



1 **Processes controlling the seasonal variations of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and**  
2  **$^7\text{Be}$  at the Mt. Cimone WMO-GAW global station, Italy: A**  
3 **model analysis**

4 Erika Brattich<sup>1</sup>, Hongyu Liu<sup>2</sup>, Laura Tositti<sup>1</sup>, David B. Considine<sup>3</sup>, and James H.  
5 Crawford<sup>4</sup>

6 [1] Department of Chemistry “G Ciamician”, Alma Mater Studiorum University of  
7 Bologna, Bologna (BO), 40126, Italy

8 [2] National Institute of Aerospace, Hampton, Virginia, Virginia, VA 23681, USA

9 [3] NASA Headquarters, Washington, DC 20546, USA

10 [4] NASA Langley Research Center, Hampton, Virginia, VA 23681, USA

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12 **Correspondence to:** Hongyu Liu (hongyu.liu-1@nasa.gov)

13 **Abstract.** We apply the Global Modeling Initiative (GMI) chemistry and transport model  
14 driven by the NASA’s MERRA assimilated meteorological data to simulate the seasonal  
15 variations of two radionuclide aerosol tracers (terrestrial  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and cosmogenic  $^7\text{Be}$ ) at the  
16 WMO-GAW station of Mt. Cimone (44°12’ N, 10°42’ E, 2165 m asl, Italy), which is  
17 representative of free-tropospheric conditions most of the year, during 2005 with an aim to  
18 understand the roles of transport and precipitation scavenging processes in controlling their  
19 seasonality. The total precipitation field in the MERRA data set is evaluated with the Global  
20 Precipitation Climatology project (GPCP) observations, and a generally good agreement is  
21 found. The model reproduces reasonably the observed seasonal pattern of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  concentrations,  
22 characterized by a wintertime minimum due to lower  $^{222}\text{Rn}$  emissions and weaker uplift from



1 the boundary layer and summertime maxima resulting from strong convection over the  
2 continent. The observed seasonal behavior of  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations shows a winter minimum, a  
3 summer maximum, and a secondary spring maximum. The model captures the observed  $^7\text{Be}$   
4 pattern in winter-spring, which is linked to the larger stratospheric influence during spring.  
5 However, the model tends to underestimate the observed  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations in summer,  
6 partially due to the sensitivity to spatial sampling in the model. Model sensitivity experiments  
7 indicate a dominant role of precipitation scavenging (versus dry deposition and convection) in  
8 controlling the seasonality of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations at Mt. Cimone.

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## 10 **1 Introduction**

11 The use of atmospheric radionuclides to understand atmospheric dynamics, pollution  
12 transport and removal processes has a long history (e.g., Junge, 1963; Reiter et al., 1971;  
13 Gägeler, 1995; Arimoto et al., 1999; Turekian and Graustein, 2003; WMO-GAW, 2004; Dibb,  
14 2007; Rastogi and Sarin, 2008; Froehlich and Masarik, 2010; Lozano et al., 2012). It has been  
15 recognized that natural radionuclides are useful in a global monitoring network for atmospheric  
16 composition to support global climate change and air quality research, and therefore they are  
17 measured at many of the regional, global and contributing-partner stations in the Global  
18 Atmosphere Watch (GAW) network of the World Meteorological Organization (WMO)  
19 (WMO-GAW, 2004). In particular, terrigenous  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and cosmogenic  $^7\text{Be}$  natural radionuclides  
20 are helpful in the understanding of the roles of transport and/or scavenging in controlling the  
21 behaviors of radiatively active trace gases and aerosols (Balkanski et al., 1993; Koch et al.,  
22 1996), as well as their anthropogenic (vs. natural) origin (e.g., Graustein and Turekian, 1996;  
23 Arimoto et al., 1999; Liu et al., 2004; Cuevas et al., 2013). They are routinely monitored at  
24 WMO-GAW stations around the world (Lee et al., 2004). Although  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  have long  
25 (1998-2011) been measured at the Global WMO-GAW station of Mt. Cimone (Italy), their



1 seasonal behavior has not been thoroughly elucidated (Lee et al., 2007; Tositti et al., 2014).  
2 Here we apply a state-of-the-art global chemistry and transport model (CTM) to the simulation  
3 of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$ , with an objective to better understand the roles of transport and precipitation  
4 scavenging processes in controlling their seasonal variations at Mt. Cimone.

5 Because of their contrasting natural origins,  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  have been used as a pair to  
6 study the vertical transport and scavenging of aerosols (Koch et al., 1996).  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  (half-life  $\tau_{1/2}$   
7 = 22.3 years) is the decay daughter of  $^{222}\text{Rn}$  ( $\tau_{1/2} = 3.8$  days), which is emitted from soils by  
8 decay of  $^{226}\text{Ra}$ . The oceanic input of  $^{222}\text{Rn}$  is about two orders of magnitude less than the  
9 continental input and, because of the continental origin of  $^{222}\text{Rn}$ ,  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  is considered as a tracer  
10 of air masses with continental origin (Baskaran, 2011).  $^7\text{Be}$  ( $\tau_{1/2} = 53.3$  days) is a cosmogenic  
11 radionuclide generated by cosmic ray spallation reactions with nitrogen and oxygen (Lal et al.,  
12 1958). Most (~67%) of  $^7\text{Be}$  is produced in the stratosphere and the remaining (~33%) is  
13 generated in the troposphere, particularly in the upper troposphere (Johnson and Viezee, 1981;  
14 Usoskin and Kovaltsov, 2008).  $^7\text{Be}$  is thus considered a tracer of stratospheric influence  
15 (Viezee and Singh, 1980; Dibb et al., 1992, 1994; Liu et al., 2004, 2016) and subsidence (Feely  
16 et al., 1989; Koch et al., 1996; Liu et al., 2004). Once produced, both radionuclides rapidly  
17 attach onto aerosol particles in the fine fraction (Papastefanou and Ioannidou, 1995; Winkler  
18 et al., 1998; Gaffney et al., 2004; Ioannidou et al., 2005), and are removed from the atmosphere  
19 mainly by wet and secondarily dry deposition (Kulan et al., 2006). The concentrations of these  
20 radionuclides in surface air thus depend on their sources, transport, wet and dry removal, and  
21 radioactive decay (in the case of  $^7\text{Be}$ ). Rainfall scavenging processes are generally more  
22 effective on  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  than on  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations (Koch et al., 1996; Caillet et al., 2001; Likuku,  
23 2006; Dueñas et al., 2009; Lozano et al., 2012).



1           Observational studies have previously been conducted to examine the factors influencing  
2 surface  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations in Europe, the Middle East and North Africa. Different  
3 synoptic and mesoscale patterns are associated with the ranges of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  activity  
4 concentrations (Lozano et al., 2012, 2013). In southwestern Spain (El Arenosillo), for instance,  
5 low  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  values are strongly linked to air masses from the Atlantic Ocean, whereas the highest  
6 values are associated with air masses clearly under the influence of continents, such as the  
7 Iberian Peninsula and North of Africa (Lozano et al., 2012). As for  $^7\text{Be}$ , the highest  $^7\text{Be}$  activity  
8 concentrations over southwestern Iberian Peninsula are related with the arrival of air masses  
9 from middle latitudes, and in particular from the Canary Islands, western Mediterranean Basin  
10 and the north of Africa (Dueñas et al., 2011; Lozano et al., 2012).

11           With respect to  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  spatial variability,  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  concentrations in surface air are  
12 strongly dependent on whether it is located over land or ocean, whereas  $^7\text{Be}$  concentration is  
13 mainly latitudinally dependent, due to their different production mechanisms. Generally  
14 speaking, in the Northern Hemisphere higher  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations are present at middle latitudes  
15 ( $20\text{--}50^\circ\text{ N}$ ), because of the mixing of stratospheric air into the upper troposphere along the  
16 tropopause discontinuity in mid-latitude regions and subsequent convective mixing within the  
17 troposphere, which brings  $^7\text{Be}$ -rich air masses into the planetary boundary layer and to the  
18 earth's surface (Kulan et al., 2006). Lower  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations are towards the pole and towards  
19 the equator (Kulan et al., 2006; Steinmann et al., 2013).

20           Many studies examined the seasonal behavior of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  at European mid-latitude  
21 surface sites (e.g., Cannizzaro et al., 1999; Ioannidou et al., 2005; Daish et al., 2005; Todorovic  
22 et al., 2005; Likuku, 2006; Dueñas et al., 2009; Pham et al., 2011; Carvalho et al., 2013;  
23 Steinmann et al., 2013). High levels of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  during summer and low levels in winter were  
24 found, reflecting the differing rates of  $^{222}\text{Rn}$  emanation from soil above the European land mass



1 during winter (wet or snow covered soil) and summer (dry soil) (Hötzl and Winkler, 1987;  
2 Caillet et al., 2001; Daish et al., 2005; Ioannidou et al., 2005). At low-elevation sites, monthly  
3  $^7\text{Be}$  averages are characterized by a well-defined annual cycle with lower values during winter  
4 and higher values during summer. Generally, the increase of  $^7\text{Be}$  in ground level air from March  
5 to May is ascribed to the more efficient and higher frequency stratosphere- troposphere  
6 exchange (STE), whereas the further increase of  $^7\text{Be}$  during summer is due to the stronger  
7 convective mixing and higher tropopause (Ioannidou et al., 2014). The higher tropopause  
8 height is associated with anticyclonic conditions, which results in downward transport from the  
9 upper troposphere and reduced wet scavenging during these conditions (Gerasopoulos et al.,  
10 2001, 2005; Ioannidou et al., 2014). In fact, compensating subsidence associated with  
11 convective mixing enhances downward transport of  $^7\text{Be}$  from the upper troposphere (rather  
12 than direct input of stratospheric air) down to the lower troposphere and ground level (Zanis et  
13 al., 1999; Gerasopoulos et al., 2001, 2005; Ioannidou et al., 2005; Likuku et al., 2006;  
14 Steinmann et al., 2013).

15 High-elevation sites such as Jungfraujoch (Switzerland), Zugspitze (Germany), and Mt.  
16 Cimone (Italy), typically lying above the planetary boundary layer (PBL), are characterized by  
17 lower  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  concentrations and higher  $^7\text{Be}$  due to direct influences of air masses from the free  
18 troposphere (Zanis et al., 2000). The observed seasonal  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  pattern at the high altitude sites  
19 of Puy de Dome (1465 m asl, France) and Opme (660 m asl, France) is characterized by  
20 maximum concentrations in spring and autumn and minimum concentrations in winter. This is  
21 due to higher radon emissions during the dry season (summer) than during the wet season  
22 (winter), and lower PBL height during winter (Bourcier et al., 2011). The latter results in  
23 weaker upward transport of  $^{222}\text{Rn}$  and  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  at high-altitude sites. Similar to low-elevation sites,  
24 higher  $^7\text{Be}$  values are observed in summer due to convection-forced exchange with the upper  
25 troposphere and to the higher tropopause height that leads to more efficient vertical transport



1 from the upper to lower troposphere (Reiter et al., 1983; Gerasopoulos et al., 2001; Bourcier et  
2 al., 2011). At high-altitude sites a secondary maximum of  $^7\text{Be}$  during cold months (December-  
3 March) is generally observed and attributed to the increase in stratosphere-to-troposphere  
4 events during this season (e.g., James et al., 2003; Stohl et al., 2003; Trickl et al., 2010). The  
5 higher frequency of rapid subsidence in winter at Northern Hemisphere mid-latitudes can be  
6 ascribed to the intensity of baroclinic systems, which is greatest in the wintertime. In fact, well-  
7 developed tropopause folds and rapid deep intrusions are most likely to occur in the wake of  
8 intense cyclogenesis, usually limited to the wintertime storm track regions (James et al., 2003).

9 Numerical models have been used to analyze  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  observations at high-elevation  
10 sites. 1-D model simulations of surface  $^7\text{Be}$  showed higher concentrations at high-elevation  
11 sites (Jasiulionis and Wershofen, 2005; Simon et al., 2009), but also suggested that the diffusion  
12 of  $^7\text{Be}$  was affected by the seasonal variation of meteorological conditions. Balkanski et al.  
13 (1993) examined the transport of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  in a global 3-D model and reported a weak decrease of  
14  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  concentrations between the continental mixed layer and the free troposphere: simulated  
15 concentrations at 6-km altitude were about 50% of those in the continental mixed-layer over  
16 much of the Northern Hemisphere in summer, and over large areas of the tropics year around,  
17 a result consistent with the few observations available for the free troposphere at that time  
18 (Moore et al., 1973). Rehfeld and Heimann (1995) compared the 3-D model simulated seasonal  
19 pattern of surface  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations with the observations at several sites in both  
20 hemispheres. At Mauna Loa (19.47°N, 155.6°W, 3400 m asl, Hawaii)  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  seasonality was  
21 characterized by high concentrations in spring and summer and lower ones in winter, as  
22 opposed to the seasonal pattern found at higher latitudes, where the  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  maximum  
23 concentrations in winter are attributed to the advective transport of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  aerosols from mid-  
24 latitudes. This behavior is due to the elevation of the site, representative of the conditions of  
25 the free troposphere rather than those of the PBL. As for  $^7\text{Be}$ , the comparison between the



1 model and the observations at Rexburg (43.8°N, 111.83°W, 1483 m asl, USA) showed  
2 systematically lower model values, due to the much higher precipitation rates in the model.

3 Previous studies have examined surface  $^7\text{Be}$  observations at Mt. Cimone with respect to  
4 the role of STE in surface ozone increases (Bonasoni et al., 1999, 2000ab; Cristofanelli et al.,  
5 2003, 2006, 2009a, 2015; Lee et al., 2007) within the framework of European projects such as  
6 VOTALP (Vertical Ozone Transport in the Alps) and STACCATO (influence of Stratosphere-  
7 Troposphere exchange in A Changing Climate on Atmospheric Transport and Oxidation  
8 capacity). These studies led to the assessment of a higher incidence of STE events during the  
9 period from October to February relative to the warm season, when thermal convection and the  
10 rising of the tropopause promote vertical mixing, which acts as a confounding factor in STE  
11 detection. Lee et al. (2007) and Tositti et al. (2014) reported the seasonal patterns and frequency  
12 distributions of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  measured at Mt. Cimone, and highlighted higher concentrations  
13 of both radionuclides in the summertime due to the higher mixing height and horizontal  
14 transport by regional airflows. During winter, a general increase in  $^7\text{Be}$  is associated with a  
15 decrease in  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ , due to the dominating effect of STE and subsidence in the free troposphere.  
16 At the time of this work, no model analyses of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  observations at the site have been  
17 conducted.

18 In this paper, we conduct simulations of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  at Mt. Cimone with a state-of-the-  
19 art global 3-D chemistry and transport model (GMI CTM) driven by assimilated  
20 meteorological fields for the year of 2005. Our objectives are a better elucidation of the  
21 seasonal variations of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations and an improved understanding of the roles  
22 of transport and precipitation scavenging processes in their seasonalities at Mt. Cimone.

23 The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the measurement  
24 site, the radioactivity measurements at Mt. Cimone, and the GMI CTM. Section 3 evaluates



1 the model performance in reproducing the observed wind and precipitation fields. Section 4  
2 evaluates the seasonal  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations in the model with those observed. Section  
3 5 examines the sources and seasonal variations in the simulated radionuclide activities,  
4 followed by summary and conclusions in section 6.

## 5 **2 Data and Methods**

### 6 **2.1 Radionuclide Measurements at Mt. Cimone**

7 Mt. Cimone station (44°12' N, 10°42' E, 2165 m asl) is a global WMO-GAW station  
8 managed by the Meteorological Office of the Italian Air Force, which hosts the research  
9 platform “Ottavio Vittori” of the Institute of Atmospheric and Climate Science of the National  
10 Council of Research (ISAC-CNR). The station is located on top of the highest peak of the  
11 Italian northern Apennines, with a 360° free horizon and an elevation such that the station lies  
12 above the PBL during most of the year: the Mt. Cimone measurements are considered  
13 representative of the southern Europe/Mediterranean free troposphere (Bonasoni et al., 2000a;  
14 Fischer et al., 2003; Cristofanelli et al., 2007), although during the warmer months an influence  
15 of PBL air can be detected due both to convective processes and mountain/valley breeze  
16 regimes (Fischer et al., 2003; van Dingenen et al., 2005; Tositti et al., 2013). Note in this  
17 framework that southern Europe and Mediterranean basin are considered as a hot-spot region  
18 in terms of both climate change (e.g., Forster et al., 2007) and air quality (Monks et al., 2009),  
19 as well as a major crossroad of different air mass transport processes (Li et al., 2001; Lelieveld  
20 et al., 2002; Millàn et al., 2006; Duncan et al., 2008; Tositti et al., 2013).

21 At Mt. Cimone station,  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ ,  $^7\text{Be}$ , and aerosol mass load in the form of  $\text{PM}_{10}$  have been  
22 regularly measured in the period of 1998-2011 with a Thermo-Environmental  $\text{PM}_{10}$  high-  
23 volume sampler.  $\text{PM}_{10}$  is sampled on rectangular glass fiber filters (Whatman, 20.3 cm × 25.4  
24 cm, with an effective exposure area of about 407 cm<sup>2</sup>), which were manually changed every 2-



1 3 days, depending on weather conditions, failures of the sampling equipment and/or of the  
2 power supply and personnel on site. The average flow rate was about  $1.13 \text{ m}^3 \text{ min}^{-1}$  at standard  
3 temperature and pressure (STP), with an average volume of air collected on each filter equal  
4 to  $3000\text{-}4000 \text{ m}^3$  (about 48 hours of sampling, 115-175 samples per year).

5 Airborne radionuclides travel attached to particulate matters, and as a consequence of  
6 their physical origin, tend to populate the fine fraction ( $<1.0 \mu\text{m}$ ) (Winkler et al., 1998; Gaffney  
7 et al., 2004). The  $\text{PM}_{10}$  samples were subjected to non-destructive high-resolution  $\gamma$ -  
8 spectrometry for the determination of airborne radiotracers  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$ . The characteristics  
9 of the two Hyper Pure Germanium crystal detectors (HPGe) detectors are as follows: one p-  
10 type coaxial detector by Ortec/Ametek with a relative efficiency of 32.5% and FWHM 1.8 keV  
11 at 1332 keV and one planar DSG detector with an active surface of  $1500 \text{ mm}^2$  and FWHM 0.73  
12 keV at 122 keV, for higher and lower energy ranges (100-2000 keV and 0-900 keV),  
13 respectively.

14 Spectra were accumulated for at least one day to optimize peak analysis and then  
15 processed with a specific software package (GammaVision-32, version 6.07, Ortec). Efficiency  
16 calibration was determined on both detectors with a blank glass fiber filter traced with  
17 accurately weighted aliquots of a standard solution of mixed radionuclides (QCY48,  
18 Amersham) supplemented with  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ , homogeneously dispersed dropwise over the filter  
19 surface. Once dried under a hood under ambient conditions, the calibration filter was folded  
20 into a polystyrene container in the same geometry as the unknown samples. Quantitative  
21 analysis on samples was carried out by subtracting the spectrum of a blank filter in the same  
22 geometry, while uncertainty on peaks ( $k = 1$ , 68% level of confidence) was calculated  
23 propagating the combined error over the efficiency fit previously determined with the counting  
24 error. Minimum detectable activity was calculated making use of the traditional ORTEC  
25 method (ORTEC, 2003) with a peak cut-off limit of 40%. Activity data was corrected to the



1 midpoint of the time interval of collection and for the decay during spectrum acquisition. For  
2 our analysis, we used monthly averages of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  data at Mt. Cimone in 2005.

### 3 **2.2 GMI Model**

4 The Global Modeling Initiative (GMI, <http://gmi.gsfc.nasa.gov>) is a NASA-funded  
5 project aiming at improving assessments of anthropogenic perturbations to the Earth system;  
6 in this framework a CTM appropriate for stratospheric assessments was developed (Rotman et  
7 al., 2001). It was firstly used to evaluate the potential effects of stratospheric aircraft on the  
8 global stratosphere (Kinnison et al., 2001) and on the Antarctic lower stratosphere (Considine  
9 et al., 2000). The recent version of the GMI CTM includes a full treatment of both stratospheric  
10 and tropospheric photochemical and physical processes and is also capable of simulating  
11 atmospheric radionuclides  $^{222}\text{Rn}$ ,  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ ,  $^7\text{Be}$ , and  $^{10}\text{Be}$  throughout the troposphere and  
12 stratosphere (Considine et al., 2004, 2005; Rodriguez et al., 2004; Liu et al., 2016). Details of  
13 the model are described in Duncan et al. (2007, 2008), Strahan et al. (2007), and Considine et  
14 al. (2008).

15 In this work a version of the GMI model with the same basic structure as described by  
16 Considine et al. (2005) and Liu et al. (2016) was used, including parameterizations of the  
17 important tropospheric physical processes such as convection, wet scavenging, dry deposition  
18 and planetary boundary layer mixing. Meteorological data used to drive the CTM, e.g.,  
19 horizontal winds, convective mass fluxes and precipitation fields, are the Modern-Era  
20 Retrospective analysis for Research and Applications (MERRA) assimilated data set from the  
21 NASA Global Modeling and Assimilation Office (GMAO) (Rienecker et al., 2011).

22 The flux-form semi-Lagrangian advection scheme and a convective transport algorithm  
23 from the CONVTRAN routine in NCAR CCM3 physics package are used in the model. The  
24 wet deposition scheme is that of Liu et al. (2001): it includes scavenging in wet convective  
25 updrafts, and first-order rainout and washout from both convective anvils and large-scale



1 precipitations. The gravitational settling effect of cloud ice particles included in Liu et al.  
2 (2001) is not considered here. Dry deposition of aerosols is computed using the resistance-in-  
3 series approach. For the simulations of radionuclides, each simulation was run for six years,  
4 recycling the meteorological data for each year of the simulation, to equilibrate the lower  
5 stratosphere as well as the troposphere (Liu et al., 2001). The sixth year output was used for  
6 analysis.

7 A uniform  $^{222}\text{Rn}$  emission of  $1.0 \text{ atom cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  from land under nonfreezing conditions is  
8 assumed (Liu et al., 2001). Following Jacob and Prather (1990), the flux is reduced by a factor  
9 of 3 under freezing conditions. The flux from oceans and ice is null. Although a large variability  
10 of  $^{222}\text{Rn}$  emission from land is observed, the above emission estimate is thought to be accurate  
11 to within 25% globally (Turekian et al., 1977) and to within a factor of 2 regionally (Wilkening  
12 et al., 1975; Schery et al., 1989; Graustein and Turekian, 1990; Nazaroff, 1992; Liu et al.,  
13 2001).

14 Following Brost et al. (1991) and Koch et al. (1996), we used the Lal and Peters (1967)  
15  $^7\text{Be}$  source for 1958 (solar maximum year), as it best simulated stratospheric  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations  
16 measured from aircraft (Liu et al., 2001). No interannual variability in the  $^7\text{Be}$  source is  
17 considered in the model (Liu et al., 2001). This may lead to an underestimate of tropospheric  
18  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations, especially at high latitudes during a solar minimum (or near minimum)  
19 year. Lal and Peters (1967) reported that the relative amplitude of the  $^7\text{Be}$  production rate over  
20 a 11-year solar cycle is about 13% below 300 hPa at latitudes above 45 degree.

21 Because of the coarse horizontal resolution of the model ( $2^\circ$  latitude by  $2.5^\circ$  longitude),  
22 the model representation of the topography at the site is poor. The elevation of Mt. Cimone in  
23 the model is only 298 m, whereas in reality the mountain is 2165 m (asl) high (Figure 1). For  
24 this reason, the model output was not sampled at ground level, but at the gridbox corresponding  
25 to the elevation of the site. In order to see the sensitivity of model-observation comparisons to



1 spatial sampling, the model was sampled not only for the grid corresponding to the latitude and  
2 longitude of Mt. Cimone, but also for the 8 adjacent grids. To better understand the sources  
3 and seasonality of radiotracers in the model, we examine model output not only for  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ ,  $^7\text{Be}$   
4 and their ratio  $^7\text{Be}/^{210}\text{Pb}$  (an indicator of vertical transport [Koch et al., 1996]), which can be  
5 directly compared to the measurements taken at Mt. Cimone, but also for other radiotracers and  
6 quantities, e.g.,  $^{222}\text{Rn}$ , and  $^{10}\text{Be}/^7\text{Be}$  (a STE tracer [Zanis et al., 2003]).

7 Year 2005 was chosen for analysis because of the availability of the observational data  
8 and model output at the time of this work. As discussed later, the seasonal behavior of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$   
9 and  $^7\text{Be}$  radionuclides during year 2005 was “typical” for Mt. Cimone. Monthly averages of  
10  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  data at Mt. Cimone were calculated for comparison with model results. To better  
11 compare the seasonalities of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  between the model and the observations, the  
12 monthly percentage deviations from the annual mean concentration were also calculated.

### 13 **3 Seasonal Variations of Transport and Precipitation at Mt. Cimone: Observations vs.** 14 **Model Simulations**

15 Mt. Cimone is the windiest meteorological station in Italy and the prevailing local winds  
16 blow from S-SW and N-NE directions (Ciattaglia, 1983; Ciattaglia et al., 1987; Colombo et al.,  
17 2000). The wind observations at Mt. Cimone during the period of 1998-2011, when  
18 radionuclide measurements were performed at the station (Tositti et al., 2014), agree with the  
19 climatology of local wind intensity and direction during the period of 1946-1999 as reported  
20 by the Italian Air Force (Colombo et al., 2000). N-NE directions are more significant during  
21 the cold period, and fluxes from SW are more typical of the warm period. While winds blowing  
22 from the S-SW sector generate a sea air inflow, a continental air inflow is observed when winds  
23 come from the N-NE sector (Ciattaglia et al., 1987).

24 However, when considering the lifetimes of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  (about one week) and  $^7\text{Be}$  (about three  
25 weeks) aerosols (Liu et al., 2001), it is apparent that the regional and long-range transport has



1 a much more important role than local transport. On a large scale, about 70% of background  
2 air masses reaching Mt. Cimone in the period of 1996-1998 came from Atlantic and Arctic  
3 areas, with a smaller contribution from the Mediterranean Basin and the eastern area, as  
4 estimated by Bonasoni et al. (2000). A more recent and extended study of advection patterns  
5 at Mt. Cimone (Brattich E. et al., “Advection patterns at the WMO-GAW station of Mt.  
6 Cimone: seasonality, trends, and influence on atmospheric composition”, manuscript in  
7 preparation, 2016), analyzing clusters of 4-day kinematic back-trajectories calculated for the  
8 period of 1998-2011 with the HYSPLIT (HYbrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated  
9 Trajectory) model driven by the NCEP/NCAR (National Center for Environmental  
10 Prediction/National Center for Atmospheric Research) meteorological reanalysis, shows that  
11 the air masses advected to Mt. Cimone (55%) arrive from the Western-Atlantic-North America  
12 sector, while the remaining air masses (from the Arctic, Eastern and Mediterranean Basin-  
13 Northern Africa) together represent 45% of trajectories. Seasonal transport to Mt. Cimone in  
14 the model is shown in Figure 2, representing winds at the elevation of Mt. Cimone (winds are  
15 weaker at the model bottom layer). In agreement with the description of advection patterns at  
16 the site, prevailing model winds (Figure 2) blow from the western-Atlantic sector. Slow  
17 summer winds suggest the stronger influence of regional/local transport at Mt. Cimone during  
18 the period (e.g., Lee et al., 2007; Marinoni et al., 2008; Tositti et al., 2013, 2014; Brattich et  
19 al., 2015).

20 In the model Mt. Cimone appears to be in a location where there is a large horizontal  
21 gradient of wind (transport). Long-range transport from Western Europe, North America and  
22 Arctic region prevail during the cold period, while regional transport appears more important  
23 in summer. The model is able to capture relevant features of pressure systems and seasonal  
24 circulation patterns of the North Atlantic/Mediterranean/African region, such as the semi-  
25 permanent high pressure system located in the North Atlantic with different positions during



1 different seasons (Bermuda/Azores high), a semi-permanent system of high pressure centered  
2 in northeastern Siberia during the colder half of the year (Siberian high), and the ITCZ in the  
3 summer/autumn season. However, due to the coarse resolution of the global meteorological  
4 reanalysis that we use to construct the model winds, the more than 50 local-scale wind systems  
5 present in the Mediterranean and surrounding regions are not resolved (Burlando, 2009). In  
6 northern Europe, in fact, there are approximately two main states for the atmosphere, the  
7 westerly or zonal flows modulated by the advection of Atlantic lows, and the long-lived  
8 blocking anticyclonic configurations over North Sea or Scandinavia (easterly) (Burlando et al.,  
9 2008).

10 In the Mediterranean region, the main cyclones during winter are essentially sub-synoptic  
11 lows triggered by the major North-Atlantic synoptic systems affected by the local topography  
12 of the Northern Mediterranean coast (Trigo et al., 2002), whereas in summer cyclones develop  
13 because of thermal effects, orography (e.g., the Atlas Mountains), and increase in low-level  
14 thermal gradients (Trigo et al., 2002; Campins et al., 2006). Again, due to the coarse resolution  
15 of the meteorological data we use, these sub-synoptic processes are not resolved. For instance,  
16 North-African lows and Sahara depressions (also referred to as Atlas lee depressions) and the  
17 resulting S-SW wind (Sirocco) (Reiter, 1975), potentially linked to  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  variations at Mt.  
18 Cimone, appear to be an important feature missing in the degraded MERRA data, where they  
19 appear only during October/November.

20 We evaluate the MERRA precipitation with those from the GPCP (Global Precipitation  
21 Climatology Project, <http://www.gewex.org/gpcp.html>) satellite and surface observations in  
22 2005. Figure 3 shows the MERRA and GPCP monthly precipitation for the region defined by  
23 0-75°N and 90°W – 90°E. A good agreement between the MERRA and the GPCP  
24 precipitations averaged over the region was found. In particular, summer precipitation patterns  
25 are very similar. The geographical distribution of precipitation in MERRA shows some



1 important features in agreement with the observed climatology precipitations: the desert  
2 climate in North Africa with very low precipitation all year long, the ITCZ with high  
3 precipitation during the summer/autumn seasons, the North Atlantic region with high  
4 precipitation especially during the winter and autumn seasons, and Europe where the seasonal  
5 pattern of precipitation is similar to that in the North Atlantic region, but precipitation is lower.

6 Figure 4 shows the comparison of the GPCP and MERRA precipitation seasonality at Mt.  
7 Cimone. Since Mt. Cimone is located in a region with a large horizontal gradient in  
8 precipitation, we also show in the figure the comparisons for three adjacent gridboxes. The  
9 agreement between the MERRA and GPCP precipitation seasonality is reasonable, with the  
10 squared correlation coefficient  $R^2$  varying between 0.56 (at the grid to the northwest of “ij”)  
11 and 0.89 (at the grid to the southeast of “ij”). Large differences between the MERRA  
12 precipitation and that locally observed at the station are instead present (not shown): in  
13 particular, the MERRA precipitation is larger during winter-autumn, while it is much more  
14 similar to that observed during spring-summer. This difference may very well reflect again the  
15 fact that the observed surface precipitation is localized, whereas the satellite and MERRA  
16 precipitations correspond to a much larger scale (about 200 km). Moreover, as Colombo et al.  
17 (2000) previously pointed out, different from the surrounding area where the climate is defined  
18 as temperate-continental, the climate at the mountaintop is classified as alpine because of the  
19 high elevation. In fact, in agreement with the GPCP precipitation in 2005, the observed  
20 climatology in the region shows maximum during November (secondary maximum in spring)  
21 and absolute minimum in July (secondary minimum in January), whereas on the top of the  
22 mountain the precipitation is maximal during summer. The MERRA precipitation shows  
23 increased amounts during April and August-December, with minimum in June-July. As the  
24 local precipitation at the site is important to the scavenging of radionuclide aerosol tracers, this  
25 difference between the local and regional precipitation could contribute to any biases in our



1 simulations. However, as we will show below, the ratio  ${}^7\text{Be}/{}^{210}\text{Pb}$  may cancel out the errors  
2 associated to precipitation scavenging (Koch et al., 1996).

3 Low  ${}^{210}\text{Pb}$  concentrations are seen over the Atlantic Ocean, due to the negligible  
4 emissions of  ${}^{222}\text{Rn}$  from the oceans and strong precipitation scavenging, and in northern and  
5 western Europe especially during the cold season (Figure 2a). High  ${}^{210}\text{Pb}$  concentrations appear  
6 over the Sahara desert and North Africa, as a result of low precipitation in this area, and also  
7 over the Middle East and South Asia.  ${}^{210}\text{Pb}$  concentrations over southern Europe appear higher  
8 during the transition seasons, especially fall, and peak during summer when the minimum  
9 precipitation and slow winds from west are observed in the region. Low  ${}^7\text{Be}$  concentrations are  
10 simulated along the equator where convective scavenging is strongest (Figure 2b). High  ${}^7\text{Be}$   
11 concentrations are seen over the Sahara desert due to a combination of low precipitation and  
12 subsidence in this region. Elevated values also occur over the Middle East, North America, and  
13 Greenland.  ${}^7\text{Be}$  concentrations over southern Europe appear higher during spring and peak  
14 during winter, when model winds are stronger and transport  ${}^7\text{Be}$  aerosols from North America  
15 and Greenland regions where  ${}^7\text{Be}$  production is highest (Beer et al., 2012).

#### 16 **4 Seasonal Variations of ${}^{210}\text{Pb}$ and ${}^7\text{Be}$ at Mt. Cimone: Observations vs. Model** 17 **Simulations**

18 The seasonality and frequency distributions of  ${}^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  ${}^7\text{Be}$  concentrations measured at  
19 the Mt. Cimone station were previously examined by Lee et al. (2007), while more recent  
20 analyses of the 12-year record were presented in Tositti et al. (2014) and Brattich et al. (2015).  
21 Generally, both radionuclides show a marked seasonal maximum in the summertime, a  
22 behaviour shared by  $\text{PM}_{10}$  (Tositti et al., 2013) and  $\text{O}_3$  (Bonasoni et al., 2000b).  ${}^{210}\text{Pb}$  summer  
23 maximum is mainly due to the higher mixing height and enhanced uplift from the boundary  
24 layer as a result of thermal convection. The seasonal fluctuation of  ${}^7\text{Be}$  is more complex and  
25 characterized by two relative maxima, one during the cold season associated with stratosphere-



1 to-troposphere transport, and the other during the warm season mainly associated with  
2 tropospheric subsidence balancing lower-tropospheric air masses ascent occasionally  
3 accompanied by STE (Tositti et al., 2014). The  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  measurements in 2005 are  
4 consistent with this description (Figure 5):  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  concentrations are characterized by two  
5 maxima during the warm period (July and September);  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations are characterized by  
6 one absolute maximum during summer (July) and one secondary maximum during spring  
7 (March).

8 Figure 5 (ab) compares the simulated monthly  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  activities with the  
9 observations at Mt. Cimone in 2005. The comparisons for the monthly percentage deviations  
10 from the annual mean concentration are available as Supplementary Information (hereafter SI,  
11 SI Figures 1-2). The seasonality of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  is well captured by the model. The model reproduces  
12 the presence of two seasonal maxima in the  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  observations, with the maximum observed in  
13 July shifted to June in the simulation. The squared correlation coefficient  $R^2$  between observed  
14 and simulated  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  activities is equal to 0.83 at the “ij” grid and varies between 0.42 and 0.82  
15 for adjacent gridboxes (to the north and to the west of “ij”, respectively), confirming the good  
16 performance of the model in reproducing the  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  seasonal pattern.

17 As for  $^7\text{Be}$ , the model well captures the March maximum (i.e., secondary maximum in  
18 the observations) and the general seasonal pattern during the cold and transition seasons.  
19 However, during the warm period, the simulated  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations are lower by a factor of 2  
20 than the observed. A better agreement was found at some adjacent model gridboxes (e.g., “to  
21 the south and to the southwest of “ij”; Figure 6 vs. Figure 5). The correlation between observed  
22 and simulated monthly  $^7\text{Be}$  activities also increases from  $R^2 = 0.03$  at “ij” to  $R^2 = 0.11$ -0.60 at  
23 adjacent model gridboxes.

## 24 5 Sources and Seasonality of $^{210}\text{Pb}$ and $^7\text{Be}$ at Mt. Cimone: A Model Analysis



1           In this section, we quantify the sources of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  and determine the processes  
2 governing their seasonality in the GMI model. Additional tracers as simulated by the model are  
3 used to aid in the interpretation. Model sensitivity experiments are conducted to examine the  
4 roles of transport and precipitation scavenging in the seasonality.

5           As discussed in Section 4, the model well reproduces the  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  seasonality, with  
6 minimum in the cold period and maximum in the warm period. The  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  seasonality (Figure  
7 5a) can be linked with the seasonal pattern of its precursor  $^{222}\text{Rn}$  (Figure 5c). It is seen that the  
8 summer  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  maximum is due to stronger (thermal) convection, which uplifts more  $^{222}\text{Rn}$  out  
9 of the boundary layer (e.g., Lee et al., 2007; Tositti et al., 2014; Brattich et al., 2015). This  
10 uplift of  $^{222}\text{Rn}$  from the boundary layer is minimum in the cold period, and the minimal level  
11 of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  in this period can be considered representative of the free troposphere. The  $^{210}\text{Pb}$   
12 summer increase appears to be associated with short-range and regional transport, as suggested  
13 by the model simulations (Figure 2a). As expected, long-range transport is more typical of the  
14 winter/spring seasons because of stronger horizontal winds, while regional effects are more  
15 important during summer when convection gets stronger.

16           In a similar manner, the source of the  $^7\text{Be}$  March maximum can be investigated with  
17 model tracer simulations. Figure 5 (de) also shows the simulated seasonal patterns of the  
18  $^{10}\text{Be}/^7\text{Be}$  activity ratio and of the fraction of  $^7\text{Be}$  originating from the stratosphere (strat  
19  $^7\text{Be}/\text{total } ^7\text{Be}$ ). The simulated seasonal pattern of the  $^{10}\text{Be}/^7\text{Be}$  ratio is very similar to the  
20 observations at Zugspitze (Germany, 2962 m asl) (Zanis et al., 2003), characterized by a not-  
21 pronounced seasonal cycle with somewhat elevated ratios in February-April and June-July.  
22 The usefulness of  $^{10}\text{Be}/^7\text{Be}$  ratio as a stratospheric tracer is due to the fact that both  $^{10}\text{Be}$  and  
23  $^7\text{Be}$  cosmogenic radionuclides attach to the same aerosols and share therefore the same removal  
24 mechanism. Moreover, due to the much longer physical half-life of  $^{10}\text{Be}$  ( $\tau_{1/2} = 1.5 \times 10^6$  years)  
25 compared to  $^7\text{Be}$  ( $\tau_{1/2} = 53.3$  days), their concentration ratios in the stratosphere (about 3-4) are



1 much higher than in the troposphere (about 2 or even less) (Koch and Rind, 1998). The  
2 simulated  $^{10}\text{Be}/^7\text{Be}$  ratio behavior indicates that deep stratosphere-to-troposphere (STT) peaks  
3 during winter, while shallower STT has a spring maximum, consistent with previous analyses  
4 of stratospheric intrusions at Mt. Cimone (Cristofanelli et al., 2006, 2009), and more generally  
5 with the climatology of stratosphere-troposphere exchange at the Northern Hemisphere mid-  
6 latitudes (James et al., 2003). Altogether the simulated high strat  $^7\text{Be}/\text{total } ^7\text{Be}$ , high  $^7\text{Be}/^{210}\text{Pb}$   
7 (Figure 7), and low  $^{10}\text{Be}/^7\text{Be}$  ratios during December-January indicate strongest STE during  
8 this period, followed by spring with slightly weaker stratospheric influence on surface  $^7\text{Be}$ .  
9 However, the model tends to overestimate the observed  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations and  $^7\text{Be}/^{210}\text{Pb}$  ratios  
10 during December-February, suggesting that STE and/or subsidence in the model is likely too  
11 fast in this region. As reported by Huang et al. (2013), a stronger net subsidence of air masses  
12 to the surface could be due to unrealistic meteorological conditions (e.g., boundary layer  
13 structure, wind fields, vertical mixing).

14 The use of the  $^7\text{Be}$  production rate of Lal and Peters (1967) for a solar maximum year  
15 (1958) may partly explain the lower annual mean  $^7\text{Be}$  in the model ( $3.4 \text{ mBq m}^{-3}$  annual mean  
16 at the “ij” grid) than in the observations ( $4.2 \text{ mBq m}^{-3}$ ). In fact, the sunspot number in 2005  
17 (29.8) was quite low (slowly decreasing from 2000, a solar maximum year, and reaching  
18 minimum in 2008), especially compared to the 1958 value of 184.8. Sunspot number data are  
19 available from the World Data Center for the production, preservation and dissemination of the  
20 international sunspot number (Sunspot Index and Long-term Solar Observation, SILSO, Royal  
21 Observatory of Belgium, Brussels, <http://sidc.oma.be/sunspot-data/>).

22 During the winter period, associated with the simulated and observed  $^7\text{Be}$  increases  
23 (Figures 5-6), strong long-range transport was dominant in the European region (Figure 2b).  
24 Transport from higher latitude regions (Arctic, northern Europe, and North America) appears  
25 particularly important during this period (Figure 2b); such transport from high-latitude regions,



1 where the  $^7\text{Be}$  production rate is highest (Beer et al., 2012), has typically been observed during  
2 STE events at Mt. Cimone in many studies (e.g., Bonasoni et al., 1999, 2000ab).

3 The discrepancy between the simulated and the observed  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations during the  
4 warm period is partly due to the sensitivity to spatial sampling in the model. As seen from the  
5 map plots of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations at the elevation of Mt. Cimone (Figure 2), the  
6 sampling site appears to be located in a region where the N-S gradient of concentrations is large  
7 (especially for  $^7\text{Be}$ ). An elevated gradient in the region surrounding Mt. Cimone was also seen  
8 for winds, as transport plays a critical role in determining the distributions of these tracers. The  
9 sensitivity to spatial sampling in the model is therefore ascribed to this observed strong gradient  
10 in the N-S direction. In fact, while the grids to the south and southwest of “ij” are better for  
11 summer  $^7\text{Be}$  comparisons (Figure 6), the grids to the northeast, north, and northwest of “ij” are  
12 better for winter (not shown).

13 The model underestimate of  $^7\text{Be}$  levels in the warm months may also suggest the mixing  
14 of air masses between the PBL and the lower free troposphere is likely too weak. Previous  
15 observational analyses indicated that such mixing is higher in summer at Mt. Cimone due to  
16 enhanced convection and mountain wind breeze (e.g., Fischer et al., 2003; Cristofanelli et al.,  
17 2007). Weaker entrainment of free-tropospheric air into the PBL would result in lower  $^7\text{Be}$   
18 concentrations at the surface.

19 The model annual average biases are about 8% for  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and about 19% for  $^7\text{Be}$ ,  
20 respectively. By contrast, the model average bias for  $^7\text{Be}/^{210}\text{Pb}$  ratios is about -13% (Figure 7).  
21 The smaller model bias for  $^7\text{Be}/^{210}\text{Pb}$  ratios than for  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations reflects the fact that the  
22 ratio cancels out the errors in precipitation scavenging (Koch et al. 1996) that contribute to the  
23 underestimate of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  activities. On the other hand, the negative model bias for the  
24  $^7\text{Be}/^{210}\text{Pb}$  ratio again points to weak downward mixing from the free troposphere.



1           If one compares the month-to-month variation of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  (Figures 5 and 6) and  
2 precipitation in the model (Figure 4), the maxima/minima of precipitation appear to be in phase  
3 with those of both radionuclides' activities. This reflects the effects of precipitation scavenging  
4 on radionuclide aerosols.

5           We conducted model sensitivity experiments where convection (transport and  
6 scavenging), wet scavenging due to both large-scale and convective precipitation, and dry  
7 deposition processes are turned off, respectively, to examine the roles of these processes in  
8 controlling the seasonality of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  at Mt. Cimone. Figure 8 shows the results for the  
9 standard and sensitivity runs at the “grid to the south of “ij”, for which the simulated tracer  
10 seasonal variations are similar to those observed, while the monthly percentage deviations from  
11 the annual mean concentrations are shown in SI Figure 3. Figures 9-12 show maps of simulated  
12 changes in  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations when convection or wet scavenging is turned off.

13           Turning off dry deposition does not significantly change the simulated  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$   
14 concentrations, partly due to sampling the higher vertical gridbox in the model (larger effects  
15 are seen at the bottom model layer). Turning off convection (i.e., with neither convective  
16 transport nor convective scavenging), the simulated  $^7\text{Be}$  seasonality also remains nearly the  
17 same. This suggests the compensating effects between subsidence (increasing  $^7\text{Be}$ ) associated  
18 with convective transport and scavenging (decreasing  $^7\text{Be}$ ) due to convective precipitation. In  
19 the case of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ , turning off convection does not change the seasonal pattern but generally  
20 results in larger  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  concentrations and particularly during summer/autumn when convective  
21 transport is more important at the site. In fact, no convective transport of  $^{222}\text{Rn}$  (SI Figure 5)  
22 results in less  $^{222}\text{Rn}$  (and  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ ) being transported to the free troposphere, but also more  $^{210}\text{Pb}$   
23 available in PBL lifted to the free troposphere by large-scale vertical transport; on the other  
24 hand, lack of convective scavenging of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  increases its concentration in the free troposphere.  
25 Turning off convection therefore results in an increase of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  concentrations in the free



1 troposphere. Both surface  $^{222}\text{Rn}$  concentrations at the elevation of Mt. Cimone (SI Figure 4),  
2 as well as a map of changes in  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  concentrations due to convection in the model (Figure 9)  
3 show that convection in the region is more important during summer and autumn, but is not  
4 negligible during spring, possibly due to thermal inertia.

5 The model run without scavenging suggests that, apart from downward transport from  
6 the upper troposphere and lower stratosphere, wet scavenging is mainly responsible for the  
7 seasonal variation of  $^7\text{Be}$  (Figure 8, bottom panel). None of our simulations is able to describe  
8 the observed  $^7\text{Be}$  summertime peak, suggesting that the local circulation in this region with  
9 complex topography may not be resolved by the coarse-resolution model. For  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  (Figure 8,  
10 top panel), it appears that wet scavenging plays a more important role during August-December  
11 than during January-July. This appears to be associated with the seasonality of precipitation,  
12 which shows prolonged elevated values during August-December, as well as a maximum  
13 during April, as previously discussed (Figure 5). A plot of changes in  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  concentrations due  
14 to scavenging in the model (Figure 10) confirms that the scavenging effect is larger during fall  
15 and, to a lesser extent, during summer. At Mt. Cimone, the scavenging effect is not minimal  
16 during July (month of minimum precipitation, Figure 4), suggesting the influence of  
17 precipitation scavenging elsewhere in the region on the site.

## 18 **6 Summary and Conclusions**

19 We have used a global 3-D model (GMI CTM) driven by the MERRA assimilated  
20 meteorological data from NASA's GMAO to simulate the  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  observations from the  
21 Mt. Cimone (44°12' N, 10°42' E, 2165 m asl, Italy) WMO-GAW station in 2005. The two  
22 natural atmospheric radionuclides originate from contrasting source regions (lower troposphere  
23 and upper troposphere/lower stratosphere, respectively), attach to submicron particles, and are  
24 removed from the troposphere mainly by wet deposition. Our objective was to examine the  
25 roles of horizontal advection, vertical transport (large-scale and convection), and wet



1 scavenging in determining the seasonality of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  at Mt. Cimone. The observed  $^{210}\text{Pb}$   
2 concentrations are characterized by maxima in summer and minima during the cold period.  
3 The seasonality of  $^7\text{Be}$  is more complex, with a major peak in summer, a secondary peak in  
4 spring and a minimum in winter. This is the first modeling study of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  observations  
5 at Mt. Cimone. This site is representative of free-tropospheric Southern Europe/Mediterranean  
6 conditions most of the year, and as such the comparison between measurements and  
7 simulations can serve as an indication of shortcomings in the model or in the meteorological  
8 data.

9       Precipitation and wind fields are important to the model's performance in representing  
10 the transport and scavenging processes. We evaluated the MERRA precipitation field used by  
11 GMI CTM against the GPCP satellite and surface observations, and a generally good  
12 agreement was found. The seasonality of precipitation at Mt. Cimone shows increased amounts  
13 during April and the period of August-December, and minimum in June-July. The MERRA  
14 assimilated winds at the low resolution version we used captured the main circulation patterns  
15 (e.g., location of the Azores high pressure, location of the ITCZ) in the Northern Hemisphere.  
16 However, some local-scale winds and pressure systems, which are important for transport to  
17 the sampling site, were likely not well resolved at the coarse resolution we used. A general  
18 good agreement was found between the MERRA assimilated wind fields and the main  
19 advection patterns at the site (e.g., prevalence of long-range transport from Western Europe,  
20 North America and Arctic region during the cold season, as opposed to the prevailing regional  
21 transport during the warm season).

22       The model well reproduced the observed  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  seasonality:  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  maxima during the  
23 warm period were attributed to the stronger (thermal) convection, which uplifts more  $^{222}\text{Rn}$   
24 (and  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ ) from the boundary layer. The model is less successful in reproducing the observed  
25  $^7\text{Be}$  seasonality.  $^7\text{Be}$  was better represented during the cold period, while the observed summer



1  $^7\text{Be}$  maximum was underestimated by the model. The model underestimate of  $^7\text{Be}$  levels in the  
2 warm months is partly due to the sensitivity to spatial sampling in the model, but also suggests  
3 that the mixing of air masses between the PBL and the lower free troposphere is likely too  
4 weak. This suggests that additional work comparing the model results with more surface  
5 observations is needed in order to better understand this effect. The simulated lower annual  
6 average  $^7\text{Be}$  concentration relative to the observation is also partly attributed to the fact that the  
7 model used the  $^7\text{Be}$  production rate for a solar maximum year, while in 2005 (our simulation  
8 year) the solar activity was rather low.

9 By examining the wind fields and horizontal distribution of radiotracers in the model, we  
10 noted that the sampling site is in a location where there is a large gradient, especially in the  
11 North-South direction. Accordingly, we investigated the sensitivity of model results to spatial  
12 sampling. A better agreement between the model and the observations at some adjacent  
13 gridboxes was found. The  $^7\text{Be}$  March maximum was linked to the large stratospheric influence  
14 during winter/spring. The model tends to underestimate the summertime  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$ , but  
15 better simulates the  $^7\text{Be}/^{210}\text{Pb}$  ratio because the model errors due to precipitation scavenging  
16 appear to be canceled out in the ratio.

17 We have conducted a series of model sensitivity experiments to further examine and  
18 quantify the roles of wet scavenging, dry deposition, and convection (transport and scavenging)  
19 in controlling the seasonality of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  at Mt. Cimone. Dry deposition does not have a  
20 significant effect on the magnitude and seasonality of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations at the site.  
21 The relatively weak combined effects of convective transport and convective scavenging on  
22 the radiotracer seasonality were attributed to the compensating effects of convective transport  
23 and convective scavenging on tracer concentrations in the lower free troposphere (at the  
24 elevation of Mt. Cimone). Convection appears to be more important to the regional distribution  
25 of both radiotracers during summer and autumn, although it is also significant during spring.



1 Finally, scavenging is found to be the most important process controlling the seasonal  
2 variations of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  at Mt. Cimone. For  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ , precipitation plays a more important role  
3 during August-December than during January-July. This was attributed to the seasonality of  
4 local and regional precipitation, which shows prolonged elevated values in the period of  
5 August-December.

6 While our simulations demonstrated some capabilities of the model to reproduce the  
7 seasonality of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$ , they highlight the weaknesses of the model in reproducing local  
8 features, presumably due to its coarse resolution. Model simulations at a higher resolution  
9 would improve this model analysis of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  observations at Mt. Cimone, a high-  
10 elevation site. The understanding of downward transport associated with convection during  
11 summer also requires improving. As such,  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  tracers will prove to be very useful in  
12 our understanding of seasonal behaviors of other environmentally important trace gases and  
13 aerosols at Mt. Cimone. Since other aerosols and trace gases (e.g., black carbon, CO, O<sub>3</sub>) are  
14 also measured at the station, we plan to conduct comparisons between model simulations and  
15 those measurements to corroborate or contrast with the radionuclide results.

16

#### 17 **Data availability**

18 A description of the observational data and model output used in this paper can be found in  
19 Sect. 2 and they are available upon request by contacting Laura Tositti ([laura.tositti@unibo.it](mailto:laura.tositti@unibo.it))  
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### 3 **Figures**

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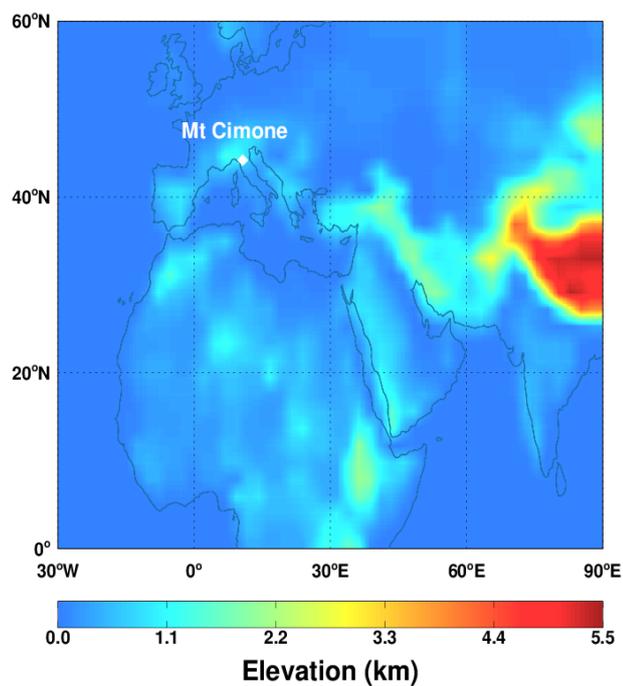
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17 **Figure 1.** Surface elevations (km) in the model. The white dot indicates the location of Mt.

18 Cimone (44°12' N, 10°42' E, 2165 m asl).

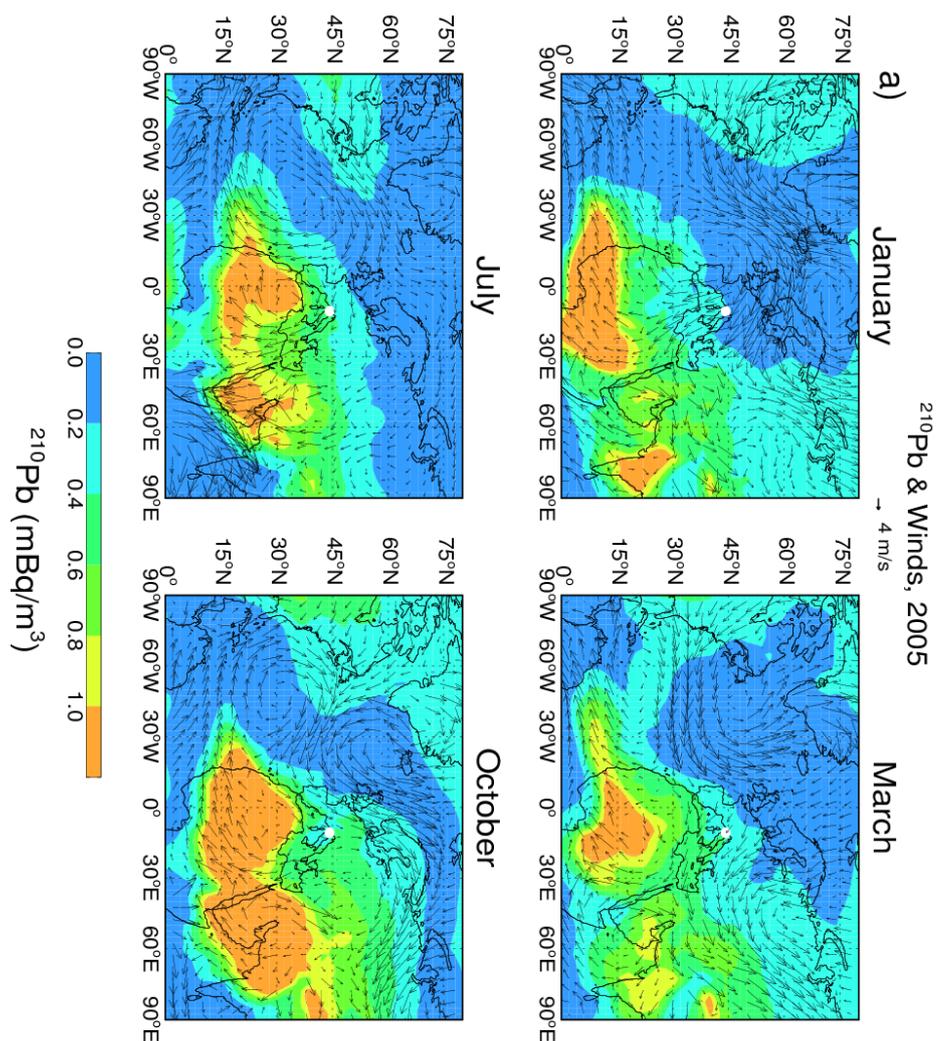
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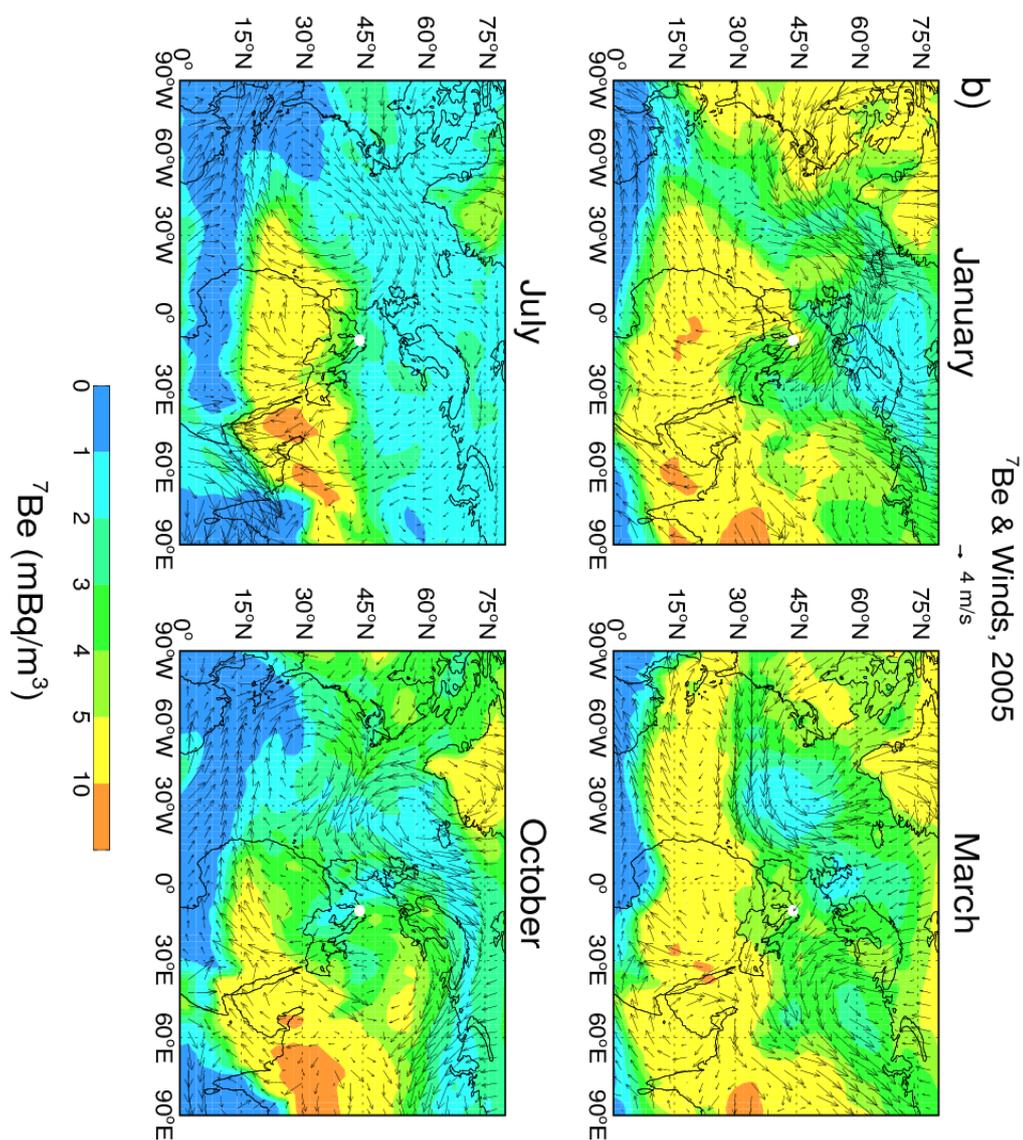
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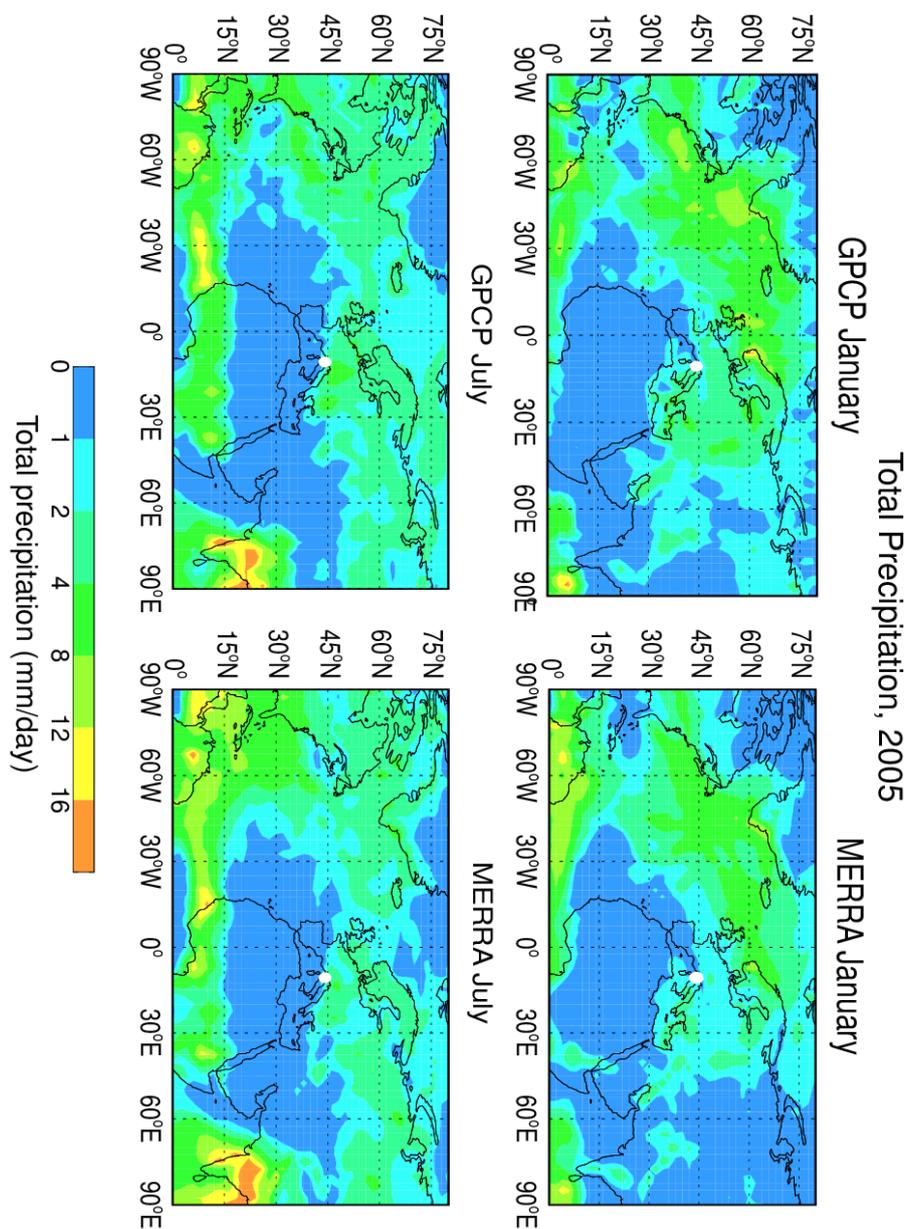
2 **Figure 2.** Simulated monthly mean (a)  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  concentrations and (b)  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations, at the  
3 elevation of Mt. Cimone. Arrows represent the seasonality of winds in the MERRA  
4 meteorological data. The white dot indicates the location of Mt. Cimone ( $44^\circ12' \text{ N}$ ,  $10^\circ42' \text{ E}$ ,  
5 2165 m asl). To be continued.



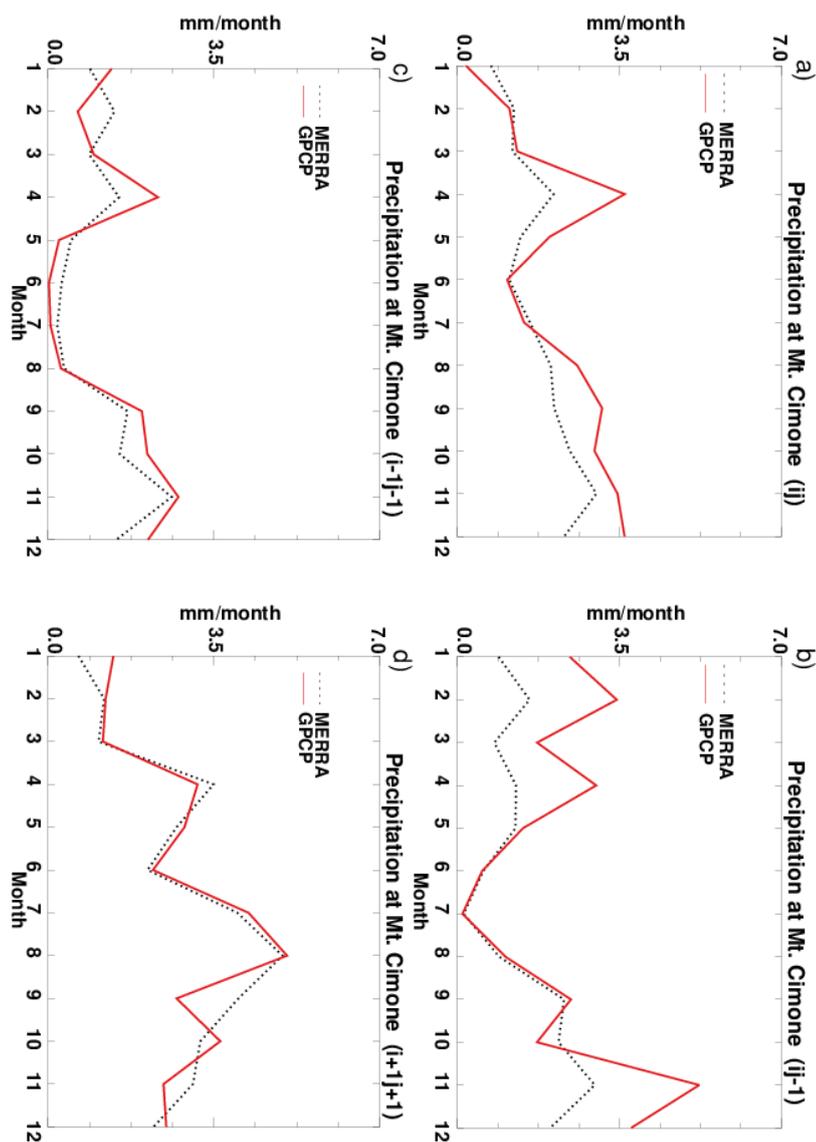
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2 **Figure 2.** (continued)

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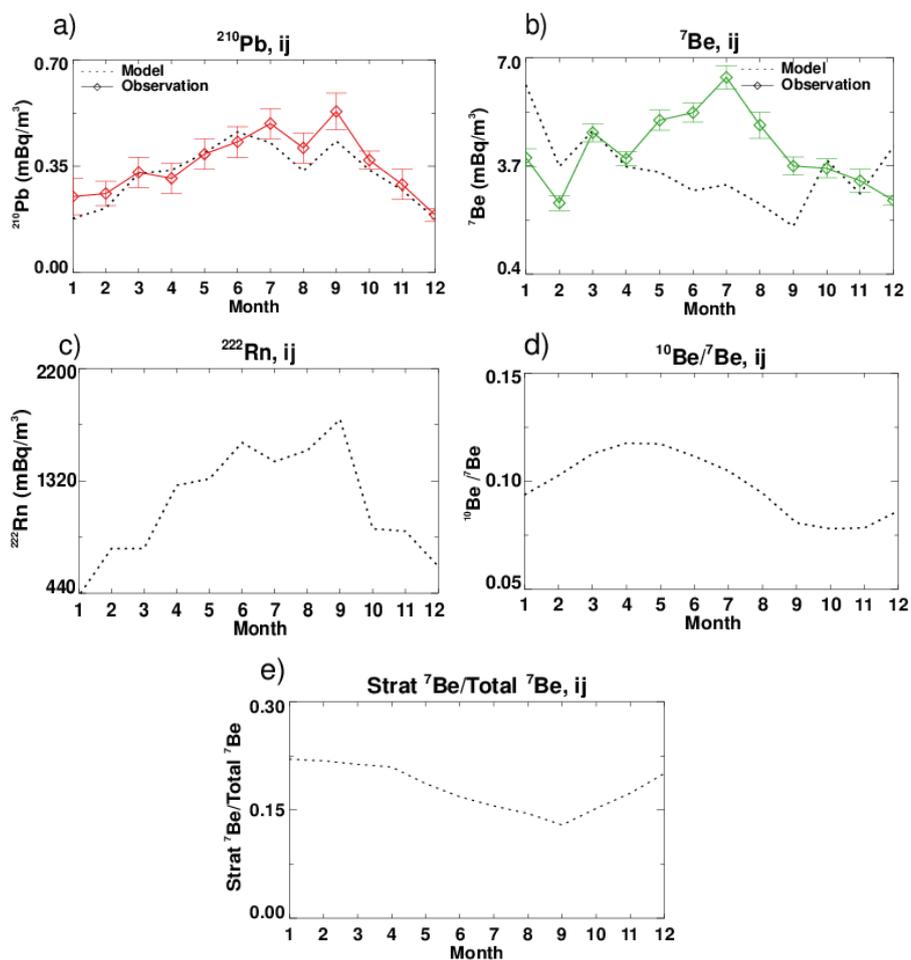


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2 **Figure 3.** Comparison of the MERRA total precipitation (0-75°N, 90°W-90°E) during January  
3 and July 2005 with that in the GPCP observations. The white dot indicates the location of Mt.  
4 Cimone (44°12'N, 10°42'E, 2165 m asl).



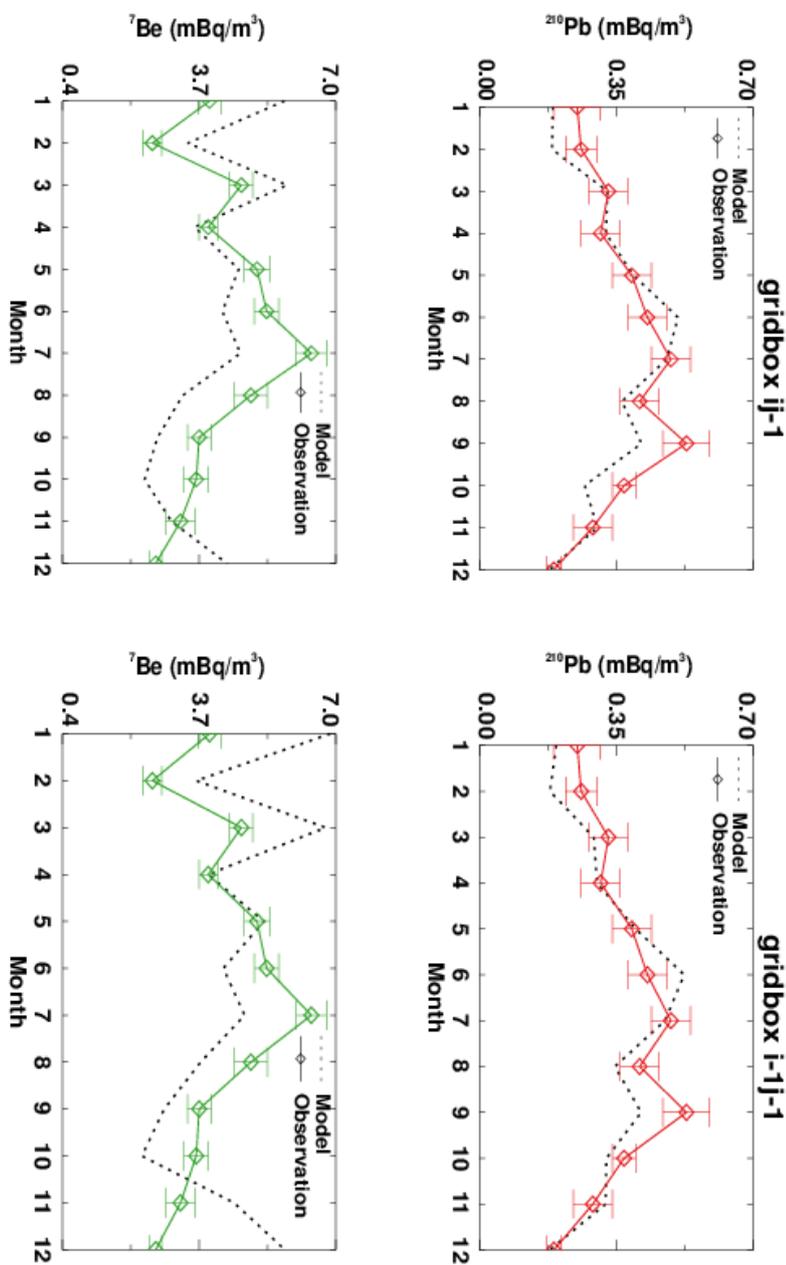
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2 **Figure 4.** Comparison of the seasonal precipitation at Mt. Cimone in the MERRA  
 3 meteorological data set with that in the GPCP observations for (a) the model gridbox (“ij”)  
 4 corresponding to the location of Mt. Cimone, (b) the model gridbox (“ij-1”) to the west of “ij”,  
 5 (c) the model gridbox (“i-1j-1”) to the southwest of “ij”, and (d) the model gridbox (“i+1j+1”)  
 6 to the northeast of “ij”.



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2 **Figure 5 (a,b,c,d,e).** Comparison of GMI simulated (black dotted line) monthly (a)  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  
3 (b)  $^7\text{Be}$  activities with those observed at Mt. Cimone (solid lines) in 2005. Also shown are GMI  
4 simulated monthly activities of (c)  $^{222}\text{Rn}$ , (d)  $^{10}\text{Be}/^7\text{Be}$  ratios, and (e) strat  $^7\text{Be}/\text{total } ^7\text{Be}$  ratios.  
5 Model values are for the “ij” gridbox corresponding to the location of Mt. Cimone. Vertical  
6 bars indicate the uncertainty in observed activities.



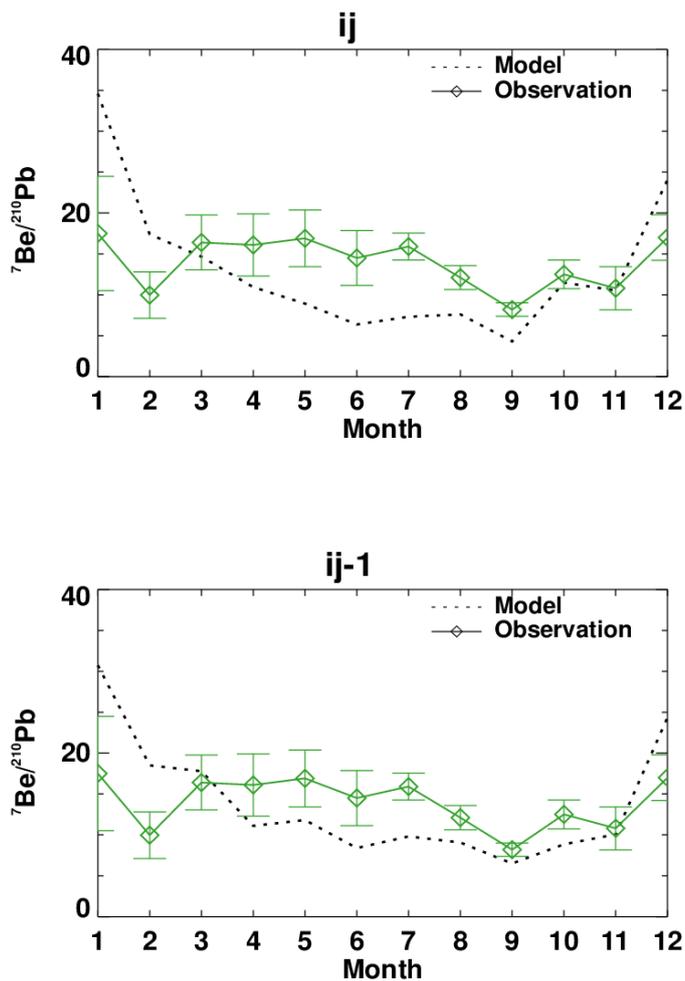
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2 **Figure 6.** Same as Figure 5(ab), but for the “ij-1” to the south of “ij” (left column) and “i-1j-  
3 1” to the southwest of “ij” (right column) grids, respectively.

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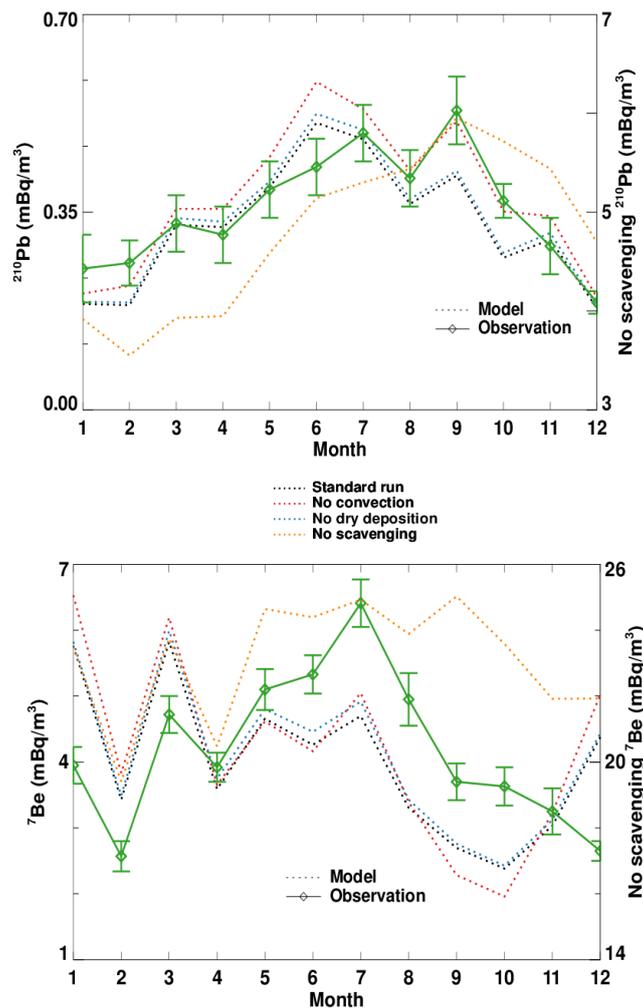
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3 **Figure 7.** Comparison between GMI simulated monthly  ${}^7\text{Be}/{}^{210}\text{Pb}$  ratios at the “ij” and “ij-1”  
4 grids (black dotted line) and those from the observations at Mt. Cimone (green solid line).  
5 Vertical bars indicate the uncertainty in observed activities.

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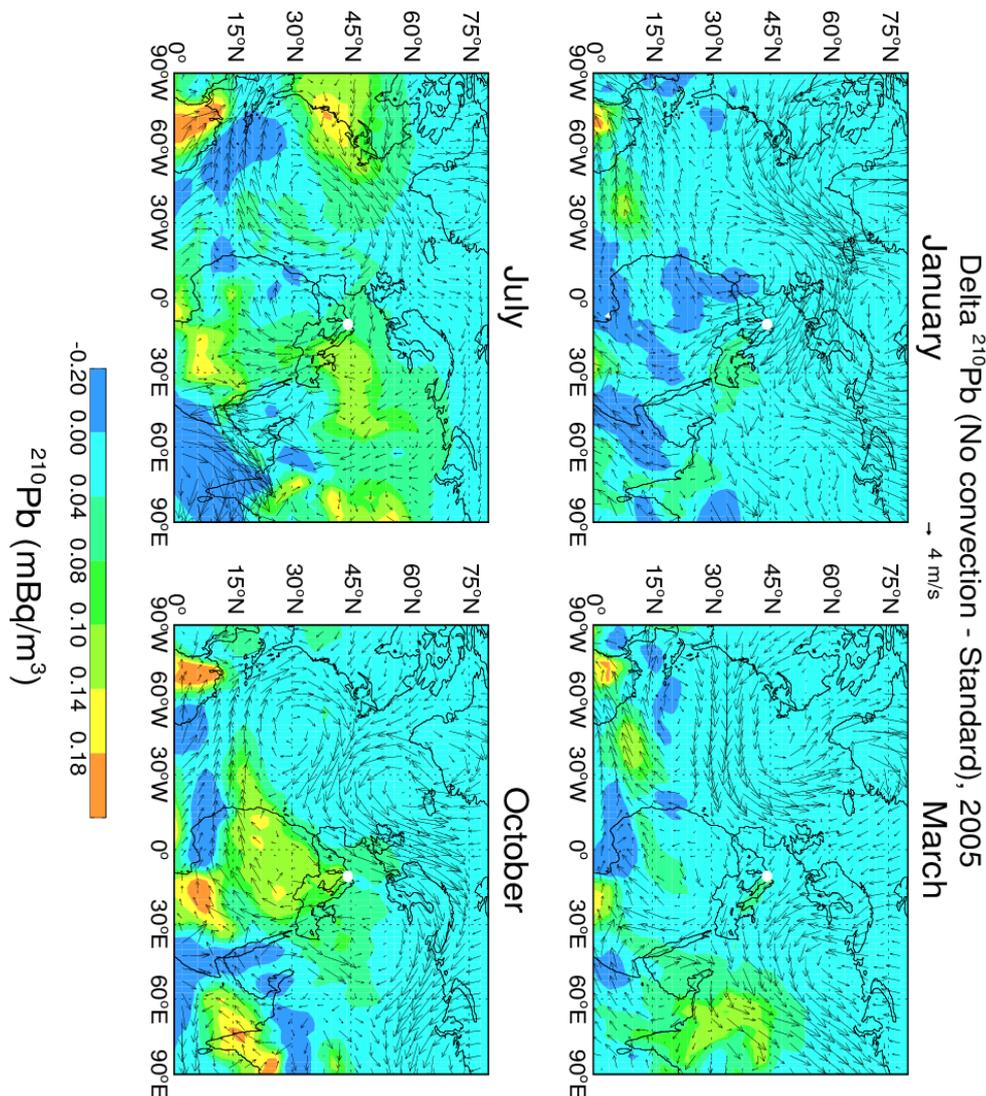
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15 **Figure 8.** Comparison of GMI simulated monthly  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^7\text{Be}$  activities at Mt. Cimone  
 16 between the standard (black dotted line) and the sensitivity runs (“ij-1” grid). The sensitivity  
 17 runs are those without convective transport/scavenging (red dotted line), without dry deposition  
 18 (blue dotted line), and without scavenging (orange dotted line; y-axis on the right). The  
 19 observations are shown as green solid line. Vertical bars indicate the uncertainty in observed  
 20 activities.



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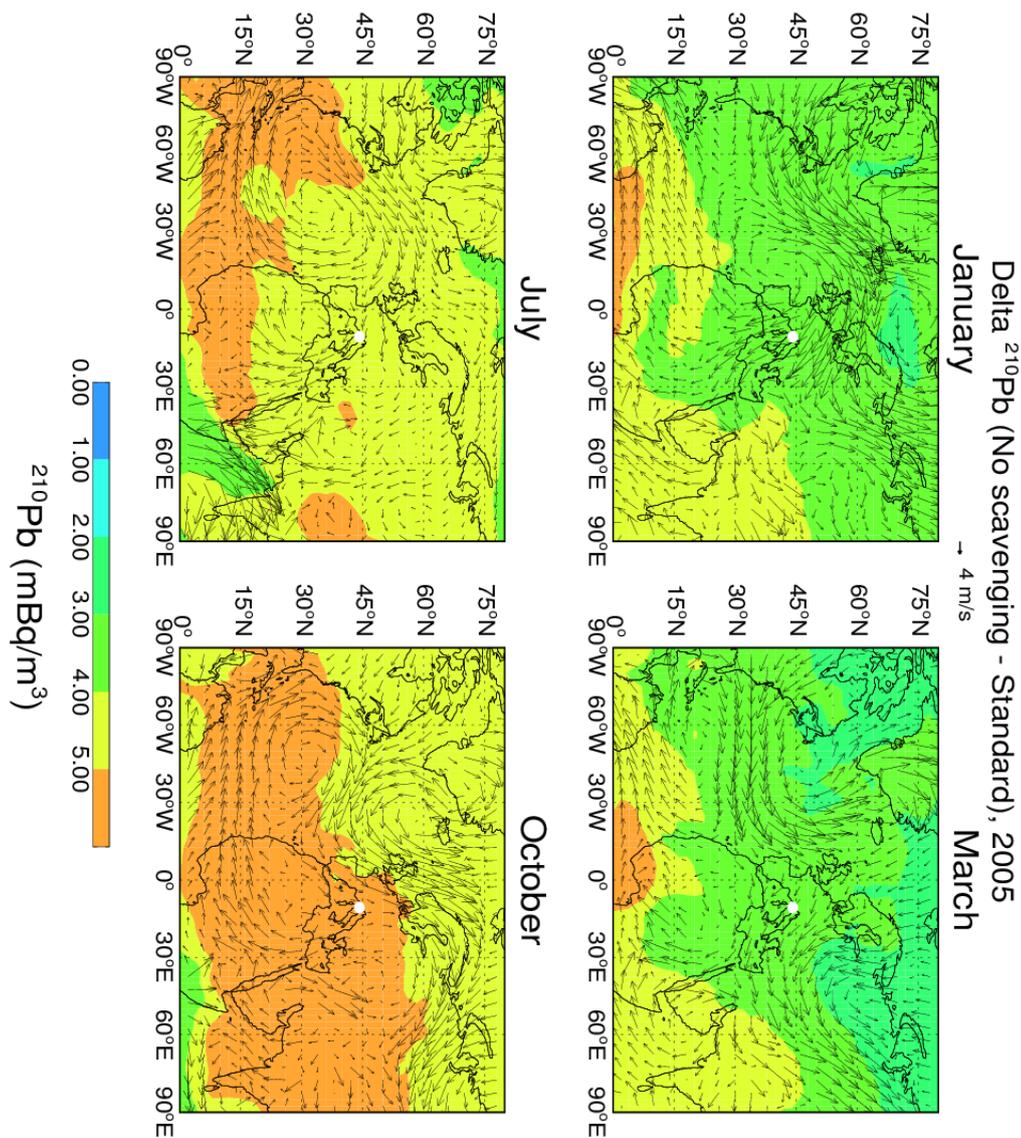


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3 **Figure 9.** GMI simulated differences of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  concentrations at the elevation of Mt. Cimone  
4 between a sensitivity run without convection (i.e., without transport and scavenging in  
5 convective updrafts) and the standard run. Arrows denote MERRA winds. The white dot  
6 indicates the location of Mt. Cimone ( $44^{\circ}12' \text{ N}$ ,  $10^{\circ}42' \text{ E}$ , 2165 m asl).



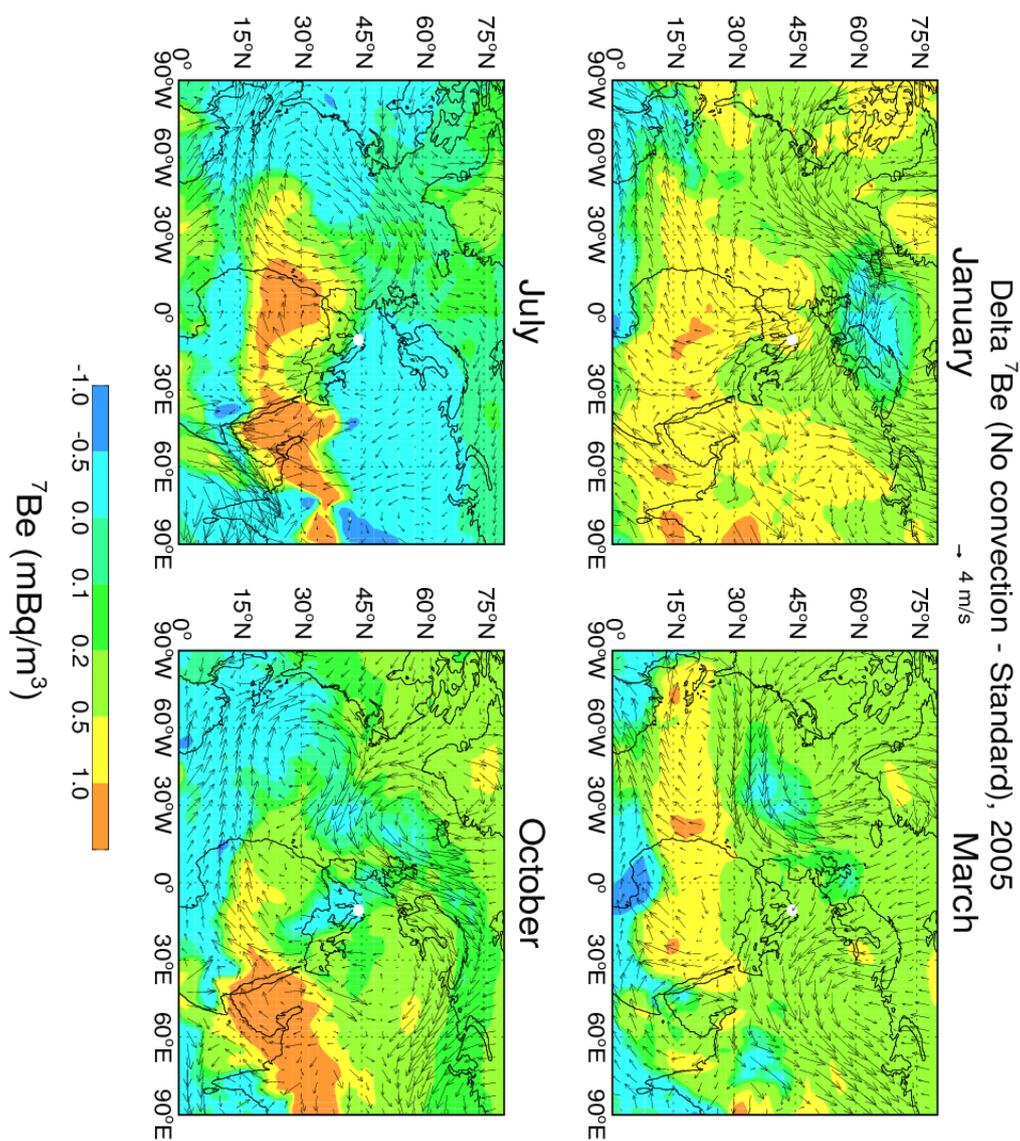
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3 **Figure 10.** Same as Figure 9, but for a sensitivity simulation where wet scavenging is turned  
4 off.

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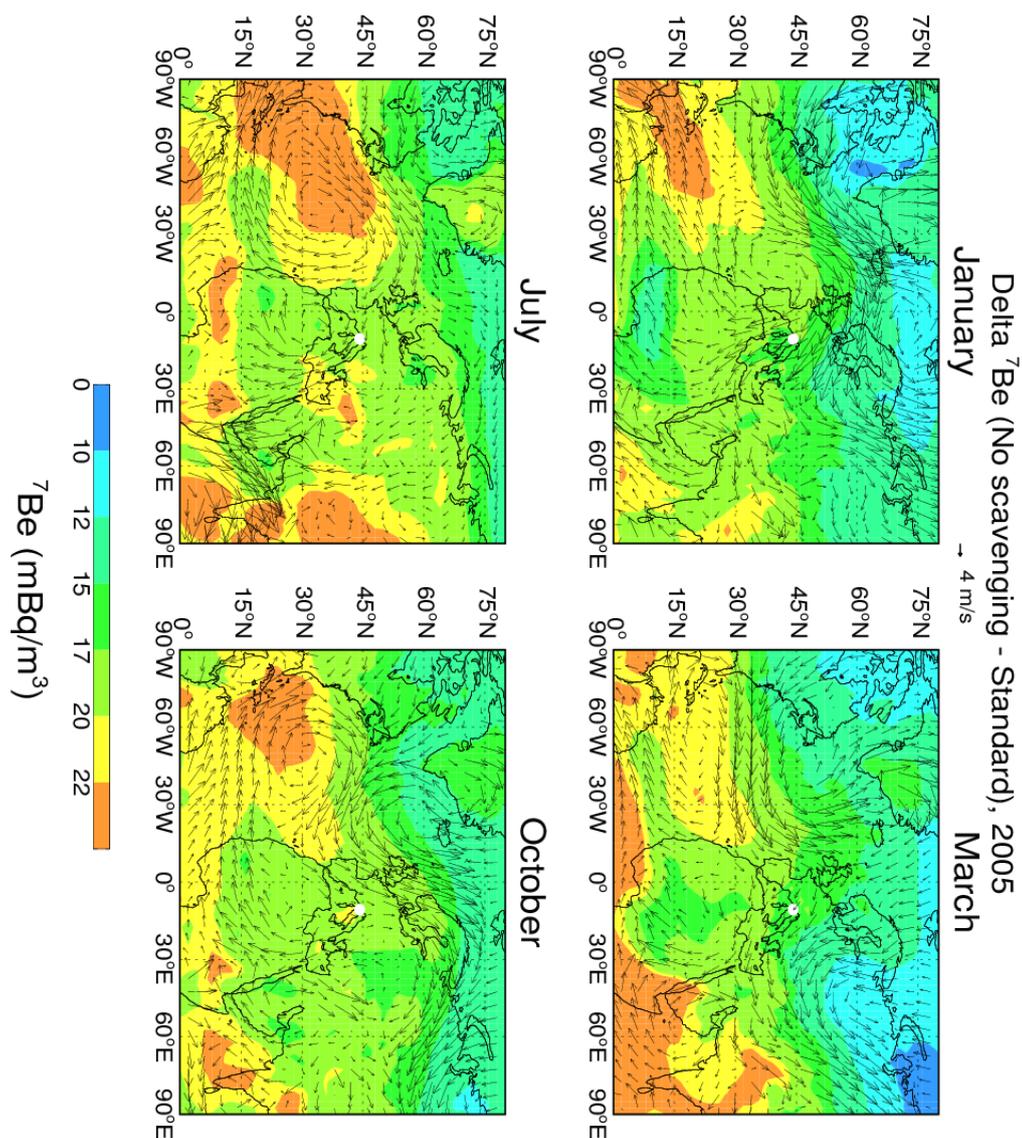
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2 **Figure 11.** GMI simulated differences of  $^7\text{Be}$  concentrations at the elevation of Mt. Cimone  
3 between a sensitivity run without convection and the standard run. Arrows denote MERRA  
4 winds. The white dot indicates the location of Mt. Cimone (44°12' N, 10°42' E, 2165 m asl).

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3 **Figure 12.** Same as Figure 11 but for the difference between a sensitivity run without wet  
4 scavenging and the standard run.

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