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Corresponding Author: Professor Roberta Vecchi, dr

Corresponding Author's Institution: Università degli Studi di Milano

First Author: Roberta Vecchi, dr

Order of Authors: Roberta Vecchi, dr; Francesco Ariele Piziali; Gianluigi Valli; Maurizio Favaron; Vera Bernardoni

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Research Data Related to this Submission

There are no linked research data sets for this submission. The following reason is given:

Data will be made available on request

Radon-based estimates of equivalent mixing layer heights: A long-term assessment

Vecchi R.^{1,2,*}, Piziali F.A.¹, Valli G.^{1,2}, Favaron M.^{1,3}, Bernardoni V.^{1,2}

¹ Department of Physics, Università degli Studi di Milano, 20133 Milan, Italy

² National Institute of Nuclear Physics, INFN-Milan, 20133 Milan, Italy

³ Servizi Territorio srl, 20092 Cinisello Balsamo, Italy

* corresponding author: Prof. Roberta Vecchi

E-mail: roberta.vecchi@unimi.it

Address: Department of Physics, Università degli Studi di Milano, via Celoria 16, 20133 Milan (Italy)

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Abstract

Air pollution events at urban locations are driven by both emissions and atmospheric dispersion conditions. Atmospheric dispersion is not routinely assessed at monitoring networks thus preventing the possibility of understanding if high pollution events are due to increasing emissions or to the occurrence of atmospheric stability conditions. In principle, this piece of information would be very useful to implement effective strategies for pollution abatement. In this work, an 18-year long dataset of radon (^{222}Rn) progeny measurements was used to estimate equivalent mixing layer heights (hereafter referred to as MH) with hourly resolution by means of a box model. Mean MH obtained by more conventional modelling approaches based on turbulence variables on a 5-year long dataset agreed very well with results obtained by the box model. It is noteworthy that in the literature there are scarce MH data for such long periods and comparison between estimates by a radioactive tracers and other approaches are often limited to a few days/weeks. Results suggested that relatively simple methods like the one here proposed could be implemented at pollution monitoring stations in order to improve available information and better understand the evolution of pollution events on 1-hour timescale. In addition, the long-term assessment here presented provides useful data to pursue MH climatological studies.

35 **1. Introduction**

36 The interpretation of air pollution events, e.g. at urban sites, relies on the knowledge of pollutants
37 concentration, emission sources, and atmospheric dispersion conditions in the planetary boundary
38 layer. According to e.g. Stull (1988), the planetary boundary layer (PBL) is the portion of the
39 troposphere that is influenced by the Earth's surface forcing and responds to forcings with
40 approximately 1-h timescale. It has a typical thickness ranging from hundreds of metres to few
41 kilometres. With high pressure atmospheric conditions, at continental locations PBL has a well-
42 defined structure with a daily cycle. It is composed of three main structures called mixed layer (ML,
43 also referred to as convective layer CL), residual layer (RL), and stable layer (SL, also referred to as
44 nocturnal boundary layer NBL). During daytime, pollutants emitted by ground-level sources are
45 vertically dispersed in the PBL usually by convective turbulence and a well-mixed layer is
46 produced. After sunset, convective turbulence decays and the residual layer is formed; RL has the
47 same initial mean state variables and concentration levels of the decayed ML. During nighttime, in
48 the lower portion of the PBL a stable layer is formed and pollutants emitted in the SL are poorly
49 dispersed along the vertical profile. Therefore, in an ideal situation characterised by constant
50 emissions at ground level, PBL thickness strongly determines the concentration of primary
51 pollutants in air, i.e. higher/lower mixing height would be responsible for lower/higher pollutant
52 concentrations.

53 The evaluation of atmospheric mixing height is traditionally performed through vertical profiling
54 and/or ground-based remote sensing profile measurements (e.g. radio-soundings, sodar, lidar, radio-
55 acoustic soundings as reviewed e.g. in Seibert et al. (2000) and Emeis et al. (2008)) as well as by
56 numerical models (e.g. Carson, 1973; Maul, 1980; Venkatram, 1980a, 1980b; Zilitinkevich and
57 Baklanov, 2002; Batchvarova and Gryning 1991, 1994; and many others). Profile measurements
58 provide valuable datasets at specific locations (e.g. radio-soundings at airports or lidar
59 measurements at EARLINET network sites); however, it is still challenging to retrieve mixing
60 height in an automated way thus preventing the acquisition of high-time resolved datasets over long
61 periods (e.g. 1-h, every day for decades) at the monitoring stations where pollutants are routinely
62 measured. Simple parametrisation methods based on surface meteorological variables and
63 numerical models are widely used by meteorological services; nevertheless, the latter are typically
64 more sophisticated approaches and require a specific expertise. An overview of advantages and
65 shortcomings of the above-cited methods can be found in Seibert et al. (2000).

66 In addition, previous works (e.g. Allegrini et al., 1994; Marcazzan and Persico, 1997; Marcazzan et
67 al., 2003; Sesana et al., 2003; Desideri et al., 2006; Griffiths et al., 2013; Chambers et al., 2015a, b;
68 Salzano et al., 2016) proved that measurements of natural radionuclides (such as ²²²Rn, hereafter

69 also referred to as radon) were effective in tracing the hourly evolution of atmospheric dispersion in
70 the boundary layer. Radon and lidar or sodar measurements were also combined to retrieve MH as
71 reported in the literature (e.g. Griffiths et al., 2013; Salzano et al., 2016) for short periods
72 (days/weeks).

73 ^{222}Rn is a natural radioactive gas belonging to the natural radioactive series of ^{238}U which is a trace
74 constituent of soil and rocks. Radon is the decay product of ^{226}Ra and it is the only gaseous
75 component of the ^{238}U decay series; therefore, it is exhaled from the ground and diluted in
76 atmosphere by turbulent mixing (Porstendörfer, 1994). Radon decays (half-life $T_{1/2}=3.82$ days) into
77 daughter radionuclides, which rapidly attach to atmospheric particles due to their electric charge
78 (Porstendörfer and Mercer, 1979; Porstendörfer, 1994). Higher ^{222}Rn concentrations are typically
79 observed during stable atmospheric conditions (e.g. during nighttime) and lower concentration
80 values are measured with well-developed mixing layers (e.g. in the afternoon), as far as radon
81 exhalation flux from the ground can be considered approximately constant.

82 Seasonal patterns of radon and its decay products were observed at our monitoring site (Milan,
83 Italy) in previous studies (Marcazzan et al., 2003; Sesana et al., 2003). Typically, higher
84 concentrations were generally measured in winter in relation to more stable atmospheric conditions
85 and lower ones were detected in spring-summer, when atmospheric dilution power is more
86 effective. These features of radon concentrations motivated the use of ^{222}Rn and its progeny as a
87 suitable – although very simple – index for atmospheric dispersion.

88 From measurements of radioactive activity of atmospheric particles, a quantitative estimate of the
89 equivalent mixing height (MH) can be performed by a simple box model approach as reported in
90 previous literature works after Fontan et al. (1979) (e.g. Marcazzan and Persico, 1997; Sesana et al.,
91 2003; Griffiths et al., 2013; Chambers et al., 2015a, b; Salzano et al., 2016; and references therein).

92 A box model is also described and implemented in this work; it is noteworthy that it is applied to an
93 18-year long dataset thus allowing the robust assessment of inter-annual, seasonal, and mean daily
94 patterns. In addition, MH estimates retrieved by box model are here compared to results obtained by
95 other methodologies (i.e. parametrisation from a combination of Gryning–Batcharova and
96 Zilitinkevich modelling approaches using atmospheric turbulence variables as input data) on a 5-
97 year long subset. MH estimates by the box model are in good agreement with more traditional
98 approaches, which are not always easily implemented in monitoring networks. To the authors'
99 knowledge, this is the first time that the assessment of equivalent mixing layer height is performed
100 with hourly resolution over such a long period.

101 Despite the increasing number of pollution monitoring networks and the variety of parameters
102 measured, a simple method to routinely retrieve equivalent mixing layer heights estimates with

103 high-time resolution is still lacking. Therefore, this work aims at showing that box model based on
104 radon data could give useful information on MH climatology as well as on mean daily MH
105 evolution with hourly resolution.

106

107 **2 Methods**

108 **2.1 Monitoring site**

109 Short-lived radon decay products are routinely monitored at the Department of Physics, University
110 of Milan (Italy). Milan (45° 28' 36" N; 9° 13' 55" E) is located in the Po valley, a well-known
111 European pollution hot-spot characterised by wintertime episodes with high pollutant
112 concentrations. Emissions by a variety of sources (e.g. traffic, residential heating, industries,
113 agricultural and manure activities) and prolonged atmospheric stability conditions are responsible
114 for high pollution levels registered (see e.g. Vecchi et al., 2007; 2009; 2018). Wind speed lower
115 than 2 m s⁻¹ are typically registered in Milan in more than 80% of the days in a year and the shelter
116 offered by the mountain chains of the Alps and the Apennines very frequently prevent air masses
117 replacement in the Po valley.

118

119 **2.2 Radon concentration measurements**

120 Radon short-lived decay products (²¹⁴Po and ²¹⁸Po) attached to aerosol particles are measured with
121 30-min resolution (and then averaged on 1-hour) by on-line alpha particle spectrometry. In the
122 alpha spectrum, a major contribution (see Figure S1 in the Supplemental material) is given by ²¹⁴Po
123 ($E_{\alpha}=7.685$ MeV; $T_{1/2}=163.6$ μ s). Due to its very short half-life, as a matter of fact ²¹⁴Po emission
124 can be directly related to the emission of its precursor ²¹⁴Bi (β -emitter, $T_{1/2}=19.9$ min). It is
125 noteworthy that all radon daughters are assumed to be in radioactive equilibrium and show a nearly
126 constant disequilibrium factor with ²²²Rn in atmosphere (exceptions are observed when unusual
127 meteorological conditions such as heavy rainfall, frozen soil, and strong winds occur). Therefore,
128 knowing the disequilibrium factor (at our monitoring site it was estimated in the past via parallel
129 activity measurements of radon and its short-lived decay products), the activity concentration of
130 ²²²Rn can be assessed by measuring its short-lived daughters. In this work, a measured
131 disequilibrium factor of 0.77 between short-lived decay products and radon was used to obtain
132 ²²²Rn concentrations (Marcazzan et al., 2003).

133 Only a brief description of the experimental setup will be given in the following (for further details
134 see Marcazzan et al. (2003)). On-line alpha spectrometry is performed on atmospheric aerosols
135 collected on a glass-fibre filter (Whatman GF/A 50 mm diameter) using a pump with sampling
136 flowrate of 10 l/min. The sampling inlet is placed at a height of 6 metres a.g.l. and equipped with a

137 cyclone. The cyclone selects particles with aerodynamic diameter less than 3.5 μm in order to avoid
138 filter clogging. As radon decay products attach preferentially to small-sized particles, this cut-off
139 allows retaining any relevant information. Indeed, Porstendörfer et al. (2000) reported outdoor
140 relative activity size distributions for short-lived ^{222}Rn decay products and showed that most of the
141 activity (approximately 60%) was found on average in the accumulation mode (aerodynamic mean
142 diameter ~ 310 nm) and less than 2% (range: 0-10%) was associated to atmospheric particles in the
143 coarse mode (i.e. particles with aerodynamic mean diameter larger than 3 μm). To further avoid
144 filter clogging, filter replacement is carried out weekly.

145 During aerosol sampling, alpha particles emitted by radon progeny collected on a filter are detected
146 by an ion implanted silicon surface barrier detector placed in front of the filter. Each alpha spectrum
147 is acquired for 1800 seconds and spectra acquisition is carried out repeatedly. To quantify radon
148 progeny concentration, the first step is to subtract the contribution due to ^{220}Rn (also called thoron)
149 progeny to the spectrum. Afterwards, ^{214}Po concentration is calculated for each spectrum making
150 some assumptions, as shortly reported below:

151 1) the first hours of the sampling are corrected due to the non-equilibrium between sampled
152 nuclides and nuclides removed by radioactive decay. This correction is needed only for the first 3
153 hours after the filter change;

154 2) counts in the alpha spectrum are assumed to be given by two contributions: the nuclides
155 previously collected on filter and those sampled during the running measurement. The first
156 contribution can be calculated using the result from the previous measurement because the amount
157 of the nuclides lasting on the filter is in a given ratio with concentration calculated in the previous
158 cycle;

159 3) ^{214}Pb concentration is then calculated for the i -th time interval starting from the difference
160 between i -th and $(i-1)$ -th (corrected as explained before) measured counts.

161 Minimum detection limit of this technique is 0.2 Bq m^{-3} and the overall mean uncertainty – mainly
162 ascribed to counting statistics, uncertainty in counting efficiency, and flowrate - is typically 10%
163 (up to 15% when approaching minimum detection limit).

164 Hourly radon concentrations were recorded continuously by our research group at the same
165 monitoring site and with the same experimental methodology from 1999 to 2016 (18 years). This
166 dataset was used as input to our box model and comprised 152692 valid hourly entries with a very
167 small percentage of missing data (3.2%). Statistical analysis and data elaboration presented in this
168 paper were performed using the free software environment R (R-core team, 2012) and openair
169 package (Carslaw and Ropkins, 2012; Carslaw, 2013).

170

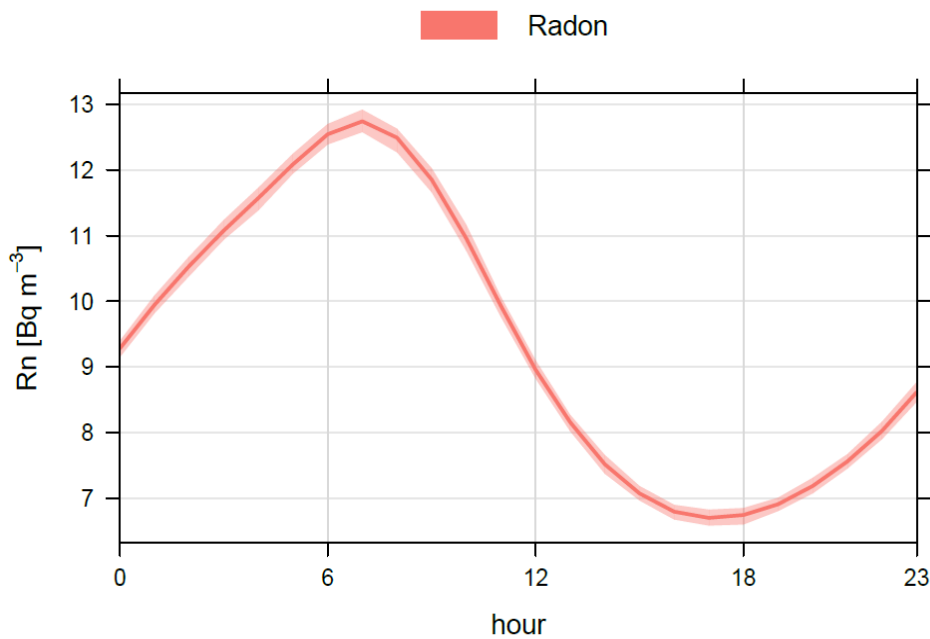
171 **3 Radon-based mixing height modelling**

172 **3.1 Radon as a tracer for atmospheric dispersion**

173 As mentioned before, radon is a radioactive noble gas that is emitted from the ground at a rate
174 slowly varying in space and time (Porstendörfer, 1994). A detailed analysis on geographical
175 patterns of radon exhalation rate is reported in the literature (e.g. Szegvary et al., 2009; IAEA,
176 2012; López-Coto et al., 2013). It is noteworthy that radon half-life ($T_{1/2} = 3.82$ days) is suitable for
177 the time scale of the atmospheric processes to be investigated here. Its physical features make radon
178 a suitable natural tracer of mixing conditions in the lower atmosphere as variations of radon activity
179 concentration due to changes in the exhalation rate from soil are less relevant than those caused by
180 atmospheric mixing. These variations become non-negligible only when extreme weather
181 conditions such as heavy rain, snow, and frozen soil occur (Duenas and Fernandez, 1987;
182 Porstendörfer, 1994).

183 As a result, radon concentration measurements show a typical daily pattern (Figure 1) represented
184 by maximum concentration in early morning (5:00-7:00 LT) - after nocturnal accumulation - and
185 minimum concentration during afternoon (16:00-18:00 LT) - when mixing layer is well-developed
186 and vertical dispersion occurs. This typical daily pattern - also known as radon wave – suggests that
187 it can be represented by two principal harmonic terms with periods of 24h and 12h as described in
188 the next section (Garzon et al., 1986).

189



190

191 Figure 1

192

193 Basic statistics of ^{222}Rn concentration activity hourly values for the whole dataset (1999-2016) is
 194 reported in Table 1; the average value over 18 years is 9.4 Bq m^{-3} , which is within the $9\text{-}10 \text{ Bq m}^{-3}$
 195 range given as global average for atmospheric radon concentrations (UNSCEAR, 2000).

Valid data	152692
Overall missing data (percentage)	5108 (3.2%)
Average activity concentration (Bq m^{-3})	9.4
Median activity concentration (Bq m^{-3})	7.5
Minimum activity concentration (Bq m^{-3})	0.3
Maximum activity concentration (Bq m^{-3})	49.5

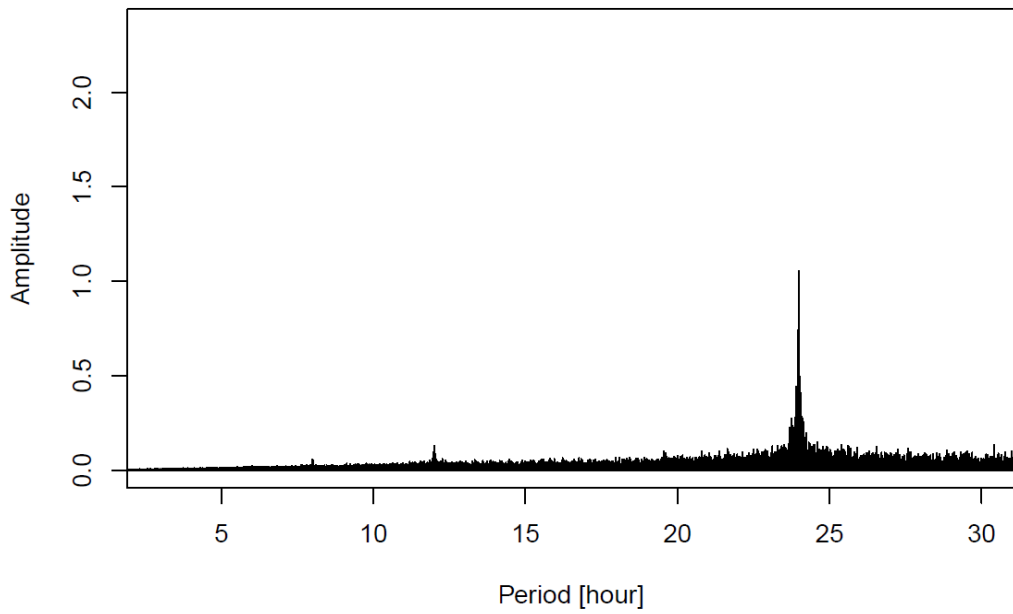
196 Table 1

197

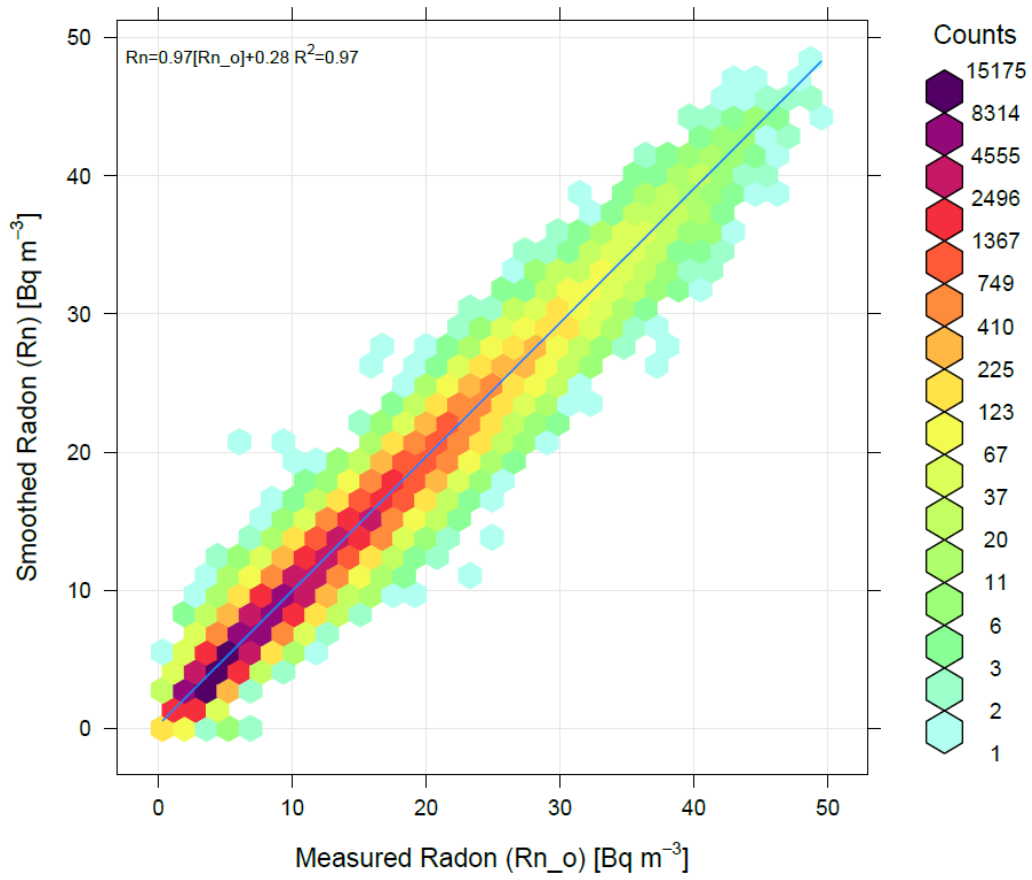
198 3.2 Dataset preparation

199 Radon activity concentration measurements determined as reported in section 2.2 can be used as
 200 input data for the box model here implemented.

201 No specific data pre-treatment (e.g. selective data exclusion) was adopted for the long-term analysis
 202 here presented. Nevertheless, as measurements are based on the detection of alpha particle
 203 emissions, they are affected by counting statistics errors which cause small statistical fluctuations in
 204 the time series. The box model is very sensitive to this kind of fluctuations; indeed, the presence of
 205 an increasing concentration value in a decreasing trend can determine a non-physical discontinuity
 206 in the series of computed mixing heights. Therefore, a smoothing technique was applied to the time
 207 series to avoid this drawback. In the smoothing procedure radon concentration data were treated
 208 like a periodic signal characterised by a fundamental 24-hour component and a Fourier analysis
 209 (Figure 2) of the time series was carried out to remove noise from the signal. Following the daily
 210 pattern of radon concentrations shown in Figure 1, harmonics characterised by a period lower than
 211 12h were rejected. This smoothing approach allowed to remove discontinuities in the temporal
 212 trend, but it did not affect significantly the linear correlation between measured and smoothed
 213 concentrations compared to less aggressive approaches (e.g. rejection of harmonics lower than 6h).
 214 The agreement between smoothed and measured radon concentration was within 3% (Figure 3). A
 215 good agreement in temporal patterns was also found as shown in the short-term pattern reported as
 216 an example in Figure S2 (Supplemental material), where the smoothing temporal patterns with 6h-
 217 and 12h-rejected harmonics are reported together with measured radon concentrations. It can be
 218 noticed that the aggressive smoothing process affects only slightly the highest ^{222}Rn values, which
 219 are sometimes a bit lower than measured concentrations.



220
221 Figure 2
222



223
224 Figure 3
225

226 3.3 Box model implementation

227 In this work, equivalent mixing layer height was quantitatively assessed with hourly resolution from
228 atmospheric radon concentrations measured at ground level using a box model. The model here
229 applied is based on the one proposed by Marcazzan and Persico (1997) and Sesana et al. (2003),
230 who improved the original box model (Fontan et al., 1979) taking into account the radon
231 contribution from the atmospheric residual layer as also recently reported by other authors (e.g.
232 Griffiths et al., 2013; Salzano et al., 2016). Indeed, RL is formed from late afternoon when MH
233 starts to decrease. Radon concentration existing at the time when RL forms is removed only by
234 decay. Due to its half-time, ^{222}Rn can persist in RL till the day after and it has to be accounted for
235 when MH increases thus progressively including air from RL.

236 In addition to local stability conditions, Chambers et al. (2015b) highlighted that near-surface radon
237 concentrations can be also affected by large-scale advection phenomena and suggested to separate
238 these two signals before using radon as a tracer for PBL stability. Rossa et al. (2012) showed that
239 very frequent (60-80%) stagnant conditions (with Bulk Richardson Number $\text{BRN} > 1$) characterise
240 the Po valley climatology and surface inversions in temperature profiles frequently occur.
241 Therefore, at least at our monitoring site, the very poor air replacement typical of the Po valley
242 reinforces the validity of the hypotheses made in the box model.

243 The modelling based on radon concentration describes both the diurnal convective layer and the
244 nocturnal stable layer as a box, having the soil as its base and MH as its height.

245 By a mass balance, the equivalent mixing height can be derived under the following assumptions:

- 246 1. radon flux from the ground, i.e. radon exhalation rate, is constant;
- 247 2. atmospheric radon concentration is not affected by advection;
- 248 3. the box is vertically well-mixed;
- 249 4. radon is removed from the box only by radioactive decay;
- 250 5. a residual radon concentration is retained in the nocturnal residual layer.

251

252 In the computation a value of $0.02 \text{ Bq m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (i.e. the experimental value reported by Marcazzan
253 and Persico, 1997) was used for the radon exhalation rate at the monitoring site. It is noteworthy
254 that this value is fairly similar to the one reported in UNSCEAR (2000) as a global mean.

255 The procedure used to compute the equivalent mixing height is briefly outlined in the following. At
256 every time $t_i(\text{s})$, knowing the radon activity concentration $C_i (\text{Bq m}^{-3})$ measured at ground level, the
257 corresponding equivalent mixing height h_i in metres can be evaluated. The model is initialised in the
258 late afternoon, when radon concentrations - after daily minimum corresponding to maximum
259 mixing heights - start to increase (see Figure 1).

260 Radon mass balance is differently implemented for increasing and decreasing h_i . In fact, the
 261 variation in radon concentration within the box is governed by a balance between a surface-
 262 emission term and the radioactive decay; only in case of a growing layer also the entrainment of a
 263 residual concentration term is taken into account.

264 Following the typical daily temporal evolution of ML (a detailed description of ML features can be
 265 found e.g. in Stull, 1988) some assumptions are made (refer to Figure 4, where data from a typical
 266 cycle based on a real measurement performed on Sept., 27-28, 2011 are reported as an example):

267 1) The residual layer starts to form just after the MH reaches its maximum daily value (h_{\max} , e.g.
 268 $H_1=440$ m in Figure 4) i.e. when the minimum radon concentration (C_{\min}) is registered (at t_{\min} , e.g.
 269 at 17:00 in Figure 4). Radon concentration in RL (C_R^*) remains constant to the value measured at
 270 t_{\min} except for the time dependent reduction due to radioactive decay ($C_R^* = C_{\min} \cdot (\exp(-\lambda(t - t_{\min})))$).
 271 In the layer above RL (light lilac in Figure 4) the radon concentration is supposed to be zero.

272 2) When MH decreases, the two atmospheric layers (ML and RL) are decoupled and the
 273 concentration in the box is governed by a balance (see equation 1a) between a surface-emission
 274 term and radioactive decay (referring to Figure 4 this happens until 01:00 when a minimum height
 275 $H_9=35$ m is reached). MH is calculated by equation 1b.

276 3) When MH starts to increase, RL is progressively incorporated in the box and a further term
 277 accounting for RL radon concentration adds to the balance equation (see equation 2a). MH is
 278 calculated by equation 2b.

279 4) If MH exceeds the previous daily maximum ML height (referring to Figure 4 at 13:00 with
 280 $H_{21}=449$ m, that is higher than $H_1=440m=h_{\max}$), the contribution due to RL concentration term is
 281 limited to the part of the box reaching the previous day maximum ML ($H_{21}-H_1$) as shown in
 282 equations 3a. MH is calculated by equation 3b.

283 5) When MH starts to decrease again, a new maximum (e.g. at 16:00 $H_{24}=625$ m) is taken into
 284 account in the calculation and the cycle (see point 2) restarts (H_{24} is set as H_1 for the new daily
 285 cycle).

286
 287 The equations used in the above-mentioned procedure are given below:

288 i) for decreasing equivalent mixing height in the time interval $\Delta t=t_{i+1} - t_i$, i.e. when $h_{i+1}<h_i$,

$$289 \quad h_{i+1}C_{i+1} = \frac{\Phi}{\lambda} \cdot (1 - \exp(-\lambda\Delta t)) + h_{i+1}C_i \exp(-\lambda\Delta t) \quad (1a)$$

$$290 \quad h_{i+1} = \frac{\Phi}{\lambda} \cdot \frac{(1 - \exp(-\lambda\Delta t))}{C_{i+1} - C_i \exp(-\lambda\Delta t)} \quad (1b)$$

291

292 ii) for increasing equivalent mixing height in the time interval Δt , i.e. when $h_{i+1}>h_i$,

293
$$h_{i+1}C_{i+1} = \frac{\Phi}{\lambda} (1 - \exp(-\lambda\Delta t)) + h_i C_i \exp(-\lambda\Delta t) + (h_{i+1} - h_i) C_R^* \quad (2a)$$

294
$$h_{i+1} = \frac{\frac{\Phi}{\lambda} (1 - \exp(-\lambda\Delta t)) + h_i (C_i \exp(-\lambda\Delta t) - C_R^*)}{C_{i+1} - C_R^*} \quad (2b)$$

295

296 iii) for increasing equivalent mixing height in the time interval Δt and $h_{i+1} > h_{\max}$

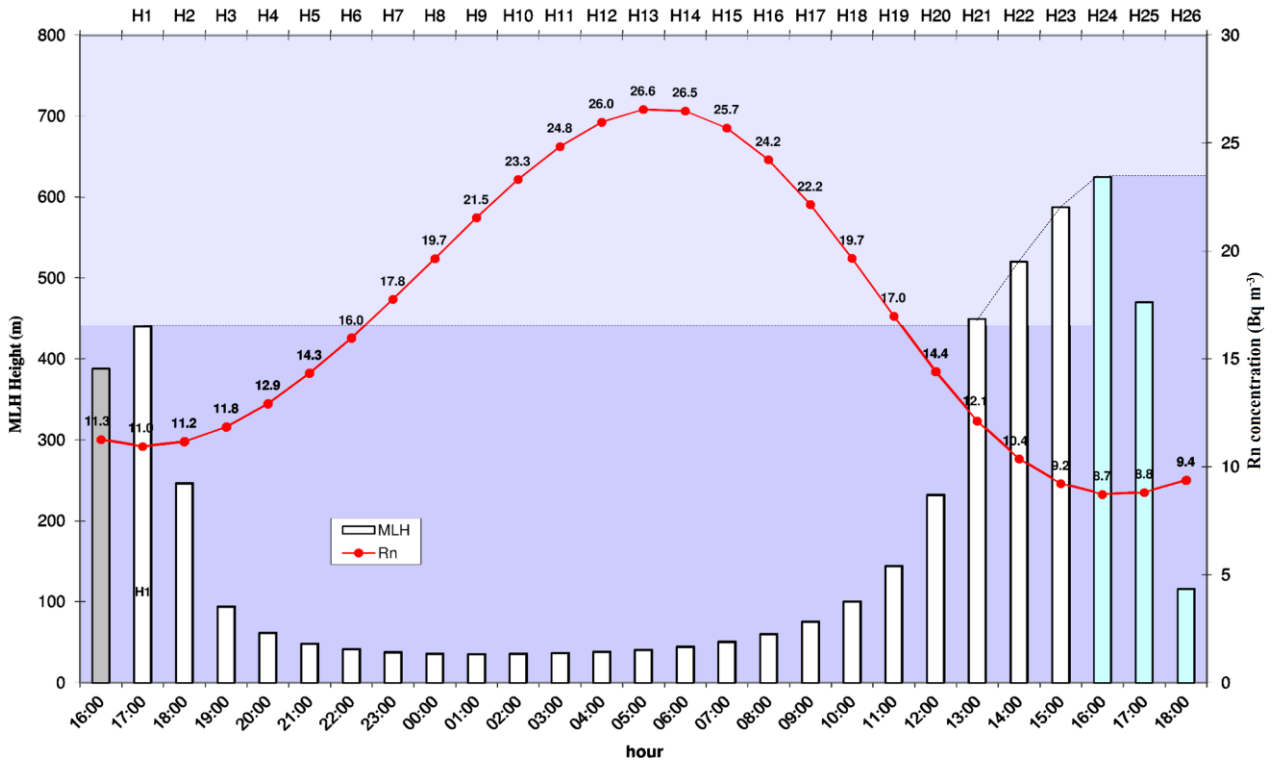
297
$$h_{i+1}C_{i+1} = \frac{\Phi}{\lambda} (1 - \exp(-\lambda\Delta t)) + h_i C_i \exp(-\lambda\Delta t) + (h_{\max} - h_i) C_R^* \quad (3a)$$

298
$$h_{i+1} = \frac{\frac{\Phi}{\lambda} (1 - \exp(-\lambda\Delta t)) + h_i C_i \exp(-\lambda\Delta t) + (h_{\max} - h_i) C_R^*}{C_{i+1}} \quad (3b)$$

299 where Φ ($\text{Bq m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) is the radon flux from ground; λ (s^{-1}) is the radon decay constant; C_i and C_{i+1}
 300 (Bq m^{-3}) are radon concentrations at t_i and t_{i+1} ; $C_R^* = C_{\min} \cdot (\exp(-\lambda(t_{i+1} - t_{\min})))$ (Bq m^{-3}) is residual
 301 radon concentration at t_{i+1} computed considering the minimum concentration registered in the
 302 previous 24 hours and accounting for radioactive decay; h_{\max} is the maximum MH registered during
 303 the previous day.

304 The presence of a single inversion layer in temperature vertical profiles registered in more than 90%
 305 of the cases analysed in a dataset (Antonioli, 2017) comprising over 30 years of radio-soundings
 306 taken at Milano-Linate airport, which is not far from our monitoring site, supported the reliability of
 307 the above-mentioned approach. It is worthy to note that all calculations assume that radon is well-
 308 mixed in the residual layer; results shown in section 4.2, seems to confirm the validity of these
 309 hypotheses.

310



311
312 Figure 4

313
314 **3.4. Equivalent mixing layer height estimates by sonic anemometer data**

315 Equivalent mixing layer height can be estimated using both diagnostic and prognostic mathematical
 316 models, in most cases optimised for stable, near-neutral and convective conditions. The
 317 Zilitinkevich model for stable conditions (Zilitinkevich and Baklanov, 2002), the Batchvarova-
 318 Gryning model for convective conditions (Batchvarova and Gryning, 1991, 1994), and the
 319 Venkatram model (Venkatram, 1980a, 1980b) are promising MH estimation methods. For all these
 320 models, input data are turbulence parameters like Obukhov length and friction velocity, whose
 321 value is often estimated from solar radiation and temperature conventional measurements (Holtslag
 322 and van Ulden, 1982, 1983). Unfortunately, the accuracy of these estimates is difficult to assess,
 323 and direct measurement of Obukhov length and friction velocity is preferable. Direct measurement
 324 of Obukhov length and friction velocity demands use of specialised sensors like three-dimensional
 325 ultrasonic anemometers and other wind and temperature fast sensors. In our region, this task is
 326 accomplished by the regional environmental protection agency (ARPA Lombardia) through the
 327 SHAKEUP network. SHAKEUP stations are equipped with a three-dimensional ultrasonic
 328 anemometer coupled with a real-time eddy-covariance data processing system, and complemented
 329 with thermometer, hygrometer, global radiometer, rain gauge, mechanical anemometer, and
 330 barometer.

331 Processed data, available on request by ARPA Lombardia, include high-resolution (i.e. 10-min
332 averages) wind data and turbulence indicators such as Obukhov length, friction velocity, and
333 turbulent sensible heat flux.

334 The dataset used in this paper is from one of the nodes in the SHAKEUP network, i.e. Parco Nord,
335 located about 10 km North of our monitoring station. It was processed by discriminating among
336 stable, near-neutral, and convective conditions based on turbulent sensible heat flux value. In case
337 of stable situation both Venkatram and Zilitinkevich models were applied directly, and the larger of
338 the two estimates was retained. In convective hours, Batchvarova-Gryning model was applied
339 assuming zero subsidence velocity above mixing layer, and temperature dry lapse rate.

340

341 **4. Results**

342 **4.1 Equivalent mixing layer height estimates from radon data**

343 MH obtained by box model were averaged on a monthly basis for daylight and nighttime separately
344 (see Figure S3 in Supplemental Material). Daylight refers to periods between sunrise and sunset
345 (nighttime between sunset and sunrise) considering the latitude and longitude of the measurement
346 location as well as the day of the year. Figure S3 showed a clear seasonal trend for daylight data:
347 the lowest MH was registered in December on average (199 m), with a minimum monthly mean of
348 127 m in December 2015. The highest MH was registered in May on average (556 m), with a
349 maximum monthly mean of 688 m in May 2014. The seasonal trend is less evident for nighttime
350 data. Nevertheless, also for these data the lowest MH was registered in December on average (184
351 m), with a minimum monthly mean of 124 m in December 2015. As for the highest MH in
352 nighttime data, it was registered in May on average (312 m), with the maximum monthly mean
353 occurring in April 2015 (446 m).

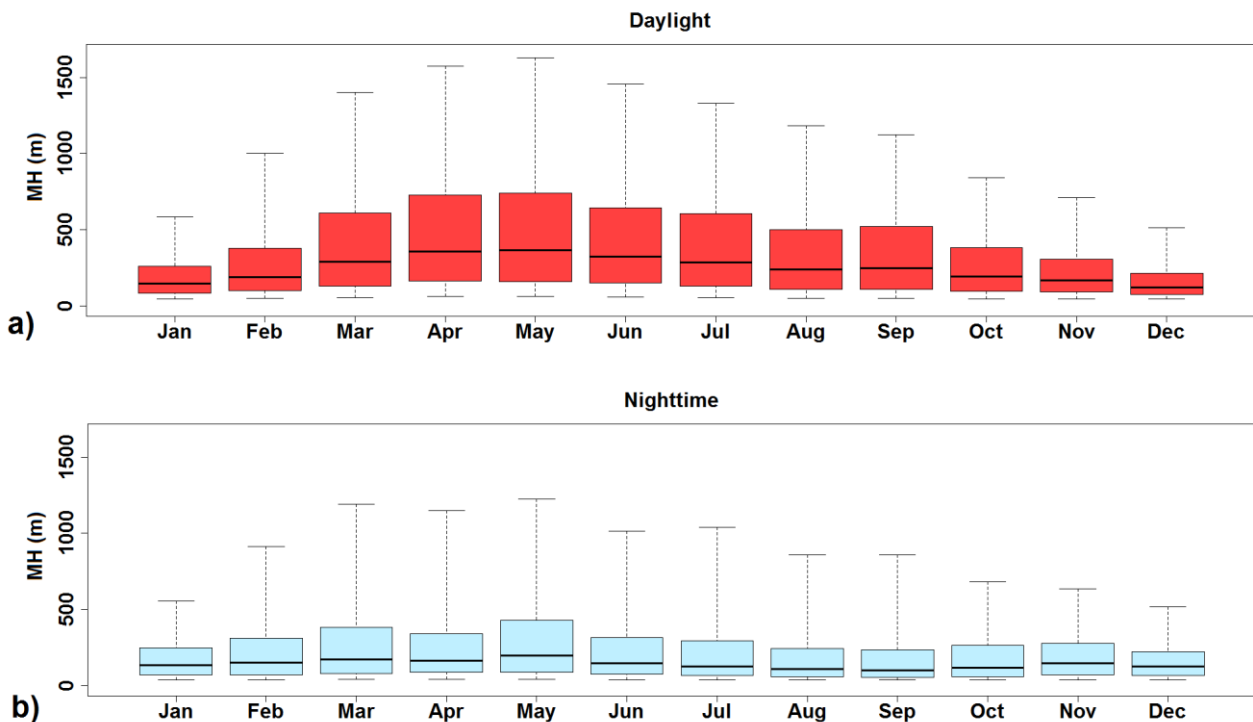
354 As far as long-term trend is concerned, seasonal Mann-Kendall test (Hirsch et al., 1982) was carried
355 out on the two series: $p > 0.05$ was registered in both cases, thus not enough evidence of long term
356 monotonic trend is present in both time series.

357 Monthly boxplots for daylight and nighttime data are shown in Figure 5a and Figure 5b,
358 respectively. They represent statistics (median and 5, 25, 75, 95 percentiles) referred to 1-h resolved
359 data thus explaining the highest range of values spanned compared to Figure S3 in the
360 Supplementary Material. It can be noticed that MH higher than 1000 m can be occasionally reached
361 mainly during spring and summer. This representation confirms that daylight mean MH was
362 typically higher during springtime and – although to a less extent – the same can be observed in
363 nighttime MH. The temporal behaviour observed in springtime could be related to the atmospheric
364 temperature lapse rate referred to ground level. As an example, Figure S4 in Supplemental Material

365 showed a more pronounced gradient going from winter to spring rather than from summer to
 366 autumn. This can be explained considering seasonal differences in the thermal inertia of the
 367 atmosphere and more frequent instability conditions in springtime. Indeed, relatively cold layers
 368 were still present in the upper part of the atmosphere during springtime while lower layers were
 369 heated thus fostering atmospheric vertical instability; opposite, a smooth cooling of the lower layers
 370 going from summer to autumn months produced less mixing.

371 MH typical daily patterns averaged over 18 years separately for each season are represented in
 372 Figure 6. It can be noticed that: (1) minima occurred in the morning between 03:00 and 07:00 with
 373 little seasonal differences being MH at most 215 m for spring minimum; (2) maxima values had a
 374 much higher variability with seasons going from about 360 m in winter up to 878 m in spring
 375 during the time slot 16:00-18:00.

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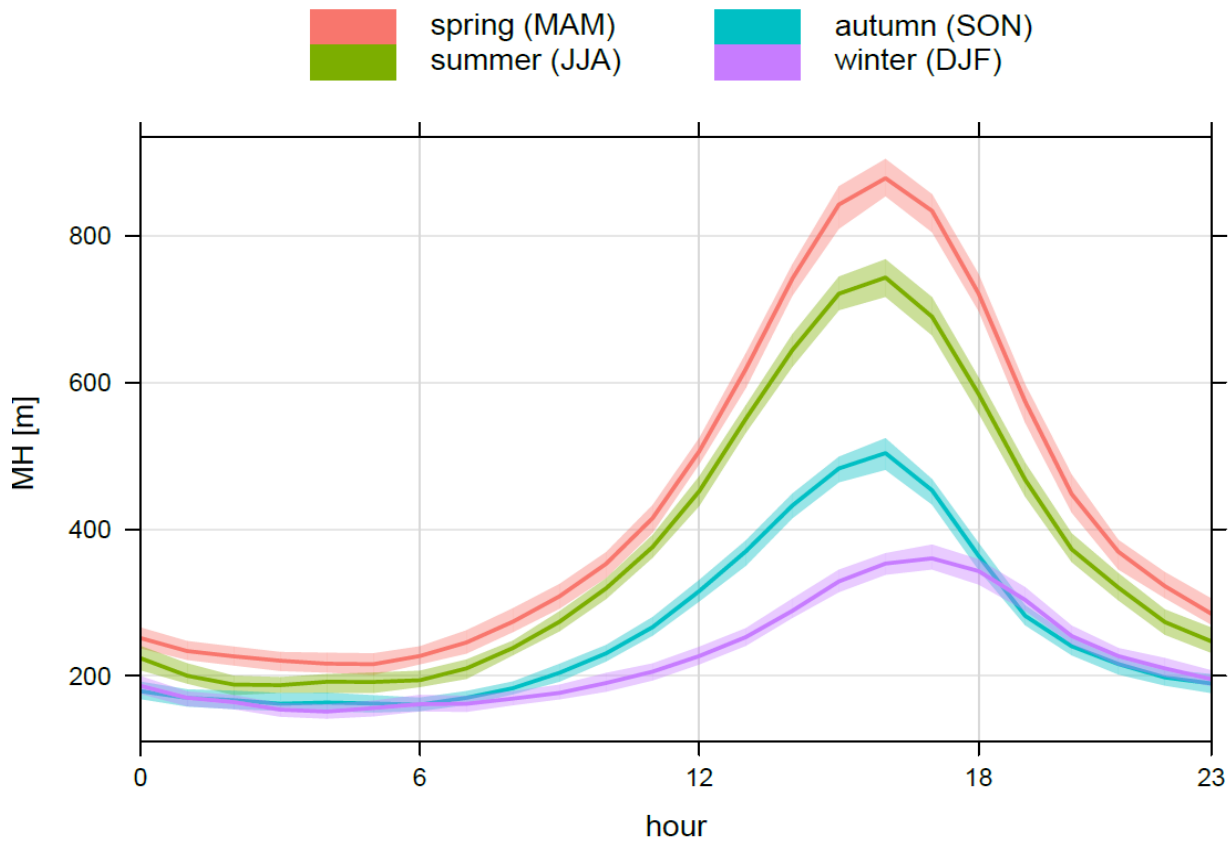
379 Figure 5

380

381 In Figure 6, wintertime daily pattern showed the slowest change in concentrations and the
 382 maximum appeared later than in other seasons (as a consequence, apparently winter and autumn
 383 patterns overlap during evening hours). It is not clear to the authors the reason for such delay but a
 384 stronger thermal inertia in wintertime can have played a role. Indeed, the ground was very cold
 385 during nighttime/early morning and the energy available for atmospheric convection was much less

386 in winter; therefore, heating up the atmosphere might require a longer time thus producing the delay
387 in MH peak.

388



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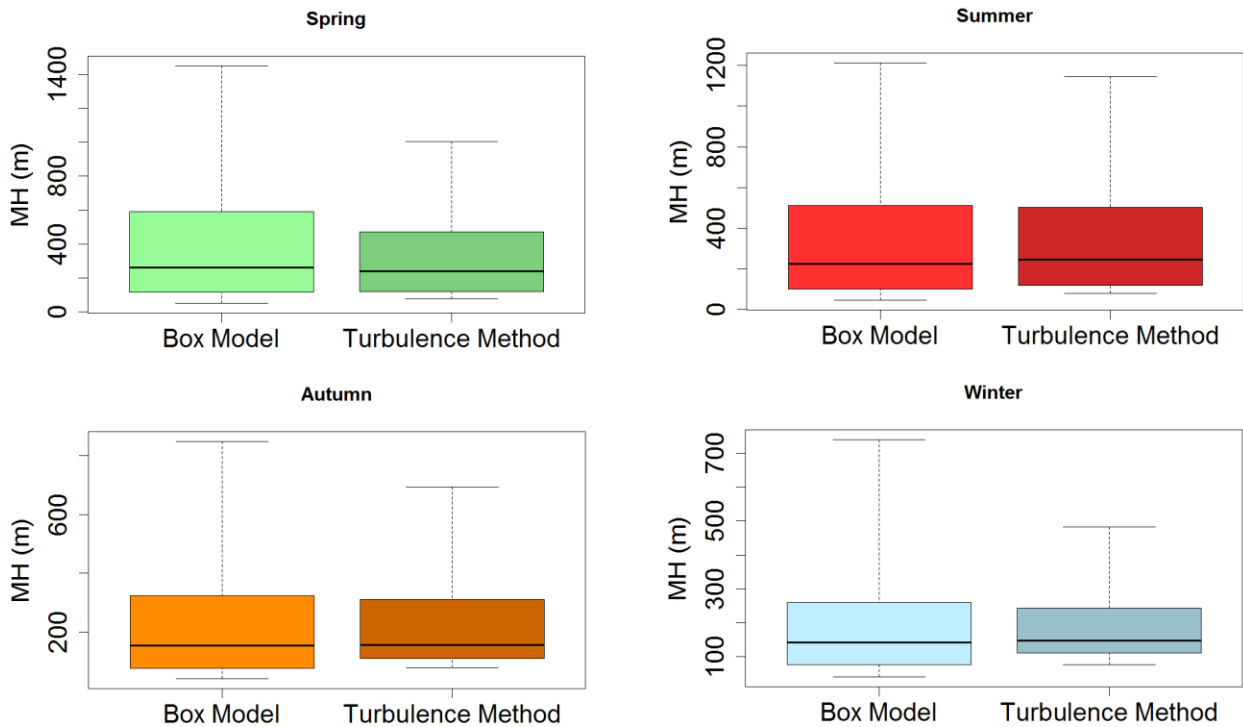
390 Figure 6

391

392 **4.2 Comparison between radon-based and turbulence-based equivalent mixing height** 393 **estimates**

394 The comparison between equivalent mixing layer heights estimated by radon-based (box model)
395 and turbulence-based approaches was carried out considering a data subset of five years (2012-
396 2016, i.e. on the only data available from sonic anemometer measurements).

397 In Figure 7, a comparison of MH estimates obtained by the two approaches is shown by boxplots
398 for each season. Small differences in median values can be noticed. Nevertheless, the distribution of
399 turbulence-based MH estimates seems less skewed than the radon-based one in all seasons but
400 summer. This can be partially related to the absence of data pre-selection (i.e. both models were run
401 with no pre-conditioning as a function of other variables e.g. wind speed) and to the assumption of
402 regular vertical profile of potential temperature for the turbulence-based model.



403

404

405 Figure 7

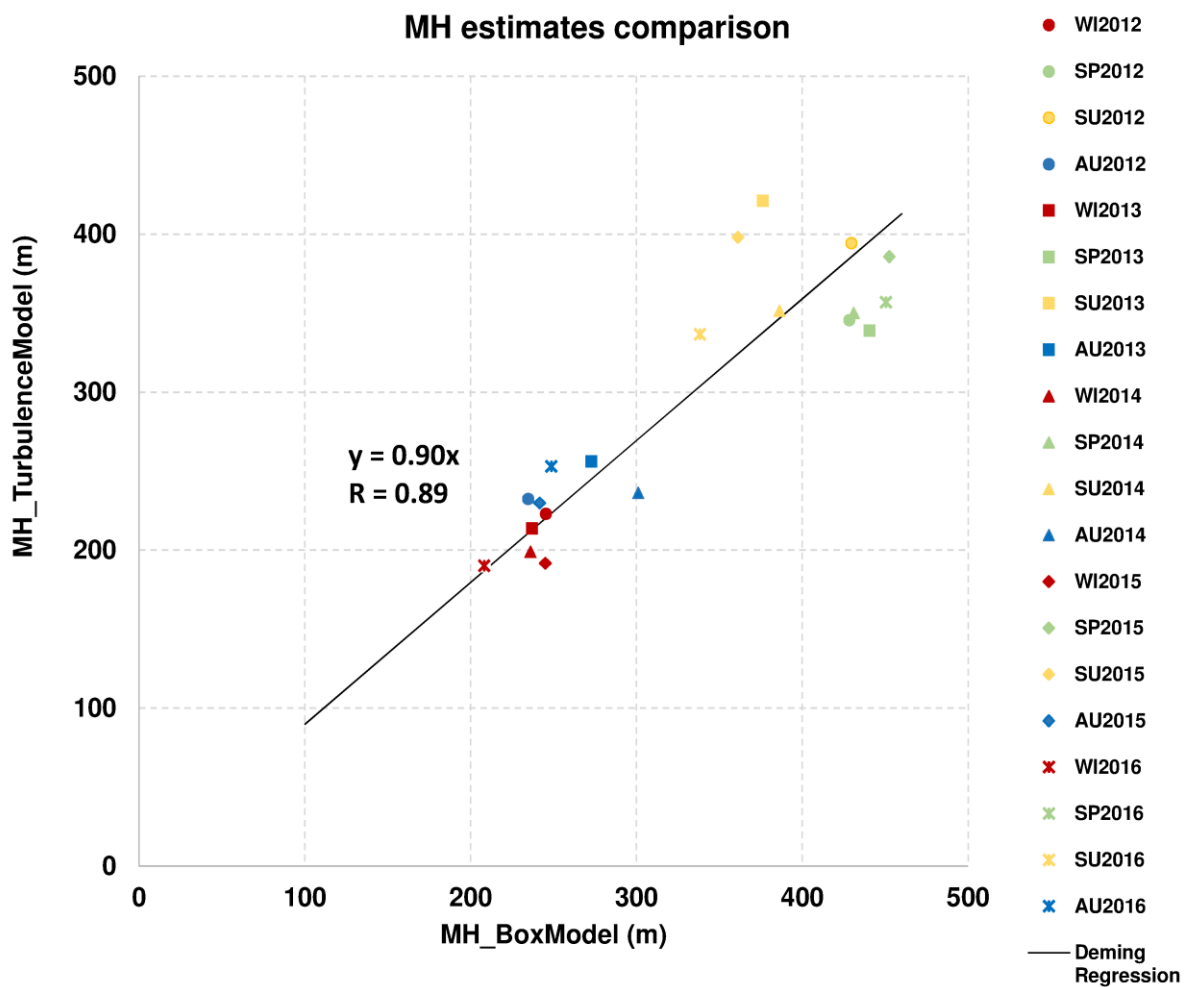
406

407 Figure 8 represents the scatterplot of seasonal MH mean values by radon- and turbulence-based
 408 modelling. Deming regression was applied to the data, using 1 as variance ratio between the
 409 populations. Data were fairly well correlated ($R=0.89$) and the Deming regression angular
 410 coefficient was 0.90 (intercept was forced to zero as resulted comparable to zero within standard
 411 error). Therefore, the agreement between the seasonal estimates by the two approaches was within
 412 10%.

413 Although the main focus of this paper is on the long-term MH assessment to pursue climatological
 414 studies, it is noteworthy that both approaches estimated MH with hourly resolution (see Figure S5).
 415 Seasonal daily maximum values showed an overall agreement but for spring, when box model
 416 estimates resulted systematically higher – $p<0.05$ using a Mann-Whitney test (Mann and Whitney,
 417 1947) – than those evaluated by the turbulence-based model. Besides the fairly good agreement in
 418 absolute values, interesting differences in hourly patterns were singled out. The box model
 419 reproduced a MH hourly pattern with a much slower decrease in the afternoon compared to quite
 420 typical fast decrease given by the turbulence-based method. MH estimated by the box model during
 421 early morning/night time were typically higher but in autumn and winter differences were much less
 422 pronounced. A certain degree of disagreement in hourly patterns is not surprising as the two
 423 methods rely on totally different parameters, i.e. the radon concentration in the box model and the

424 three wind components and heat flux in the other case; therefore, differences in the dynamics of the
 425 temporal evolution could be expected. A possible role might be played by characteristic times of the
 426 measurements; indeed, turbulence variables typically have very fast rate of change while the box
 427 model uses radon concentration, whose assessment is carried out on much slower times. This
 428 feature of radon measurement might yield to a MH temporal pattern which is intrinsically smoother
 429 than turbulent estimate. However, this different behaviour claims for further investigation not
 430 performed in this work and a comparison with other experimental and/or modelling approaches
 431 would be also useful.

432
 433



434
 435 Figure 8

436
 437 **5. Conclusions**

438 The assessment of equivalent mixing layer heights in Milan (Italy) over 18-years has proved that a
 439 simple box model relying on ^{222}Rn measurements can be useful for MH climatological studies. This

440 piece of information can be exploited in further studies to disentangle the effect of emissions from
441 atmospheric dilution in pollution concentration data series.

442 Results found in this paper have shown that no relevant long-term trend affect equivalent MH in
443 Milan (Italy) over 18 years. The availability of a statistically significant dataset evidenced seasonal
444 differences, i.e. the highest MH were recorded typically during springtime and minima during
445 winter months. This result suggests that springtime atmospheric instability is a driving force
446 stronger than summertime thermals in promoting more effective air exchange on the vertical.

447 Using a subset of data (5-year long), MH estimates obtained by the box model were compared to
448 those retrieved by modelling approaches using turbulence variables (obtained by sonic anemometer
449 data) as inputs. The agreement between the seasonal averages of equivalent mixing layer height
450 mean values estimated by two methods was very good. Furthermore, seasonal daily maxima
451 estimates resulted comparable between the approaches (but for spring). Nevertheless, interesting
452 differences came out when looking at daily temporal patterns. Further studies may be worth in order
453 to understand the physical processes causing the observed differences in the MH increase/decrease
454 features and in mean values detected in springtime.

455 Despite the simple box model approach here applied, results have shown that MH temporal
456 behaviour can be estimated from radioactive tracer measurements carried out using experimental
457 methodologies that could be effectively implemented in pollution monitoring networks adding
458 valuable information for pollution events interpretation.

459

460 **Contributors**

461 R. Vecchi conceived and designed the study; G. Valli and V. Bernardoni performed radon
462 measurements; G. Valli made data reduction and validation and, together with R. Vecchi,
463 contributed to radon data interpretation; A.F. Piziali analysed long-term radon data series and,
464 together with G. Valli, set up the box model; M. Favaron collected sonic anemometer data and run
465 the model based on sonic anemometer data. R. Vecchi drafted the paper and all co-authors revised
466 the manuscript content and gave a final approval of the version to be submitted.

467

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472

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573

574

575 **List of captions – Tables and Figures**

576 **Table 1:** basic statistics on Radon activity concentrations from 1999 to 2016 (in Bq m⁻³).

577

578 **Figure 1:** mean daily pattern for ²²²Rn concentrations averaged over the period 1999-2016. A 95%
579 confidence interval of the mean obtained by a bootstrap approach is shown.

580

581 **Figure 2:** Fourier spectrum of ²²²Rn hourly concentration measured during the period 1999-2016.

582

583 **Figure 3:** Smoothed (Rn) vs. measured (Rn_o) radon concentrations (in Bq m⁻³, whole dataset). The
584 solid line is the regression line ($Rn = 0.97 \cdot Rn_o + 0.28$; $R^2 = 0.97$).

585 **Figure 4:** Example of equivalent mixing height temporal evolution as used in the box model. Red
586 line and dots represent Radon concentration (right axis). Bars represent MH (left axis): grey bar
587 indicates the last MH calculated for the previous daily cycle, white bars indicate current daily cycle,
588 light blue bars indicate the next daily cycle. Lilac area represents mixing+residual layer (ML+RL)
589 whereas light lilac area represents the layer above the RL.

590 **Figure 5:** boxplot of MH monthly statistics for daylight (a) and nighttime (b). The horizontal line
591 represents the median, the coloured box is 25-75th percentile range and the whiskers extend
592 between 5-95th percentiles. Daylight refers to periods between sunrise and sunset (nighttime
593 between sunset and sunrise) considering the latitude and longitude of the measurement location as
594 well as the day of the year.

595

596 **Figure 6:** Typical daily pattern of the equivalent mixing layer height in different seasons averaged
597 over the period 1999-2016. A 95% confidence interval for the mean value evaluated by bootstrap is
598 shown.

599

600 **Figure 7:** Comparison between MH estimated by the radon- and turbulence-based models. The
601 horizontal line represents the median, the coloured box is 25-75th percentile range and the whiskers
602 extend between 5-95th percentiles.

603

604 **Figure 8:** Scatterplot of seasonal averages of MH estimates obtained by radon-based box model and
605 turbulence model in different years. Regression line refers to Deming regression. The different
606 markers represent seasons (colours) and years (shape). Legend interpretation: Spring (SP)=March-

607 May, Summer (SU)=June-August, Autumn (AU)=September-November, Winter (WI)=December-
608 February. As for winter, the year in the legend refers to January and February.
609

Figure 1

Radon

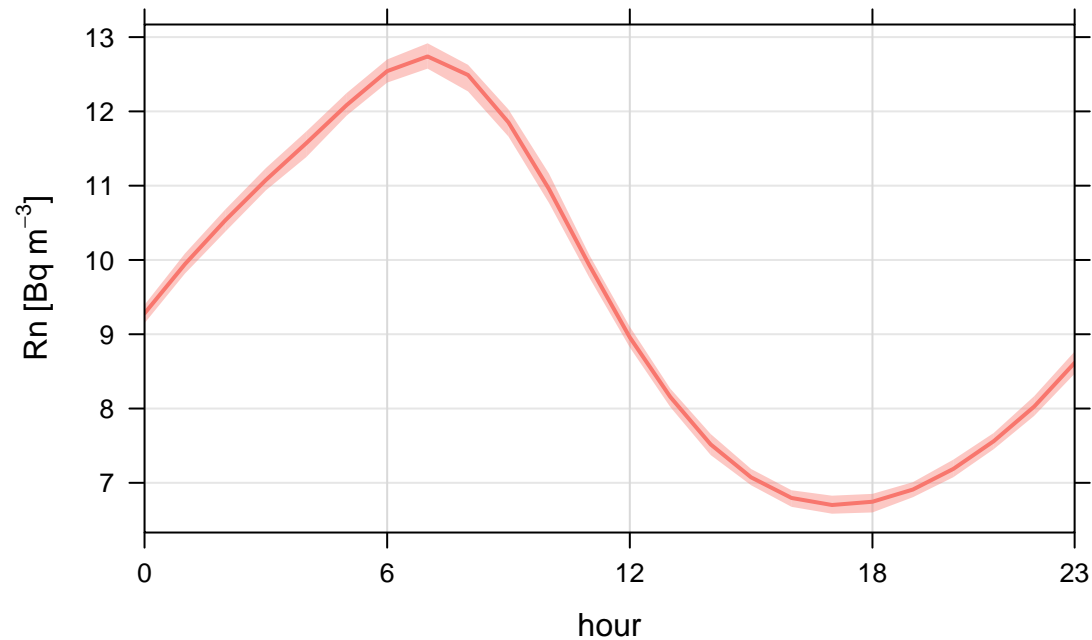


Figure 2

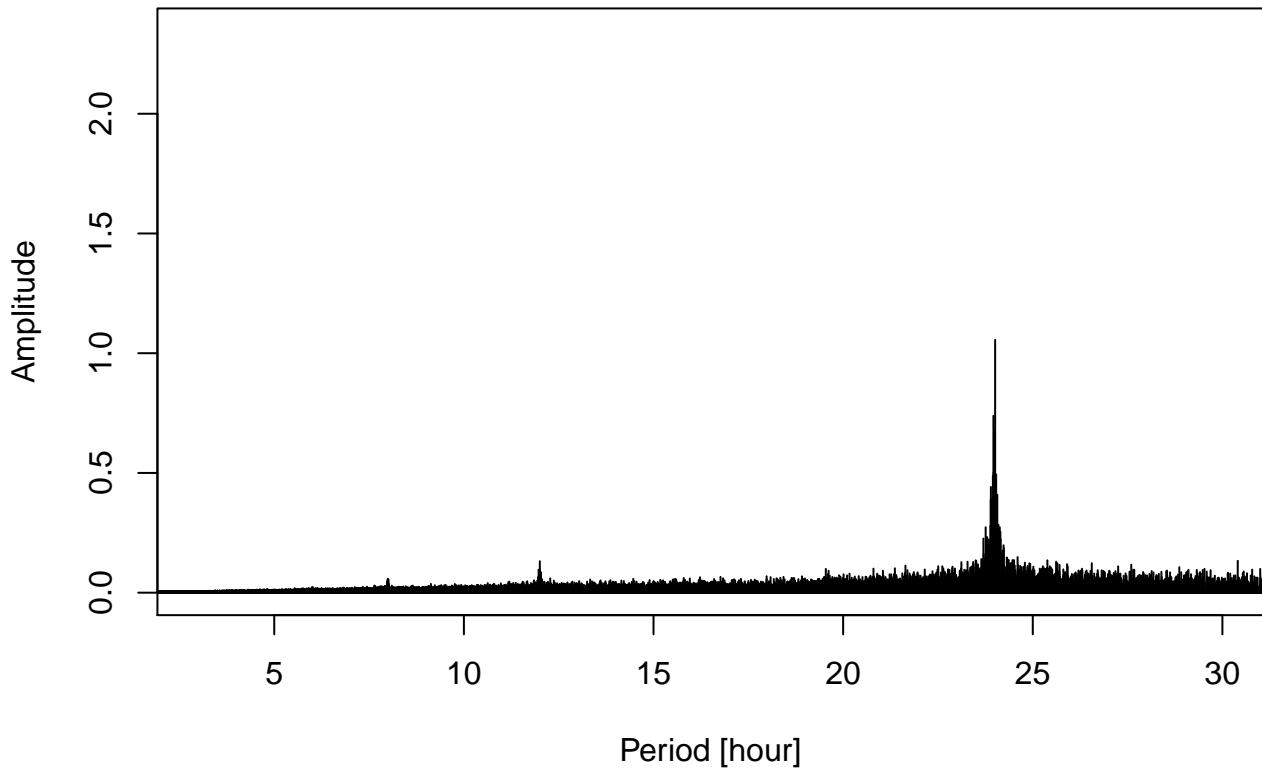


Figure 3

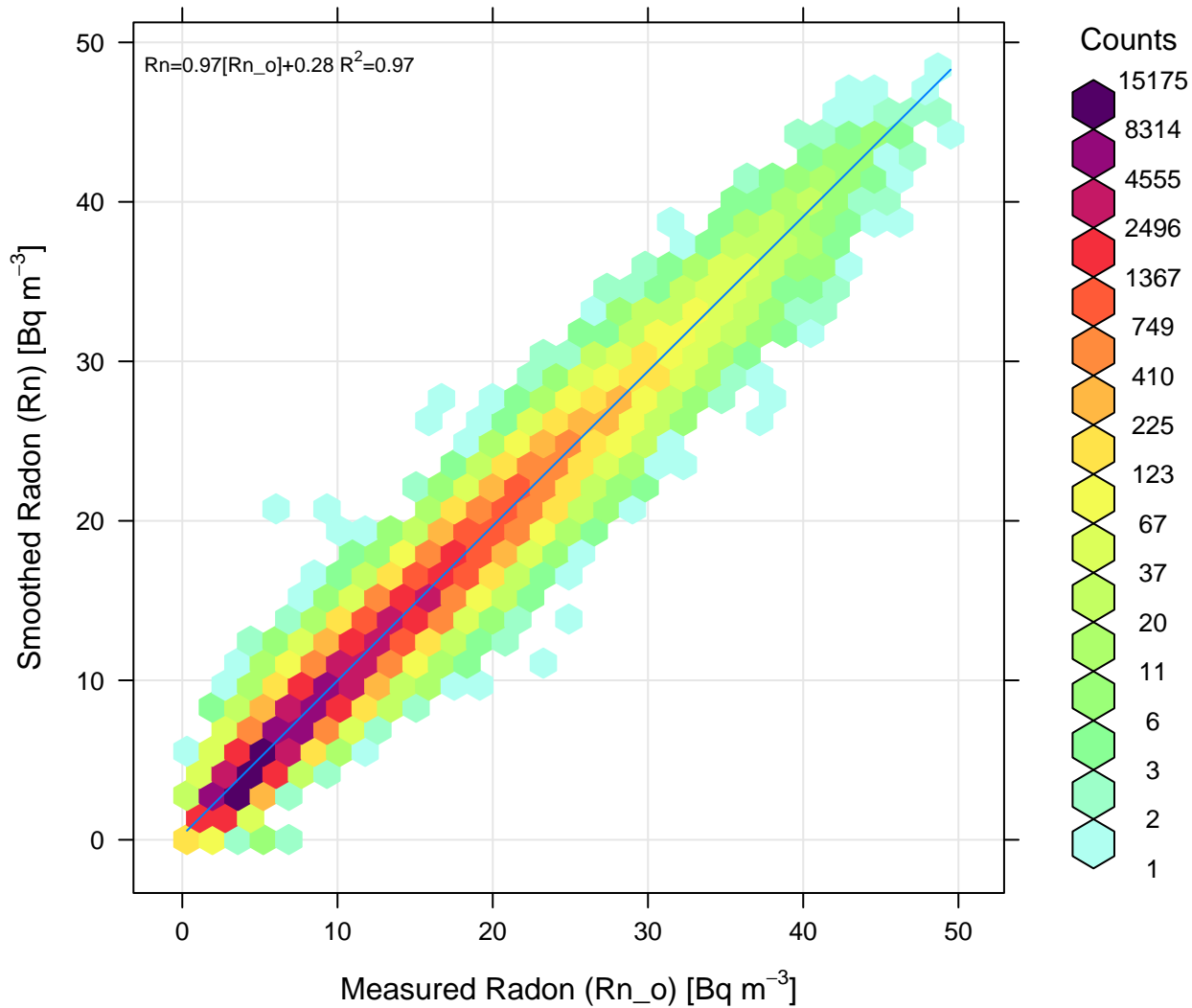


Figure 4

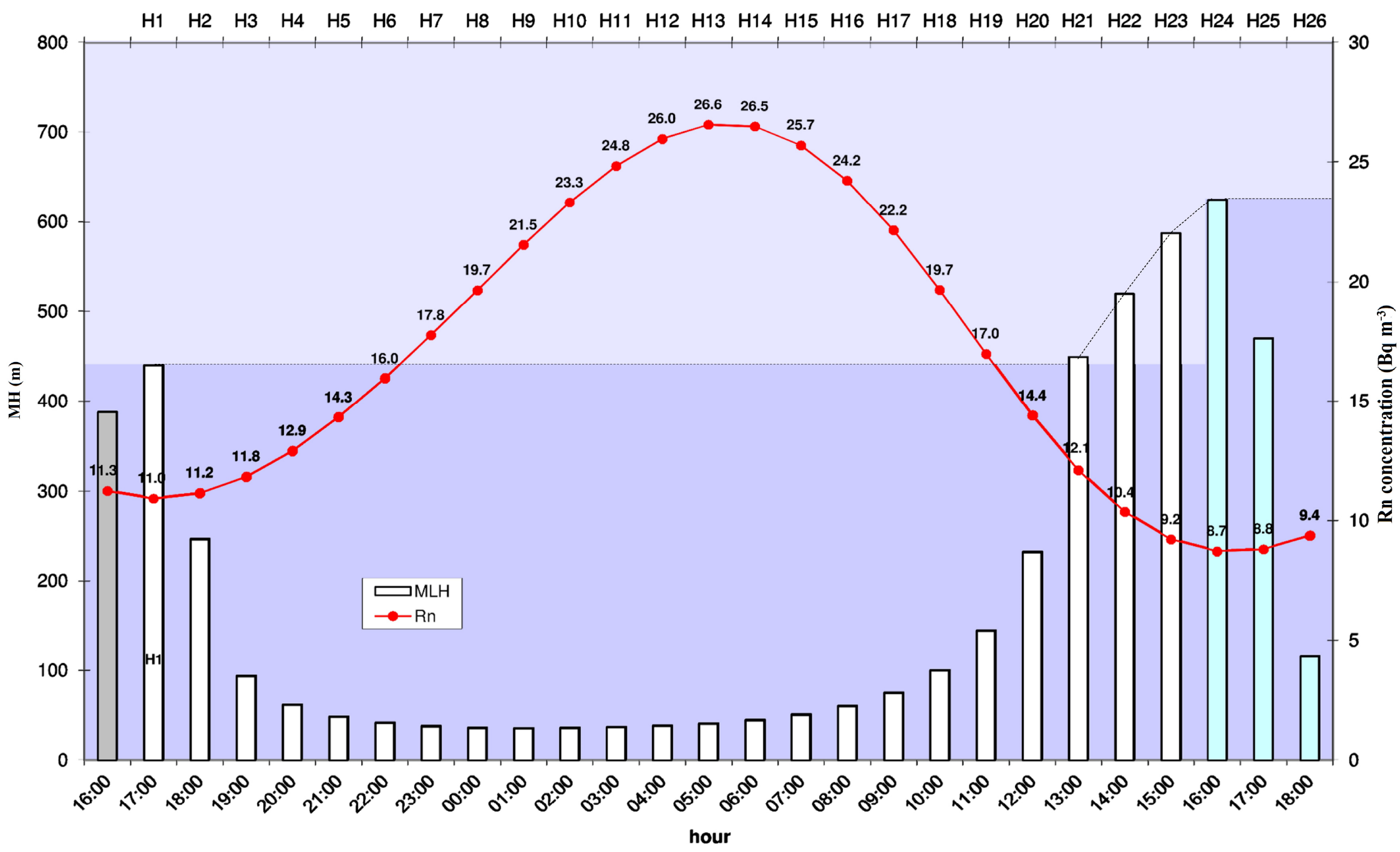
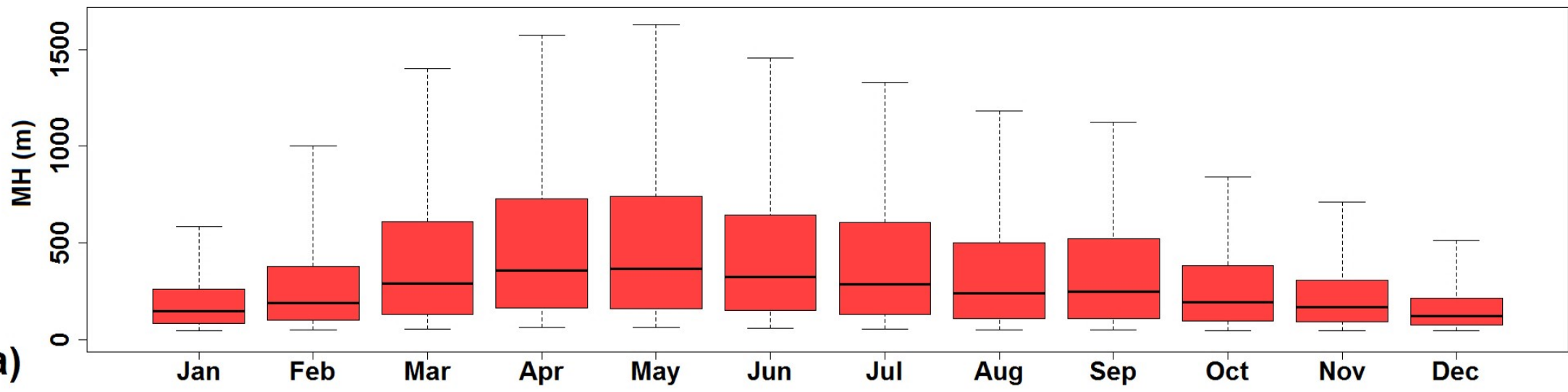


Figure 5

Daylight



Nighttime

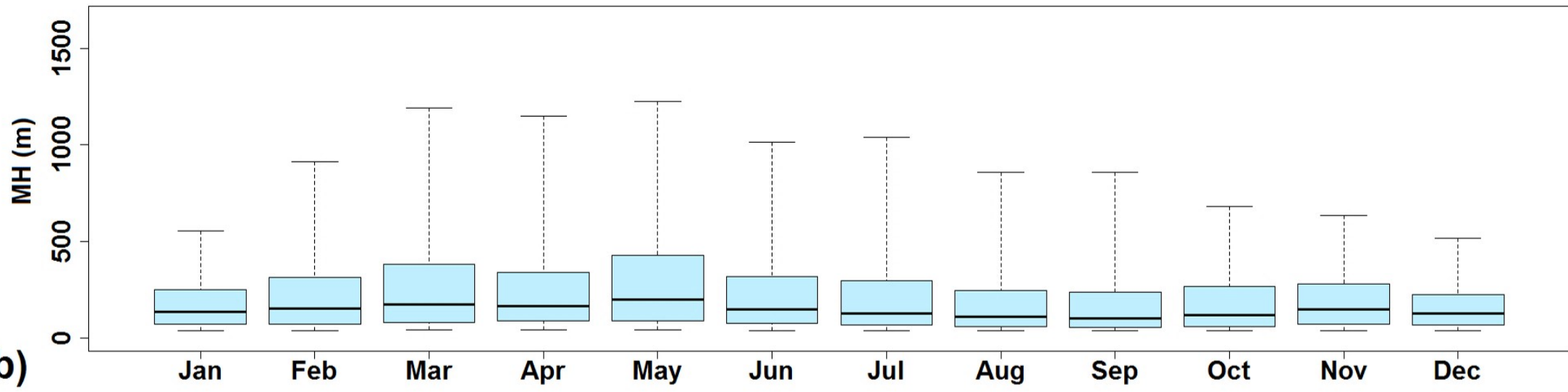


Figure 6

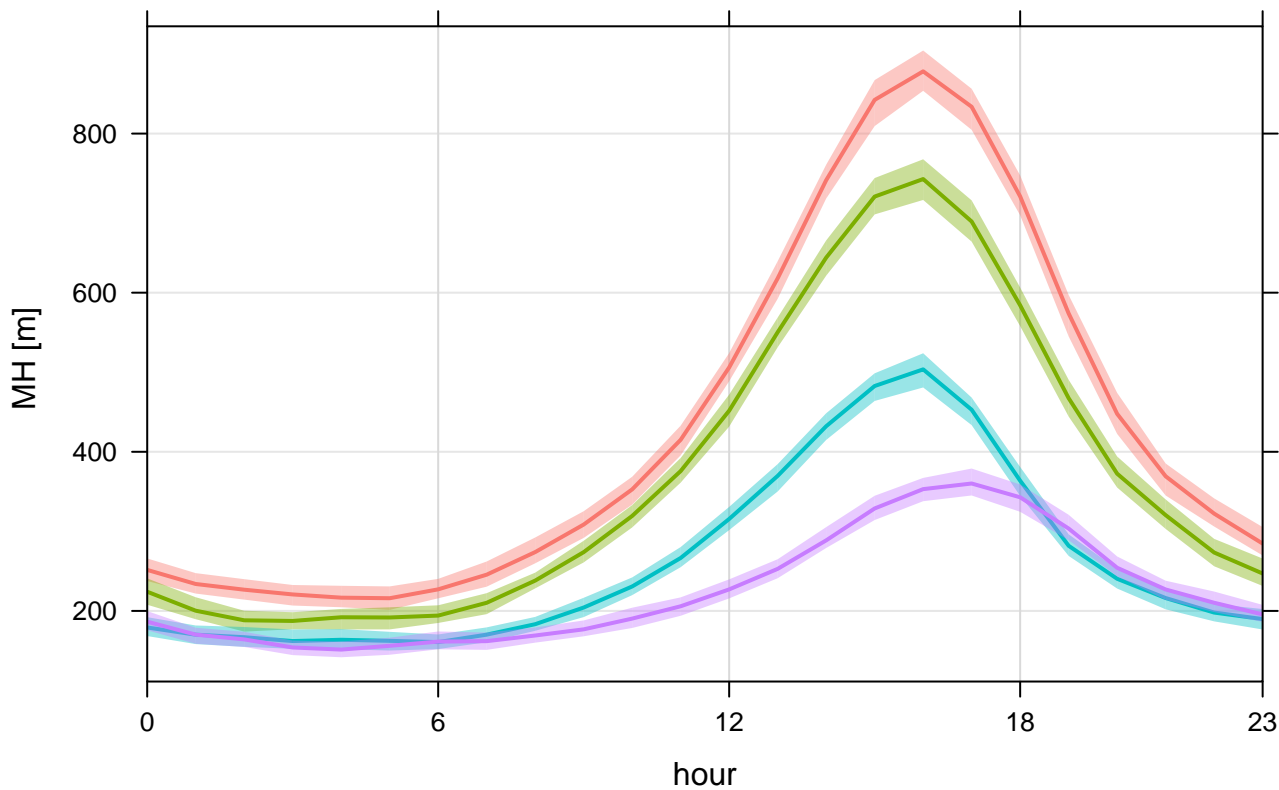


Figure 7

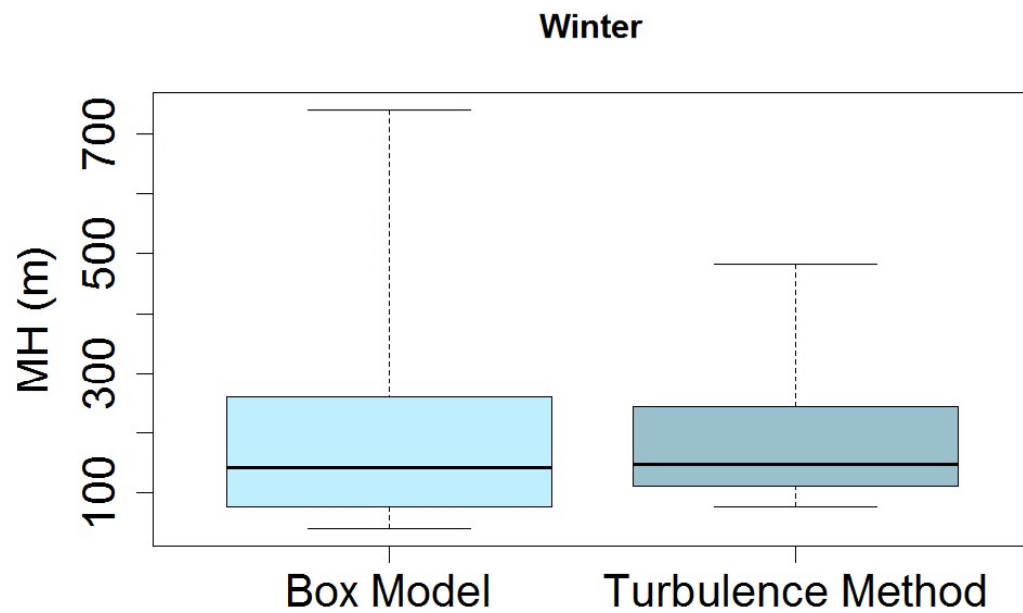
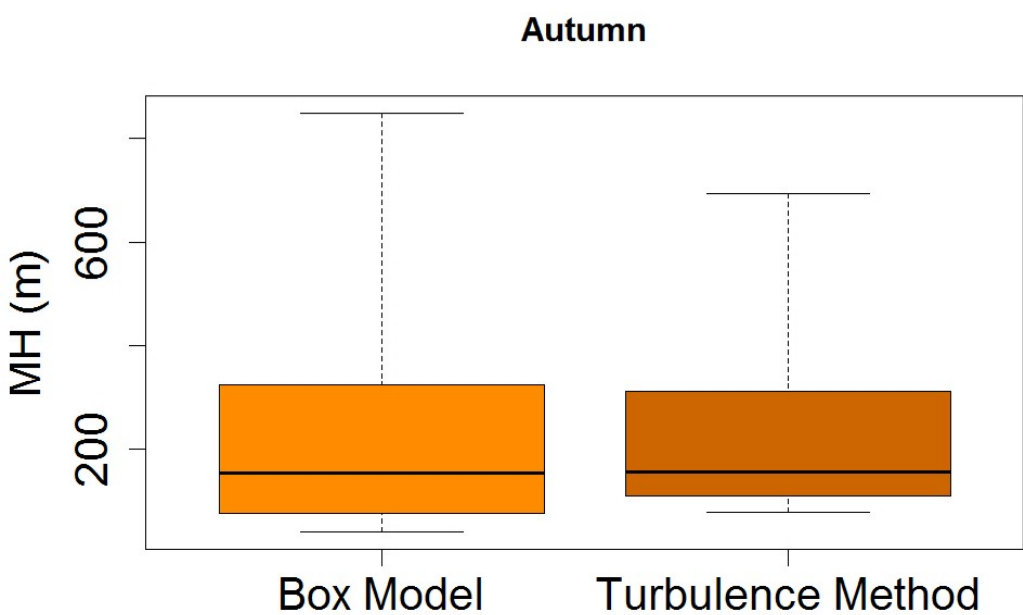
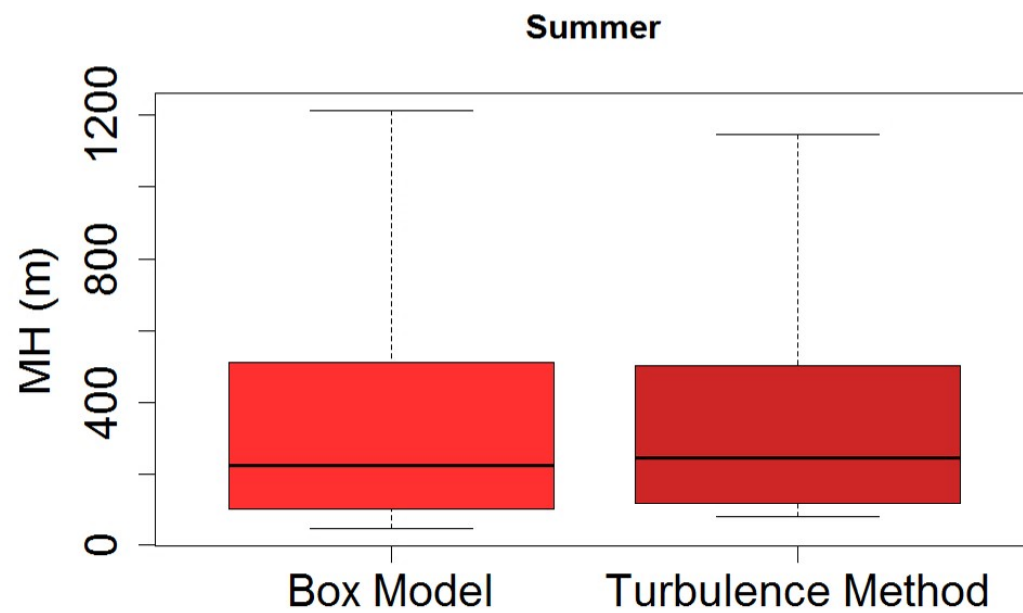
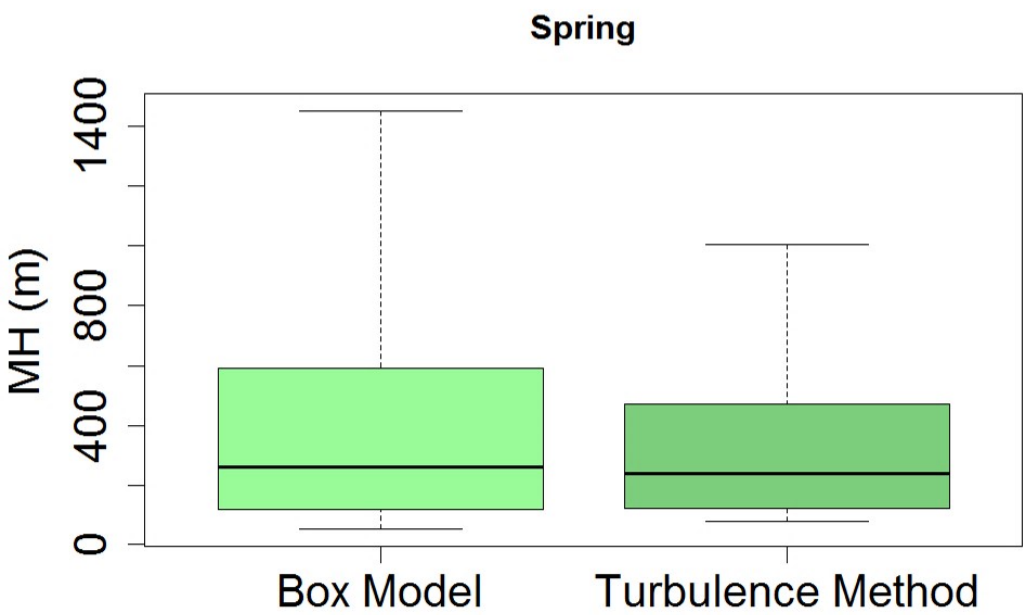
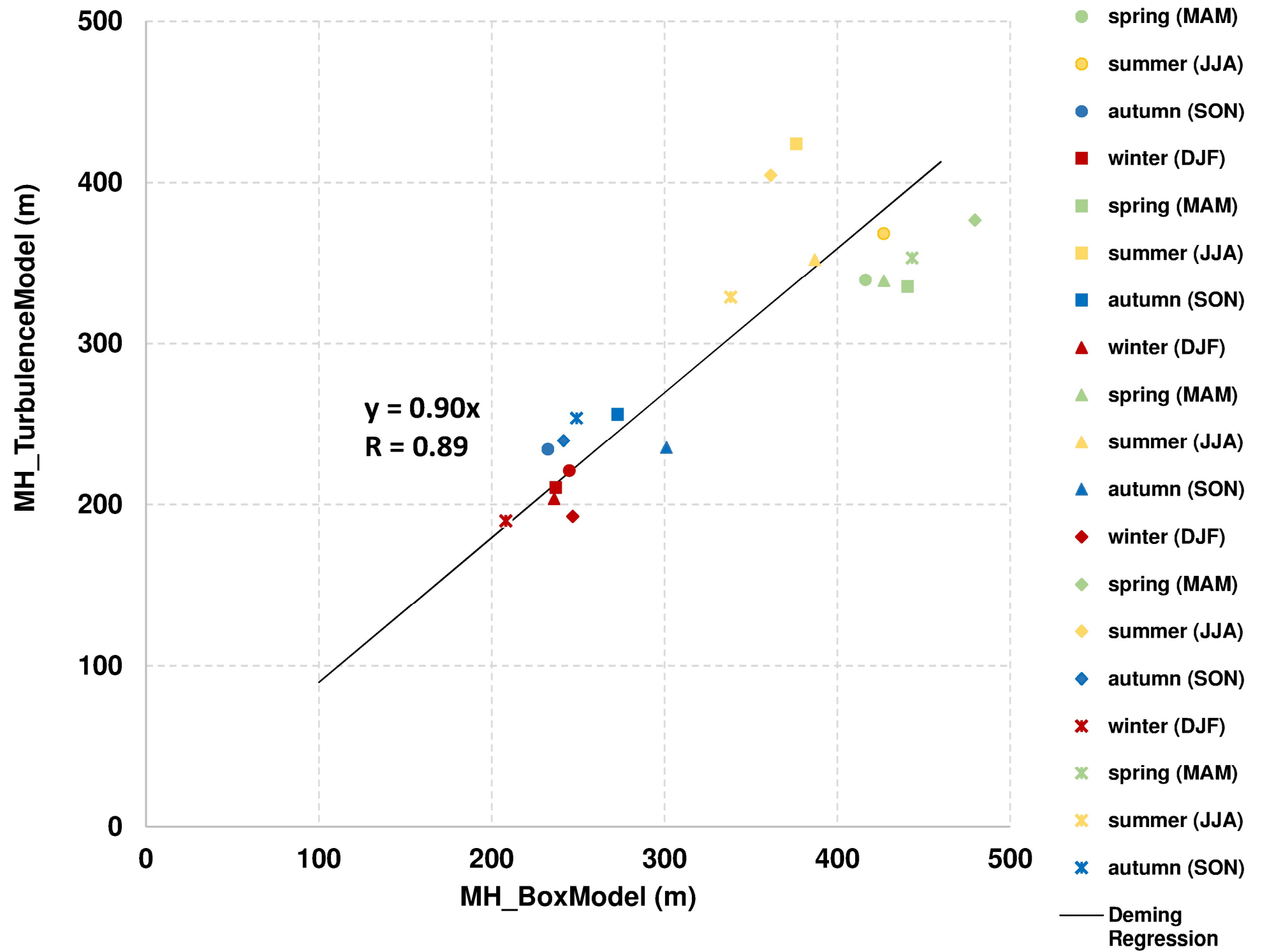


Figure 8

MH estimates comparison

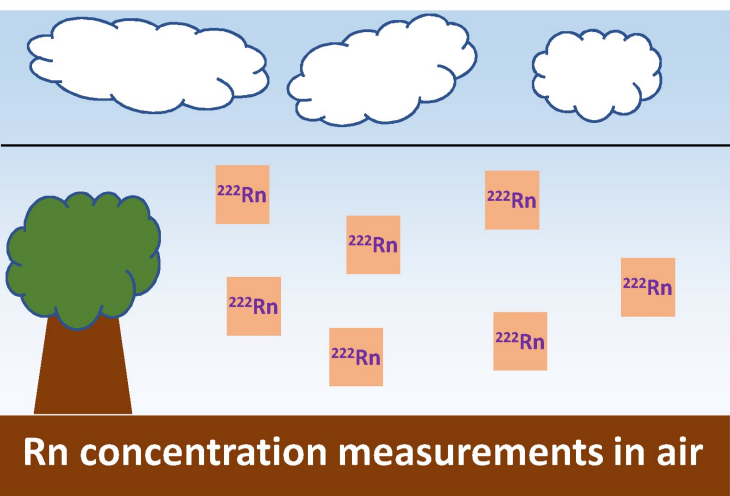


Supplementary Material

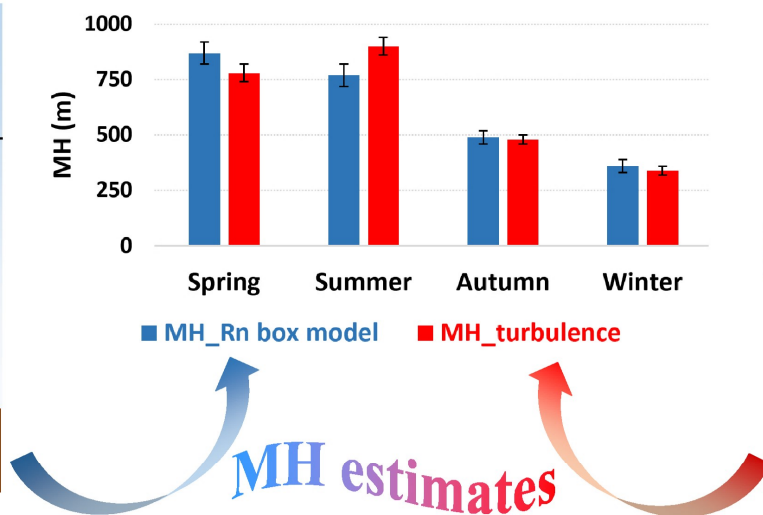
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Highlights

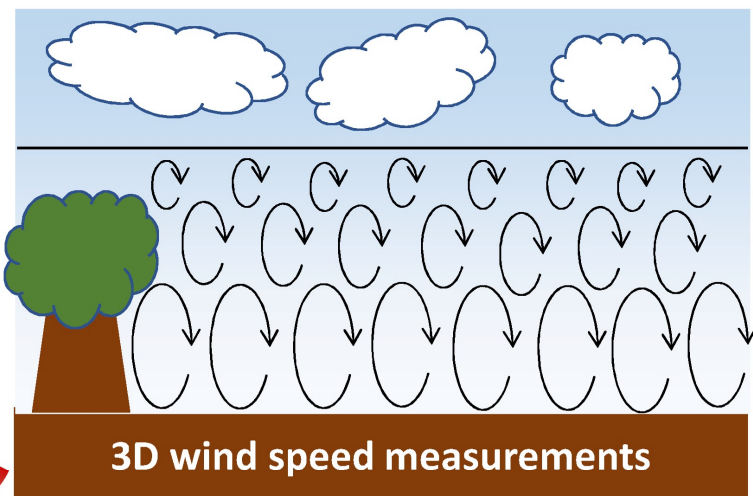
- Radon and its progeny are good markers for atmospheric dispersion conditions
- Short-lived radon decay products measured for 18 years with 30 min resolution
- A box model based on radon concentrations estimated equivalent mixing layer heights
- Radon-based and turbulence-based estimates for MH resulted comparable
- Radon measurements at monitoring stations could be effectively implemented



Rn concentration measurements in air



MH estimates



3D wind speed measurements

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