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# Atmospheric Carbon Dioxide at Aigüestortes, Central Pyrenees, Spain

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## Abstract

In order to improve the understanding of the carbon cycle in the Pyrenean region two atmospheric monitoring mountain stations were set up within the Long-Term Ecological Research node of Aigüestortes i Estany de Sant Maurici at Central Pyrenees, Spain. The atmospheric concentration of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) was measured over 2008-2014 and 2010-2014 at Estany Llong site (ELL) and Centre de Recerca d'Alta Muntanya (CRAM), respectively. Measurements were carried out fortnightly off-line with high precision instrumentation at ELL and every minute on-line with a lower precision sensor at CRAM in conjunction with meteorological variables. The two data sets were analyzed in this study, quantifying whenever possible annual growth rates (AGR), seasonal variability and diurnal amplitudes. Results were also compared with the NOAA Marine Boundary Layer (MBL) reference product and CO<sub>2</sub> data from other background monitoring stations. Four-harmonics adjusted CO<sub>2</sub> data from ELL showed a high correlation with the NOAA MBL reference product for the same latitude (Spearman's rho  $\rho=0.96$ ). In addition, AGRs of CO<sub>2</sub> at ELL correlated well with those observed at Mace Head (MHD) station ( $\rho=0.94$ ), suggesting that ELL can be considered a background station. Winter CRAM CO<sub>2</sub> data was not statistically different from ELL data, while in summer it was 5.5 ppm lower on average, suggesting a higher photosynthesis uptake. The amplitude of the CO<sub>2</sub> diurnal cycle at

CRAM was found to be exponentially related to the local mean daily temperature and dependent on forthcoming wind sector (N-NW or E-SE-S-SW). An increase in CRAM CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations was observed under N-NW winds during daytime, which could be related to traffic emissions. This study demonstrates that the use of CO<sub>2</sub> sensors with low precision but continuously corrected and periodically calibrated can be used for the study of local and regional CO<sub>2</sub> sources and sinks.

## 1. Introduction

Accurate assessment of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and their redistribution among the atmosphere, ocean, and terrestrial biosphere is important to better understand the global carbon cycle, to support the development of climate policies and to mitigate and tackle climate change (Bouwman 1989; Post et al. 1990; Tans et al. 1990a; Le Quéré et al. 2016).

The distribution of CO<sub>2</sub> sources and sinks are poorly constrained at regional (10<sup>2</sup>–10<sup>6</sup> km<sup>2</sup>) and seasonal scales (Ciais et al. 2000; Geels et al. 2007; Bergamaschi et al. 2010; Hase et al. 2015; Hu et al. 2018). Top-down techniques are useful to estimate carbon fluxes from atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> observations (Ciais et al. 2010). These top-down inversion models are more consistent for regions where the atmospheric network is dense (Peylin et al. 2013). Unfortunately, the number of measurements and their spatial coverage are still insufficient in some European regions such as the NW of the Mediterranean (Marquis and Tans 2008).

Remote mountain stations, located far away from anthropogenic sources, can provide useful information to investigate trends of large-scale background levels (Ciattaglia et al. 1987; Colombo et al. 2000; Schmidt 2003; Schibig et al. 2015; Bamberger et al. 2017). When local influences are filtered, mountain greenhouse gases (GHGs) time series can be considered suitable for global inversion models (Levin 1987; Bamberger et al. 2017). Monitoring GHGs in mountainous remote sites is also useful to understand the variability of the response of the mountain ecosystems to global warming (e.g. Randerson et al. 1999; Bakwin et al. 2004; Angert et al. 2005). Moreover, when the inversion models focus on small scales and utilize continental measurements of CO<sub>2</sub> they can better resolve the responses of various vegetation types and the impact of human interventions on land-atmosphere fluxes (Pillai et al. 2011).

In order to supply to the lack of CO<sub>2</sub> data in the NW Mediterranean region, atmospheric measurements were carried out since 2008 at Estany Llong (ELL), a mountain site in Central Pyrenees (north Spain). In 2010 continuous CO<sub>2</sub> measurements started at the nearby site of CRAM (Centre de Recerca d'Alta Muntanya). The two sites are part of the Long-Term Ecological Research (LTER) node of the 'Aigüestortes i Estany de Sant Maurici National Park' (ANP). The ANP has been a node of scientific research for hydrology (Catalan 1989), atmospheric chemistry (Bacardit and Camarero 2009; Curcoll et al. 2010; Camarero et al. 2017), atmospheric biology (Hervàs et al. 2009), biogeochemistry of surface waters (Camarero and Catalan 1993), aquatic organisms (Chappuis et al. 2011; 2014) and terrestrial flora and fauna (Carrillo and Ninot 1992).

The present study aims to assess the suitability of two Central Pyrenees GHGs atmospheric stations for regional-scale CO<sub>2</sub> monitoring and to evaluate the influencing factors driving the observed CO<sub>2</sub> variability at different temporal scales. More specifically, in this study ELL and CRAM CO<sub>2</sub> time series are presented for the first time and they are statistically analyzed with two specific goals: i) To offer the data to the scientific community and discuss their spatial representativeness; ii) To determine the sources of variability and to differentiate anthropogenic from natural influences.

After a short description of the sites, the sampling and analyzing methodology is addressed, remarking the precision and accuracy of the analytical procedure. Daily, monthly and annual variabilities of the two data sets are examined whenever possible, depending on their temporal resolution. To better interpret our results, we compare the obtained annual growth rates and seasonal variabilities with those from other European sites (Monte Cimone - Italy, Mace Head – UK, and CIBA – Spain). We also examine the influence of wind direction and ambient temperature. Finally, we use the results of these two sites (ELL and CRAM) to discuss whether the use of low-precision sensors can be justified in areas with low maintenance requirements.

## 2. Methods

### 2.1 Sites description

In 2008 LTER-Aigüestortes node was established as a member of the LTER-Spain network (Camarero and Morguí 2009). In the same year, a continuous atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> monitoring program was established at

the eastern extreme of Estany Llong Lake (ELL). The remote sampling site of ELL (42.57N, 0.95E, 2,003 meters above sea level [m asl]) is located inside the ANP. The ANP (14,119 ha) and its peripheral protection area (26,733 ha) are located in the southern axial chain of the Central Pyrenees, in northeastern Spain. It is a high-mountain area and its altitude ranges between 1,383 and 3,029 m asl. The climate is Atlantic mountain-type (Albentosa Sánchez 1973), with strong winters and snow present from November to May. Precipitation presents annual accumulated values of 1,200-1,300 mm. The annual mean temperature is 5.2°C with the highest monthly average in July (19.3°C) and the lowest in February (-4.3°C) (Ninyerola et al. 2003). The location is actually a mountain meadow of *Festuca sp.* and *Nardus sp.* surrounded by granite mountains and coniferous forest (Carreras and Diego 2007). Valley and mountain breezes are common at this site with upslope winds during the day and downslope breezes at night (Camarero et al. 2018).

In 2010, continuous atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> measurements started at CRAM (42.62N, 0.77E, 1,584 m asl). The CRAM is located at the top of the Noguera Ribagorçana valley that has a North-South orientation. The valley is located 16 km west of the ELL remote site, in the peripheral area of the ANP. The CRAM station is located 200 meters south of the Vielha road tunnel entrance (5,230 m long). It is surrounded by grassland in the North and mixed, deciduous and coniferous forests in the South (Carreras and Diego 2007). A map with the location of both sites with Corine land cover cartography can be found in the support material (Figure S1).

## 2.2 Estany Llong sampling and analytical method

Fortnightly samplings were carried out at ELL since April 2008. Samples were collected in two 1L cylindrical borosilicate glass flasks (Normag Labor und Prozesstechnik GmbH, Germany) with Kel-F PCTFE valves fitted at both ends. This material shows the lowest permeation of gases compared to other sealing materials (Sturm et al. 2004). Flasks were sampled using a new developed self-made sampling device suitable for remote sites. Air was taken at 3.5 meters above ground level (m agl) and was dried by passing through a desiccant (magnesium perchlorate). Then the sampled air was filtered to remove particles and pumped to the flasks. Air was flushed through a pair of flasks for at least 10 minutes at a flow rate between 2.0 and 3.5 l min<sup>-1</sup>. After, the exit valve was closed and flasks were pressurized with sampled air up to 1.5 bargs. Air samples were collected between 10 and 12 GMT, when the mixed boundary layer was developed and the valley breeze established. These previous conditions were selected to sample the widest possible influence area. Air temperature, relative humidity, atmospheric pressure and wind direction and speed were measured using a portable Kestrel 5500 weather device during ELL flasks sampling. According to factory specifications, accuracy of the instrument is 0.5°C (temperature), 2% (relative humidity), 1.5 mbar (pressure), 5° (wind direction) and 3% (wind speed).

Flasks samples from ELL site were analyzed for CO<sub>2</sub> using two differential, non-dispersive infrared gas analyzers (Licor7000) in series. Each Licor7000 had two cells and two detectors for a simultaneous measurement of CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O vapor on a reference and a sample stream. A vacuum pump was installed to empty the backspace between the flask valve and the analyzer inlet. A sketch of the analyzing instrumental configuration can be found in the support material (Figure S2). Both sample and reference were flushed through the cells at a flow rate of 0.1 l min<sup>-1</sup> controlled by two Bronkhorst mass flow controllers. On the sample line, a Valco multivalve was used to switch between calibration standards, samples and reference gas. Reference gas passed through the sample cell before and after each flask analysis. The value of the reference gas in the sample cell was used as a baseline to cope with instrument drift.

The Licor7000 has a strong dependency on cell pressure and temperature (Gomez-Pelaez and Ramos 2011). To minimize the pressure influence, both Licor7000 were modified and the pressure sensors were removed and two additional Bronkhorst backpressure controllers at the end of the reference and sample lines were installed to keep the pressure stable inside the cells. Since 2010, the room temperature in the laboratory was controlled with a specific air-conditioning equipment keeping the temperature stable at 23 ± 0.3°C. In 2013 both Licor7000 analyzers were installed in a Boxcult box and the cell temperature of instruments was stabilized at 30 ± 0.1°C. Improvements made on temperature control reduced the error and the drift of both analyzers. Average absolute difference between CO<sub>2</sub> calibrated measures of both analyzers decreased through the years, being 0.104 ppm in the 2008-2009 period, 0.041 in 2010-2012 and 0.029 in 2013-2015. The CO<sub>2</sub> values used in this study are the mean calculated from both analyzers. The use of the two Licor7000 analyzers in series improved the precision of the measurement and was useful for tracking instruments drift.

Each day that a set of flasks had to be analyzed in the lab, the two Licor7000 were calibrated every 4 hours with four secondary standards cylinders. These secondary standards were recalibrated every six months with 6 NOAA standards (WMO X2007 scale; Zhao and Tans 2006). Each flask was analyzed for seven minutes, time that best compromised the stability of the measurements and the lack of flow and pressure drop. For each measurement, only the last 30 seconds were considered for calculation. The two flasks of each sampling were analyzed on different days to cope with the instrument variability and differences due to calibrations. Uncertainties in the measured concentrations stemmed from both the sampling method and the analysis (Tans et al. 1990b). Pairs of flasks that had a difference higher than 0.7 ppm of CO<sub>2</sub> between both calibrated values were discarded. The average differences between the two flasks of each pair was -0.03 (1σ: ± 0.3) ppm. This deviation was consistent with other CO<sub>2</sub> flask measurements (e.g. Conway et al. 1994; Andrews et al. 2014).

### 2.3. Continuous sampling at the Centre de Recerca d'Alta Muntanya site

A Vaisala GMP343 carbon dioxide probe was installed for continuous CO<sub>2</sub> measurements in 2010 at CRAM station. Air inlet was at 3 m agl and the probe was protected from direct radiation and rain. The GMP343 sensor is an infrared absorbance CO<sub>2</sub> detector that uses a micromachined electrically tunable Fabry-Perot Interferometer (FPI). The FPI enables a reference measurement at a wavelength where no absorption occurs to improve the measurement (Vaisala 2017). The GMP343 has been used in atmospheric and biospheric studies where very high precision is not required (Pumpanen et al. 2008; Rigby et al. 2008). Factory precision of the instrument was 1% with a minimum long-term drift of ± 10 ppm CO<sub>2</sub> year<sup>-1</sup>. A Vantage Pro2 Davis weather station that delivered temperature, pressure, relative humidity and wind direction and wind speed data was also installed at CRAM. The GMP343 has an internal correction algorithm that considers temperature, humidity and pressure. Pressure and relative humidity from the meteorological station were sent to the instrument via RS232 every 10 minutes to correct CO<sub>2</sub> data. Correction for temperature was made using the internal GMP343 temperature sensor.

The instrument was calibrated at least twice a year by comparing concentrations with a collocated Picarro G2301 Cavity RingDown Spectroscopy Analyzer (CRDS), this latter with a precision better than 0.03 ppm for CO<sub>2</sub> (Crosson 2008; Richardson et al. 2012). In the intercomparison events, the G2301 analyzer was collocated for at least one week. G2301 results were corrected for water vapor (Rella et al. 2013) and further calibrated in the laboratory using six NOAA reference gases before and after each intercomparison. Residuals of the linear fit between CO<sub>2</sub> values measured by GMP343 and CO<sub>2</sub> values measured by G2301 showed a strong dependence on temperature. Therefore, an additional correction for temperature was implemented. The final CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations measured by GMP343 were obtained by linear regression of measured CO<sub>2</sub> and temperature as expressed in Equation 1, where  $T_{GMP}$  is the temperature measured by the GMP343,  $CO_{2(GMP)}$  is the value of the GMP343 and  $CO_{2(corr)}$  the corrected CO<sub>2</sub> value, measured by the G2301 analyzer. After applying the additional temperature correction, Residual Standard Error (RSE) for CO<sub>2</sub> calibration events was 1.5 ppm (1 week).

$$(1) \quad CO_{2(corr)} = A + B \cdot CO_{2(GMP)} + C \cdot T_{GMP}$$

A strong linear drift was observed on GMP343 data between calibrations (~ 15 ppm year<sup>-1</sup>), probably caused by the soiling of the mirrors of the sensor. A linear scaling was applied to CO<sub>2</sub> time series to correct for drift.

## 2.5 Data analysis

### 2.5.1. CO<sub>2</sub> time series curve fitting

The Carbon Cycle Group CuRVE (CCGCRV) is a digital time series filtering algorithm developed by Kirk Thoning within the Carbon Cycle Group, Earth System Research Laboratory at NOAA (USA) in the late 1980s (Thoning et al. 1989). Approximations of the seasonal cycle and the long-term trend are made by fitting a polynomial equation combined with a harmonic function. CCGCRV fit is recommended for analysis of time series where it is important to accurately represent the magnitude of the seasonal cycle or the timing of the seasonal inflexion points and for analyses where the year-to-year variation in the seasonal and trend

components are retained (Pickers and Manning 2015). We have applied the CCGCRV to the ELL CO<sub>2</sub> series using the recommended parameters by Pickers and Manning (2015): number of yearly harmonics = 4, number of polynomial terms = 3, short-term cutoff = 50 days, long-term cutoff = 667 days.

### 2.5.2. Bivariate Polar Plots for wind sectors analysis

The location of potential local sources and sinks at both ELL and CRAM was explored through bivariate polar plots (Carslaw and Ropkins 2012). The ELL bivariate polar plot was composed with the residuals of the ELL CO<sub>2</sub> series from the 4-harmonics CCGCRV fit curve instead of using the actual concentrations. By doing so we remove the seasonal and the inter-annual variabilities. For the CRAM data set bivariate polar plots for absolute CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were generated.

### 2.5.3. Ambient temperature influence on the diurnal amplitude.

Due to the measurement error of the GMP343 sensors being greater than 1 ppm, the time series at CRAM was only used for the analysis of large CO<sub>2</sub> variations (diurnal and seasonal cycles) but not for the study of long-term trends. Meteorological variables from the Davis station were also used. Hourly means were calculated from minute measurements. For all the measurement days at CRAM, the amplitude of the CO<sub>2</sub> diurnal cycle was calculated as the difference between the daily maximum concentration and the daily minimum.

To evaluate the influence of air temperature on the diurnal CO<sub>2</sub> cycle, the Lloyd and Taylor formulation was used. It is a semi-empirical formulation that relates the temperature dependency of soil respiration, reflecting the decrease in the respiration activation energy with increasing temperature (Lloyd and Taylor 1994) (Equation 2). Although this equation was formulated for soil respiration ( $R$ ,  $\mu\text{mol C m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), we consider that the amplitude of the CO<sub>2</sub> diurnal cycle at CRAM is dependent on the soil respiration and ecosystem photosynthesis, both controlled by temperature (Berry and Bjorkman 1980; Smith and Dukes 2013). Therefore, in our approximation the variable  $R$  refers to the amplitude of the diurnal cycle (ppm CO<sub>2</sub>).

$$(2) \quad R = Ae^{\frac{-E_0}{T-T_0}}$$

While the regression parameter  $T_0$  is kept constant at -46.02 °C (Lloyd and Taylor 1994), the activation energy kind of parameter ( $E_0$ ) is a free parameter that sets the temperature sensitivity (Reichstein et al. 2005).  $T$  is the average diurnal temperature and  $A$  is a dataset dependent variable.

### 2.5.4. Data retrieval from NOAA Marine Boundary Layer, background monitoring stations and global flux models for data comparison

ELL CO<sub>2</sub> time series were compared with the NOAA CO<sub>2</sub> Marine Boundary Layer (MBL) reference product for the same latitude (Dlugokencky et al. 2017b). The NOAA MBL reference product is derived directly from measurements of weekly air samples and gives low-noise representation of the annual variability and the ongoing global increase of CO<sub>2</sub> (Masarie and Tans 1995). The zonal product of the NOAA MBL gives the marine background concentration for a range of latitudes (42.57-42.58 degrees north in our case). Each value has an associated uncertainty assigned by the density of measurements on a given period. The average associated error for the 2008-2014 period was 0.61 ppm. The CCGCRV curve was also applied to the MBL data series for a better statistical analysis.

To evaluate ELL as a mountain site capturing long-term changes we have retrieved data from nearby stations that measure CO<sub>2</sub> with weekly flask measurements. Selected stations were: (1) Monte Cimone (CMN; 44.18N, 10.70E, 2,165 m asl), a mountain station at similar latitude and altitude (Ciattaglia 1983; Ciattaglia et al. 1987; Cundari et al. 1990; Cundari et al. 1995; Cristofanelli et al. 2018); (2) Mace Head (MHD, 53.33N, 9.90W, 5 m asl), located in the west Atlantic coast of Ireland and considered in many studies as a reference for Europe (Conway et al. 1994; Dlugokencky et al. 2017); (3) CIBA (CIB, 41.81N, 4.93W, 856 m asl), a northern-Spain station located in an agricultural area at a similar latitude as ELL (Sánchez et al. 2010; Dlugokencky et al. 2017). Data from these stations have been obtained via NOAA ObsPack products (Cooperative Global Atmospheric Data Integration Project 2013, 2017). The growth rate for these stations was also obtained using the CCGCRV algorithm.

Modeled values of annual terrestrial flux from two global models, MACC-V2 (Chevallier et al. 2010) and JENA-MPI (Rödenbeck et al. 2003), were obtained from the Global Carbon Atlas (<http://www.globalcarbonatlas.org/en/flux-time-series>).

### 3. Results

#### 3.1 Estany Llong data series results

##### 3.1.1 Estany Llong annual growth rates.

The CCGCRV analysis was applied at ELL CO<sub>2</sub> data series with a good agreement (Residual Standard Error = 1.71 ppm) (Figure 1). Signals of strong systematic anthropogenic or natural influences of samples seem not to be present in the ELL CO<sub>2</sub> data series. When comparing the harmonic function of ELL with the MBL reference, annual cycle of both series had a similar pattern and amplitude, with a slightly earlier spring decrease of the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration at ELL. The non-parametric Spearman's rank coefficient was used to analyze the correlation between series. Spearman's rho ( $\rho$ ) correlation between the two whole series was 0.96 and ELL CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were  $0.89 \pm 1.57$  ( $1\sigma$ ) ppm lower than the MBL reference over the period 2008-2013. Thus, the two time series do not differ. Moreover we must take into account the average associated error for the NOAA MBL series, 0.61 ppm (Dlugokencky et al. 2017b). This result suggests that ELL is mainly capturing a background signal.

From the 4-harmonic function, the annual growth was obtained. The variability in the annual growth rate of both ELL and NOAA MBL CO<sub>2</sub> series followed a similar tendency ( $\rho=0.77$ ), with the highest value in 2010 (2.76 and 3.22 ppm CO<sub>2</sub>/year respectively); and the lowest in 2009 for ELL (1.11 ppm) and in 2011 for NOAA MBL (1.48 ppm CO<sub>2</sub>/year). Average annual growth rate for the period 2008-2013 was  $2.18 \pm 0.74$  ( $1\sigma$ ) ppm CO<sub>2</sub>/year for ELL and  $2.20 \pm 0.65$  ( $1\sigma$ ) ppm CO<sub>2</sub>/year for NOAA MBL, showing that ELL CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were growing with a similar trend as for the marine background concentrations (Figure 2).

The highest correlation between annual growth rate at ELL against the other monitoring stations was with Mace Head ( $\rho=0.94$ ) (Atlantic coastal site) (Figure 2). The other mountain station, Monte Cimone, showed a different behavior, with higher annual variability.

##### 3.1.2 Estany Llong wind direction influence

The windrose for ELL (Figure 3.a) shows that main wind direction followed the valley orientation (NE-E and SW-W). The bivariate polar plot generated from the residuals of the 4-harmonics fitting curve (Figure 3.b) shows that on average there was no difference in CO<sub>2</sub> concentration when the wind blew from the valley (SW-W) or the mountain top (NE-E). Other forthcoming directions showed higher (SE) and lower (NW) signals, but the amount of data was too scarce to generate consistent conclusions.

#### 3.2 Centre de Recerca d'Alta Muntanya data series results

##### 3.2.1 Centre de Recerca d'Alta Muntanya diurnal cycle

The diurnal cycle of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration at CRAM shows a significant variability depending on the season (Figure S3). The highest daily maximum concentration was measured in February and the lowest in August. In summer, when ecosystem respiration and photosynthesis at northern mid-latitudes get the maximum rates (Potter and Randerson 1993), the diurnal amplitude was higher, with average values of  $31.4 \pm 10.5$  ( $1\sigma$ ) ppm. In winter months, the average diurnal amplitude was reduced to  $7.5 \pm 4.5$  ( $1\sigma$ ) ppm. The average amplitude of the annual cycle of daily means in CRAM was 9.1 ppm.

##### 3.2.2. Centre de Recerca d'Alta Muntanya wind direction influence

The influence of the air masses origin in the CRAM CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is shown in a bivariate polar plot in Figure 4a. The non-parametric Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon test was used to statistically find the differences between the CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations from the different sectors. An average difference of 4.7 ppm was found between N-NW and E-SE-S-SW winds for the period 2011-2013 [95% Confidence Interval (CI): 4.1 to 5.3,  $p < 10^{-15}$ ] (Figure 4a). The observed differences were magnified in daytime, when the photosynthetic activity is higher, the up-valley wind is more frequent, and the transit of vehicles is higher (4.9 ppm, 4.3 to 5.3 CI,  $p < 10^{-15}$ ) (Figure 4b). In nighttime, when traffic was significantly reduced, the CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were mostly driven by respiration processes and the accumulation in the lower boundary layer and there was no significant difference between the concentrations of the two directions ( $p > 0.5$ ) (Figure 4c). These differences

in concentration between N-NW and E-SE-S-SW winds were also greater in summer (5.0 ppm, 4.5 to 5.5 CI,  $p < 10^{-15}$ ) (Figure 4d), when photosynthetic processes decreased CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, and were less significant in winter (1.2 ppm, 0.8 to 1.5 CI,  $p < 10^{-9}$ ) (Figure 4e).

### 3.2.3 Centre de Recerca d'Alta Muntanya temperature influence

The influence of temperature on the diurnal cycle amplitude in the CRAM CO<sub>2</sub> was analyzed. Since up to 20 ppm difference was observed depending on the wind forthcoming direction, data series was split depending on the predominant wind direction over a day: North to North-West sector (N-NW); and East to South-Westerly (E-SE-S-SW). The natural logarithm of the diurnal CO<sub>2</sub> amplitude was plotted against the ambient temperature for both wind sectors and the Lloyd and Taylor equation was used to fit the values (Figure 5). Resulting parameters of Equation 2 are shown in Table 1. The diurnal CO<sub>2</sub> amplitude at the average daily temperature at CRAM (8.1°C) for both N-NW and E-SE-S-SW wind sectors was 13.3 and 9.0 ppm respectively. The non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test was used to evaluate if the wind direction was a good explanatory variable of the amplitude of the diurnal cycle. Test result indicated that the diurnal amplitudes for air coming from both sectors were statistically different ( $p < 10^{-15}$ ). A non-parametric analysis of covariance (Young and Bowman 1995; Bowman and Azzalini 1997) showed that the effect of the temperature on the diurnal cycle was not different for the two wind sectors considered ( $p > 0.01$ ). Despite the two wind sectors had different mean amplitudes and were differently influenced by anthropogenic emissions, the effect of temperature on driving the amplitude of the diurnal cycle was the same.

### 3.3 Seasonal variability of Estany Llong and Centre de Recerca d'Alta Muntanya CO<sub>2</sub> concentration

The mean seasonal variation over 2010-2013 was calculated for ELL and CRAM and also for the other sites (CMN, MHD, CIB and MBL) (Figure 6). Annual maximum at ELL was found in March, and annual minimum in August. ELL annual cycle amplitude was maximum in 2010 (16.2 ppm CO<sub>2</sub>) and minimum in 2011 (11.2 ppm CO<sub>2</sub>), with an average of  $13.2 \pm 2.2$  (1 $\sigma$ ) ppm CO<sub>2</sub>.

For CRAM series, only the hours 10-12 GMT were selected for comparison with the ELL CO<sub>2</sub> series. Annual maximum was found in February, a month earlier than ELL, but the annual minimum was also observed in August. Annual cycle amplitude was maximum in 2011 (22.2 ppm CO<sub>2</sub>) and minimum in 2013 (19.6 ppm CO<sub>2</sub>), with an average of  $20.6 \pm 1.7$  (1 $\sigma$ ) ppm.

The Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon test was used to assess if the mean concentration at ELL and CRAM were statistically different or not. The test was done for winter (DJF) and summer months (JJA). While in summer the mean concentrations at both locations were statistically different ( $p < 10^{-4}$ ), winter concentrations were not distinct ( $p > 0.1$ ). ELL monthly means were inside the first interquartile range of CRAM data from October to May. In summer both series diverge, being CRAM measurements lower than ELL (5.5 ppm, 3.5 to 7.4 CI).

The highest correlation of the seasonal CO<sub>2</sub> cycle at ELL was observed with the other mountain site, Monte Cimone ( $\rho = 0.84$ ), indicating that both mountain sites behave similarly under seasonal changes (Figure 6). During spring, CRAM and ELL concentrations were similar to the CIBA, located at the same latitude ( $p > 0.05$ ). However, CIBA measurements at summertime were extremely variable ( $\sigma = 4.6$  ppm), causing higher average values (8.9 ppm, 7.6 to 10.3 CI,  $p < 10^{-15}$ ). Differences in concentrations for ELL and MHD were not significant for any season ( $p > 0.05$ ).

CO<sub>2</sub> differences of ELL and CRAM with MBL were not statistically significant in winter and fall ( $p > 0.1$ ). In summer ELL also had similar concentrations as the MBL reference, but CRAM was 7.0 ppm higher (5.6 to 8.5 CI,  $p < 10^{-15}$ ). The major differences between ELL and the MBL reference were encountered in spring, being ELL data 2.1 ppm lower on average than MBL (0.7 to 3.6 CI,  $p < 0.05$ ). This might indicate that ELL data was more influenced by a regional or continental processes (with strong spring uptake) rather than very local, because the site is usually covered with snow in spring months (Albentosa Sánchez 1973).

## 4. Discussion

### 4.1 Annual cycle and growth rate comparison

The comparison of ELL data with other sites showed that ELL mountain station was mostly measuring background concentrations and captured the annual fluctuations driven by global changes. The statistical difference between ELL and the MBL reference was only significant in spring, probably influenced by a

major continental uptake by the former. These results suggest that ELL is a suitable site to help constraining background concentration in European top-down inversion models.

The high mountain sites appeared to have similar behaviors when comparing annual cycles. ELL and CMN annual cycles showed high levels of correlation despite the maximum concentration at ELL was observed in March, a month earlier than at CMN and the MBL reference. In ELL a large decrease of the measured CO<sub>2</sub> concentration was observed in April, probably caused by the influence of the southern Mediterranean vegetation from central Spain that is becoming photosynthetically more active earlier in late winter to early spring (Verger et al. 2016).

The lower summer concentrations observed at CRAM compared to ELL could be explained by higher photosynthesis rates near CRAM station. The surrounding vegetation differs between the two sites, with more mixed and deciduous forests in CRAM compared with meadows, coniferous forests and rocky granite areas in ELL (Figure S1). Winter similarities are coherent with low average temperatures and the presence of snow at both sites, reducing all kind of CO<sub>2</sub> uptake or release from vegetation or soils (Mast et al. 1998; Merbold et al. 2013). That might also explain the lower differences between ELL and CRAM with the NOAA MBL during winter months.

The strength of the biospheric and oceanic CO<sub>2</sub> exchanges strongly varies in space and time. This variability is, in turn, closely linked back to climatic influences (Goulden 1996; Piao et al. 2013). The annual terrestrial flux indicates the terrestrial CO<sub>2</sub> annual natural budget, i.e. the difference between the natural terrestrial sources and the natural terrestrial sinks (Houghton 2003). The magnitude of the annual growth from the different monitoring sites is correlated with the annual terrestrial flux from MACC-V2 and JENA-MPI biospheric models for the period 2008-2011 (Figure 2). The increase in annual growth in 2010 was coincidental with an increase in the terrestrial flux. Longer time series are however needed to establish whether this relation is maintained over time.

#### 4.2 Influence of wind direction and atmospheric temperature on CRAM CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations

The amplitude of the CO<sub>2</sub> diurnal cycle at CRAM was highly correlated with temperature following an exponential relation, probably driven by the exponential increase of soil respiration with temperature and the general increase of photosynthesis with temperature at low and mid-temperatures (Berry and Bjorkman 1980; Smith and Dukes 2013). Seasonal changes in boundary layer height caused by temperature annual cycle may also affect the variability of the measured CO<sub>2</sub> (Pino et al. 2013). The amplitude of the diurnal cycle was also found to be dependent on wind direction. At CRAM annual average temperature (8.1 °C), the CO<sub>2</sub> diurnal amplitude for days with a predominant wind from N-NW sector was 4.3 ppm lower on average than the diurnal amplitude for days with a predominance of E-SE-S-SW winds. However, the logarithm of the CO<sub>2</sub> diurnal amplitude for both wind sectors co-varied symmetrically with the average daily temperature. A higher CO<sub>2</sub> diurnal signal produced by anthropogenic emissions from vehicles on the N-NW direction, coupled with a similar natural diurnal cycle for both wind sectors, could explain this behavior. Future measurements of CO, which has been widely used as a proxy tracer for fossil fuel-derived CO<sub>2</sub> (Meijer et al. 1996; Vogel et al. 2010; Turnbull et al. 2015) could help determine if the increase in CO<sub>2</sub> concentration from northerly winds was only caused by traffic emissions or was also due to lower vegetation influence.

### 5. Conclusions

The analysis of the ELL CO<sub>2</sub> series showed that this site behaves as a remote background station that is scarcely influenced by local micrometeorology and local potential sources. The fortnightly samples series are useful to understand the seasonal cycle and the annual growth rate, but poorly serves to know short-term influences. Annual growth rates at ELL were comparable to those observed in remote background locations and correlated with CO<sub>2</sub> terrestrial flux models for 2008-2011.

Continuous data from CRAM showed that CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were dependent on the wind direction according to the location of local sources and sinks. The near presence of the Vielha tunnel north of the monitoring site influenced the measured concentrations and on average CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations from this direction were ~5 ppm higher on average during daytime. A large amplitude of the CO<sub>2</sub> diurnal cycle (up to 31.4 ppm) was observed in summer. The variability of the diurnal amplitude was proved to be related to the average diurnal temperature due to photosynthesis and soil respiration. The use of a Lloyd and Taylor curve revealed a similar influence of the temperature in the variability of the CO<sub>2</sub> diurnal amplitude for N-NW and



E-SE-S-SW wind sectors. CO<sub>2</sub> traffic emissions could be responsible for an increase of CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in daytime, lowering the observable amplitude of the CO<sub>2</sub> diurnal cycle when wind was from the N-NW independently of temperature. Future traffic-related tracer measurements such as CO could help resolve the influence of traffic emissions.

The combination of two temporal CO<sub>2</sub> series, one at a high mountain background environment with low time resolution but high precision measurements, and the second in a site more influenced by local emissions, with lower precision but higher time resolution, has been demonstrated to be useful for the study of the sources and sinks controlling the CO<sub>2</sub> budget in mountain ecosystems. Although the precision and accuracy of the GMP343 sensor is low, with a periodic calibration it can improve up to 1.5 ppm. These CO<sub>2</sub> sensors can be useful to study the diurnal variability in remote stations and easy to deploy due to its low maintenance and low energy consumption.

Despite concentrations at the two locations were statistically similar during winter months, summer concentrations showed to be different indicating the presence of more photosynthetic active vegetation near CRAM than at ELL. A future installation of a continuous measurement station near ELL, not directly influenced by anthropogenic emissions, could help resolve the factors driving the diurnal and seasonal CO<sub>2</sub> cycle at ELL. Additional CO<sub>2</sub> flux measurements and soil decomposition studies (tea-bags ILTER global decomposition project, 2016-2019) are already being carried out in grassland areas in the National Park. These measurements will be used to better understand the local influences and the response of ecosystems to temperature changes, and to reduce the uncertainties in the regional carbon balance.

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Table1. Parameters of the Lloyd and Taylor curve depending on forthcoming wind direction.

Forthcoming wind direction	$A$	$E_0$	$R^2$
N-NW	2469	282.6	0.65
E-SE-S-SW	3699	289.5	0.72

## FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1. Observed CO<sub>2</sub> time series from 2008-2014 based on Estany Llong (ELL) fortnightly CO<sub>2</sub> data series (red points), ELL CO<sub>2</sub> 4-harmonics fit (straight line), NOAA Marine Boundary Layer (MBL) reference (dashed line) and the Centre de Recerca d'Alta Muntanya (CRAM) hourly CO<sub>2</sub> data series (green small dots).

Figure 2: Observed CO<sub>2</sub> annual growth rate of Estany Llong (ELL), NOAA Marine Boundary Layer (MBL) reference, Mace Head (MHD), CIBA (CIB) and Monte Cimone (CMN) data series. Annual global CO<sub>2</sub> terrestrial flux as MACC V2 and JENA MPI models are shown for years 2008-2011 on the right axis. Vertical lines are the standard deviations of annual growth rates.

Figure 3: a) Wind rose for flask sampling events at Estany Llong (ELL) b) Polar plot of CO<sub>2</sub> residuals from the 4-harmonics fit curve at ELL. WSpeed: wind speed (m/s)

Figure 4: Influence of wind direction on the observed CO<sub>2</sub> data measured at Centre de Recerca d'Alta Muntanya (CRAM). Bivariate polar plots of CO<sub>2</sub> data: a) Average 2010-2014; b) Diurnal (08 to 20 GMT); c) Nocturnal (22 to 05 GMT); d) Summer (May to October); e) Winter (November to April). WSpeed: wind speed (m/s)

Figure 5: Influence of temperature on the observed CO<sub>2</sub> data measured at Centre de Recerca d'Alta Muntanya (CRAM). Natural logarithm of CO<sub>2</sub> diurnal amplitude against daily mean temperature for N-NW coming winds and for E-SE-S-SW winds and their corresponding Lloyd & Taylor fit (Lloyd and Taylor 1994).

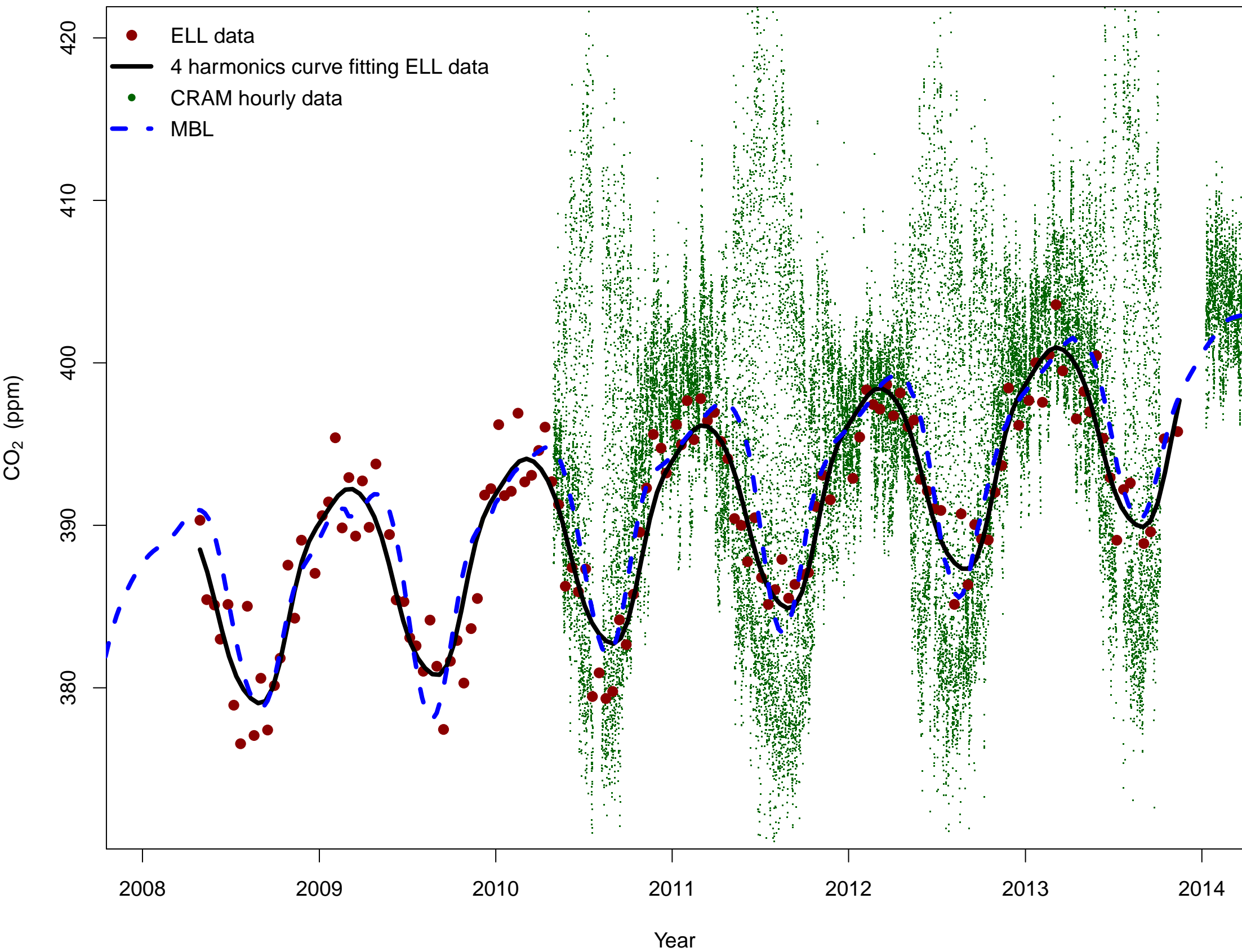
Figure 6: Average annual CO<sub>2</sub> cycle measured from the observed data at Centre de Recerca d'Alta Muntanya (CRAM), Estany Llong (ELL), Mace Head (MHD), Monte Cimone (CMN), CIBA (CIB) and NOAA Marine Boundary Layer (MBL) reference for the period 2010-2013. Shaded regions are the interquartile ranges for CRAM (light red) and ELL (grey).

## SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

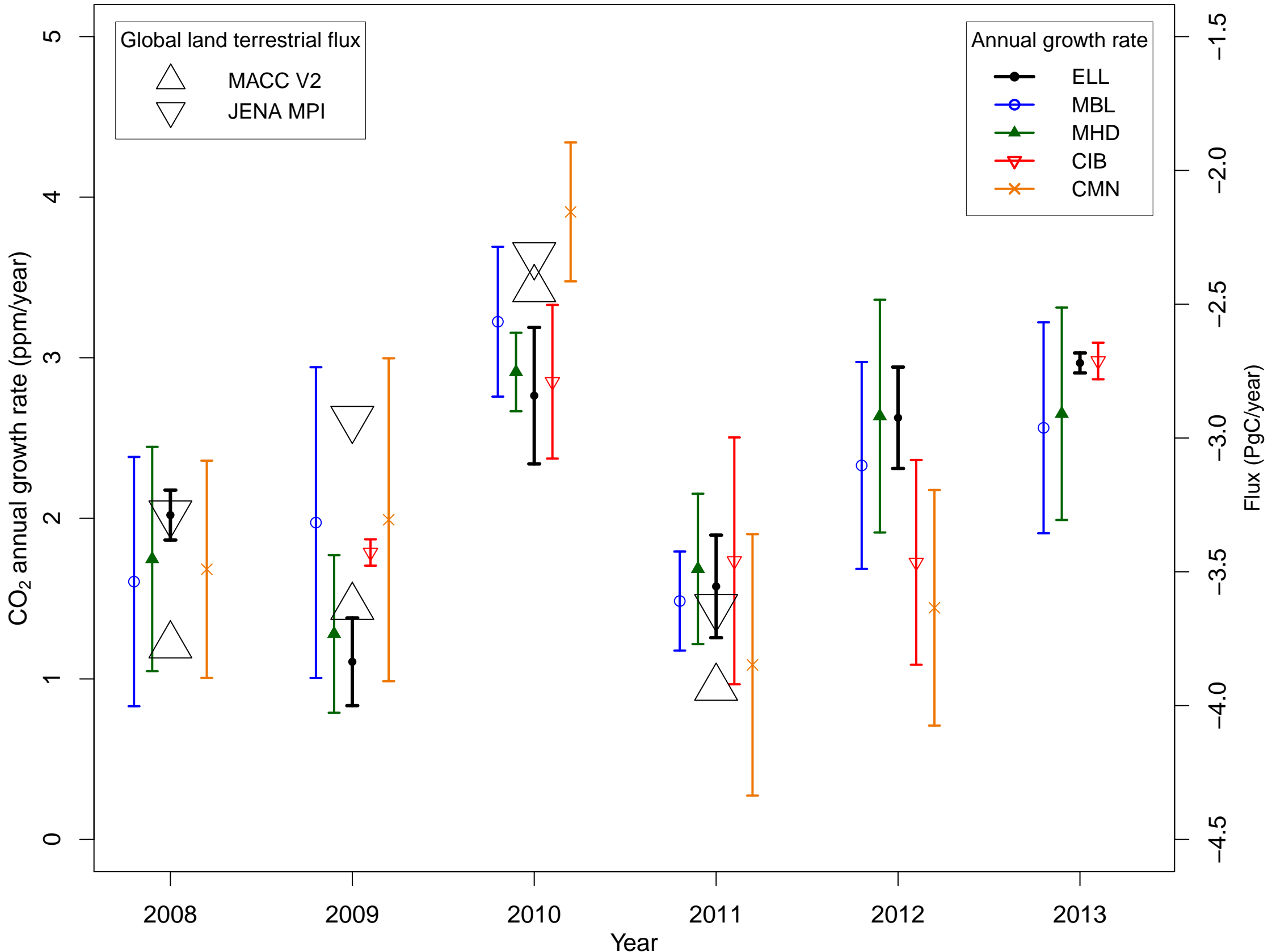
Figure S1. General location of Aigüestortes Long Term Ecological Research site in the Pyrenees chain (left). Location of Centre de Recerca d'Alta Muntanya (CRAM) and Estany Llong (ELL) stations in the park (top-center). Corine land cover maps from the cartography of habitats in Catalonia (Carreras and Diego 2007) around CRAM (top left) and ELL (bottom left).

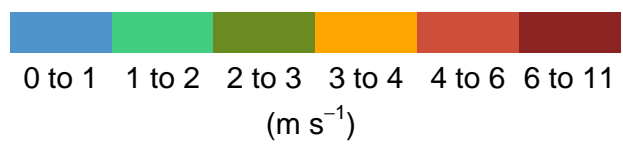
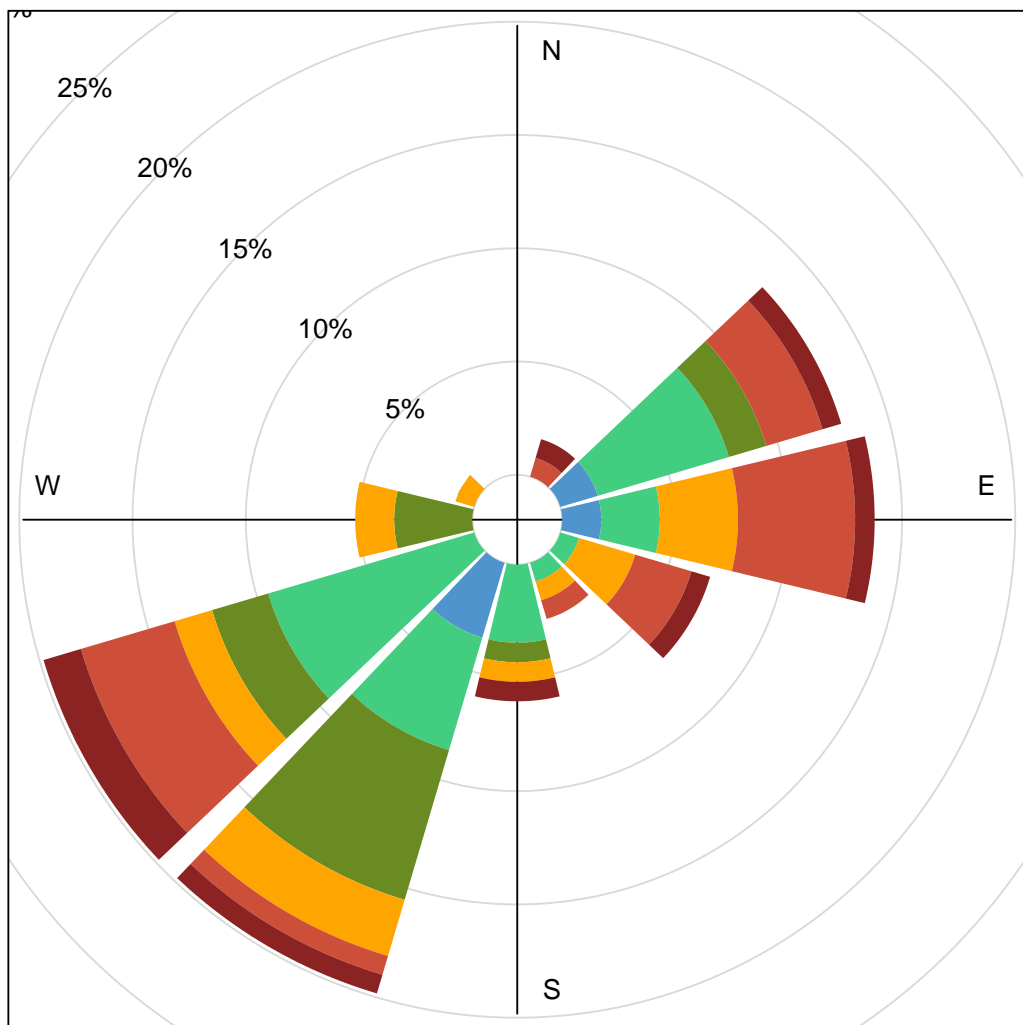
Figure S2: Schematic for the CO<sub>2</sub> analysis of flask samples using two Licor7000 analyzers.

Figure S3: Diurnal and annual CO<sub>2</sub> variability at Centre de Recerca d'Alta Muntanya (CRAM). Trend level plot for CO<sub>2</sub> at CRAM for 2010, 2011, 2012 and 2013.

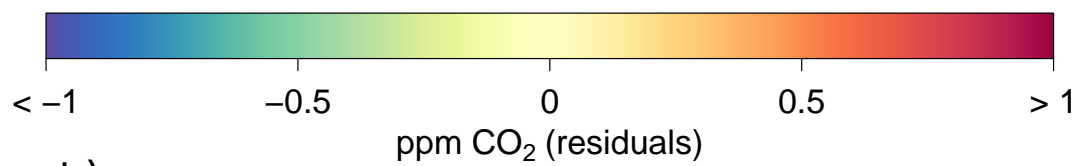
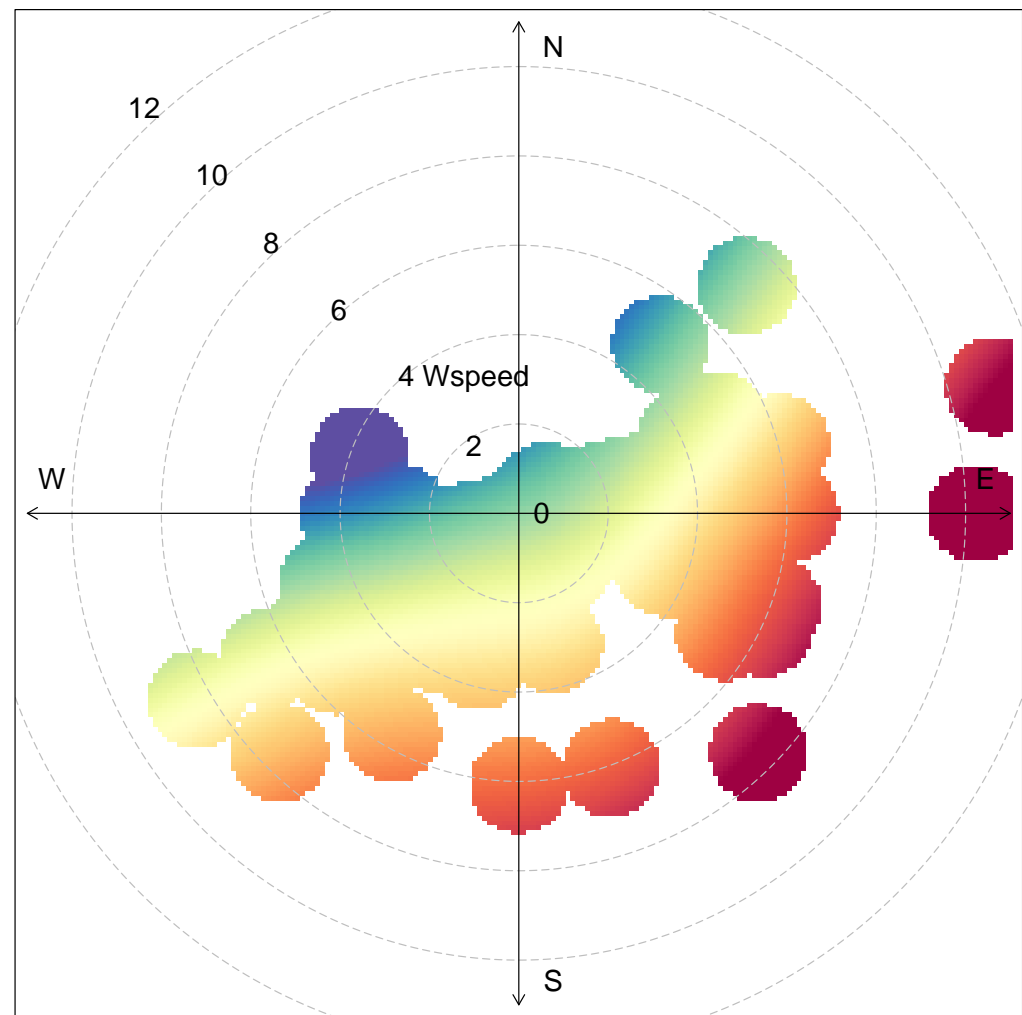




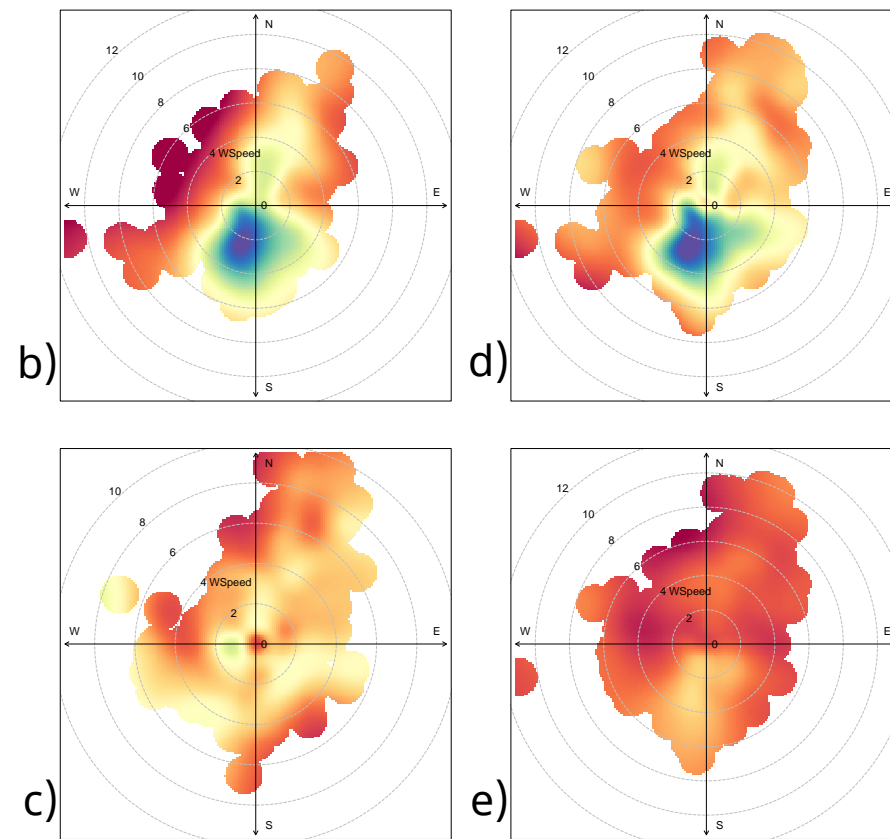
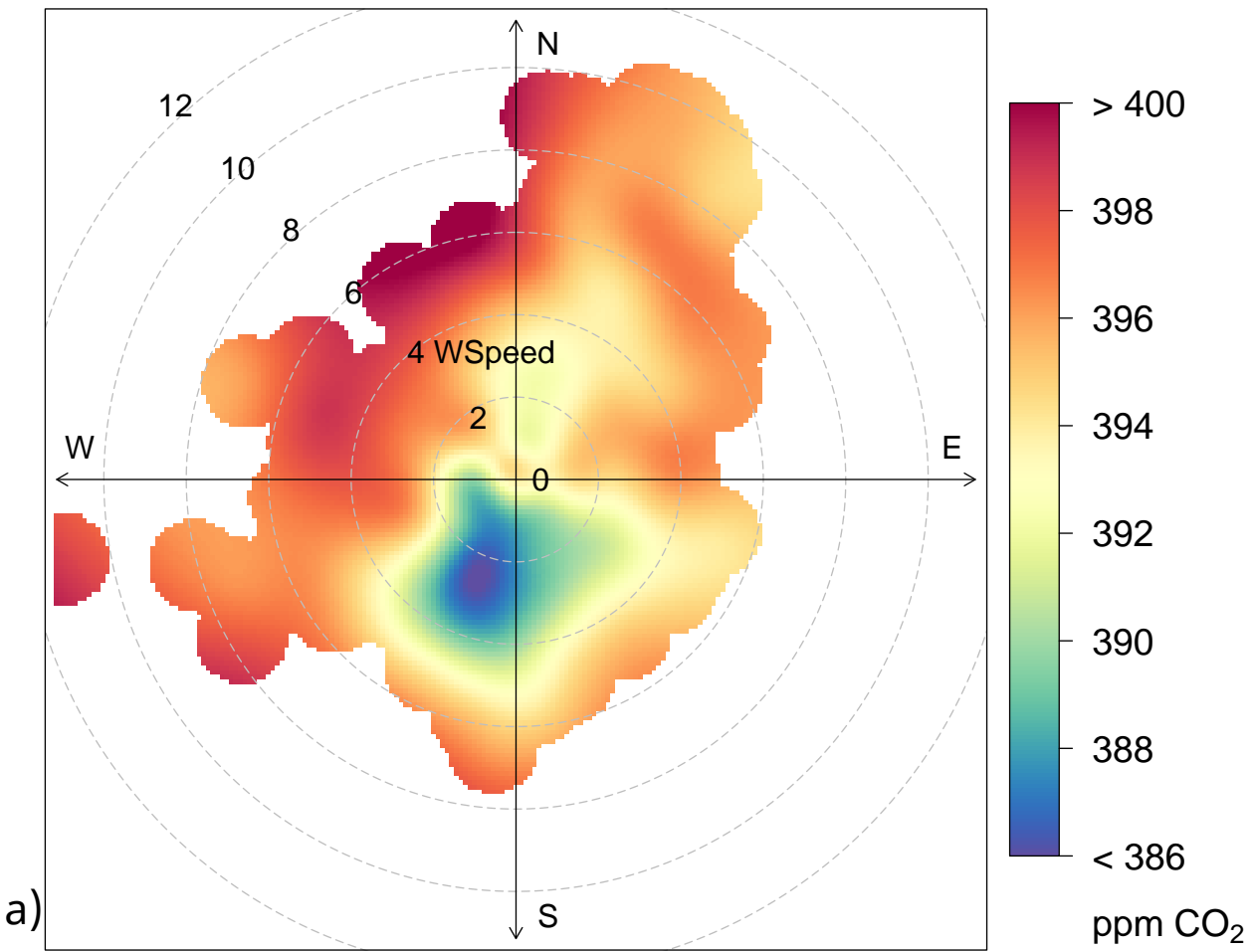


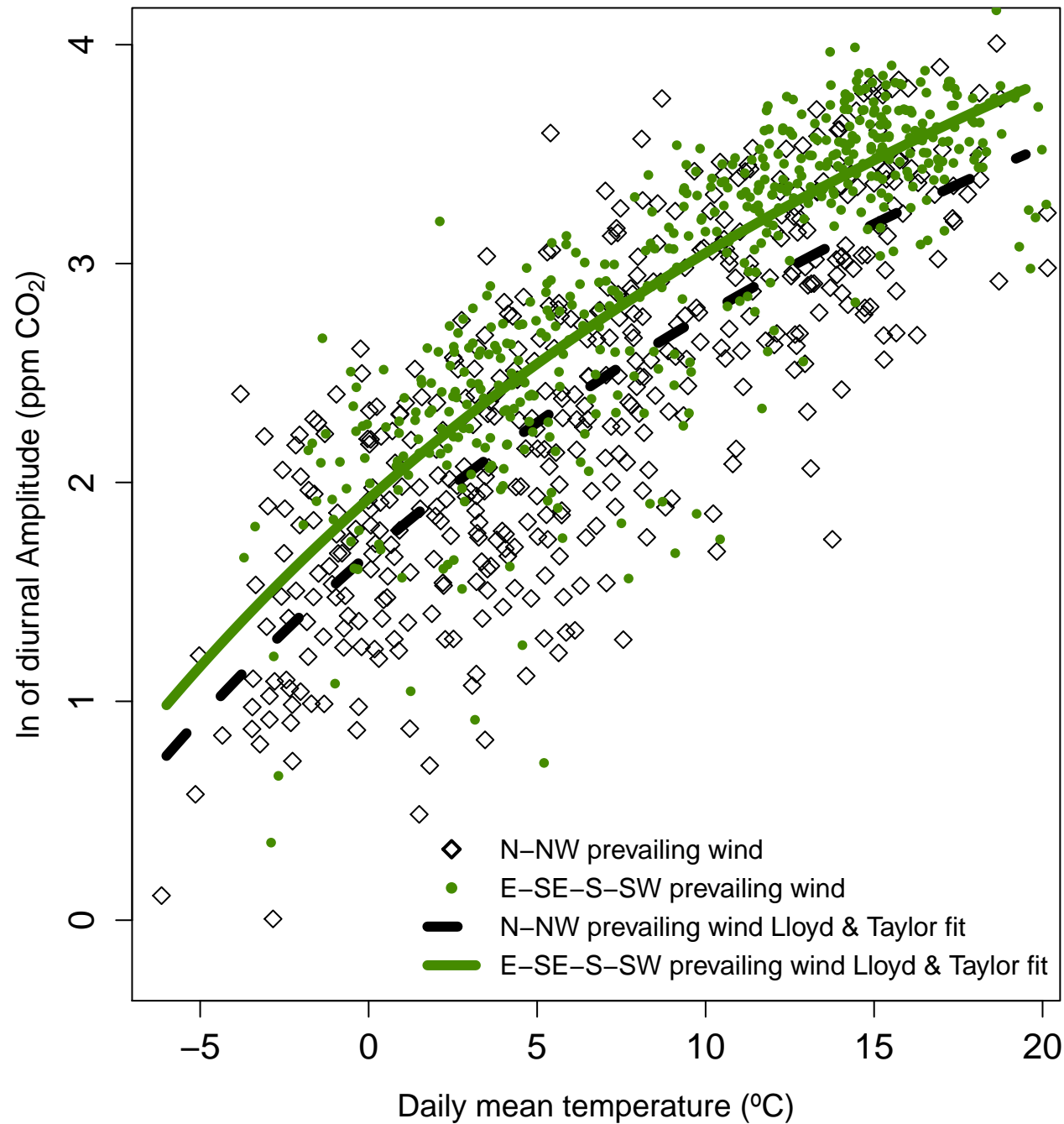


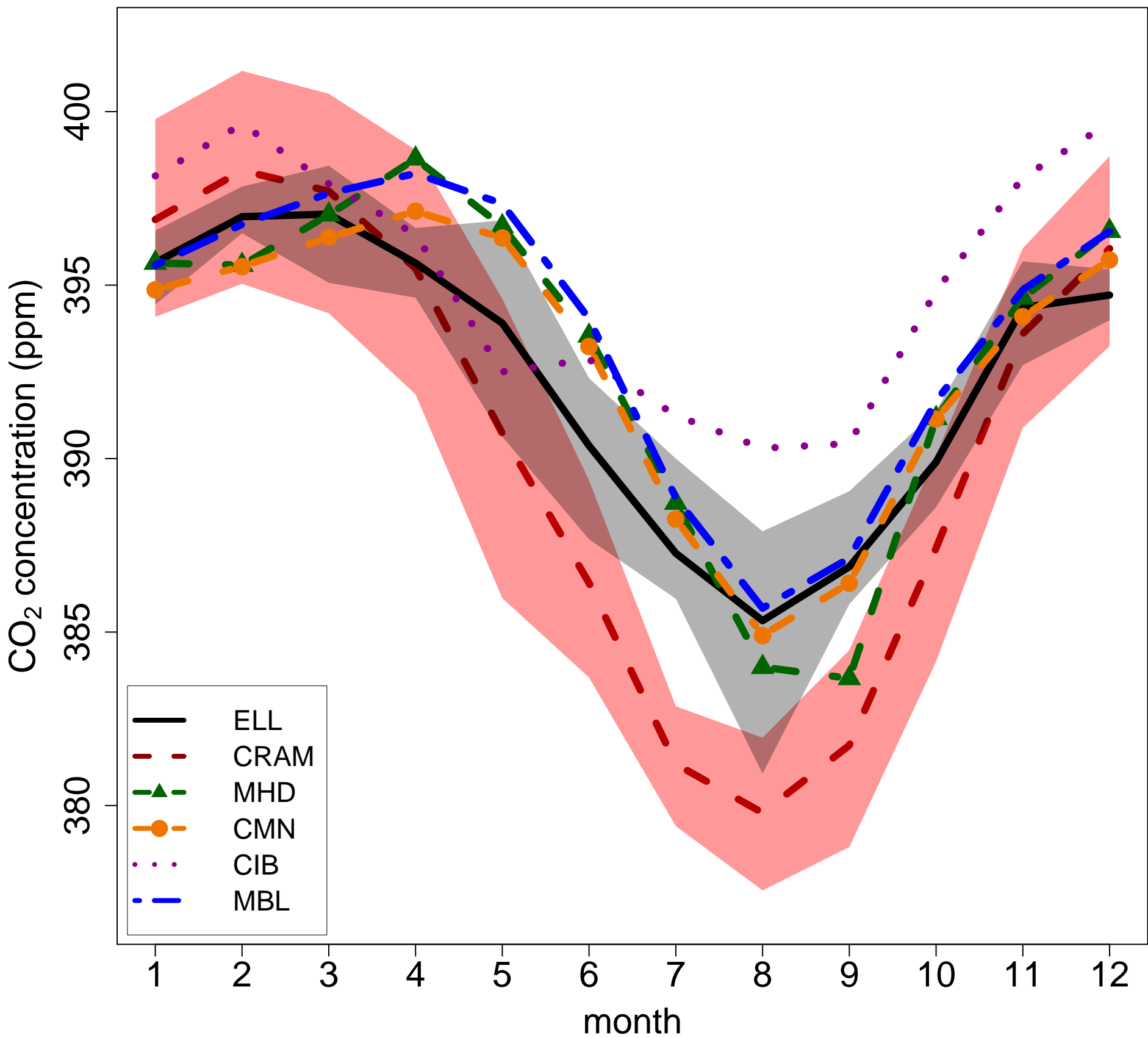
a)

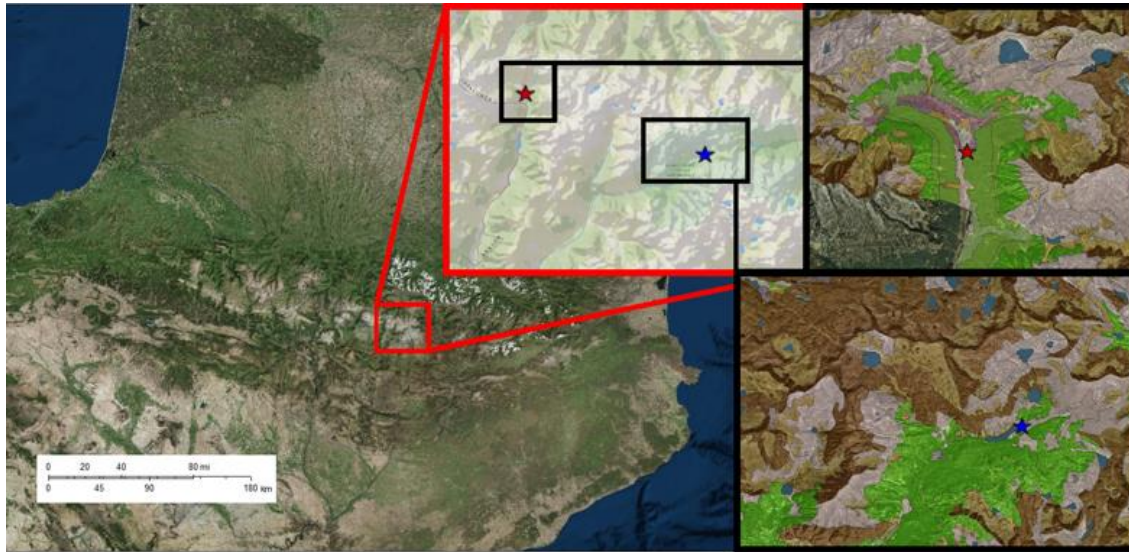


b)









★ ELL site

★ CRAM site

CORINE habitats cartography

Standing fresh water

Mountain (and cool lowland) bush and tall herb communities

Dry siliceous grasslands

Alpine and subalpine grasslands and related communities

Hay meadows and fertilized pastures

Broad-leaved deciduous forests

Coniferous woodland

Mixed coniferous and deciduous forests

Fens, transition mires and springs

Screes

Inland cliffs and exposed rocks

