained from the Swisens Poleno instrument and the neural network model.

2.5. Meteorological data

Meteorological data were obtained from automatic measurements at the Department of Climatology and Atmospheric Protection, where the detector and Hirst pollen trap are located. The dataset includes mean hourly records of temperature at 2m [°C], wind speed [m/s] and direction [°] at 10m, relative humidity at 2m [%], sum of precipitation [mm] and sunshine duration [hours]. Additionally, the WRF model was used to determine the hourly variability of planetary boundary layer (PBL) height [m]; however, only data for 2024 are presented, as simulations for the current year are still ongoing.

2.6. Method of analysis

Evaluation of the old and new model results

The pollen season was determined separately for both the automatic real-time detector (Swisens Poleno Jupiter) and the reference Hirst-type sampler using the 90% method (Nilsson and Persson, 1981). The start of the pollen season was defined as the day when the cumulative pollen count exceeded 5% of the annual total and the end as the day when it surpassed 95%. These season limits were then applied consistently for validation of the automatic measurements and for the subsequent statistical and diurnal variability analyses.

To evaluate temporal consistency, daily concentrations from two consecutive pollen seasons were compared for both the old and new automatic models ([hereafter referred to as “old” and “new”, respectively](#)) against Hirst reference data. The baseline model was originally developed by MeteoSwiss and trained on datasets obtained from the MeteoSwiss pollen monitoring network in Switzerland. The official GitHub repository provides access to [the old model – MCH 2022 model](#) ~~the MCH 2022 model~~ (MeteoSwiss Biometeorology Team, 2025 ~~MeteoSwiss, 2022~~). The current model ([new](#)) was retrained

325 using locally collected pollen data from Wrocław, Poland, for the same taxa, with the aim
326 of improving predictive performance under local environmental conditions. While the
327 ~~oldprevious~~ model relied solely on holographic images, the new model incorporates both
328 holography and fluorescence spectral information. ~~Crouzytozy~~ et al. (2025)
329 demonstrated that including additional information improves detection performance;
330 however, studies on the use of locally collected pollen to improve model performance for
331 specific taxa remain scarce., ~~which is the primary focus of the present work.~~

332 Agreement between the automatic method and the Hirst was quantified using the
333 coefficient of determination (R^2) and the root mean square error (RMSE). R^2 assessed the
334 proportion of variance explained, while RMSE provided an absolute measure of average
335 daily deviation.

336 For evaluation by exposure level, hourly concentrations were binned into four classes
337 (low, medium, high, very high). Thresholds were defined individually per taxon based on
338 observed distributions. As an example, *Betula* (birch) classes were:

339 Low: ≤ 30 pollen grains m^{-3}

340 Medium: 31-80 pollen grains m^{-3}

341 High: 81-150 pollen grains m^{-3}

342 Very high: > 150 pollen grains m^{-3}

343 (Analogous taxon-specific thresholds were applied for *Alnus*, *Fraxinus*, *Pinus* and
344 *Quercus*.)

345 Model outputs (old vs. new) were evaluated for each taxon and concentration class using
346 contingency and skill metrics computed from counts of True Positives (TP), False Positives
347 (FP) and False Negatives (FN). Derived metrics included: Probability of Detection ($POD = TP/(TP+FN)$), False Alarm Ratio ($FAR = FP/(TP+FP)$), Critical Success Index ($CSI = TP/(TP+FP+FN)$) and Success Rate ($SR = (TP+TN)/total$, where TN is True Negatives). These
349 metrics were reported separately for each taxon and concentration level to characterize
350 model behavior across exposure ranges.
351

352

353 Diurnal variability of pollen concentrations

354 Hourly concentrations from the Swisens Poleno Jupiter (new model) were analyzed to
355 characterize diurnal patterns for each taxon. All timestamps were recorded in
356 Coordinated Universal Time (UTC). Differences in hourly distributions between the two
357 seasons were quantified and visualized to identify peak exposure hours.

358 Diurnal variability of meteorological parameters and pollen data

Finally, an overall correlation matrix was constructed to assess the relationships between hourly meteorological variables (temperature, wind speed and direction, relative humidity, precipitation and sunshine duration) and pollen concentrations obtained from the Swisens Polleno Jupiter (new model). Subsequently, for each taxon, Spearman rank correlations were calculated between pollen concentration and each meteorological variable separately for each month within the respective flowering season, in order to capture the seasonal and hourly variability of these relationships. Previous research has shown that meteorological conditions strongly influence airborne pollen concentrations (Dąbrowska-Zapart et al., 2020; Kluska et al., 2020; Malkiewicz et al., 2016; Tomczyk et al., 2025), justifying the use of correlation analyses to assess their effect on hourly pollen variability. Statistical significance was assessed at three levels ($p < 0.05$, $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.001$) and correlation magnitudes and significance patterns were reported and mapped to hourly contexts.

The hourly planetary boundary layer (PBL) height was determined using the WRF numerical meteorological model, with model setup and parameterizations following Skamarock et al. (2021). Spearman's rank correlations were then calculated between PBL height and pollen concentrations to assess how boundary layer dynamics influence short-term variations in airborne pollen levels. Correlations for all variables were adjusted for multiple comparisons using the Bonferroni correction to account for the large number of observations.

A wind-rose analysis was performed using concurrent hourly wind direction and speed records to identify prevailing wind sectors associated with the highest pollen concentrations. These wind sector concentration patterns were compared spatially with land-cover/land-use maps (see Figure 2) to infer potential source areas and directional contributions to measured pollen loads. Figure 2 was created based on detailed tree distribution maps developed by Grabska-Szwagryk (2024), who classified 16 dominant tree species and genera across Poland using time series of Sentinel-2 imagery.

3. Results

3.1 Pollen concentrations from the Swisens Polleno Jupiter and Hirst

This presents a comparison between the machine learning model trained on Swiss pollen data (old model) and the newly retrained model using local taxa (new model) against Hirst measurements, highlighting differences in predicted concentrations, temporal patterns and deviations from observed values.

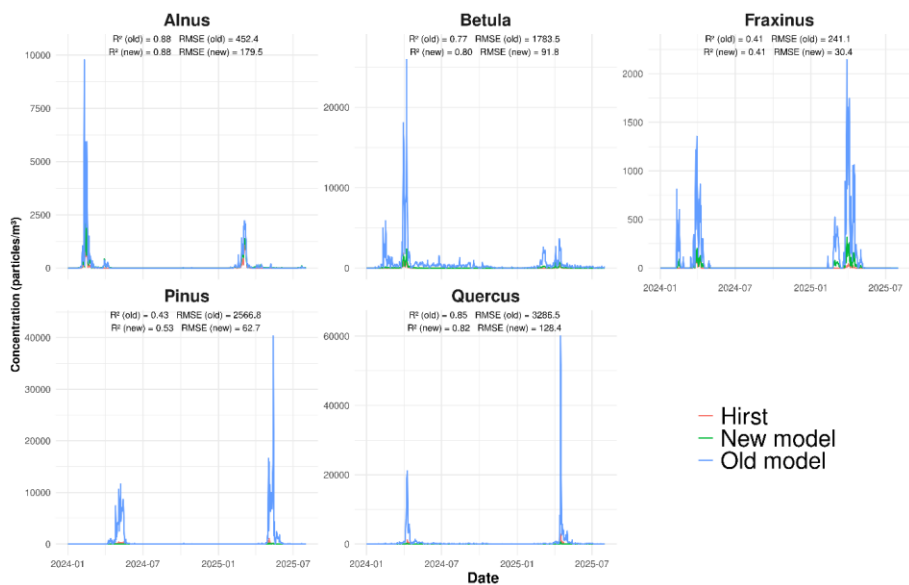
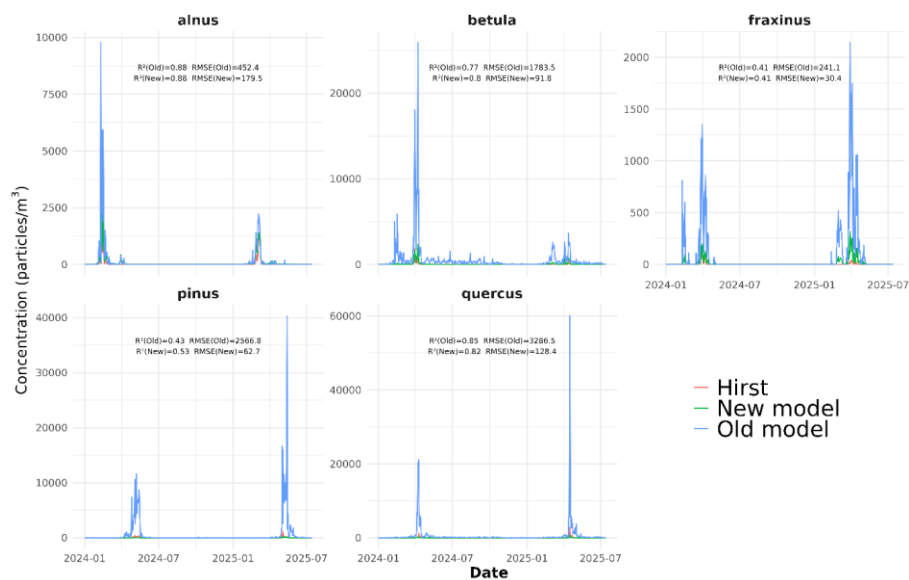


Figure 3. Daily pollen concentrations from old and new ML models compared with Hirst reference data.

397

398 For *Alnus* and *Betula*, both models capture the main seasonal peaks well, with *Alnus*
399 showing a pronounced early spring maximum. The new model closely follows the Hirst
400 observations in both shape and timing of peaks, while the old model tends to
401 overestimate concentrations. For *Alnus*, both models achieve the same $R^2 = 0.88$, but
402 the new model shows a much lower RMSE (179.5 vs 452.4, for old and new model
403 respectively - here and thereafter), indicating improved accuracy. Similarly, for *Betula*, the
404 new model slightly improves the determination coefficient ($R^2 = 0.80$ vs 0.77) and
405 reduces RMSE substantially (91.8 vs 1783.5).

406 For *Fraxinus*, concentrations remain relatively low, with both models capturing the timing
407 of peaks. The new model performs markedly better, maintaining the same $R^2 = 0.41$ but
408 achieving a much lower RMSE (30.4 vs 241.1), reflecting greater precision in reproducing
409 small variations.

410 In the case of *Pinus*, the new model better reproduces both low and moderate
411 concentration periods, while the old model significantly overestimates peak magnitudes.
412 This improvement is confirmed by a higher R^2 (0.53 vs 0.43) and a significantly reduced
413 RMSE (62.7 vs 2566.8).

414 For *Quercus*, a distinct late spring peak is observed. Both models correctly identify the
415 timing of high pollen events, but the new model more accurately represents the peak
416 structure and intensity, with a slightly lower R^2 (0.82 vs 0.85) and a drastically smaller
417 RMSE (128.4 vs 3286.5), highlighting a much-improved fit to observed concentrations.

418

419 3.2 Comparison of Models - Pollen Season Duration

420 This examines how each model predicts the start and end of the pollen season, analyzing
421 differences in season length and timing in comparison with observed data.

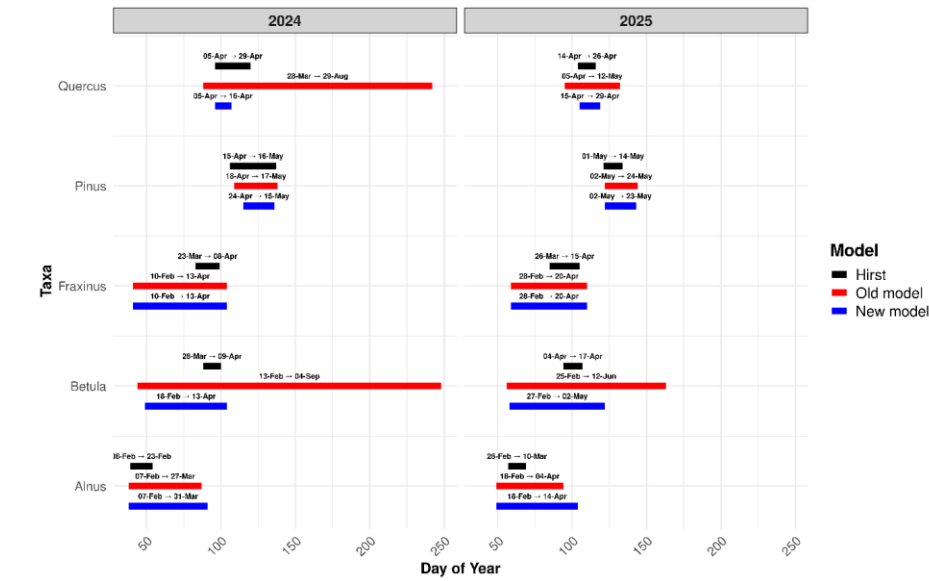
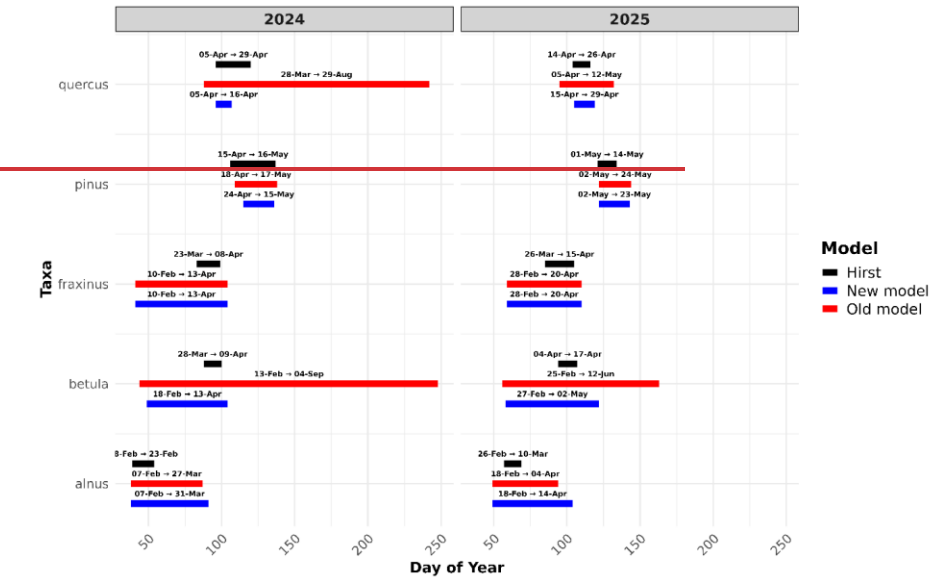


Figure 4. Start and end dates of pollen seasons for the studied taxa.

427 For *Alnus*, both years show that the new model reproduces the Hirst-derived start dates
428 well, whereas the end dates are captured less accurately (2024: 7 Feb-27 Mar vs 8 Feb-
429 23 Feb; 2025: 18 Feb-4 Apr vs 26 Feb-10 Mar), while the old model predicts a longer
430 season (until the end of March or mid-April).

431 For *Betula*, the old model largely overestimates the pollen season duration (2024: 13 Feb-
432 4 Sep; 2025: 25 Feb-12 Jun), while the new model (2024: 18 Feb-13 Apr; 2025: 27 Feb-2
433 May) better captures the Hirst timing (2024: 28 Mar-9 Apr; 2025: 4 Apr-17 Apr).

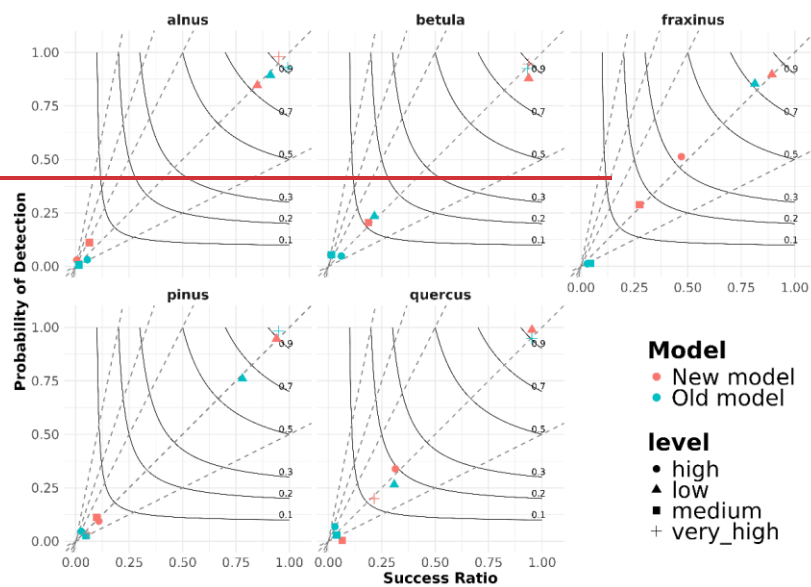
434 For *Fraxinus*, both models identify the onset of the season earlier than Hirst in 2024 (10
435 Feb-13 Apr vs 23 Mar-8 Apr), but the new model better reproduces the duration. A similar
436 pattern appears in 2025, where the new model (28 Feb-20 Apr) aligns with Hirst (26 Mar-
437 15 Apr) more accurately than the old model, which extends the season.

438 For *Pinus*, both models capture the general spring timing, but the new model aligns more
439 closely with observations (2024: 18 Apr-17 May vs 15 Apr-16 May; 2025: 2 May-23 May vs
440 1 May-14 May), while the old model slightly underestimates the duration.

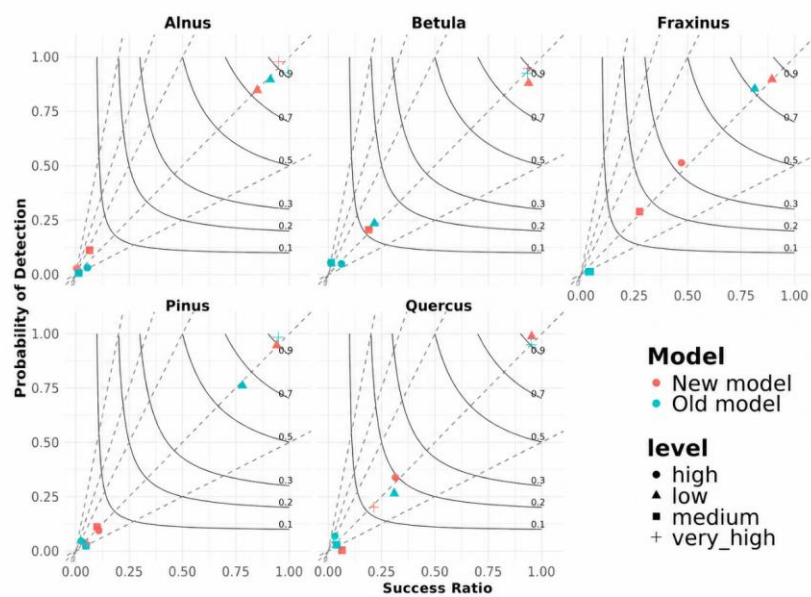
441 For *Quercus*, the new model accurately reproduces the observed periods (2024: 5 Apr-16
442 Apr vs 5 Apr-29 Apr; 2025: 15 Apr-29 Apr vs 14 Apr-26 Apr), whereas the old model
443 significantly extends the season (2024: 28 Mar-29 Aug; 2025: 5 Apr-12 May), indicating
444 overprediction of long-term pollen presence.

445 **3.3 Comparison of Models - Performance Diagram**

446 Model performance is evaluated using metrics such as accuracy, precision, recall and F1-
447 score. Performance diagrams and statistical analyses are provided to illustrate model
448 strengths and weaknesses.



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Figure 5. Performance of automatic ML models compared with Hirst reference data, shown as a performance diagram. The diagram is based on daily data from the 2024–2025

pollen season. The metrics include success ratio (SR), probability of detection (POD), false alarm ratio (FAR), and critical success index (CSI).

~~Figure 5. Performance of automatic ML models compared with Hirst reference data.~~

Detection of *Alnus* pollen remained challenging for both models at medium and high concentrations, resulting in low POD (<0.25) and success ratios below 0.2. The new model shows noticeable improvement at low concentrations (POD ≈ 0.75 , SR ≈ 0.7), indicating better sensitivity to early pollen occurrence, while both models perform perfectly at very high concentrations (POD ≈ 1.0 , SR ≈ 1.0), confirming reliability during peak events.

For *Betula*, the new model clearly outperforms the old one at low concentrations (POD ≈ 0.9 vs 0.6; SR ≈ 0.8 vs 0.6), while maintaining similar performance at higher levels (POD ≈ 1.0 , SR ≈ 1.0). Detection at medium levels remains limited for both models, though the new model achieves higher accuracy and fewer false alarms overall.

For *Fraxinus*, improvements are mainly visible at medium and high concentrations (old model: POD ≈ 0.1 , SR ≈ 0.1 ; new model: medium 0.3, 0.3 and high 0.5, 0.5), reflecting better seasonal detection capability. Very high concentrations are successfully detected by both models (POD ≈ 1.0 , SR ≈ 1.0), while at low concentrations the new model shows moderate improvement over the old model.

In the case of *Pinus*, the new model achieves strong detection performance at low concentrations (POD ≈ 0.95 , SR ≈ 0.9), outperforming the old model (POD ≈ 0.7 , SR ≈ 0.6). Both models detect very high concentrations perfectly (POD ≈ 1.0 , SR ≈ 1.0), though detection at medium and high levels remains less reliable.

For *Quercus*, the new model substantially improves detection at low concentrations (POD ≈ 0.97 , SR ≈ 0.9), outperforming the old model. Detection at medium concentrations remains very low (POD ≈ 0.1 , SR ≈ 0.1), while at high concentrations the new model performs better than the old one. Very high concentrations are better detected by the old model.

3.4 Hourly Concentration Patterns over Two Years

Hourly Swisens Polleno Jupiter (the new model) pollen concentration profiles for two consecutive years are presented, showing diurnal trends, seasonal variations and year-to-year differences.

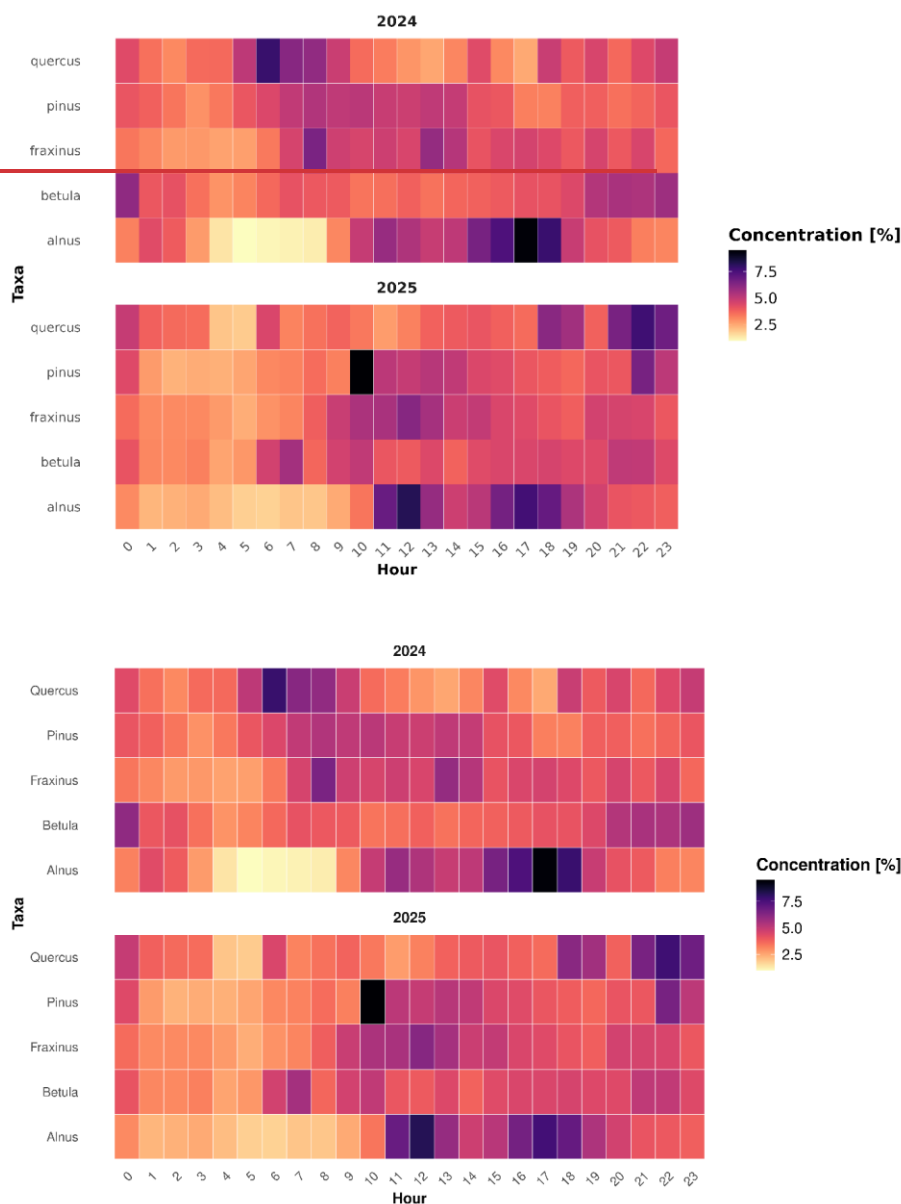


Figure 6. Hourly pollen profiles from the Swisens Poleno Jupiter for two consecutive years.

For *Alnus*, the highest contributions to the seasonal pollen load were consistently observed during the late afternoon hours, specifically between 16:00 and 18:00. In 2024, hourly contributions for 16:00, 17:00 and 18:00 reached 9.5%, 8% and 5% of the total seasonal load, while in 2025 they were slightly lower but still substantial, at 7.5%, 7% and 5%, respectively. This pattern reflects a typical daily trend, with the lowest pollen concentrations in the morning, higher levels around midday and a peak in the late afternoon, highlighting this period as critical for *Alnus* pollen dispersal and its overall impact on seasonal exposure.

Betula displayed a distinct temporal pattern, with peak pollen concentrations occurring in the evening between 20:00 and 00:00, as well as in the morning between 06:00 and 10:00. During these periods, hourly contributions ranged from 4% to 5% of the seasonal total, indicating that both morning and evening represent windows of elevated *Betula* pollen concentrations, with potential implications for allergy sufferers during these times.

For *Fraxinus*, pollen concentrations gradually increased in the morning, reaching a peak around midday (11:00–14:00), with hourly contributions ranging from 5% to 6%. Additional moderate peaks were observed in the late morning, early afternoon and evening, reflecting a more extended period of pollen availability compared to *Alnus* and *Betula*. This pattern suggests that *Fraxinus* contributes to sustained exposure throughout the central part of the day.

Pinus exhibited pronounced morning and midday peaks, with the highest hourly contribution reaching 10% at 10:00 in 2025. Overall, pollen levels remained consistently elevated throughout the day, ranging from 3% to 6%, with the lowest values observed between 03:00 and 05:00. This extended period of substantial emission reflects both high variability and prolonged daytime dispersal, making *Pinus* a major contributor to airborne pollen over a broad temporal window.

Quercus exhibited a bimodal pattern of pollen concentrations, with morning peaks occurring between 06:00 and 09:00 and a second, more pronounced peak in the evening between 18:00 and 00:00. Hourly contributions during these periods reached up to 8% of the seasonal load, indicating that both early morning and evening represent critical windows for *Quercus* pollen exposure.

521

522 **3.5 Meteorological Parameters and Pollen Concentrations**

523 The Spearman correlation matrix (Fig. 7) provides an overview of the associations
 524 between hourly meteorological parameters and pollen concentrations for multiple tree
 525 taxa, thereby identifying the principal drivers of pollen variability and informing their
 526 predictive potential.

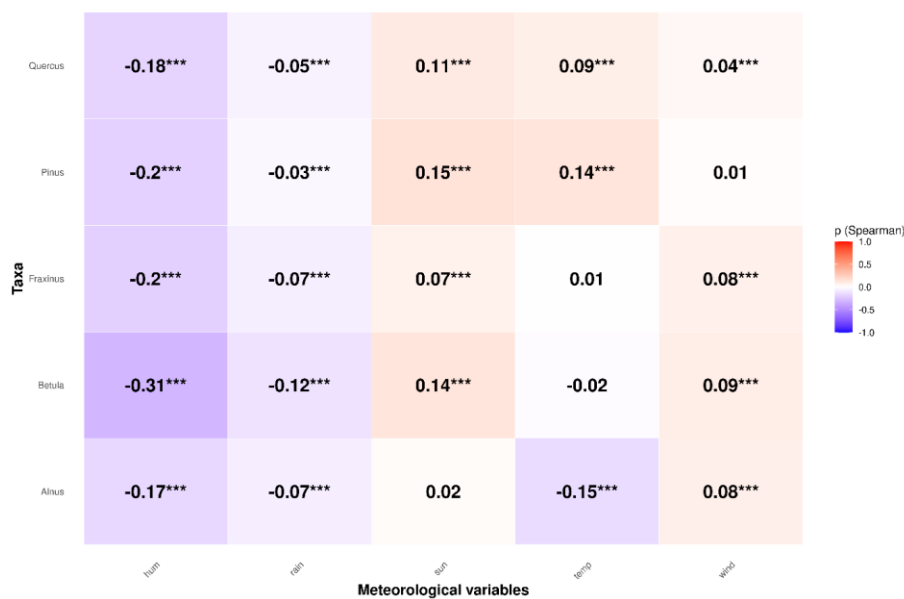
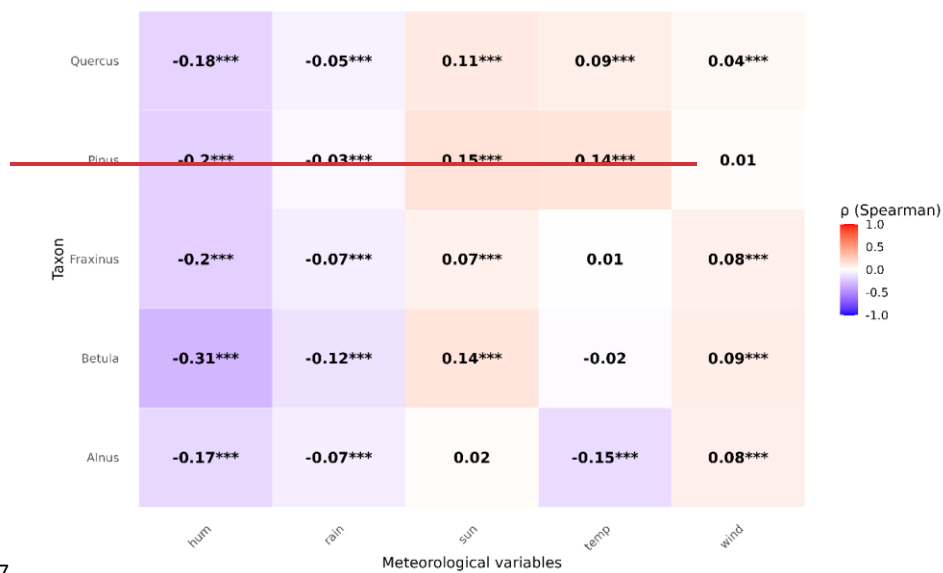


Figure 7. Spearman correlation matrix between meteorological variables and pollen concentrations. The correlation matrix is based on daily pollen season data (2024–2025)

and corresponding meteorological data for the same period. Abbreviations: hum – relative humidity, rain – precipitation sum, sun – sunshine duration, temp – air temperature at 2 m, wind – wind speed.

~~Figure 7. Overall Spearman correlation matrix between meteorological variables and pollen concentrations.~~

In the case of *Alnus*, pollen concentration showed a clear negative correlation with relative humidity ($\rho = -0.17$, $p < 0.001$) and temperature ($\rho = -0.15$, $p < 0.001$). In contrast, the influence of wind and sunshine duration was relatively weak ($\rho = 0.08$ and 0.02 , respectively).

Betula exhibited the strongest negative correlation with relative humidity ($\rho = -0.12$, $p < 0.001$), whereas the effect of temperature was minimal ($\rho = -0.02$, ns) and solar radiation showed a moderately positive effect ($\rho = 0.14$, $p < 0.001$).

For *Fraxinus*, pollen concentration correlated moderately positively with sunshine duration ($\rho = 0.07$, $p < 0.001$) and wind ($\rho = 0.08$, $p < 0.001$), while humidity ($\rho = -0.07$, $p < 0.001$) and temperature ($\rho = -0.20$, $p < 0.001$) had weaker negative effects.

Pinus showed the highest positive correlations with sunshine duration ($\rho = 0.15$, $p < 0.001$) and temperature ($\rho = 0.14$, $p < 0.001$), whereas humidity had a slight negative influence ($\rho = -0.03$, $p < 0.001$) and wind was nearly neutral ($\rho = 0.01$, ns).

In the case of *Quercus*, pollen exhibited a moderate positive relationship with temperature ($\rho = 0.09$, $p < 0.001$) and weaker positive correlations with sunshine duration ($\rho = 0.11$, $p < 0.001$) and wind ($\rho = 0.04$, $p < 0.001$), while humidity showed a slight negative effect ($\rho = -0.05$, $p < 0.001$).

The following analysis (Fig. 1S) focuses on the hourly correlations between these variables, highlighting how their relationships change throughout the day.

~~Figure S1. The hourly Spearman correlation matrix between meteorological variables and *Alnus* pollen concentrations for the 2024–2025 season. hum – relative humidity, rain – precipitation sum, sun – sunshine duration, temp – air temperature at 2 m, wind – wind speed.~~

~~Figure S2. The hourly Spearman correlation matrix between meteorological variables and *Betula* pollen concentrations for the 2024–2025 season. hum – relative humidity, rain – precipitation sum, sun – sunshine duration, temp – air temperature at 2 m, wind – wind speed.~~

Figure S3. The hourly Spearman correlation matrix between meteorological variables and *Fraxinus* pollen concentrations for the 2024–2025 season. hum – relative humidity, rain – precipitation sum, sun – sunshine duration, temp – air temperature at 2 m, wind – wind speed.

Figure S4. The hourly Spearman correlation matrix between meteorological variables and *Pinus* pollen concentrations for the 2024–2025 season. hum – relative humidity, rain – precipitation sum, sun – sunshine duration, temp – air temperature at 2 m, wind – wind speed.

Figure S5. The hourly Spearman correlation matrix between meteorological variables and *Quercus* pollen concentrations for the 2024–2025 season. hum – relative humidity, rain – precipitation sum, sun – sunshine duration, temp – air temperature at 2 m, wind – wind speed.

~~Figure 1S. Hourly Spearman correlation matrix between meteorological variables and *Alnus* pollen concentrations.~~

~~Figure 2S. Hourly Spearman correlation matrix between meteorological variables and *Betula* pollen concentrations.~~

~~Figure 3S. Hourly Spearman correlation matrix between meteorological variables and *Fraxinus* pollen concentrations.~~

~~Figure 4S. Hourly Spearman correlation matrix between meteorological variables and *Pinus* pollen concentrations.~~

~~Figure 5S. Hourly Spearman correlation matrix between meteorological variables and *Quercus* pollen concentrations.~~

For *Alnus*, the Spearman results indicate a clear diurnal/seasonal pattern. The air temperature, in the pollen season, shows a strong positive correlation with pollen counts, particularly during midday-afternoon. Relative humidity is negatively correlated with pollen counts. The signal is the strongest in March, in early morning hours (around 08:00) and night/late-evening (19–21:00). When comparing February and March, temperature emerges as the dominant driver in February, while in March humidity is the meteorological variable most consistently associated with pollen concentrations. ~~while in March humidity becomes the most influential meteorological factor shaping pollen concentrations.~~

For *Betula*, Spearman correlations revealed strong positive associations between pollen concentrations and air temperature, particularly during daytime hours, with peak correlations reaching $r \approx 0.65\text{--}0.70$ ($p < 0.01$). Relative humidity was consistently

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negatively correlated ($r \approx -0.45$ to -0.60 , $p < 0.05-0.01$), while sunshine duration showed moderate positive effects in the morning. Rainfall effects were mostly non-significant. Seasonal differences indicated that in March, temperature and humidity effects were concentrated during the day, whereas in April, their influence extended more evenly into the evening and night, with wind becoming a more important factor.

For *Fraxinus*, air temperature positively influenced pollen concentrations, with correlations reaching $r \approx 0.60-0.68$ ($p < 0.01$), particularly during daytime hours in March and during the afternoon, evening and night in April. Relative humidity showed a negative relationship ($r \approx -0.40$ to -0.55 , $p < 0.05-0.01$), especially in the early and late hours of March and during the night in April. Sunshine duration, rainfall and wind effects were generally non-significant.

For *Pinus*, temperature effects were weaker compared to other taxa, showing moderate negative correlations during early morning and late-night hours in May ($r \approx -0.30$ to -0.40 , $p < 0.05$). Relative humidity consistently exhibited strong negative correlations ($r \approx -0.50$ to -0.65 , $p < 0.01$), particularly in May, while sunshine duration showed occasional positive associations during the afternoon. Wind and rainfall effects were negligible.

For *Quercus*, pollen concentrations showed strong positive correlations with air temperature throughout the entire day in April ($r \approx 0.60-0.72$, $p < 0.01$), while other meteorological factors had no significant influence.

Table 2. Spearman’s correlations between hourly pollen concentrations and PBL height in Wrocław (2024–2025).

Taxa	<i>Alnus</i>	<i>Betula</i>	<i>Fraxinus</i>	<i>Pinus</i>	<i>Quercus</i>
PBL	0.13 ^{***}	0.13 ^{***}	0.12 ^{***}	0.08 ^{***}	0.11 ^{***}

Spearman’s rank correlations between hourly pollen concentrations and planetary boundary layer (PBL) height were positive for all taxa, indicating that higher PBL heights are generally associated with increased pollen concentrations. The strongest correlations were observed for *Betula* and *Alnus*, while *Pinus* showed the weakest relationship. All correlations were statistically significant ($p < 0.001$), indicating a consistent link between boundary layer dynamics and short-term variations in pollen concentrations and highlighting the role of atmospheric mixing in pollen dispersion across different taxaspecies.

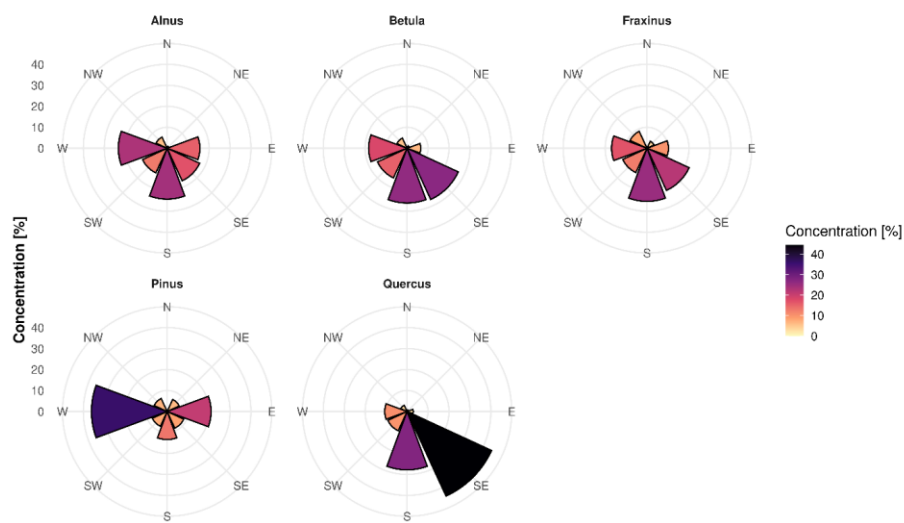
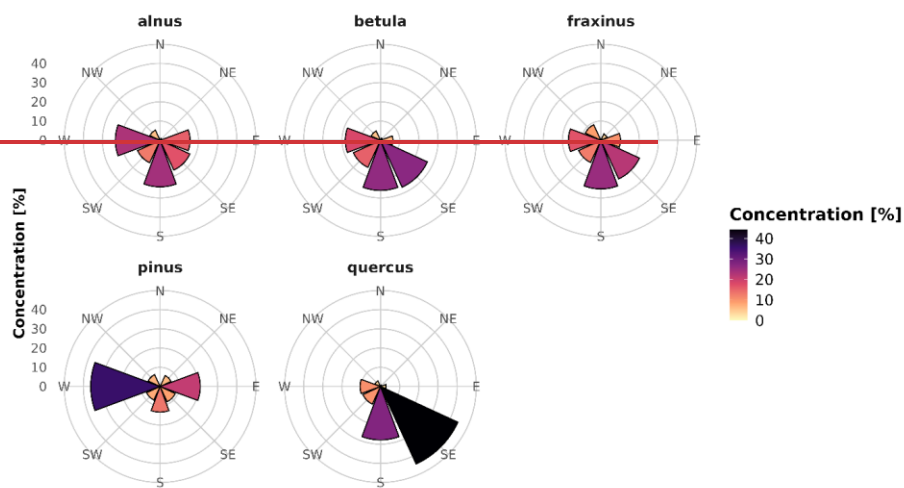


Figure 8. Influence of wind direction on pollen concentrations by taxa.

The relationship between pollen concentrations and wind direction is presented in Fig. 8. For *Alnus*, *Betula* and *Fraxinus* the highest pollen concentrations are from the southern sector, which contributes about 25%. High contributions (20-25%) to total count is from the SE for *Betula* and *Fraxinus* and W for *Alnus*. The results are significantly different for *Pinus* and *Quercus*. *Pinus* pollen showed a clear west-east transport pattern, with the highest contributions from western (36.1%) and eastern (21%) winds, while *Quercus* pollen was mainly associated with southeastern (44.4%) and southern (27.8%) winds. Northern winds contributed minimally (<5%) to the dispersal of all taxa, with the lowest influence from NW, N and NE directions.

4. Discussion

Erb et al. (2025) discussed how to design measurement campaigns and mentioned that local data collection is ~~essential~~^{crucial} for accurate model calibration. Our study confirms that the newly developed model, trained on locally collected pollen data, outperforms the model retrained on data from a different region. However, it is important to note that the new model was also trained using fluorescence information, which could improve detection efficiency (Crouzy et al., 2025). The performance of the old model, which is based solely on holography, may vary over time depending on the presence of false signals, i.e. particles resembling specific pollen taxa, which can occur in the atmosphere and potentially interfere with the classification. New model more accurately capturing both the seasonal timing and the daily variability. In contrast, the previous model tends to overestimate concentration magnitudes and fails to represent temporal variations with sufficient precision.

The enhanced detection efficiency observed in this study aligns with the study of Maya-Manzano et al. (2023) for Munich (southern Germany), who reported comparable R^2 values for *Quercus* and higher values for *Fraxinus*, although lower for *Betula*. Their work also highlighted the weaker correspondence between real-time monitoring devices and Hirst-type measurements, underscoring the ongoing challenges in reconciling automated and traditional methods. While Hirst-type traps remain the gold standard in aerobiology, they have inherent limitations, such as low temporal resolution and dependence on manual counting. This raises important considerations when comparing real-time data with Hirst measurements (Tummon et al., 2024).

In our work, the locally trained model consistently outperformed the reference model, particularly at low and medium pollen concentrations, showing enhanced sensitivity and overall predictive accuracy. Both models achieved similar performance at high concentrations, indicating reliable detection under extreme pollen loads. This indicates that if the primary goal is to issue warnings for high pollen levels, models retrained using data from other regions may still perform adequately. However, the improved sensitivity of the locally retrained model at lower concentrations is particularly important for

operational air-quality monitoring and early warning systems, as it allows for more timely identification of pollen events relevant to public health. Similar challenges related to underestimation at low concentrations were also reported by Tummon et al. (2024), further supporting the need for region-specific model retraining.

This study provides a detailed description of the measurement campaign and its methodology. The lowest amount of pollen was collected from *Fraxinus*, which was influenced by the low number of training events and consequently, *Fraxinus* exhibited the lowest R^2 among all taxa. This underscores the importance of properly extracting sufficient amounts of pollen from catkins. *Pinus* also showed a relatively low R^2 compared to *Alnus*, *Betula* and *Quercus*, which is likely due to interference from morphologically similar pollen grains, such as spruce or larch (Szczepanek et al., 2017). Therefore, one possible solution could be to aggregate data within the Pinaceae group.

~~Analysis of hourly pollen percentages revealed distinct diurnal patterns consistent with daily meteorological rhythms, as also reported by Chappuis et al. (2020).~~ *Alnus* peaked in the late afternoon (16:00–18:00) as the first major pollen-releasing taxon of the season. *Betula* and *Quercus* exhibited bimodal patterns, with morning and evening peaks. In contrast, *Fraxinus* and *Pinus* maintained relatively high pollen concentrations throughout the day. These results align with previous observations in Europe, including Ščevková et al. (2015) and Toth et al. (2011), who noted daytime peaks for *Fraxinus*, *Alnus*, *Corylus* and *Pinus*, as well as afternoon and night-time peaks for *Betula* and Cupressaceae-Taxaceae. Similar bimodal patterns have been reported by Dąbrowska-Zapart et al. (2020).

Our findings regarding evening peaks suggest that nocturnal maxima are influenced not only by local pollen release but also by the secondary deposition of previously emitted or transported pollen (Grewling et al., 2016; Ščevková et al., 2015). For instance, *Betula* and *Fraxinus* produce small pollen grains with low settling velocities, making them prone to long-distance transport and prolonged suspension within the atmospheric boundary layer. During daytime heating, thermal convection lifts pollen grains to higher altitudes; once convection weakens in the evening, these particles gradually descend, resulting in elevated nighttime concentrations (Clot, 2001; Kasprzyk et al., 2001; Kämpylä, 1984).

The local urban effects may also enhance nocturnal concentrations. The heating of anthropogenic surfaces (e.g., buildings and roads) during the day and subsequent nighttime radiative cooling can modify near-surface circulation, promoting weak turbulence and the resuspension of previously settled pollen grains. Such mechanisms may partly explain the persistence of elevated evening levels, particularly under calm and dry conditions. Given the low gravitational settling velocity of these taxa, deposition from the boundary layer (~1 km) may take more than 24 hours (Ščevková et al., 2015), further

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716 supporting the hypothesis that the observed evening and nocturnal peaks reflect both
717 delayed sedimentation and localized resuspension.

718 Night-time increases were also noted in Kluska et al. (2020), who reported that low
719 relative humidity and calm winds favor elevated concentrations of *Betula*, *Pinus* and
720 Poaceae pollen at night. Resuspension of previously settled pollen appears to play a
721 minor role in our dataset, as evening conditions, characterized by higher humidity, lower
722 temperatures and moderate wind speeds, were generally unfavorable for significant re-
723 entrainment, which is consistent with findings of Ščevková et al. (2015).

724 Meteorological factors were key drivers of hourly pollen variability. Our findings confirm
725 the well-known pattern of increased pollen concentrations during warm and sunny days
726 and decreased concentrations under high humidity or rainy conditions (Malkiewicz et al.,
727 2016; Ščevková et al. 2015; Tomczyk et al. 2025; Ziska et al., 2019). However, rainfall was
728 not always statistically significant, highlighting the complex nature of its influence on
729 pollen concentrations, as some studies even report increases in concentrations after
730 precipitation events (Kluska et al., 2020). The effect varies with rainfall intensity and type,
731 as precipitation processes are associated with pollen wash-out. Kluska et al. (2020)
732 showed that under low-intensity rainfall ($<1.0\text{--}2.5\text{ mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$), no decreases and even slight
733 increases in pollen concentrations can occur. Interestingly, early-season pollen, such as
734 that from *Alnus*, showed no significant correlation with sunlight and even a negative
735 association with temperature. This contrasts with the findings of Borycka and Kasprzyk
736 (2018), who reported that *Betula* did not exhibit significant correlations with
737 meteorological variables, while *Alnus* showed strong relationships. In the present study,
738 *Fraxinus* and *Betula* also displayed different patterns, with no consistent correlation with
739 temperature, whereas later-season trees, such as *Pinus* and *Quercus*, exhibited positive
740 associations with temperature. Wind was generally an important factor influencing pollen
741 dispersal and increasing concentrations; however, this was not observed for *Pinus*. This
742 is likely related to the morphological features of *Pinus* pollen, which has air sacs that
743 enhance its dispersal, combined with the high pollen output of the species, making wind
744 less critical for effective transport (Szczepanek et al., 2017).

745 Early-spring taxa, *Alnus* and *Betula*, displayed strong positive correlations with air
746 temperature and negative correlations with relative humidity, particularly between 12:00
747 and 18:00, when concentrations typically increased. This pattern supports the hypothesis
748 that warm and dry afternoon conditions promote pollen release, consistent with
749 observations by Dąbrowska-Zapart et al. (2020) and Kluska et al. (2020), who also found
750 that high temperature and solar radiation act as primary triggers of emission. For *Betula*,
751 the most pronounced temperature effect occurred in the late afternoon and evening
752 (14:00-22:00), coinciding with the timing of observed concentration peaks. However, it
753 differs between months, which suggests that the phase of pollen release is likely
754 correlated with meteorological conditions, so the early part of the pollination period in

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March shows different sensitivity compared to April. It is also well known that for early-flowering plant taxa, the timing of the pollen season can vary considerably from year to year (Malkiewicz et al., 2016). Interestingly, sunshine duration showed a relationship with both taxa only in March, mainly during the morning hours. Interestingly, sunshine duration was crucial only in March for both taxa and practically only during the morning hours. Many studies emphasize the importance of temperature for the development of inflorescences; however, it is possible that pollen emission and flower opening are primarily triggered by sunshine duration. Favorable thermal conditions may then mainly support continued emission and the persistence of pollen in the air, which could explain the increased association during later hours which could explain why temperature becomes more influential during the later hours of the day (Malkiewicz et al., 2016; Nowosad et al., 2018; Picornell et al., 2019; Werner et al., 2021). Among all taxa, only *Betula* exhibited a correlation with wind around midday in April. Wind was previously identified as an important factor by Puc et al. (2015) and Puc (2006), whereas Tomczyk et al. (2025) reported that wind does not play a significant role. Nevertheless, it should be noted that their findings were based on daily data, while the present analysis is conducted on an hourly scale.

Fraxinus exhibited a similar dependence on temperature and sunshine duration, with maximum correlations observed between 10:00 and 16:00. It is also evident that the daily pattern differs between months: in March, temperature was the most important factor during the day and evening, while relative humidity showed higher correlation in the evening and night while relative humidity had a stronger effect in the evening and night. In April, temperature played a key role in the morning, evening and night, whereas relative humidity showed the highest correlation at night whereas relative humidity was most influential at night. Kubik-Komar et al. (2018) also identified *Fraxinus* as a taxon whose pollen concentration is particularly related to temperature, noting that the timing of the season may vary depending on meteorological conditions during the first part of the year. Therefore, the observed correlations may also differ between months, depending on the prevailing weather conditions.

Pinus showed negative correlations with temperature (morning and night) and with humidity (except in the morning), which is opposite to the results presented in the overall analysis (Fig. 7), where early-pollinating taxa showed negative correlations with temperature and *Pinus* showed positive correlations. This highlights the complex nature of the relationship between pollen concentration and meteorological conditions. It should be underlined that the aerodynamic properties of *Pinus* pollen allow it to remain airborne for a long time, which may explain the lack of correlation with current meteorological conditions, as this pollen could have been released earlier (Szczepanek et al., 2017).

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Quercus, which flowers later in the season, was linked to temperature throughout the day. *Quercus*, which flowers later in the season, was strongly responsive to temperature throughout the day, exhibiting a bimodal pollen release pattern with peaks in the morning (06:00–09:00) and evening (18:00–22:00), likely reflecting local meteorological control. Interestingly, temperature appeared to be important throughout the entire day only in April, probably because approximately 75% of the seasonal pollen amount occurs during the first two weeks of the season, as noted by Grewling et al. (2014³).

The positive and statistically significant correlations between planetary boundary layer height and hourly pollen concentrations suggest that atmospheric mixing plays an important role in the short-term variability of pollen levels, as confirmed by Andújar-Maqueda et al. (2025). Stronger correlations observed for *Betula* and *Alnus* compared to *Pinus* may reflect differences in pollen release patterns and dispersal mechanisms. In particular, *Pinus* pollen, due to its aerodynamic shape and morphology, may be dispersed through mechanisms less directly linked to planetary boundary layer height. This is supported by the lack of a significant correlation with wind speed, suggesting that other factors, such as local turbulence or canopy-level processes, could play a more important role in its short-term variability. It is reflected in planetary boundary layer (PBL) processes, where studies suggest that katabatic flows can enhance pollen concentrations at night, while daytime convective turbulence promotes dispersion, contributing to variability near the surface. More generally, differences between pollen types arise from interacting factors such as source distribution, meteorological conditions, PBL structure, pollen properties, flowering phenology, and other environmental influences (Andújar-Maqueda et al., 2025), suggesting that other factors, such as local turbulence or canopy-level processes, could play a more important role in its short-term variability.

Wind direction was significantly associated with hourly pollen levels. Wind direction also played a significant role in shaping hourly pollen levels. The highest concentrations were typically linked to airflows from vegetated areas upwind of the monitoring site. This finding is consistent with Dąbrowska-Zapart et al. (2020), who also demonstrated that wind direction significantly influences short-term (hourly) variations in pollen and spore concentrations.

Overall, our results highlight the need to consider taxon-specific diurnal patterns, meteorological drivers and local environmental context when interpreting pollen measurements and developing predictive models. The combination of high temporal resolution monitoring and incorporation of local taxa into model training substantially improves the ability to capture real-time pollen fluctuations, peak exposure periods and species-specific variability, which are critical for accurate forecasting and public health applications.

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6. Conclusion

Our results showed that retraining the neural network model with locally collected pollen data improves predictive accuracy for *Alnus*, *Betula*, *Fraxinus*, *Pinus* and *Quercus*, especially at low and medium pollen concentrations, compared to models trained on data from other regions. The retrained model correlates more closely with Hirst measurements in terms of the start and end of the season, as well as the concentration levels and can provide valuable information for pollen information system or pollen forecasting.

Based on two years of automatic pollen concentration measurements, we present diurnal pollen variability, which exhibits distinct patterns depending on the taxon. People with allergies should avoid pollen peak hours. These are:

- *Alnus*: late afternoon peak (16:00-18:00)
- *Betula*: evening peak (18:00-22:00)
- *Fraxinus*: midday peak (12:00-13:00), additional moderate afternoon peaks
- *Pinus*: high levels throughout the day, morning and midday peaks (10:00)
- *Quercus*: bimodal pattern - morning (06:00-09:00) and evening (18:00-22:00) peaks

Temperature and low relative humidity are the main drivers of pollen release, while sunshine duration enhances emission for *Fraxinus*, *Pinus* and *Quercus*. Hourly analyses reveal that the strength of correlations between pollen concentrations and meteorological factors varies throughout the day and depends on the phase of the flowering season or month.

The planetary boundary layer height has only a limited direct influence on hourly pollen concentration variability, with particularly lower correlations observed for *Pinus*.

Wind direction affects pollen dispersal, with southern and southeastern winds contributing most, highlighting the influence of local land cover and the surroundings of the monitoring station.

Code availability

Code will be made available on request.

Data availability

The training datasets are available at: <https://doi.org/10.34616/DMTZAB> Data will be made available on request.

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867 **Author contribution**

868 Tomczyk Szymon: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis,
869 Writing - Original Draft, Writing – review and editing, Visualization.

870 Małgorzata Werner: [Conceptualization](#), Supervision, Funding acquisition, Writing -
871 Review & Editing, Investigation.

872 Małgorzata Malkiewicz: Supervision, Writing - Review & Editing, Investigation.

873 Karol Bubel: Writing - Review & Editing, Investigation.

874

875 **Competing interests**

876 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

877

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885 Access, the authors have applied a CC-BY public copyright licence to any Author
886 Accepted Manuscript version arising from this submission.

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