

# Supplement

## Contents:

Sections S1–S4

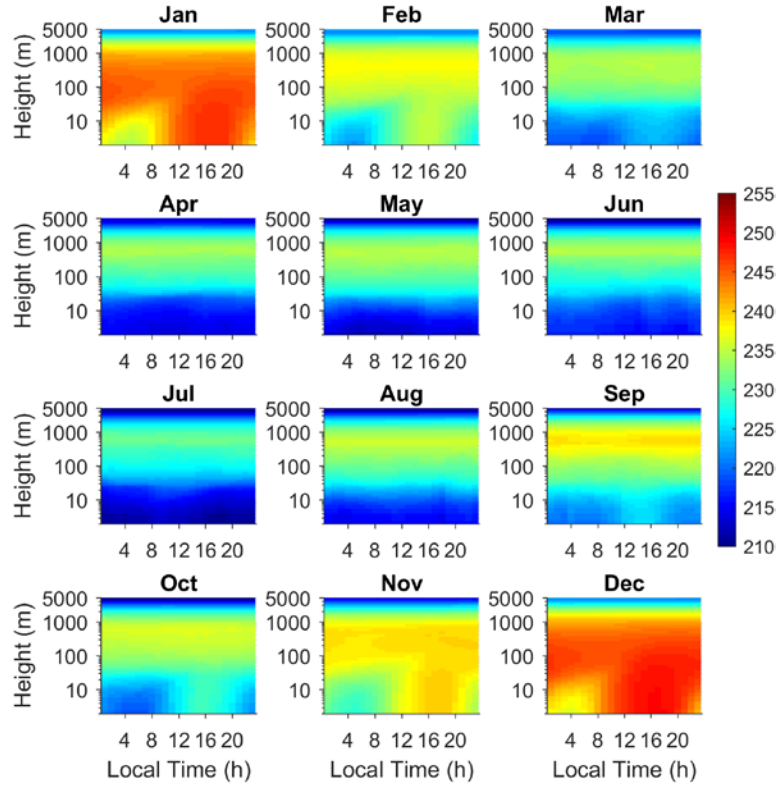
Tables. S1

5      Figures. S1–S15

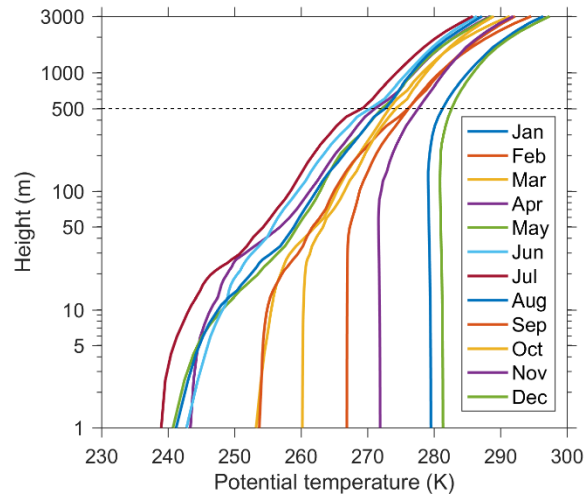
## S1. The MAR model and warming event simulations

MAR is based on the fundamental equations (e.g., mass and momentum conservations) of atmospheric dynamics with the hydrostatic approximation. Its parameterization of turbulence within and above the surface boundary layer uses the Monin–Obukhov similarity theory and the local  $E-\varepsilon$  model, respectively. The radiative transfer scheme in MAR is the same as in ERA-40 reanalysis (Morcrette, 2002), and also considers the impact of snow particles on atmospheric optical depth. The surface processes follow the “Soil-Ice-Snow-Vegetation-Atmosphere Transfer” scheme. The global reanalysis ERA-Interim (Dee et al., 2011) provides boundary conditions for the regional MAR simulation over the Antarctic plateau. The horizontal resolution is 20 km, and there are 60 vertical levels from the surface up to 10 hPa with a gradual decrease of vertical resolution. The MAR data used in the mercury model are obtained on a horizontal grid of 20 km centered at Dome C. More details of the MAR model are given in the papers by Gallée and colleagues (Gallée and Schayes, 1994; Gallée and Gorodetskaya, 2010; Gallée et al., 2015).

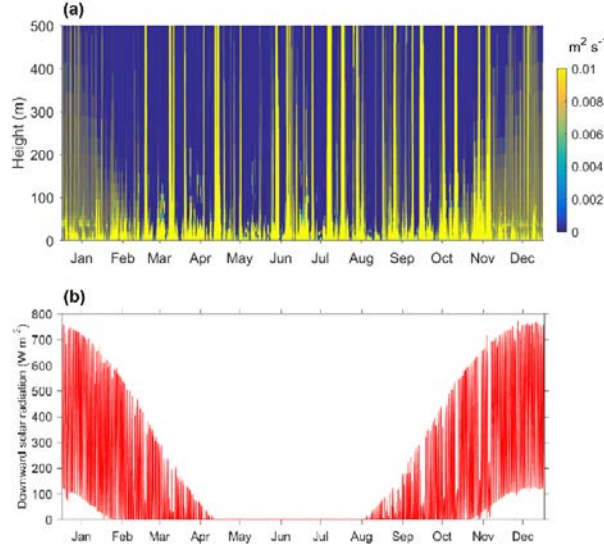
Figure S1 shows the monthly vertical profiles of temperature at Dome C simulated by MAR and Figure S2 shows the monthly vertical profiles of potential temperature simulated by MAR in year 2013. As shown, a convective mixed layer develops during the daytime of the summer months, which may reach about 500 m in Jan and Dec. The vertical turbulent diffusion coefficients ( $K_z$ ) simulated by MAR in year 2013 are presented in Fig. S3a. The seasonal patterns of  $K_z$  are related to those of downward solar radiation (Fig. S3b), with generally higher values in the summer months (Nov–Feb). In summer, significant diurnal variations of  $K_z$  and solar radiation are also found. During the non-summer period, warming events occur occasionally, which are generally caused by coastal warm moist air advection over the Antarctic plateau and are accompanied by increasing wind speeds and turbulence (larger  $K_z$  values) (Pietroni et al., 2014).



**Figure S1.** Vertical profiles of temperature (K) modeled by the MAR regional climate model. Each panel shows the average diurnal cycle of temperature for a certain month in year 2013, as indicated in its title. Note that the y axis is in log scale.



5 **Figure S2.** Average monthly vertical profiles of potential temperature (K) modeled by the MAR model at 16:00 local time in year 2013. Note that the y axis is in log scale.



**Figure S3.** (a) Vertical profiles of  $K_z$  from surface up to 500 m and (b) downward solar radiation modeled by MAR in year 2013.

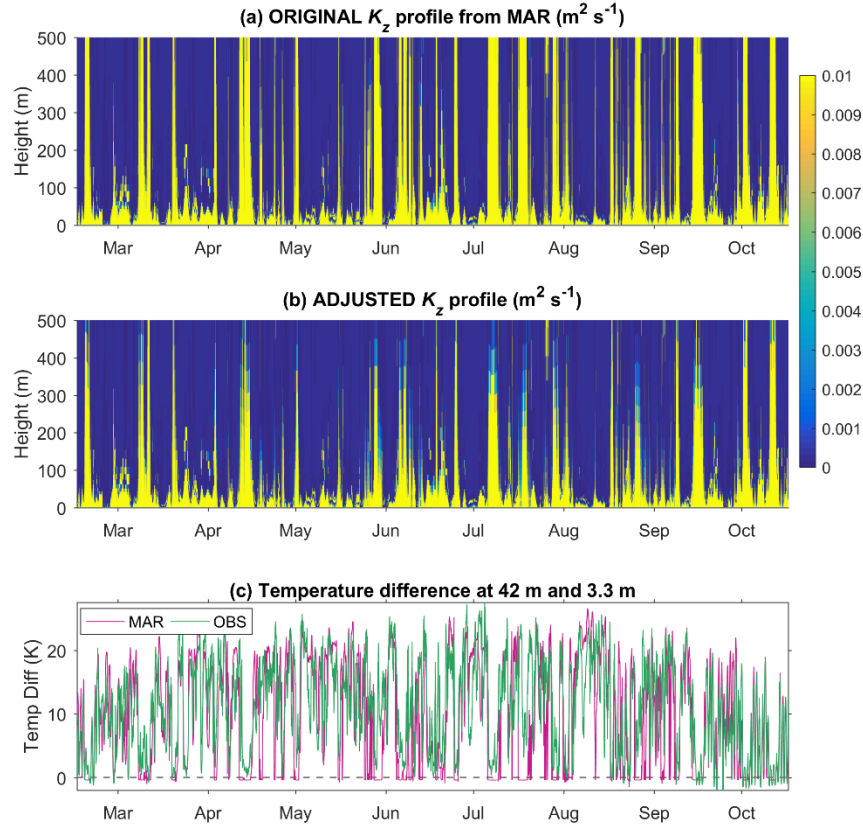
It is important to note that a quantitative understanding of warming events is challenging, and thus large uncertainties exist in their modeling. As shown in Figs. S4 and S5b, the MAR-modeled temperature differences at 42 m and 3.3 m (denoted as  $\Delta T$ ) are commonly small negative values during warming events, whereas the measured  $\Delta T$  values (from an *in situ* meteorological tower) are usually larger than zero (Genthon et al., 2010). For the non-summer period, the modeled  $\Delta T < 0$  occurs about 23% of the time, while the measured  $\Delta T < 0$  occurs only about 4% of the time. These comparisons suggest that the strength of warming events is likely overestimated in MAR, which can affect the mercury vertical transport predicted in our box model.

A rough empirical relationship between the modeled values of  $\Delta T$  and the original  $K_z$  can be found, as shown in Fig. S5a. Smaller values of modeled  $\Delta T$  usually correspond to high  $K_z$  values. This relationship is used to tentatively adjust the MAR-modeled  $K_z$  values in combination with the observed  $\Delta T$  values during warming events, using this equation:

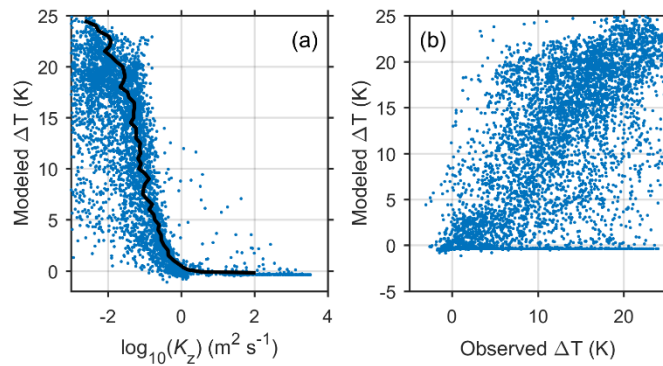
$K_{z\text{adj}}^{i,j} = K_{z\text{org}}^{i,j} \cdot \left( f(\Delta T_{\text{obs}}^{i,3-42}) / K_{z\text{org}}^{i,3-42} \right)$ .  $K_{z\text{adj}}^{i,j}$  and  $K_{z\text{org}}^{i,j}$  respectively represent the adjusted and original  $K_z$  values for the time step  $i$  and vertical layer  $j$ .  $K_{z\text{org}}^{i,3-42}$  are the original  $K_z$  values for the time step  $i$ , which are averaged between 3.3 m and 42 m. This empirical relationship  $K_{z\text{org}}^{i,3-42} = f(\Delta T_{\text{mod}}^{i,3-42})$  is inferred from Fig. S5a.  $\Delta T_{\text{mod}}^{i,3-42}$  and  $\Delta T_{\text{obs}}^{i,3-42}$  are the MAR-modeled and observed temperature differences between 3.3 m and 42 m, respectively (Fig. S4c).

The result of this adjustment is that the values of  $K_z$  during warming events are smaller (Fig. S4a–b), indicating weaker exchange between the surface layers and free troposphere. It is important to note that (1) such an adjustment of  $K_z$  is subject to large uncertainties since the temperature measurements are only available below 42 m, and (2) the adjusted  $K_z$  values tend to underestimate the strength of vertical turbulence since this adjustment applies only to the warming events identified by MAR ( $K_{z\text{org}}^{3-42} > 1 \text{ m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$ ) and does not apply to the non-warming events even if the observed  $\Delta T$  is negative. It is also noted that the choice of  $K_z$  values during warming events strongly affects the modeled mercury

concentrations for the non-summer period, and therefore both the original and adjusted  $K_z$  values are used to drive the mercury model in this study.



**Figure S4.** (a) The original MAR-modeled vertical profiles of  $K_z$  from surface up to 500 m for the non-summer period (Mar–Oct).  
 5 (b) The adjusted  $K_z$  profile. (c) The observed and modeled temperature difference at 42 m and 3.3 m ( $\Delta T$ ).



**Figure S5.** (a) Relationship between MAR-modeled  $\Delta T$  and original  $\log_{10}(K_z)$ , which are calculated as the temperature difference and average turbulent coefficients between 42 and 3.3 m, respectively. The black curve indicates the relationship derived from the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile of  $\log_{10}(K_z)$  for each  $\Delta T$  bin. (b) Relationship between the MAR-modeled and measured  $\Delta T$ . Data are in an hourly resolution and for the non-summer period (Mar–Oct) in year 2013.

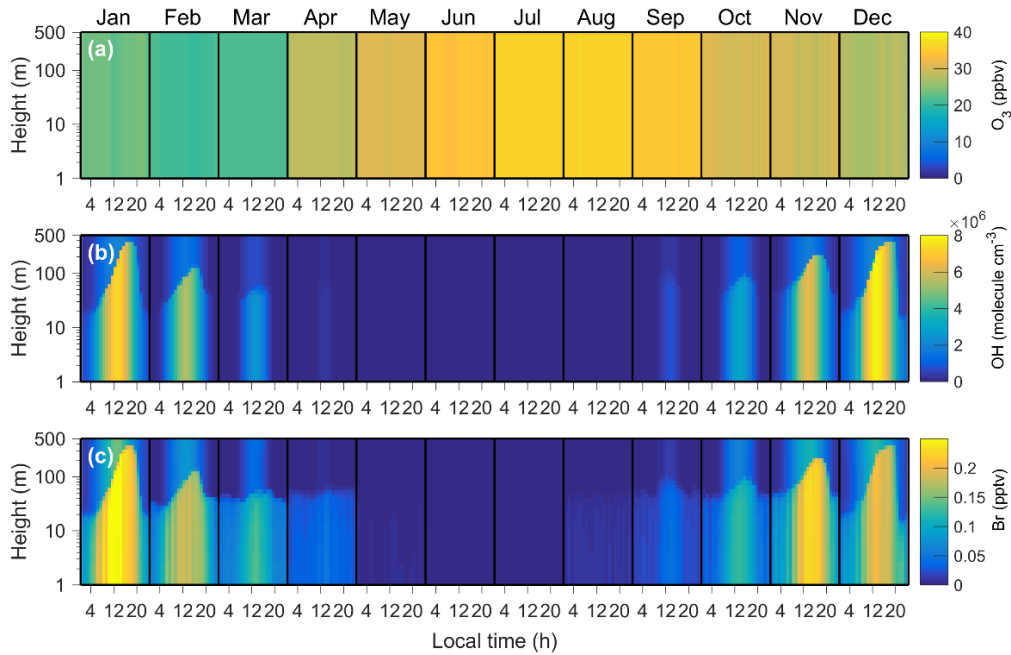
## S2. $\text{Hg}^0$ Reaction with other gas-phase oxidants and aqueous/heterogeneous chemistry

The direct gas phase reactions of  $\text{Hg}^0$  with several halogen species,  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{NO}_3$ , and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  are not included in our model because they are unimportant under the conditions of Dome C. Details are given below. **Cl, F, and I.** The oxidation of  $\text{Hg}^0$  by these halogen atoms has comparable rate constants with  $\text{Hg}^0 + \text{Br}$  (Donohoue et al., 2005; Dibble et al., 2012). However, Cl also reacts with  $\text{CH}_4$ , and thus its typical levels are three orders of magnitude lower than Br in the polar regions (Simpson et al., 2007). The levels of F are also very low because it reacts with water vapor (Subir et al., 2011).  $\text{Hg}^{\text{II}}$  is much more unstable than  $\text{Hg}^{\text{I}}\text{Br}$  and undergoes thermal dissociation rapidly (Goodsite et al., 2004).  **$\text{Cl}_2$ ,  $\text{I}_2$ ,  $\text{Br}_2$ ,  $\text{BrCl}$ ,  $\text{ICl}$ ,  $\text{HCl}$ ,  $\text{HOCl}$ , and  $\text{ClO}$ .** The reactions of  $\text{Hg}^0$  with these species have very low rate constants (from  $10^{-19}$  to  $10^{-17} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , or even lower) (Subir et al., 2011; Ariya et al., 2015).  **$\text{F}_2$ .** The rate constant is  $1.8 \times 10^{-15} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (Sumner et al., 2005). The  $\text{F}_2$  levels are unknown but should be very low given its sources and sinks.  **$\text{BrO}$ .** The rate constant has been assumed to be from  $10^{-15}$  to  $10^{-14} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  in several studies, at least 50 times lower than that with Br (Wang et al., 2014; Ye et al., 2016).  **$\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{NO}_3$ .** The oxidation of  $\text{Hg}^0$  by  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{NO}_3$  forms unstable products (Dibble et al., 2012), although a positive correlation of  $\text{Hg}^{\text{II}}$  and  $\text{NO}_3$  was observed in a case study (Peleg et al., 2015).  **$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ .** Given a rate constant of  $< 10^{-18} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and its levels measured at Dome C, the oxidation of  $\text{Hg}^0$  by  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  is negligible (Kukui et al., 2014; Ariya et al., 2015).

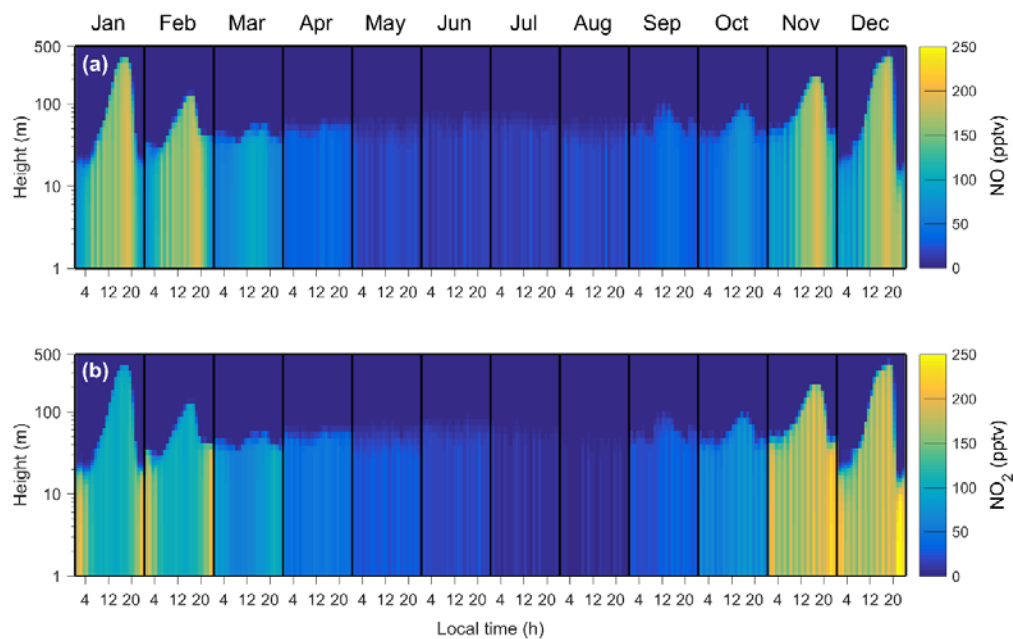
The aqueous and heterogeneous processes are not included in our model primarily due to poor knowledge of their actual mechanisms (Subir et al., 2012). Drifting or blowing snow may provide interfaces for heterogeneous reactions (Libois et al., 2014). However, the presence of aqueous reactions in the cold and dry air at Dome C are unlikely.

### S3. Profiles of O<sub>3</sub>, HO<sub>x</sub>, BrO<sub>x</sub>, and NO<sub>x</sub> prescribed in our model

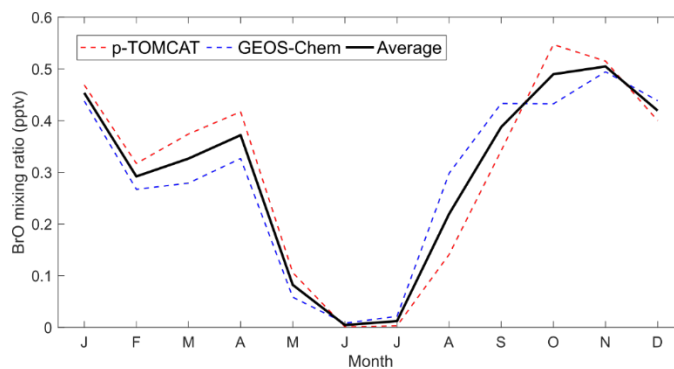
Figure S6 shows the monthly and diurnal profiles of O<sub>3</sub>, OH, and Br used in our model calculations. The NO<sub>x</sub> mixing ratios in ambient air over Dome C are strongly influenced by releases from the surface snow (Frey et al., 2015). Accordingly, it is reasonable to assume that the NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations decay from the surface throughout the inversion/mixed layer, which is also consistent with the aircraft observations across the plateau (Slusher et al., 2010). Since near-surface NO<sub>x</sub> measurement data are available (Helmig et al., 2018), we can roughly estimate their vertical profiles using the typical chemical lifetimes ( $\tau_{\text{chem}}$ ) and vertical turbulent transport time scales ( $\tau_{\text{trans}}$ ), as expressed in  $C_i = C_1 \cdot \exp(-\tau_{\text{trans}}/\tau_{\text{chem}})$ , where  $C_i$  is the NO<sub>x</sub> mixing ratios at the  $i$ th vertical level and  $C_1$  is the measured mixing ratios at the ground level.  $\tau_{\text{trans}}$  is the time for air to mix vertically from the surface to the  $i$ th level and here is calculated from  $K_z$  following Jacob (1999).  $\tau_{\text{chem}}$  is the typical NO<sub>x</sub> chemical lifetimes on the Antarctic plateau which range from a few hours in summer to several days in winter (Levy et al., 1999; Frey et al., 2015; Zatko et al., 2016). Figure S7 shows the estimated diurnal and monthly vertical profiles of NO<sub>x</sub> at Dome C. Figure S8 shows the monthly BrO mixing ratios at Dome C in year 2013 from *p*-TOMCAT and GEOS-Chem. Results from the two CTMs agree well with each other.



**Figure S6.** Diurnal variation of monthly average profiles of O<sub>3</sub> (a), OH (b), and Br (c) within the inversion/mixed layer in year 2013. Note that the y axis is in log scale.

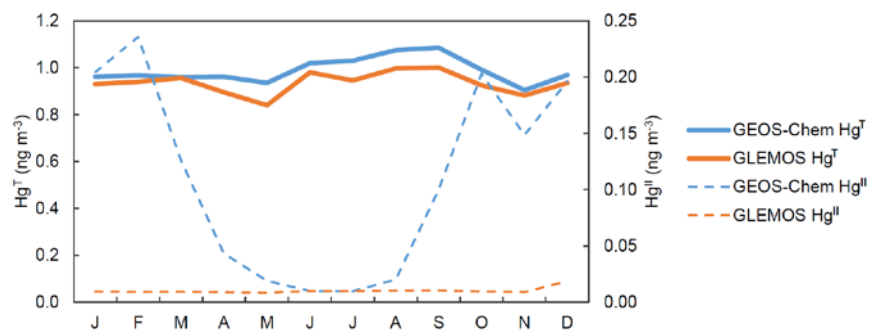


**Figure S7.** Diurnal variation of monthly average profiles of NO (a) and NO<sub>2</sub> (b) within the inversion/mixed layer in year 2013. Note that the y axis is in log scale. In 2013, the near-surface NO<sub>x</sub> measurement data in Jan and Dec are missing and thus replaced by those collected in Feb and Nov, respectively; indeed, they are quite comparable to the Dec and Jan observations made at Dome C in previous years (Frey et al., 2013; Frey et al., 2015).

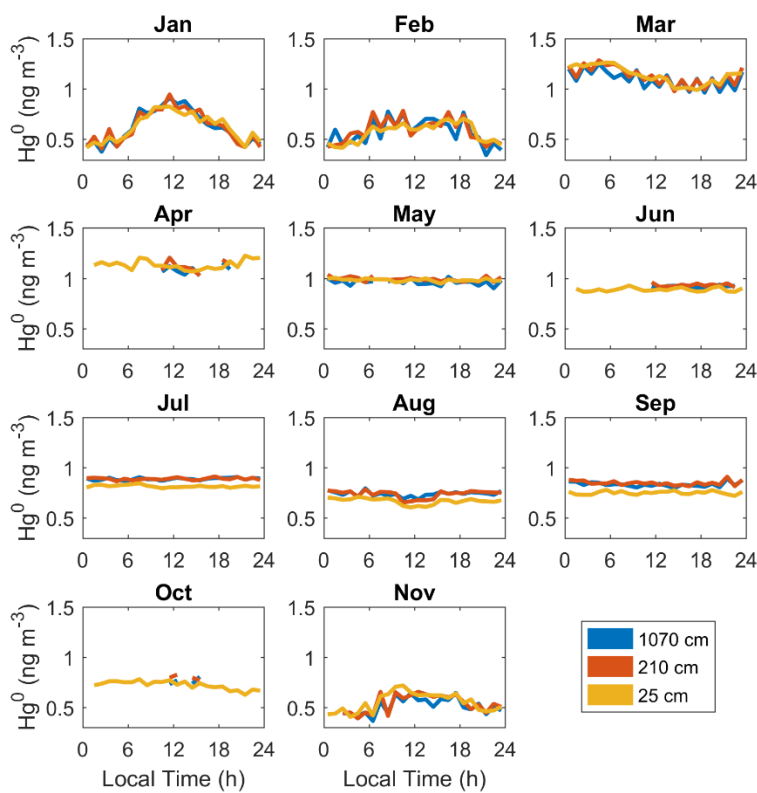


**Figure S8.** Monthly BrO mixing ratios at Dome C in year 2013. The two dashed lines are the modeling results from *p*-TOMCAT and GEOS-Chem, respectively, which agree well with each other. The black solid line shows the average values of these two models.





**Figure S9.** Monthly  $\text{Hg}^{\text{T}}$  (total mercury) and  $\text{Hg}^{\text{II}}$  concentrations from the GEOS-Chem and GLEMOS global chemical transport models in year 2013.  $\text{Hg}^0 = \text{Hg}^{\text{T}} - \text{Hg}^{\text{II}}$ . For each month, we have adjusted the simulated mercury concentrations in each model using the corresponding factors calculated from the model–observation comparison at Amsterdam Island (38°S 78°E) and Cape Point in South Africa (34°S 18°E), by assuming that these two stations represent the background mercury concentrations in the Southern Hemisphere.



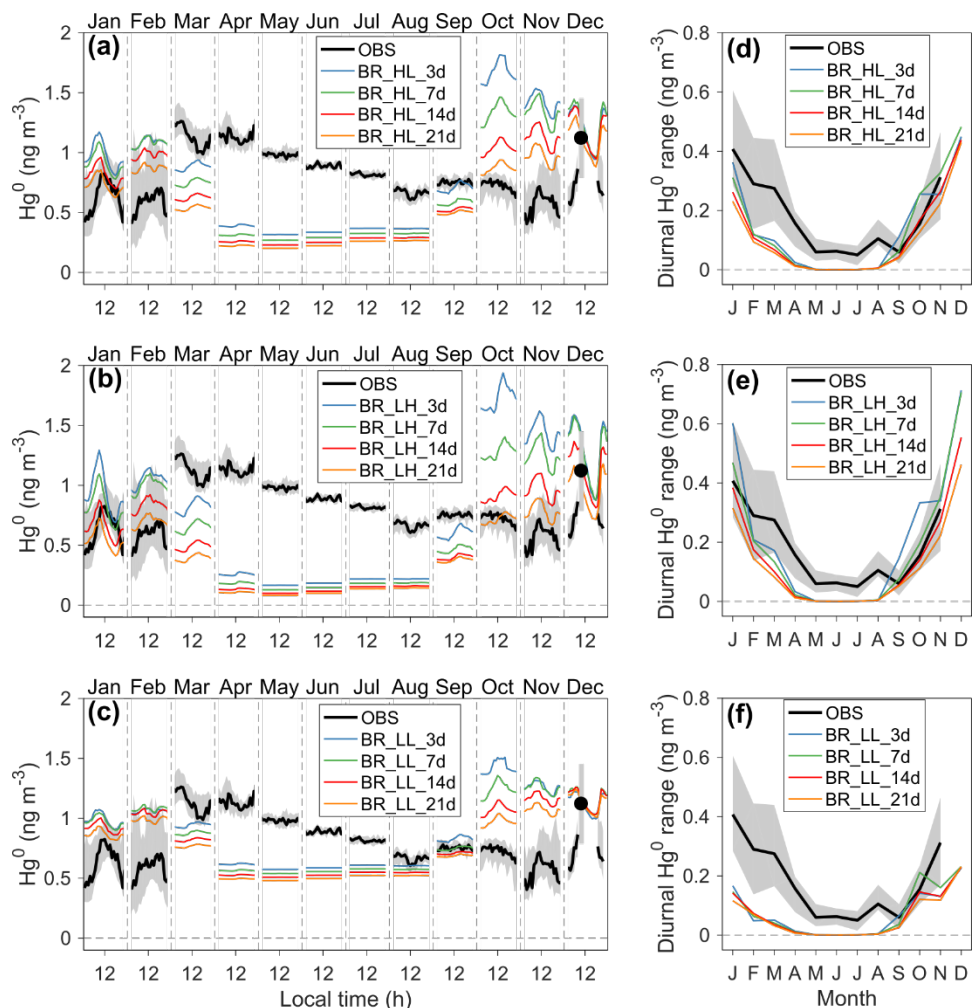
**Figure S10.** Observed seasonal and diurnal variations of near-surface atmospheric  $\text{Hg}^0$  concentrations at different vertical levels (25, 210, and 1070 cm above snow surface) of the meteorological tower at Dome C in year 2013. When deriving the seasonal and diurnal variations of  $\text{Hg}^0$ , we require > 12 hours data in a day and then > 7 days data in a month. Data for December are not shown here due to fewer available data points.

#### S4. Comparison of model simulations and observations during summer

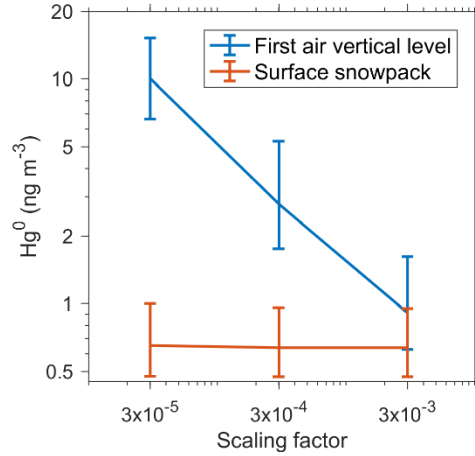
In order to evaluate important photochemical processes in the air and surface snow in summer, we conduct a series of model sensitivity simulations by varying atmospheric oxidants ( $O_3$ , OH, or Br), their concentrations (high or low), and chemical reaction rates (high or low), and surface snow  $Hg^{II}$  photoreduction rates ( $\tau_{PR}$  from three days to three weeks). The name of each scenario indicates its model setup; for example, O3\_HH\_3d assumes  $O_3$  as atmospheric oxidant and high oxidant concentrations and high reaction rate constants are applied, and  $\tau_{PR}$  is set to three days. Figure S10 shows  $Hg^0$  concentrations at different vertical levels (25, 210, and 1070 cm above snow surface), which display similar diurnal patterns in each month, and thus we focus on the model–observation comparisons for the data collected at 25 cm (corresponding to the first vertical atmospheric level in our model). Table S1 lists these 24 model scenarios and quantitative comparisons with near-surface air  $Hg^0$  observations. NRMSE<sub>D</sub> and NRMSE<sub>M</sub> refer to the normalized root-mean-square errors for the diurnal variation ranges and monthly concentrations of  $Hg^0$  in the summer months, respectively, which are calculated following Song et al. (2015). Figure 3 in the main text and Fig. S11 both show the seasonal and diurnal variations of modeled and observed  $Hg^0$  concentrations in near-surface air.

**Table S1.** Evaluation of simulation results of different mercury model scenarios in summer.

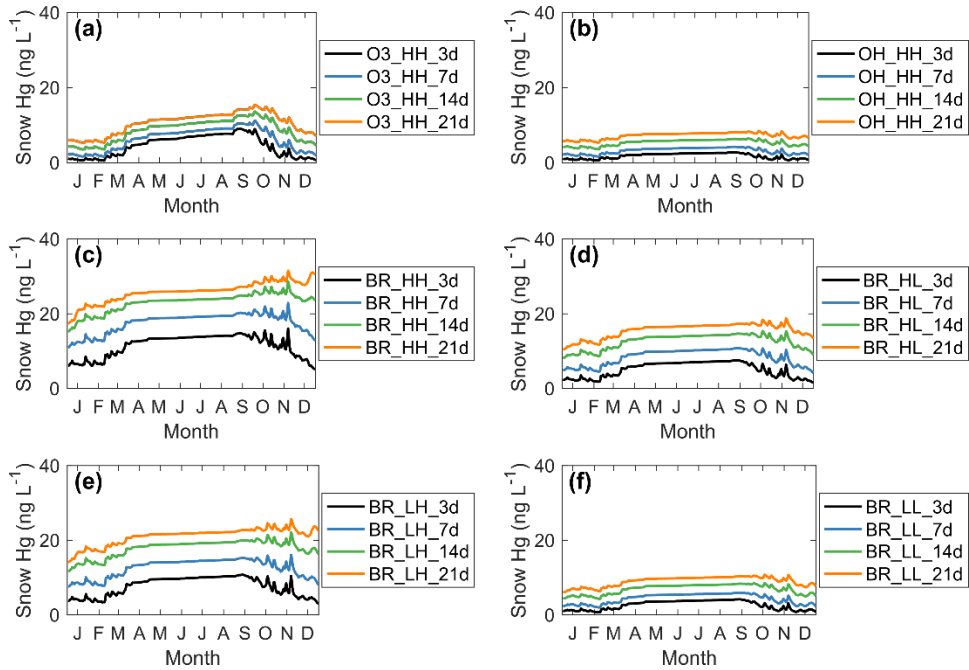
Name	NRMSE <sub>D</sub> (%)	NRMSE <sub>M</sub> (%)	Name	NRMSE <sub>D</sub> (%)	NRMSE <sub>M</sub> (%)
O3_HH_3d	68	106	BR_HL_3d	32	106
O3_HH_7d	66	104	BR_HL_7d	34	98
O3_HH_14d	66	86	BR_HL_14d	41	73
O3_HH_21d	67	71	BR_HL_21d	48	52
OH_HH_3d	71	80	BR_LH_3d	37	104
OH_HH_7d	67	81	BR_LH_7d	19	83
OH_HH_14d	69	76	BR_LH_14d	21	49
OH_HH_21d	71	68	BR_LH_21d	33	27
BR_HH_3d	86	72	BR_LL_3d	66	93
BR_HH_7d	43	36	BR_LL_7d	65	93
<b>BR_HH_14d</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>17</b>	BR_LL_14d	66	83
BR_HH_21d	27	32	BR_LL_21d	71	71



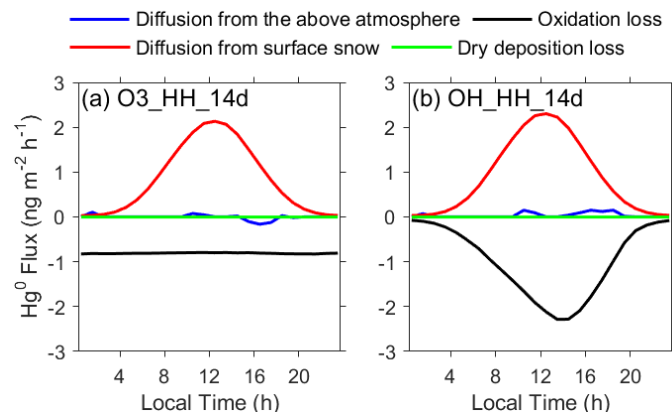
**Figure S11.** Comparison of seasonal and diurnal variations of near-surface atmospheric  $\text{Hg}^0$  concentrations between observations and model. (a–c) show monthly and diurnal  $\text{Hg}^0$  observations in year 2013 and modeling results from different scenarios. (d–f) show diurnal  $\text{Hg}^0$  ranges calculated from the maximum and minimum hourly concentrations in each month. The shaded regions indicate 25% and 75% percentiles in observations. Observations are conducted at 25 cm above snow at Dome C. The name of each scenario reflects the atmospheric oxidant, its concentration levels and chemical reaction rates (H = high or upper, L = low or lower), and the photoreduction rates of snow mercury (in days). For example, the scenario with name “BR\_HL\_3d” assumes Br as the oxidant, and high oxidant concentrations and low reaction rates are applied, and  $\tau_{PR}$  is set to three days.



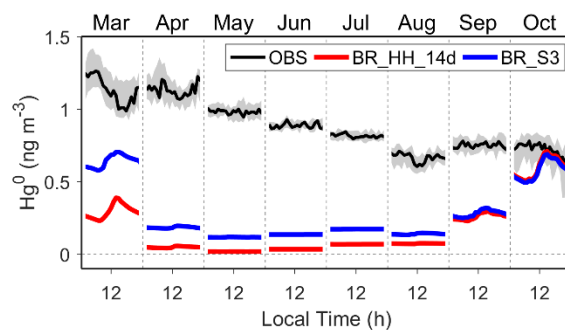
**Figure S12.** Effects of scaling factors for estimating the turbulent diffusion coefficients ( $D_t$ ) on the modeled  $\text{Hg}^0$  concentrations in the near-surface air and snow interstitial air. Model results from the scenario BR\_HH\_14d are shown with three different scaling factors ( $3 \times 10^{-3}$  s (default value in the model),  $3 \times 10^{-4}$  s, and  $3 \times 10^{-5}$  s). As the scaling factor increases, the values of  $D_t$  increase, which means faster vertical turbulent mixing between the air and surface snowpack and thus smaller difference in the modeled  $\text{Hg}^0$  concentrations between these two reservoirs.



**Figure S13.** Time series of snow mercury concentrations for different 24 model scenarios.



**Figure S14.** Summertime diurnal cycles of modeled  $\text{Hg}^0$  fluxes for the inversion/mixed layers for model scenarios (a) O3\_HH\_14d and (b) OH\_HH\_14d.



**Figure S15.** Possible impacts of the overestimation of bromine oxidation on  $\text{Hg}^0$  concentrations in the non-summer period.  $\text{Hg}^0$  observations at 25 cm above snow at Dome C are shown and the shaded regions indicate 25% and 75% percentiles in observations. The modeled  $\text{Hg}^0$  concentrations from BR\_HH\_14d and BR\_S3 are also shown. BR\_S3 is a sensitivity simulation (based on BR\_HH\_14d), in which the BrO concentrations in the fall months (Mar–Apr) are reduced by a factor of 3. The modeled  $\text{Hg}^0$  concentrations in the fall and winter months are higher in BR\_S3 compared with those in BR\_HH\_14d.

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