



Cronfa - Swansea University Open Access Repository

This is an author produced version of a paper published in : *Environmental Science & Technology*

Cronfa URL for this paper: http://cronfa.swan.ac.uk/Record/cronfa20036

Paper:

Pierce, A., Moore, C., Wohlfahrt, G., Hörtnagl, L., Kljun, N. & Obrist, D. (2015). Eddy Covariance Flux Measurements of Gaseous Elemental Mercury Using Cavity Ring-Down Spectroscopy. *Environmental Science & Technology, 49*(3), 1559-1568.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1021/es505080z

This article is brought to you by Swansea University. Any person downloading material is agreeing to abide by the terms of the repository licence. Authors are personally responsible for adhering to publisher restrictions or conditions. When uploading content they are required to comply with their publisher agreement and the SHERPA RoMEO database to judge whether or not it is copyright safe to add this version of the paper to this repository. http://www.swansea.ac.uk/iss/researchsupport/cronfa-support/

1	Eddy covariance flux measurements of gaseous
2	elemental mercury using cavity ring-down
3	spectroscopy
4 5	Ashley M. Pierce† ¹ , Christopher W. Moore ¹ , Georg Wohlfahrt ² , Lukas Hörtnagl ² , Natascha Kljun ³ , Daniel Obrist* ¹
6	
7	¹ Desert Research Institute, Division of Atmospheric Sciences, Reno, NV, USA
8	² University of Innsbruck, Institute of Ecology, Innsbruck, Austria
9	³ Swansea University, Department of Geography, Swansea, UK
10	
11	
12	Keywords: Eddy covariance flux measurements, gaseous elemental mercury (GEM),
13	pulsed cavity ring-down spectroscopy (CRDS), modified Bowen ratio, dynamic flux
14	chamber

16 A pulsed cavity ring-down spectroscopy (CRDS) system for measuring atmospheric 17 gaseous elemental mercury (GEM) concentrations at high temporal resolution was used 18 to successfully conduct eddy covariance (EC) flux measurements of GEM. GEM fluxes 19 from soils are important to understand because they can originate from natural sources, 20 legacy emissions, and re-emission of previously deposited anthropogenic pollution, 21 which together exceed primary anthropogenic emissions. Eddy covariance flux 22 measurements require sub-second concentration measurements, hampering the 23 measurement of GEM fluxes due to slow response instrumentation. Measurements took 24 place near Reno, Nevada in September and October 2012 encompassing natural, low-25 mercury (Hg) background soils and Hg-enriched soils. During nine days of measurements 26 with deployment of Hg-enriched soil in boxes within 60 m upwind of the EC tower, clear 27 covariance of GEM concentration and vertical wind speed was measured, showing that 28 EC fluxes over an Hg-enriched area were detectable. During three separate days of flux 29 measurements over background soils (without Hg-enriched soils), no covariance was 30 detected - indicating fluxes below the detection limit. When fluxes were measurable, 31 they strongly correlated with wind direction; and highest fluxes occurred when winds 32 originated from the Hg-enriched area. We also measured fluxes with the modified Bowen 33 ratio (MBR) and a dynamic flux chamber (DFC). Comparisons between the three 34 methods generally showed good agreement in direction (e.g., emission or deposition) and 35 magnitude of fluxes measured, in particular when measured fluxes originated from within 36 the area of Hg-enriched soils. This study demonstrated that a CRDS system can be used 37 to measure GEM fluxes over Hg-enriched areas, with a conservative detection limit 38 estimate of 32 ng m⁻² hr⁻¹, equivalent to the lowest measured absolute flux.

39

40

41 Introduction

Long-range atmospheric transport and deposition contributes to significant 42 environmental mercury (Hg) loading even in remote ecosystems¹⁻³. Large uncertainties 43 44 remain in our understanding of deposition processes, in particular of gas-phase dry deposition which contributes significantly to deposition loads⁴. Gaseous elemental 45 mercury (GEM), the dominant atmospheric form of Hg, is semi-volatile and subject to 46 atmospheric deposition and re-emission leading to a complex pattern of net Hg surface-47 atmosphere exchange⁴⁻⁶. Processes contributing to GEM re-emission include 48 photochemical reduction⁷⁻¹⁰ as well as other abiotic and biotic processes¹¹⁻¹⁵. Atmospheric 49 50 GEM emissions from natural sources, legacy emissions, and re-emission of previously 51 deposited anthropogenic pollution have been estimated to exceed primary anthropogenic emissions by a factor of four ¹⁶. GEM is the dominant form of Hg in the atmosphere and 52 is therefore the main pathway for Hg to enter ecosystems where it can then be methylated 53 54 (MeHg) and become bioavailable. Once Hg becomes bioavailable it can bioaccumulate 55 up the food web where it can reach concentrations in marine and terrestrial species known to cause health problem in wildlife and humans¹⁷⁻¹⁹. 56

Several methods for measuring net GEM exchange between surfaces and the atmosphere have been employed, many of them have a number of shortcomings. The most widely used technique, the dynamic flux chamber (DFC), is an easy-to-deploy and relatively inexpensive method that is used to measure the exchange of GEM over a small area (usually $<1 \text{ m}^2$). The DFC method is, however, highly sensitive to pressure differences and flow rates through the chamber²⁰; and placement of the chamber also impacts ambient conditions such as temperature, radiation, humidity, and turbulence

levels²⁰⁻²⁴. Micrometeorological techniques, including the modified Bowen ratio (MBR), 64 aerodynamic and relaxed eddy accumulation methods, also have been used to measure 65 GEM fluxes^{21, 25-31}. These methods can be used to measure surface fluxes in situ without 66 modification of environmental conditions, but have other limitations; in particular, the 67 68 MBR and aerodynamic methods assume equal transport characteristics for GEM and a 69 reference scalar (heat, water, or CO_2) to calculate fluxes (e.g., similarity theory) – which is not always valid³². Another limitation is that concentration measurements are required 70 at two heights which may represent different source areas³³ or cause a bias due to the 71 time lag of alternating measurements between the two heights²⁶. The relaxed eddy 72 73 accumulation method is a direct flux method, long sampling times are needed to acquire 74 enough sample volume to distinguish concentration differences between updrafts and downdrafts^{25, 34, 35}. 75

Many of these issues could be overcome by using the eddy covariance (EC) technique 76 - the only known direct, in situ method of determining $fluxes^{36-38}$ and the current 77 78 standard for measuring atmospheric fluxes of many other trace gases (CO₂, methane, ozone, and water vapor)^{27, 36, 39}. The technique uses a sonic anemometer to measure high-79 frequency eddies (small to large changes in vertical wind direction) and a suite of other 80 81 instruments to measure scalar atmospheric data to determine vertical turbulent fluxes and 82 therefore exchange rates of trace gases over a variety of landscapes and is useful for assessing exchange over a whole ecosystem for hours to years⁴⁰. This is done by 83 analyzing the covariance between the change in vertical wind speed from the mean (zero) 84 value and the change in a gas concentration (GEM) from its mean value^{40, 41}. This 85 86 analysis allows for detailed spectral analyses of conditions and allows the operator to

qualify data as useable based on conditions favorable for micrometeorological 87 measurements, which is not possible for other techniques discussed previously. 88 89 Limitations of the EC method include the necessity for flat terrain, steady conditions but turbulent winds, and consistent vegetation⁴⁰. EC measurements also require a fast-90 91 response (sub-second) field-deployable sensor, which until recently has not been 92 available for GEM. To test the application of EC for GEM flux measurements, we deployed a newly developed pulsed cavity ring-down spectroscopy (CRDS) system^{42, 43} 93 capable of a measurement resolution of 25 Hz for GEM surface flux measurements with 94 95 the EC technique. EC flux measurements were conducted over natural low-Hg 96 background soils and over artificially Hg-enriched soil and compared to GEM fluxes 97 measured with the MBR and DFC methods. The CRDS system was used to measure 98 GEM concentrations at 25 Hz. These measurements were then averaged over half hour 99 periods to calculate average GEM fluxes.

100

101 2. Methods

102 2.1 Field site

Measurements were performed from September 14 to October 1, 2012 at a site 32 km northeast of Reno, Nevada, USA (39° 41' N, 119° 32' W; elevation 1570 m) over a flat area (0.61 km²) of mixed bare soil and shrubs in the Northern Desert Shrub Zone. Surrounding vegetation consisted mainly of sagebrush (*Artemisia tridentata*), rabbitbrush (*Ericameria nauseosa*), and juniper species (*Juniperus spp.*), (Supp. Info. S1). The micrometeorological flux tower was located in the northwest corner of a 50 x 90 m² flat,

111 GEM flux measurements were first made at the site over soils with low background Hg concentrations (average soil Hg concentration: $0.11 \pm 0.04 \ \mu g \ g^{-1}$) from September 14 to 112 113 18, termed "background" measurements. From September 19 to September 29, plastic 114 storage boxes containing Hg-enriched soil were deployed as additional GEM sources 115 upwind, in the footprint area (cf. Section 2.4) of the micrometeorological towers, termed 116 "Hg-enriched" measurements (Fig. 1a and Supp. Fig. S1). For this, 41 plastic storage 117 boxes (58 cm x 41 cm) were deployed filled with a layer of Hg-enriched soil (average Hg concentration: $84.5 \pm 5.25 \ \mu g \ g^{-1}$) in a semi-circle around the micrometeorological towers 118 119 (between 90° and 270° based on predominant wind direction in the area) equally spaced 120 with 10 m between each box (Fig. 1a; Supp. Info. S.1). From September 29 to October 1, the boxes filled with Hg-enriched soil were removed for renewed background 121 122 measurements (only atmospheric concentrations were measured, no fluxes). The sonic 123 anemometer of the EC system was positioned, due to tower orientation, toward the south-124 southeast at an angle of 172° allowing unobstructed wind direction and ideal 125 measurements from 82° to 262°, similar to the deployed Hg-enriched soil boxes (see Fig. 126 1a). All flux measurements were made between 12:00 and 18:00 Pacific Daylight Time, the time period when winds typically originated from the 90-270° sector (see Supp. Info. 127 128 S.2, and Supp. Fig. S.2).

129

130 Figure 1





134 2.2.1 Eddy covariance

135 Three measurement towers were deployed 10 m southeast of a trailer that contained the CRDS system^{42, 43} and auxiliary analyzers. One tower supported a three-dimensional 136 137 (3D) ultrasonic anemometer for measurement of the three wind components and the 138 speed of sound (CSAT3, Campbell Scientific, Logan, UT, USA) mounted 75 cm above 139 the ground along with an open-path infrared gas analyzer (IRGA, LI-7500, LiCor Inc. Lincoln, NE, USA) for CO₂ and water vapor concentration measurements (Supp. Info. 140 141 S.3). The open-path IRGA and the air sampling inlet to measure GEM and ozone were 142 mounted 20 cm below the center of the sensing volume of the sonic anemometer, with the 143 IRGA positioned 10 cm east and 20 cm north of the air inlet. The air inlet was connected 144 by 20 m Teflon® tubing (4.76 mm ID) to the mobile measurement trailer (Supp. Fig. 145 S.1b). In addition, the sample air was routed through a set of glassware and ovens for ozone decomposition prior to measurements⁴² and to the closed-path, 1 m quartz-coated 146 stainless-steel measurement cavity of the CRDS system at a flow rate of 8 L min⁻¹ for 147 148 laminar flow (Reynolds number of ~1800). After the CRDS cavity, flow was distributed 149 to an Hg vapor analyzer (Model 2537B, Tekran Inc., Toronto, Canada) which was used to 150 correct CRDS GEM concentrations at 2.5 min time intervals, a closed-path IRGA (LI-151 7000, LiCor Inc.; Supp. Info. S.3), and an ozone analyzer (Model 205, 2B Technologies). 152 The trailer also housed two additional Model 2537B analyzers to measure GEM 153 concentrations for the MBR and DFC methods (see Supp. Info S.4).

154

155 2.2.2 Modified Bowed Ratio

156 In order to compare EC fluxes with other techniques, we also measured GEM fluxes 157 with the MBR method. Since we were measuring in an arid environment, we chose to use 158 sensible heat as the reference scalar for this technique. A third tower was used for the 159 gradient setup where GEM concentrations and temperature were monitored at 0.58 and 160 1.09 m above the ground. Temperature at each height was continuously measured (1 min 161 average) with two 1000 Ohm platinum resistance thermometers (PRTs; $\pm 0.01^{\circ}$ C; Thermometrics Corporation; Los Angeles, CA, USA). Each set of PRTs was placed in a 162 163 fan-aspirated radiation shield (Model 076B; Met One Instruments; Grants Pass, OR, 164 USA). Both heights were sampled for GEM by a single Tekran 2537B, located inside the 165 adjacent mobile trailer and connected by Teflon® tubing, over five minute intervals (two 166 2.5 min samples on each trap consecutively). A Tekran automated Dual Switching unit 167 (Model 1110; Tekran Inc.; Toronto, Canada) was used to switch between the two sample inlets. We used a pump to flush the inlet that was not being sampled to avoid stagnant air 168 169 in the sample lines between sampling. A data logger (CR3000; Campbell Scientific; 170 Logan, UT, USA) was used to collect data from the PRTs. More information can be 171 found in Supp. Info. S.4.

172

173 2.2.3 Dynamic flux chamber

Further, a dynamic flux chamber constructed of Teflon was used to quantify GEM fluxes over a surface area of 0.036 m². The flux chamber – provided by the laboratory of M. Gustin at the University of Nevada, Reno – had a height of 6.5 cm, 2 L of volume, and 1 cm diameter holes every 2.5 cm around the chamber circumference located 2 cm above the surface to allow unrestricted airflow at 1.2 L min⁻¹ during background

11

measurements and 4 L min⁻¹ during measurements over a source tub²⁰. The chamber was positioned over an area of open soil with minimal disturbance. GEM concentrations inside and outside the chambers were measured by a second 2537B Tekran Hg analyzer connected by 25 m of Teflon tubing. Switching between chamber inlet and outlet air was controlled with a Tekran Model 1115 multi-port switching unit. More information can be found in Supp. Info. S.4.

185

186 2.3. EC flux calculations

187 We calculated half-hour average fluxes for GEM as well as sensible and latent heat 188 based on the covariance between turbulent fluctuations of the vertical wind speed and the scalar mixing ratios using Reynolds (block) averaging^{27, 37, 38, 44, 45}. Negative fluxes 189 190 reported here represent transport from the atmosphere toward the surface (deposition), 191 while positive fluxes represent emission. For details on the post-processing of EC fluxes 192 see Supp. Info. S.3. We assigned half-hour fluxes quality control (QC) flags: 1 (good), 2 193 (usable), and 3 (not usable). The following criteria were used to assign QC flags: (i) following the procedure outlined by Ruuskanen³⁶, the GEM cross-correlation with 194 195 vertical wind speed (covariance of vertical wind speed and GEM concentrations with the 196 latter shifted in time sample-by-sample) was visually assessed and given QC flag 1 when 197 a well-defined peak in the cross-correlation was found within the searched time window 198 $(\pm 10s)$; QC flag 2 was assigned when a less defined, but still detectable, peak was found; 199 and QC flag 3 was assigned when no peak was observed; (ii) optimal wind directions for 200 the sonic anemometer setup according to the manufacturer's specifications (QC flag 1:>90° and $< 270^\circ$; QC flag 2: $> 45^\circ$ and $\le 90^\circ$ plus $\ge 270^\circ$ and $< 315^\circ$; QC flag 3: all other 201

cases); (iii) following ⁴⁶⁴⁵⁴⁴⁴³⁴³⁴³⁴³⁴³⁴³⁴¹⁴¹McMillen⁴⁶, QC flag 3 was assigned when the 202 203 third rotation angle exceeded $\pm 10^{\circ}$ (QC flag 1 in all other cases); (iv and v) following Mauder et al. ⁴⁷, QC flag 1 was assigned when the deviation of the stationarity test (a test 204 of how variable the covariance is over time)⁴⁷, for the GEM flux or the integral similarity 205 206 characteristics (a comparison with an accepted model of turbulence) was <30%, QC flag 207 2 was assigned for a deviation \geq 30% and <100%, and QC flag 3 was assigned in all other 208 cases. For each half-hour period, the overall QC flag was conservatively derived as the 209 maximum QC flag of the five criteria above (Supl. Fig. S.3).

210

211 2.4 Footprint analysis

212 We estimated the EC flux source area (footprint) for each half-hour period with the Hsieh et al.⁴⁸ footprint model (Supp. Info. S.5, Fig. 1.b). The flux footprint is an estimate 213 of the actual source area contributing to the GEM flux based on atmospheric conditions 214 215 (e.g., wind direction, wind speed, stability), surface properties (e.g., roughness), and height of the measurement instruments^{30, 31, 33, 48}. This was important for estimating the 216 217 source area contributing to flux measurements as Hg-enriched surface sources were 218 placed within 60 m of the tower and within an angle of 90° to 270°. The flux footprint is 219 expressed as $X_{90\%}$ values representing the upwind distance from the tower within which 220 90% of the flux originated (source area). In addition, the concentration footprint for each 221 of the two intake heights of the MBR system was estimated using a 3-D backward Lagrangian footprint model (LPDM-B)³³. In contrast to the flux footprint, which was 222 223 calculated for each available half-hourly period, the LPDM-B model was run with typical 224 atmospheric conditions during the entire measurement campaign (i.e., mixing-layer heights of 3500 and 5000 m, Monin-Obukhov lengths of -5 and -15 m, and convective velocity scales of 2 and 3 m s⁻¹, respectively). The roughness length was set to 0.01 m for bare soil in the LPDM-B model, which corresponds to the average value calculated from the logarithmic wind law under near-neutral atmospheric conditions when winds originated from the 90-270° sector.

230

231 3. Results and discussion

232 *3.1. High-frequency signal analysis*

233 We thoroughly checked collected GEM concentrations for data quality before 234 calculation of EC fluxes, including Allan variance plots (Supp. Fig. S.4), (co-)spectral 235 (Fig. 2) and cross-correlation analysis (Fig. 3); these served to validate GEM 236 concentration measurements and supported processing data prior to calculating fluxes (as detailed below). We used Allan variance plots to assess the stability of GEM 237 238 concentration measurements through time. An example, shown in Supp. Fig. S.4, 239 demonstrates that the variance of high-resolution GEM measurements (red line) during 240 stable background conditions decreased with a slope inversely proportional to the 241 integration time until approximately 50 s. The Allan variance started to increase after an 242 integration time of approximately 200 s with a slope proportional to the integration time. 243 The latter is an indication of linear drift of the CRDS system causing an increase in the GEM variance at longer integration times⁴⁹. In order to account for this instrument drift, 244 245 which would result in an overestimation of GEM flux calculations, we corrected CRDS 246 GEM signals using GEM concentrations measured downstream of the CRDS with a 247 slower-time response (2.5 min) Model 2537B Tekran Hg analyzer. To this end, we

calibrated CRDS GEM data every 2.5 min with concentrations measured by the Model
249 2537B. As shown in Supp. Fig. S.4, this procedure (blue line) effectively removed lowfrequency drifts, causing the variance to decrease with a slope inversely proportional to
the integration time through 1000 s.

252 We used spectral and co-spectral analyses to compare the quality of the CRDS GEM 253 signals with the temperature data as measured by the sonic anemometer in the frequency domain⁵⁰. Power spectra and co-spectra, typical for OC 1, are shown in Fig. 2. This 254 255 comparison between temperature and GEM power spectra showed that the GEM signal 256 started to be dominated by noise above frequencies of 0.45 Hz, causing it to deviate from the expected $f^{5/3}$ (where f is frequency) decay in the inertial sub-range (solid line Fig. 2a) 257 and the temperature spectrum measured with the sonic anemometer⁵¹. The co-spectra of 258 259 vertical wind speed with temperature and GEM, respectively, generally agreed in the lower frequency range and up to around 0.2 Hz, indicating that the removal of the linear 260 261 drift in the GEM signals was successful (Fig. 2b). At frequencies around 0.2 Hz, the 262 GEM co-spectrum started to roll off, which is indicative of low-pass filtering by the measurement system (in particular attenuation of concentration fluctuations down the 263 sampling tube)⁵². The dashed line in Fig. 2b represents the co-spectral reference model 264 265 convolved with a series of transfer functions which account for all sources of low-pass 266 filtering (Supp. Inf. S.3). Our approach of correcting for low-pass filtering was able to reproduce (and thus allowed correcting for) this flux loss $^{51, 52}$. At frequencies >0.45 Hz 267 268 (which corresponds to ca. 12% of total flux), the noise observed in the GEM spectra (Fig. 269 2a) compensated for the low-pass filtering and even caused an increase in co-spectral 270 density, while the temperature co-spectrum further decreased in the inertial sub-range as

expected⁵¹ (Fig. 2b). In order to remove the noise in the high-frequency part of the GEM 271 co-spectrum, we used a low-pass Finite Impulse Response (FIR) filter⁵¹ with a time 272 constant of 2 s to filter out any unwanted contributions at frequencies >0.45Hz. The 273 274 missing high-frequency (>0.2 Hz) flux contribution due to low-pass filtering by the 275 measurement system and the low-pass FIR filter (>0.45 Hz) was then back-corrected based on the reference model co-spectrum of Kaimal and Finnigan⁵¹. The resulting 276 277 average frequency response correction factor was 1.89 (range 1.29–2.58).

278 Figure 2



280

We used a cross-correlation analysis to identify whether a covariance existed between 281 vertical wind speed and GEM concentration for each half hour sampled. Following 282 Ruuskanen et al.³⁶, a well-defined peak in the cross-correlation analysis (Fig. 3) indicated 283

284 a significant correlation between vertical wind speed and GEM concentration from which 285 a flux was calculated. Figure 3 demonstrates examples of a well-defined peak in the 286 cross-correlation between GEM and vertical wind speed (assigned QC 1) as well as a 287 lower quality peak (assigned QC 2), which was associated with higher uncertainty. A 288 lack of cross-correlation (assigned QC 3) indicated fluxes close to zero, which may be 289 because no fluxes existed or because fluxes were below the detection limit of the system. 290 The time lag shown in the cross-correlation analysis, as indicated by the shift in the peak 291 covariance, at roughly 3.3 s represents the time for sample air to travel from the sample 292 inlet on the EC tower (where vertical wind speed was measured) to the CRDS system 293 inside the measurement trailer (where GEM was measured). This time lag, which was 294 consistent throughout the measurements, was used to properly align all vertical wind 295 speed and GEM concentration data for covariance calculations.

Figure 3



297

298 Of a total of 85 half-hour measurements, 17%, 21%, and 62% fell into the overall QC 299 classes 1, 2, and 3, respectively (Supp. Fig. S.3), and 57% of the data in QC 3 was due to 300 lack of a clear cross-correlation. During sampling under background conditions, all 301 available half-hour fluxes failed to meet the cross-correlation criterion (i.e., fluxes close 302 to zero and/or below detection limit). During deployment of the Hg-enriched soils, 43% 303 of the data failed to meet the cross-correlation criterion, which usually was associated 304 with air masses originating from outside the Hg-enriched soil area. Overall, the wind 305 direction, stationarity, integral turbulence, and third rotation angle criteria were not 306 fulfilled in 7, 11, 0, and 1% of all cases.

307 Several methods were used to evaluate the detection limit of the EC flux system. The smallest, absolute detected GEM flux with a clear cross-correlation was 32 ng m⁻² h⁻¹ 308 (QC 2), Using the method described in Pihlatie et al. $(2005)^{53}$, which requires the 309 310 standard deviation of vertical wind speed and the noise level of the instrument (30 min 311 standard deviation during background measurements), we calculated a flux detection limit of 2-60 ng m⁻² h^{-1} . Standard deviation of vertical wind speed varied between 0.20-312 0.45 m s⁻¹. The standard deviation of GEM during background measurements varied 313 between 0.0022-0.0050 μ g m⁻³. This flux detection limit is similar to the smallest 314 absolute detected GEM flux of 32 ng m⁻² h⁻¹. However, using the power spectra of the 315 316 background noise (before Hg-enriched soil boxes were in place) and an estimate of the vertical wind power spectra as described in Pattey et al. (2006)⁵⁴, we calculated a flux 317 detection limit of 82-195 ng m⁻² h^{-1} for the range of observed wind speeds of 0.3-4 m s⁻¹. 318 This technique gives a higher flux detection limit. Following Wienhold et al. (2005) a 319 320 signal-to-noise (S/N) ratio analysis was performed. For the 85 half-hour periods of 321 calculated fluxes, 33% exceed a S/N of 3. In QC 1 S/N varied from 4.1 to 9.5 (100% S/N > 3), QC 2 S/N varied from 2.6 to 9.2 (95% S/N > 3) and QC 3 S/N varied from 1.8 to 322 323 23.4 (72% S/N > 3). This indicates that for QC 1 and 2 S/N ratios were generally above 3. Although some fluxes with acceptable S/N ratios were rejected in QC 3, the use of 324 other quality criteria in this case assures us that these fluxes are not useable (Supp. Fig. 325 326 S.3 and S.5).

327

328 3.2. EC GEM fluxes

Mean background afternoon (12:00–18:00) ambient air GEM concentrations measured with a Model 2537B analyzer were 1.42 ng m⁻³ with a range of 1.20 to 2.23 ng m⁻³ prior to the Hg-enriched soil being deployed and 1.53 ng m⁻³ with a range of 1.06 to 2.85 ng m⁻³ after removal. During the three days of background flux measurements, GEM fluxes calculated with the EC method (Table 1; Fig. 1b, left panel) all failed the crosscorrelation criteria (QC 3). As a result, all of these fluxes can be considered below the detection limit of the system.

336 When the Hg-enriched soil was deployed (Sept. 19 to 28), mean ambient air GEM concentrations increased to 3.75 ng m⁻³ with a range of 0.68 to 21.40 ng m⁻³. The LPMD-337 338 B footprint model showed that during typical afternoon conditions, the source area $(X_{90\%})$ for 80% of the half-hour EC GEM fluxes originated within 14 to 18 m of the 339 340 measurement tower, well within the area where Hg-enriched soil sources were deployed (extending 60 m). As expected, the highest fluxes (1000-3200 ng m⁻² h⁻¹) commonly 341 342 were observed during periods when $X_{90\%}$ fell within the Hg-enriched area. As can be seen in Figure 1b, large fluxes (>1000 ng $m^{-2} h^{-1}$) also were observed on three occasions where 343 $X_{90\%}$ values were beyond, but closely adjacent to, the Hg-enriched soil sources (discussed 344 below). Lower fluxes, below 1000 ng m⁻² h⁻¹ and often below 500 ng m⁻² h⁻¹, occurred 345 mainly when fluxes originated from wind directions outside the Hg-enriched soil sources 346 347 and during background measurements. GEM fluxes derived with all methods increased 348 (Table 1), and EC GEM fluxes were more consistently classified as QC 1 and QC 2 (Fig. 349 1b, right panel; Supp. Fig. S.3). Figure 1b shows flux magnitudes and the source area of 350 GEM fluxes expressed as X_{90%} for all 85 half-hour GEM EC measurements.

351

352 **Table 1.** Comparison of fluxes over background and Hg-enriched soils derived using all

353 three	techniques.

Background measurements	Mean	Min	Max	StdError	n	% no cross- correlation
GEM (ng m^{-3})*	1.48	1.06	2.85	0.01	448	
EC (ng $m^{-2} h^{-1}$) **	<mdl***< td=""><td><mdl< td=""><td><mdl< td=""><td><mdl< td=""><td><mdl< td=""><td>100</td></mdl<></td></mdl<></td></mdl<></td></mdl<></td></mdl***<>	<mdl< td=""><td><mdl< td=""><td><mdl< td=""><td><mdl< td=""><td>100</td></mdl<></td></mdl<></td></mdl<></td></mdl<>	<mdl< td=""><td><mdl< td=""><td><mdl< td=""><td>100</td></mdl<></td></mdl<></td></mdl<>	<mdl< td=""><td><mdl< td=""><td>100</td></mdl<></td></mdl<>	<mdl< td=""><td>100</td></mdl<>	100
MBR (ng $m^{-2} h^{-1}$) **	-76	-265	50	17	20	-
DFC (ng $m^{-2} h^{-1}$)	0.01	-8.9	6.8	0.09	277	-
Hg-enriched area measurements						
GEM (ng m ⁻³)*	3.75	0.68	21.40	0.09	743	
EC QC 1 (ng m ⁻² h ⁻¹)	1105	71	2339	180	14	0
EC QC 1&2 (ng $m^{-2} h^{-1}$)	849	-304	2339	111	32	0
MBR QC 1 (ng $m^{-2} h^{-1}$)	1712	-795	3934	367	14	-
MBR QC 1&2 (ng m ⁻² h ⁻¹)	1309	-1026	3934	217	32	-
DFC $(ng m^{-2} h^{-1})$	1105	23	3848	68	150	-

354 *atmospheric concentrations measured by Tekran 2537B

355 **all background EC fluxes were QC 3 and had no cross-correlation, MBR fluxes were below the 356 minimum resolvable gradient (MRG)

- 357 ***MDL = 32 ng m⁻² h⁻¹
- 357 358

359 In general, GEM fluxes measured with the EC method when the Hg-enriched soil 360 boxes were deployed had a wide range of values (QC 1&2 standard deviation \pm 626.4; Supp. Fig S.6). Fluxes previously reported from naturally Hg-enriched soils ²³, fluxes 361 362 measured in large ecologically controlled lysimeter laboratories (EcoCELLs) over Hg amended soils 55, and fluxes calculated from DFC measurements using Hg-enriched 363 substrates 56-58 showed a range that spanned five orders of magnitude in comparison to 364 365 our measurements. We believe the measurement set-up contributed most of this 366 variability (Table 1); and, in particular, the differences between GEM fluxes over the Hgenriched soil and background soil area. The Hg-enriched soil boxes were limited to a 367

semi-circle from due east through south to due west (Fig. 1a), and it was likely that variability in EC GEM fluxes was induced by flux source areas switching between background and Hg-enriched areas (e.g., an "edge effect", during any half-hourly averaging period). Another possibility is that environmental conditions caused some of the variability. This is unlikely since measurements were taken during relatively unstable conditions in afternoon hours, with no major precipitation events occurring.

To highlight the edge effect, Fig. 4 shows three days of EC and MBR flux 374 375 measurements that were impacted differently by the Hg-enriched soil area due to changes 376 in dominant wind directions. On September 19, all measurements corresponded to 377 average wind directions from the Hg-enriched area (between 90° and 270°). Fluxes were 378 highest when the wind direction was centered within the Hg-enriched soil area and as 379 winds moved towards the edge and out of this area, measured fluxes decreased. All 380 measurement points on September 19 were characterized as QC 1 and 2. The edge effect 381 also was obvious on September 28 when dominant winds first originated from the Hg-382 enriched soil area (first three measurements), but fluxes dropped significantly after the 383 flux source area moved into the background soil area. While the initial three 384 measurement points were characterized as QC 1 and 2, the last four points were 385 characterized as QC 3 due to a lack of a cross-correlation and acceptable wind direction, 386 and were consistent with lower GEM fluxes expected over the background soil area. 387 Finally, on September 24, all measurements were taken when the flux source area was 388 located outside of the Hg-enriched soil area, and fluxes, although relatively small, should 389 be considered with caution during this period since five of the seven points were 390 characterized as QC 3 data.

The examples on September 19, 24, and 28 show sensitivity of the EC measurements to wind directions shifting over the Hg-enriched soil area. It is further possible that additional flux variability was due to the deployment of discrete Hg sources; these sources were placed in boxes to avoid contamination of the site with 10 m in between, and the emissions from these tubs may not have been thoroughly mixed in the atmosphere prior to measurements at the EC tower, inducing additional variability both in concentrations and calculated fluxes.

398 Figure 4

399



400 *3.3 Comparison of GEM flux measurement methods*

401 We compared EC fluxes with measurements from two other flux measurement 402 methods, the MBR method and a DFC. Over background soils, mean GEM fluxes 403 measured with the DFC (Table 1) were within the range of GEM fluxes measured with DFCs in other background areas (ranging from -1 to 45 ng m⁻² hr⁻¹)^{24, 59, 60} and over 404 background soils in Nevada (averaging 1.0 to 2.0 ng m⁻³ h⁻¹; with ranges of -3.7 to 9.3 ng 405 $m^{-2} h^{-1})^{61-63}$. The range of measured EC GEM fluxes was substantially higher than those 406 407 measured with the DFC and actually showed an average depositional flux across all background measurements of -43 ng m⁻² hr⁻¹. We considered these measured EC fluxes 408 409 over background soils unreasonable (both regarding variability and magnitude) as 410 compared to background soil fluxes reported by other studies and our own background 411 GEM fluxes measured by the DFC method. This is supported by all of the EC fluxes 412 falling into the QC 3 category with no detectible cross-correlation between GEM and 413 wind speed.

414 The issue with many GEM fluxes falling below the detection limit was not unique to 415 the EC method but was also apparent in fluxes measured with the MBR method (averaging $-76 \text{ ng m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$). Resolving very small vertical gradients between two 416 measurement heights is challenging over non-contaminated background sites, which was 417 418 further exacerbated by a short separation (0.51 m) between measurement inlets compared 419 to more commonly used gradients of 2 to 4 m. In this study, the small vertical separation 420 was necessary to restrict flux footprints to the Hg-enriched soil area (60 m upwind). Other GEM fluxes measured with micrometeorological methods over background 421 ecosystems fell in the range of -68 to 34 ng m⁻² hr^{-121, 28, 62, 64} and often showed high 422 423 variability as well. Calculated minimum resolvable gradients (MRG) between the two GEM inlets in MBR setups are in the range of 0.01 to 0.05 ng m^{-3} in several studies^{21, 31,} 424 ⁶⁴. During our background measurements, MBR gradients averaged 0.04 ng m⁻³ with a 425 range of -0.04 to 0.16 ng m^{-3} , and 50% of the data was below an absolute value of 0.05 426 ng m⁻³ which was the smallest detectable gradient in a previous study ²¹. 427

Unlike under background conditions, GEM fluxes measured with the EC, MBR, and DFC methods over the Hg-enriched soil area were in similar ranges, generally in the same direction (emission or deposition), and showed similar average fluxes and temporal patterns (Table 1). Fluxes measured with DFCs have been reported to be lower than those measured with micrometeorological methods^{22, 23}, which was not the case for our 433 measurements. Figure 4 shows a flux comparison between EC and MBR measurements 434 for the three days that were presented above to discuss the effects of wind direction. The 435 patterns show that EC and MBR measurements compared well during these days, 436 showing similar temporal patterns and magnitudes of fluxes. This may indicate that 437 conditions that were favorable or unfavorable for the EC measurements, based on 438 spectral analysis, are similarly favorable or unfavorable for the MBR method. For 439 September 19, when all EC measurements fell into OC 1 and 2, the coefficient of determination, r^2 , of a significant linear regression between EC and MBR method was 440 0.62 and showed a slope of 2, although the r^2 and slope decreased to 0.53 and 1.3, 441 442 respectively, when the regression was forced through the zero offset. The linear regression for September 28 had an r^2 of 0.7 and a slope of 0.82 which decreased to 0.68 443 and 0.9, respectively, when forced through the zero offset. No significant linear 444 445 regression between EC and MBR measurements, however, was found on September 24 446 when most of the data fell into QC 3.

447 GEM fluxes measured with the MBR method showed an even higher range of values 448 and greater variability than to the EC measurements (Table 1). One possible reason for 449 this includes potentially different concentration footprints for the MBR method, which 450 has two different inlets at heights of 0.58 m and 1.09 m, respectively, compared to the EC 451 method (single inlet at 0.75 m). However, concentration footprint distances amounted to 452 8-10 m and 18-22 m for the two different gradient intake heights for typical afternoon 453 conditions and hence were clearly located within the 60 m source area. Therefore, the 454 different inlet heights of the EC and MBR methods cannot explain the observed 455 differences between the two methods or the more variable MBR flux data.

457 Conclusions

458 Wesuccessfully demonstrated applicability of the EC method for GEM flux 459 measurements by detection of well-defined covariance between high-resolution 460 measurements of vertical wind speed and GEM concentrations. Such field measurements 461 were challenging since they required deployment of a complex and highly sensitive 462 optical CRDS system in the field with significant demands for protecting the system from 463 vibrations, temperature and power fluctuations, and dust. Calculated GEM fluxes were in 464 the range of other flux methods under Hg enrichment, and showed high sensitivity to the 465 presence of Hg-enriched soil with changing fluxes as wind direction changed over the 466 source area. There was good comparison between the three flux measurement techniques 467 when conditions were favorable for flux measurements over the Hg-enriched source area (QC 1 & 2). These measurements, to our knowledge, represent the first-ever EC 468 469 measurements performed to quantify GEM surface exchange. It proved to be 470 straightforward to detect EC fluxes over the Hg-enriched soil area, but detection was not 471 feasible over natural background areas in the existing setup with the current CRDS 472 sensitivity. The smallest, absolute, detectable flux with our system was 32 ng m⁻² h^{-1} , and 473 we conclude that this flux was a conservative estimate of the system's flux detection 474 limit. Various system improvements could be implemented to increase flux detection 475 limits and time coverage of measurements, including increasing the sensitivity of the 476 CRDS GEM detection limit, (e.g., by increasing cavity path lengths to improve 477 sensitivity), new cavity designs targeted at reducing flow interferences for EC 478 measurements (reduce noise evident in the GEM spectra and co-spectra and eliminate reliance on a slow-response instrument for data correction), and advancements to thesystem to make it more robust for longer-term field deployments.

481

482 Figure Caption

483 Figure 1: a.) Site schematic; blue area represents the area with deployed Hg-enriched soil boxes (represented by square dots), and dashed lines indicate the 10 m^2 spacing 484 485 around each individual source tub. b.) Flux measurement over background soils (left 486 panel) and over Hg-enriched areas (right panel) and associated flux footprints. Symbol 487 colors represent flux magnitude, and location show X_{90} % values, which represent upwind 488 distance from tower within which 90% of the flux originated, based on footprint analysis 489 (note micrometeorological tower located in the center). Solid symbols indicate QC 1 490 data, open symbols indicate QC 2 data, crossed out symbols indicate QC 3 data. The blue 491 area on the right panel indicates deployed Hg-enriched soil boxes. c.) Wind rose for the 492 measurement period.

493

Figure 2: a.) Power spectra of sonic temperature (T) and GEM (Hg) (left panel) and
corresponding co-spectra with vertical wind speed (right panel). Lines represent
ensemble averages from 19 September 2012 14-17:00 local time (mean wind speed 1.8
m s⁻¹ and unstable conditions). The dotted vertical line indicates the onset of noise (0.45
Hz). The solid line in the left panel shows the expected f^{5/3} slope in the inertial subrange.
The solid and dashed lines in the right panel refer to the cospectral reference model by
Kaimal and Finnigan (1994) and the cospectral reference model attenuated by a series of

transfer functions that represent the effects of low-pass filtering on the GEM time series,
respectively.

503

Figure 3: Cross-correlation analysis of vertical wind speed with GEM density. The red, blue and green lines refer to cases of a well-defined peak in the cross-correlation (QC flag 1; 19.09.2012 14:00-14:30, average horizontal wind speed = 2.3 m s⁻¹, Monin-Obukhov stability parameter = -0.15), a less well-defined peak (QC flag 2; 19.09.2012 17:30-18:00, average horizontal wind speed = 2.9 m s⁻¹, Monin-Obukhov stability parameter = -0.04) and no detectable peak (QC flag 3; 20.09.2012 16:30-17:00, average horizontal wind speed = 2.9 m s⁻¹, Monin-Obukhov stability parameter = -0.13).

511

Figure 4: GEM fluxes (ng $m^{-2} h^{-1}$) as measured by the CRDS system (filled dots) and the 512 513 MBR method (open dots) during three specific days with different wind directions and 514 therefore different impact of the deployed Hg-enriched sources. Shaded areas represent 515 the angles corresponding to the deployed Hg-enriched substrate upwind of the 516 measurement towers; wind directions are average wind directions during the respective 517 30 min. measurement periods and show the degree to which dominant wind directions 518 corresponded to the upwind Hg-enriched source area. Wind direction error bars are 519 standard deviation of the wind direction.

520

521

522 Supporting Information

523 The supporting information includes further information of the field site and 524 meteorology, data processing, auxiliary instruments, flux footprints and flux 525 comparisons. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at 526 <u>http://pubs.acs.org</u>.

527 Corresponding author

- 528 *Corresponding author: Desert Research Institute, 2215 Raggio Parkway, Reno, NV
- 529 89512. Phone: (775) 674-7008 Fax: (775) 674-7016 Email: daniel.obrist@dri.edu

530 Present address

531 [†]University of Nevada, Reno, 1664 N. Virginia st. Reno, NV USA

532 Author Contributions

533 The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors have given534 approval to the final version of the manuscript.

535 Acknowledgements

We would like to thank Rick Purcell for technical assistance and engineering, Brad Lyles for his help with the eddy covariance tower set up, Roger Kreidberg for editorial assistance, Mike Crumb for technical laser assistance, Mae Gustin for use of the DFC and Tekran Automated Dual Switching units, and the facilities crew at the Desert Research Institute for help with mobile trailer setup. We also would like to thank Mitch Goldfin and his parents for allowing us access to their land. This study was supported by a U.S.

- 542 National Science Foundation Major Instrumentation (NSF MRI) grant (NSF AGS Award
- 543 #0923485).
- 544
- 545

546 **References**

547
548 1. Rothenberg, S. E.; Mckee, L.; Gilbreath, A.; Yee, D.; Connor, M.; Fu, X. W., Evidence for
549 short-range transport of atmospheric mercury to a rural, inland site. *Atmos Environ* 2010, 44,
550 (10), 1263-1273.

551 2. Fitzgerald, W. F.; Engstrom, D. R.; Mason, R. P.; Nater, E. A., The Case for Atmospheric 552 Mercury Contamination in Remote Areas. *Environmental Science & Technology* **1998**, *32*, (1), 1-553 7.

- 3. Obrist, D.; Hallar, A. G.; McCubbin, I.; Stephens, B. B.; Rahn, T., Atmospheric mercury concentrations at Storm Peak Laboratory in the Rocky Mountains: Evidence for long-range transport from Asia, boundary layer contributions, and plant mercury uptake. *Atmos Environ* **2008**, *42*, (33), 7579-7589.
- Lindberg, S.; Bullock, R.; Ebinghaus, R.; Engstrom, D.; Xinbin, F.; Fitzgerald, W.; Pirrone,
 N.; Prestbo, E.; Seigneur, C., A Synthesis of Progress and Uncertainties in Attributing the Sources
 of Mercury in Deposition. *AMBIO A Journal of the Human Environment* 2007, *36*, (1), 19-32.
- 561 5. Zhang, L.; Wright, L. P.; Blanchard, P., A review of current knowledge concerning dry 562 deposition of atmospheric mercury. *Atmos Environ* **2009**, *43*, (37), 5853-5864.
- 563 6. Ericksen, J. A.; Gustin, M. S.; Lindberg, S. E.; Olund, S. D.; Krabbenhoft, D. P., Assessing 564 the potential for re-emission of mercury deposited in precipitation from arid soils using a stable 565 isotope. *Environmental Science & Technology* **2005**, *39*, (20), 8001-8007.
- 566 7. Lalonde, J. D.; Poulain, A. J.; Amyot, M., The role of mercury redox reactions in snow on 567 snow-to-air mercury transfer. *Environmental Science and Technology* **2002**, *36*, (2), 174 -178.
- 568 8. Carpi, A.; Lindberg, S. E., Sunlight-mediated emission of elemental mercury from soil amended with municipal sewage sludge. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **1997**, *31*, (7), 2085-2091.
- 570 9. Amyot, M.; Mierle, G.; Lean, D.; McQueen, D. J., Effect of solar radiation on the 571 formation of dissolved gaseous mercury in temperate lakes. *Geochimica Et Cosmochimica Acta* 572 **1997**, *61*, (5), 975-987.
- 573 10. Amyot, M.; Mierle, G.; Lean, D. R. S.; McQueen, D. J., Sunlight-induced formation of 574 Dissolved Gaseous Mercury in Lake waters. *Environmental Science and Technology* **1994**, *28*, 575 2366-2371.
- Alberts, J. J.; Schindler, J. E.; Miller, R. W.; Nutter Jr., D. E., Elemental Mercury Evolution
 Mediated by Humic Acid. *Science* **1974**, *184*, (4139), 895-897.
- Allard, B.; Arsenie, I., Abiotic Reduction of Mercury by Humic Substances in Aquatic
 System an Important Process for the Mercury Cycle. *Water Air and Soil Pollution* 1991, *56*, 457464.
- Mason, R. P.; Morel, F. M. M.; Hemond, H. F., The Role of Microorganisms in Elemental
 Mercury Formation in Natural Waters. *Water Air and Soil Pollution* **1995**, *80*, (1-4), 775-787.
- 583 14. Barkay, T.; Liebert, C.; Gillman, M., Environmental significance of the potential for 584 mer(Tn21)-mediated reduction of Hg2+ to Hg0 in natural-waters. *Applied and Environmental* 585 *Microbiology* **1989**, *55*, (5), 1196-1202.
- 586 15. Obrist, D.; Faïn, X.; Berger, C., Gaseous elemental mercury emissions and CO₂ respiration
 587 rates in terrestrial soils under controlled aerobic and anaerobic conditions. *The Science of The* 588 *Total Environment* 2010, 408, 1691-1700.
- 589 16. Corbitt, E. S.; Jacob, D. J.; Holmes, C. D.; Streets, D. G.; Sunderland, E. M., Global Source– 590 Receptor Relationships for Mercury Deposition Under Present-Day and 2050 Emissions 591 Scenarios. *Environmental Science & Technology* **2011**, *45*, (24), 10477-10484.

592 17. Axelrad, D. A.; Bellinger, D. C.; Ryan, L. M.; Woodruff, T. J., Dose-Response Relationship 593 of Prenatal Mercury Exposure and IQ: An Integrative Analysis of Epidemiologic Data. 594 *Environmental Health Perspectives* **2007**, *115*, (4), 609-615.

- 595 18. Booth, S.; Zeller, D., Mercury, Food Webs, and Marine Mammals: Implications of Diet 596 and Climate Change for Human Health. *Environmental Health Perspectives* **2005**, *113*, (5), 521-526.
- 598 19. Clarkson, T. W.; Magos, L., The Toxicology of Mercury and Its Chemical Compounds. 599 *Critical Reviews in Toxicology* **2006**, *36*, (8), 609-662.
- Eckley, C. S.; Gustin, M.; Lin, C. J.; Li, X.; Miller, M. B., The influence of dynamic chamber
 design and operating parameters on calculated surface-to-air mercury fluxes. *Atmos Environ* **2010**, *44*, (2), 194-203.
- Fritsche, J.; Obrist, D.; Zeeman, M. J.; Conen, F.; Eugster, W.; Alewell, C., Elemental
 mercury fluxes over a sub-alpine grassland determined with two micrometeorological methods. *Atmos Environ* 2008, 42, (13), 2922-2933.
- Gustin, M. S.; Rasmussen, P.; Edwards, G.; Schroeder, W.; Kemp, J., Application of a
 laboratory gas exchange chamber for assessment of in situ mercury emissions. *J. Geophys. Res.* **1999**, *104*, (D17), 21873-21878.
- Gustin, M. S.; Lindberg, S.; Marsik, F.; Casimir, A.; Ebinghaus, R.; Edwards, G.; HubbleFitzgerald, C.; Kemp, R.; Kock, H.; Leonard, T.; London, J.; Majewski, M.; Montecinos, C.; Owens,
 J.; Pilote, M.; Poissant, L.; Rasmussen, P.; Schaedlich, F.; Schneeberger, D.; Schroeder, W.;
- 612 Sommar, J.; Turner, R.; Vette, A.; Wallschlaeger, D.; Xiao, Z.; Zhang, H., Nevada STORMS project:
- 613 Measurement of mercury emissions from naturally enriched surfaces. J. Geophys. Res. **1999**, 614 104, (D17), 21831-21844.
- 615 24. Carpi, A.; Lindberg, S. E., Application of a teflon[™] dynamic flux chamber for quantifying
 616 soil mercury flux: Tests and results over background soil. *Atmos Environ* **1998**, *32*, (5), 873-882.
- 617 25. Bash, J. O.; Miller, D. R., Growing season total gaseous mercury (TGM) flux 618 measurements over an Acer rubrum L. stand. *Atmos Environ* **2009**, *43*, (37), 5953-5961.
- 619 26. Lindberg, S. E.; Kim, K.-H.; Meyers, T. P.; Owens, J. G., Micrometeorological Gradient 620 Approach for Quantifying Air/Surface Exchange of Mercury Vapor: Tests Over Contaminated 621 Soils. *Environmental Science & Technology* **1995**, *29*, (1), 126-135.
- 622 27. Arya, S. P., *Introduction to Micrometeorology*. Academic Press: San Diego, 2001.
- Kim, K.-H.; Lindberg, S. E.; Meyers, T. P., Micrometeorological measurements of mercury
 vapor fluxes over background forest soils in eastern Tennessee. *Atmos Environ* **1995**, *29*, (2),
 267-282.
- 626 29. Meyers, T. P.; Hall, M. E.; Lindberg, S. E.; Kim, K., Use of the modified bowen-ratio 627 technique to measure fluxes of trace gases. *Atmos Environ* **1996**, *30*, (19), 3321-3329.
- 62830.Converse, A. D.; Riscassi, A. L.; Scanlon, T. M., Seasonal variability in gaseous mercury629fluxes measured in a high-elevation meadow. *Atmos Environ* **2010**, *44*, (18), 2176-2185.
- 630 31. Edwards, G. C.; Rasmussen, P. E.; Schroeder, W. H.; Wallace, D. M.; Halfpenny-Mitchell,
 631 L.; Dias, G. M.; Kemp, R. J.; Ausma, S., Development and evaluation of a sampling system to
 632 determine gaseous Mercury fluxes using an aerodynamic micrometeorological gradient method.
 633 J Geophys Res-Atmos 2005, 110, (D10), ---.
- 634 32. Zuo, J.; Huang, J.; Wang, J.; Zhang, W.; Bi, J.; Wang, G.; Li, W.; Fu, P., Surface turbulent
- 635 flux measurements over the Loess Plateau for a semi-arid climate change study. Advances in
- 636 Atmospheric Sciences **2009**, *26*, (4), 679-691.

637 33. Kljun, N.; Rotach, M. W.; Schmid, H. P., A three-dimensional backward lagrangian
638 footprint model for a wide range of boundary-layer stratifications. *Boundary-Layer Meteorology*639 2002, 103, (2), 205-226.

640 34. Cobos, D. R.; Baker, J. M.; Nater, E. A., Conditional sampling for measuring mercury 641 vapor fluxes. *Atmos Environ* **2002**, *36*, (27), 4309-4321.

642 35. Bash, J. O.; Miller, D. R., A Relaxed Eddy Accumulation System for Measuring Surface 643 Fluxes of Total Gaseous Mercury. *Journal of Atmospheric & Oceanic Technology* **2008**, *25*, (2), 644 244-257.

645 36. Ruuskanen, T. M.; Müller, M.; Schnitzhofer, R.; Karl, T.; Graus, M.; Bamberger, I.; 646 Hörtnagl, L.; Brilli, F.; Wohlfahrt, G.; Hansel, A., Eddy covariance VOC emission and deposition 647 fluxes above grassland using PTR-TOF. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.* **2011**, *11*, (2), 611-625.

Aubinet, M.; Grelle, A.; Ibrom, A.; Rannik, Ü.; Moncrieff, J.; Foken, T.; Kowalski, A. S.;
Martin, P. H.; Berbigier, P.; Bernhofer, C.; Clement, R.; Elbers, J.; Granier, A.; Grünwald, T.;
Morgenstern, K.; Pilegaard, K.; Rebmann, C.; Snijders, W.; Valentini, R.; Vesala, T., Estimates of
the Annual Net Carbon and Water Exchange of Forests: The EUROFLUX Methodology. In *Advances in Ecological Research*, Raffaelli, A. H. F. a. D. G., Ed. Academic Press: 1999; Vol.
Volume 30, pp 113-175.

Baldocchi, D. D.; Hincks, B. B.; Meyers, T. P., Measuring Biosphere-Atmosphere
Exchanges of Biologically Related Gases with Micrometeorological Methods. *Ecology* **1988**, *69*,
(5), 1331-1340.

Baldocchi, D.; Falge, E.; Gu, L.; Olson, R.; Hollinger, D.; Running, S.; Anthoni, P.;
Bernhofer, C.; Davis, K.; Evans, R.; Fuentes, J.; Goldstein, A.; Katul, G.; Law, B.; Lee, X.; Malhi, Y.;
Meyers, T.; Munger, W.; Oechel, W.; Paw, K. T.; Pilegaard, K.; Schmid, H. P.; Valentini, R.; Verma,

S.; Vesala, T.; Wilson, K.; Wofsy, S., FLUXNET: A New Tool to Study the Temporal and Spatial
Variability of Ecosystem–Scale Carbon Dioxide, Water Vapor, and Energy Flux Densities. *Bulletin*of the American Meteorological Society 2001, 82, (11), 2415-2434.

40. Baldocchi, D. D., Assessing the eddy covariance technique for evaluating carbon dioxide
exchange rates of ecosystems: past, present and future. *Global Change Biology* 2003, *9*, (4), 479492.

41. Aubinet, M.; Chermanne, B.; Vandenhaute, M.; Longdoz, B.; Yernaux, M.; Laitat, E., Long
term carbon dioxide exchange above a mixed forest in the Belgian Ardennes. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology* 2001, *108*, (4), 293-315.

42. Pierce, A.; Obrist, D.; Moosmüller, H.; Faïn, X.; Moore, C., Cavity ring-down spectroscopy
sensor development for high-time-resolution measurements of gaseous elemental mercury in
ambient air. *Atmospheric Measurement Techniques* **2013**, *6*, (6), 1477-1489.

Faïn, X.; Moosmüller, H.; Obrist, D., Toward real-time measurement of atmospheric
mercury concentrations using cavity ring-down spectroscopy. *Atmospheric Chemistry & Physics* **2010**, *10*, (6), 2879-2892.

675 44. Wohlfahrt, G.; Hammerle, A.; Haslwanter, A.; Bahn, M.; Tappeiner, U.; Cernusca, A.,

676 Seasonal and inter-annual variability of the net ecosystem CO2 exchange of a temperate 677 mountain grassland: Effects of weather and management. *J. Geophys. Res.* **2008**, *113*, (D8), 678 D08110.

679 45. Haslwanter, A.; Hammerle, A.; Wohlfahrt, G., Open-path vs. closed-path eddy 680 covariance measurements of the net ecosystem carbon dioxide and water vapour exchange: A

681 long-term perspective. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology* **2009**, *149*, (2), 291-302.

682 46. McMillen, R. T., An Eddy-Correlation Technique with Extended Applicability to Non-683 Simple Terrain. *Boundary-Layer Meteorology* **1988**, *43*, (3), 231-245.

Mauder, M.; Foken, T.; Clement, R.; Elbers, J. a.; Eugster, W.; Grünwald, T.; Heusinkveld,
Kolle, O., Quality control of CarboEurope flux data – Part 2: Inter-comparison of eddycovariance software. *Biogeosciences* 2008, *5*, (2), 451-462.

48. Hsieh, C.-I.; Katul, G.; Chi, T.-w., An approximate analytical model for footprint
estimation of scalar fluxes in thermally stratified atmospheric flows. *Advances in Water Resources* 2000, *23*, (7), 765-772.

690 49. Werle, P., Time domain characterization of micrometeorological data based on a two
691 sample variance. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology* 2010, *150*, (6), 832-840.

692 50. Burba, G., Eddy covariance method for scientific, industrial, agricultural, and regulatory
693 applications: A field book on measuring scosystem gas exchange and areal emission rates. LI-Cor
694 Biosciences: Lincoln, Nebraska, 2013; p 331.

695 51. Kaimal, J. C.; Finnigan, J. J., *Atmospheric Boundary Layer Flows: Their Structure and* 696 *Measurement*. Oxford University Press: Oxford, U.K., 1994.

697 52. Moore, C. J., Frequency response corrections for eddy correlation systems. *Boundary*-698 *Layer Meteorology* **1986**, *37*, 17-35.

53. Pihlatie, M.; Rinne, J.; Ambus, P.; Pilegaard, K.; Dorsey, J. R.; Rannik, Ü.; Markkanen, T.;
Launiainen, S.; Vesala, T., Nitrous oxide emissions from a beech forest floor measured by eddy
covariance and soil enclosure techniques. *Biogeosciences* 2005, *2*, (4), 377-387.

Pattey, E.; Edwards, G.; Strachan, I. B.; Desjardins, R. L.; Kaharabata, S.; Wagner Riddle,
C., Towards standards for measuring greenhouse gas fluxes from agricultural fields using
instrumented towers. *Canadian Journal of Soil Science* 2006, *86*, (3), 373-400.

55. Gustin, M. S.; Ericksen, J. A.; Schorran, D. E.; Johnson, D. W.; Lindberg, S. E.; Coleman, J.
S., Application of Controlled Mesocosms for Understanding Mercury Air–Soil–Plant Exchange. *Environmental Science & Technology* 2004, *38*, (22), 6044-6050.

56. Engle, M. A.; Gustin, M. S.; Zhang, H., Quantifying natural source mercury emissions from the Ivanhoe Mining District, north-central Nevada, USA. *Atmos Environ* **2001**, *35*, (23), 3987-3997.

711 57. Gustin, M. S.; Biester, H.; Kim, C. S., Investigation of the light-enhanced emission of 712 mercury from naturally enriched substrates. *Atmos Environ* **2002**, *36*, (20), 3241-3254.

58. Coolbaugh, M. F.; Gustin, M. S.; Rytuba, J. J., Annual emissions of mercury to the
atmosphere from natural sources in Nevada and California. *Environmental Geology* 2002, 42,
(4), 338-349.

59. Kuiken, T.; Gustin, M.; Zhang, H.; Lindberg, S.; Sedinger, B., Mercury emission from
terrestrial background surfaces in the eastern USA. II: Air/surface exchange of mercury within
forests from South Carolina to New England. *Applied Geochemistry* 2008, *23*, (3), 356-368.

Kuiken, T.; Zhang, H.; Gustin, M.; Lindberg, S., Mercury emission from terrestrial
background surfaces in the eastern USA. Part I: Air/surface exchange of mercury within a
southeastern deciduous forest (Tennessee) over one year. *Applied Geochemistry* 2008, 23, (3),
345-355.

61. Gustin, M. S.; Engle, M.; Ericksen, J.; Lyman, S.; Stamenkovic, J.; Xin, M., Mercury exchange between the atmosphere and low mercury containing substrates. *Applied*

725 *Geochemistry* **2006,** *21*, (11), 1913-1923.

726 62. Ericksen, J. A.; Gustin, M. S.; Xin, M.; Weisberg, P. J.; Fernandez, G. C. J., Air–soil 727 exchange of mercury from background soils in the United States. *Science of The Total* 728 *Environment* **2006**, *366*, (2–3), 851-863.

Nacht, D. M.; Gustin, M. S., Mercury Emissions from Background and Altered Geologic
Units Throughout Nevada. *Water, Air & Soil Pollution* 2004, 151, (1-4), 179-193.

731 64. Fritsche, J.; Wohlfahrt, G.; Ammann, C.; Zeeman, M.; Hammerle, A.; Obrist, D.; Alewell,

732 C., Summertime elemental mercury exchange of temperate grasslands on an ecosystem-scale.

733 Atmos Chem Phys **2008**, *8*, 7709-7722.

734

735

736 For Table of Contents Only

