On measurements of aerosol particles and greenhouse gases in Siberia and future research needs

Markku Kulmala¹, Pavel Alekseychik¹, Mikhail Paramonov¹, Tuomas Laurila², Eija Asmi², Almut Arneth³⁴, Sergej Zilitinkevich¹² and Veli-Matti Kerminen²

¹) Department of Physics, P.O. Box 64, FI-00014 University of Helsinki, Finland
²) Finnish Meteorological Institute, Erik Palménin aukio 1, FI-00560 Helsinki, Finland
³) Physical Geography and Ecosystem Analysis, Lund University, Sölvegatan 12, SE-223 62 Lund, Sweden
⁴) Institute for Meteorology and Climate Research/Atmospheric Environmental Research, Karlsruhe Institute for Technology, Kreuzeckbahn Str. 19, D-82467 Garmisch Partenkirchen, Germany

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The role of the world’s boreal forest for our understanding of the climate system is indisputable. Due to the large area covered, the forest’s biophysical (e.g. surface energy balance, albedo) and biogeochemical (e.g. bidirectional exchange of greenhouse gases or aerosol precursors) processes are known to affect today’s climate, and will need to be accounted for in studies of climate feedbacks in response to anthropogenic warming. However, observations that are needed to develop and evaluate terrestrial and climate models are still relatively scarce, especially for the Siberian part of the boreal forest. Here, we present a short overview of aerosol and greenhouse gas measurements over Siberia, aiming to also survey a large fraction of the existing literature in Russian. We aim to highlight areas of least data coverage and argue that, due to the importance of Siberia in the global climate system, a coordinated research program is needed to address some of the open research questions: The Pan Siberian Experiment.

Introduction

Siberia covers almost 10% of the Earth’s land area and subsumes a vast range of ecosystems, including deciduous and coniferous forests, various types of mires, steppe, tundra, arctic desert, abandoned croplands and cultivated croplands (Fig. 1). A major fraction of the world’s boreal forests is located in Siberia, making this area an important source of biogenic volatile organic compounds (Guenther et al. 1995, Rinne et al. 2009, Timkovsky et al. 2010) and natural aerosol particles (e.g. Tunved et al. 2006, Dal Maso et al. 2008). Western Siberian lowlands constitute the largest mire area in the world, which needs to be taken into account when investigating the global budgets of greenhouse gases (Friborg et al. 2003). The high Siberian Arctic land areas are surrounded by ice-covered oceans, and the area itself contains thick permafrost layers with carbon rich soils capable of very high CO₂ or CH₄ emissions if thawed. Discontinuous permafrost areas in Siberia are also very extensive.

The climate is very continental in central
Siberia and maritime in its eastern parts. Current and future warming associated with climate change is expected to cause dramatic environmental changes in Siberia (e.g. Diakonov and Romanova 2004, Kotlyakov 2007, Walker 2007, Rinke et al. 2008, Tunved et al. 2008, Bulygina et al. 2009, Swann et al. 2010). As part of this process, the budgets of greenhouse gases, as well as the emissions of reactive trace gases like volatile organic compounds and subsequent natural aerosol production, may be significantly affected over this region. Better understanding of these issues requires detailed information on how greenhouse gases, aerosols and aerosol precursor gases are connected with climate via physical, chemical, meteorological and biological processes occurring in the atmosphere and at the atmosphere–biosphere interface.

In spite of its importance in view of impacts of and feedbacks to changing climate, only a relatively small number of investigations on biogeochemical cycles have been performed across the Siberian area to date (Groisman and Soja 2009, Gordov and Vaganov 2010). In what follows we give a short overview of the recent results published in literature that link concentrations, fluxes and processes related to aerosols and greenhouse gases (particularly, carbon dioxide and methane) over this region. Based on this overview, we highlight some of the central open science questions related to Siberian ecosystem–climate interactions, including anthropogenic activities, and propose a pan Siberian experiment to address these questions.

Overview of Siberian observations

A large fraction of scientific literature on aerosol and gas research in Siberia has been documented in scientific articles written in Russian. An inquiry into its availability revealed that only a part of this literature is accessible on the Internet. Nevertheless, this literature, both in English and in Russian, is deemed sufficient for constructing a consistent image of scientific research conducted in Siberia.

Despite the large geographical and climatological expanse when considering the whole Siberia as a study area, the conducted research did not have a uniform geographic distribution, and was conducted mainly in the western Siberia (Fig. 2). There are several long-term measurement stations, towers and masts equipped with diverse instrumentation and providing information on multiple gas and particle parameters (Table 1); some of these are stations in Tomsk, Plotnikovo, Mukhrino and Vasyuganye. Various measurement campaigns utilizing both stationary and mobile platforms in most regions of Siberia have also contributed to increasing the spatial coverage (Tables 1 and 2). Measurements in Siberia have been conducted using both airborne and ground-based vehicles. Some of the measurements were conducted in remote areas (Zyryanov et al. 2008), but also areas subject to major anthropogenic influence were investigated (e.g. Arshinov et al. 2006b, Inisheva et al. 2007). It should be noted that while greenhouse gas measurements have mainly been conducted in background and remote areas, studies of aerosol and related gases have concentrated on urban centers. Measurement campaigns generally provided short-term data (few weeks to few years), with permanent stations being the main sources of long-term information. Gas and particle data collection has been carried out in Siberia since the early 1990s.

Aerosol measurements

Aerosol physical, chemical and optical properties

Aerosol number size distributions have been

Fig. 1. Ecoregions of Russia and Scandinavia.
measured in Siberia mainly with diffusion aerosol spectrometers (e.g. Julanov et al. 2002), differential mobility particle sizers and various optical counters. The first two types of instruments typically performed measurements of sizes of a few nm of particle mobility diameter and extended up to sizes of a few hundred of nm (Table 3). The applied optical counters covered typically the particle diameter range from a few hundred nm to a few micrometers (Table 3).

Siberian aerosol number size distributions display a modal structure, with one to three modes present between about 25 and a few hundred nm, and frequently a nucleation mode below 25 nm (Koutsenogii 1997, Arshinov and Belan 2000, Vartiainen et al. 2007, Heintzenberg et al. 2011). Some investigators also measured supermicron particles (Koutsenogii 1997), but there is very little information on the shape of the aerosol size distribution above a few hundred nm. The traditional Aitken (25–100 nm) and accumulation (100–1000 nm) modes can usually be separated at remote sites, but not necessarily at sites affected by local or nearby pollution sources. The average particle number size distributions tend to peak close to the diameter of 100 nm, even though the exact shape of the number size distribution varies between the individual cases (Vartiainen et al. 2007, Heintzenberg et al. 2011). At practically all sites, aerosol number concentrations seem to be dominated by particles smaller than 100 nm in diameter.

The average total particle number concentrations were observed to range from less than 1000 cm$^{-3}$ to about 5000 cm$^{-3}$ in remote Siberian sites (Dal Maso et al. 2008, Heintzenberg et al. 2011). At a given site, particle number concentrations vary by 1–2 orders of magnitude (5 to 95 percentile values), depending on the origin of measured air masses, season and the time of day. Overall, aerosol number concentrations at remote Siberian sites are comparable to those over the Scandinavian boreal forest (Dal Maso et al. 2007), but clearly higher than concentrations typical for remote marine areas or cleanest continental locations (Heintzenberg et al. 2000, Andreae 2007). At Siberian locations affected by pollution, total number concentrations were found to be larger, typically in the range of 1–5 × 10$^4$ cm$^{-3}$ (Vartiainen et al. 2007).

Compared with the data on aerosol number size distributions, much less information is available on the mass concentrations or chemical composition of Siberian aerosols. Kuokka et al. (2007) used a moving laboratory placed in a train traversing Siberia for chemical aerosol measurements. They found that the aerosol PM$_{2.5}$ mass concentrations varied between about 4 and 35 µg m$^{-3}$ with an average of 22 µg m$^{-3}$. The aerosol chemical composition was dominated by carbonaceous matter and sulfate, with minor components being ammonium, nitrate, some other inorganic ions and many trace elements. The presence of sulfate and nitrate in Siberian aerosols has been reported in a few other investigations as well, along with indications of crustal material, sea salt and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (Koutsenogii et al. 1996, 1998, Van Malderen et al. 1996, Koutsenogii 1997, Tolmachev 1999, Arshinov et al. 2002, Belan et
Table 1. Details of the selected measurement sites and campaigns in Siberia and the Russian Far East (see Fig. 1 for locations on a map and Table 2 for references) (* = not depicted on the map).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Site</th>
<th>Name, type</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Measured parameters</th>
<th>Time interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Base Experimental Complex (BEC) station, suburban</td>
<td>Tomsk, 56°29'N, 85°04'E, 170 m a.m.s.l.</td>
<td>aerosol, gas and meteo data</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>“Fonovyi” station, background</td>
<td>56°25’N, 84°04’E, 80 m a.m.s.l.</td>
<td>aerosol, gas and meteo data</td>
<td>from 2006 onwards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Listvyanka station, background, lakeshore</td>
<td>56°54’N, 104°54’E</td>
<td>aerosol data</td>
<td>from 1990 onwards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>mast, background</td>
<td>64°12’N, 100°27’E</td>
<td>CO₂, heat (EC), meteo data</td>
<td>from 1990 onwards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>mast, background</td>
<td>65°35’N, 171°00’W</td>
<td>CO₂, meteo data, radiation</td>
<td>from 2000 onwards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Mekhovina station, background</td>
<td>51°39’N, 100°55’E, 2005 m a.m.s.l.</td>
<td>aerosol, gas and meteo data</td>
<td>from 1996 onwards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Mukhrino station, background</td>
<td>60°38’N, 38°37’E</td>
<td>CO₂, CH₄, meteo data, radiation</td>
<td>from 2007 onwards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Mast, background, swamp</td>
<td>56°50’N, 82°51’E</td>
<td>CH₄, soil data</td>
<td>from 1993 onwards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Sayan Solar Observatory, background, mountainous</td>
<td>51°37’N, 100°55’E, 2005 m a.m.s.l.</td>
<td>aerosol and meteo data</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>station, background</td>
<td>60°45’N, 89°23’E</td>
<td>CO₂, meteo data, trunk respiration, profile measurements</td>
<td>meteo from 1930s onwards, gas and aerosol from 2010 onwards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Tiksi observatory, arctic</td>
<td>71°40’N, 128°40’E</td>
<td>aerosol, gas and meteo data</td>
<td>from 1998 onwards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>TOR station, urban</td>
<td>Tomsk, 56°29’N, 85°03’E</td>
<td>aerosol, gas and meteo data, surface albedo</td>
<td>from 1992 onwards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Vasyuganye station, background</td>
<td>56°57’N, 82°30’E</td>
<td>CO₂</td>
<td>from 1996 onwards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>ZOTTO tower, background, boreal</td>
<td>60°48’N, 89°21’E</td>
<td>aerosol and meteo data</td>
<td>from 2006 onwards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>campaign, floodplain</td>
<td>63°15’N, 73°25’E and 60°59’N, 69°34’E</td>
<td>CH₄ flux</td>
<td>August 2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>campaign</td>
<td>67°46’N, 79°02’E</td>
<td>CH₄ flux, soil data</td>
<td>August and December 2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>campaign</td>
<td>56°03’–56°37’N, 82°22’–82°42’N</td>
<td>CO₂ flux, meteo data</td>
<td>1998–1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>campaign (aircraft)</td>
<td>Novosibirsk (54°08’–54°33’N, 81°51’–82°40’N)</td>
<td>aerosol and gas data</td>
<td>1999–2008 (monthly)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>campaign (truck and aircraft)</td>
<td>Norilsk (68°25’–71°00’N, 84°00’–90°00’N)</td>
<td>aerosol, gas and meteo data</td>
<td>November 2002 and August 2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>campaign (truck)</td>
<td>Irkutsk, Angarsk, Usoi’ye-Sibirske, Tulun, Nizhneudinsk, Taishet, Kansk, Krasnoyarsk, Achinsk</td>
<td>aerosol, gas and meteo data</td>
<td>February 2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>campaign (truck)</td>
<td>Novosibirsk, 55°11’N, 82°56’E</td>
<td>aerosol, gas and meteo data</td>
<td>March and July 2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>TROICA-9 expedition, campaign (train)</td>
<td>Moscow to Vladivostok</td>
<td>aerosol, gas and meteo data</td>
<td>October 2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Site Name</td>
<td>Type</td>
<td>Location</td>
<td>Measured Parameters</td>
</tr>
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<td>-----</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>YAK-AEROSIB, campaign (aircraft)</td>
<td>Boreal env. res. vol. 16</td>
<td>Novosibirsk ↔ Yakutsk</td>
<td>Aerosol and gas data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>campaign, larch forest</td>
<td>Boreal env. res. vol. 16</td>
<td>62°15′N, 129°37′E, 220 m a.m.s.l.</td>
<td>CO₂ flux</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>campaign, steppe</td>
<td>Boreal env. res. vol. 16</td>
<td>54°45′N, 90°00′E</td>
<td>CO₂ flux</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>campaign, tundra</td>
<td>Boreal env. res. vol. 16</td>
<td>70°50′N, 147°30′E, 10 m a.m.s.l.</td>
<td>CO₂, CH₄ flux</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>campaign, tundra</td>
<td>Boreal env. res. vol. 16</td>
<td>68°37′N, 161°20′E</td>
<td>CO₂, CH₄ flux</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>campaign, mire</td>
<td>Boreal env. res. vol. 16</td>
<td>61°56′N, 56°13′E</td>
<td>CH₄ flux</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>campaign, tundra wetland</td>
<td>Boreal env. res. vol. 16</td>
<td>67°23′N, 63°22′E</td>
<td>CO₂, CH₄ flux</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>campaign, steppe</td>
<td>Boreal env. res. vol. 16</td>
<td>53°44′N 77°54′E</td>
<td>Aerosol data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>campaign, tundra</td>
<td>Boreal env. res. vol. 16</td>
<td>65°52′N, 74°58′E</td>
<td>CO₂, CH₄ flux</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34*</td>
<td>campaign (aircraft)</td>
<td>Boreal env. res. vol. 16</td>
<td>Tomsk (approx. 56°30′N, 86°00′E)</td>
<td>Aerosol data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35*</td>
<td>campaign (aircraft)</td>
<td>Boreal env. res. vol. 16</td>
<td>78°N, 85°E; 81°N, 124°E; 60°N, 88°E; 69°N, 87°E; 74°N, 65°E</td>
<td>Aerosol data</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Aerosol spatial and temporal variability and sources**

Based on aircraft measurements, total aerosol number concentrations have usually been observed to decrease gradually with increasing altitude, aerosol scattering and absorption coefficients at the ZOTTO facility showed slighter higher values in the mid to lower troposphere. Long-term measurements at the ZOTTO facility showed that aerosol scattering coefficients observed in the Siberian region were highest in spring or summer and decreased gradually toward winter. Similar seasonal variation was also reported by Plakhina et al. (2007), although they also stated that this trend vanished in regions of low AOD. The same trend was also reported by Heinzenberg et al. (2011) on the ZOTTO (Zotino Tall Tower Facility) tower in central Siberia. Long-term trend measurements at the ZOTTO facility showed that aerosol absorption coefficients were highest in the autumn and decreased gradually toward winter, similar to the AOD. The same study estimated that, in general, AOD shows a gradually decreasing trend in the west to east direction. Aerosol optical properties have been reported for the aerosol in the Siberian region and found higher averaged values in winter than in summer, congruent with near-surface observations made during aircraft campaigns in the Novosibirsk region. The aerosol optical depth (AOD) was observed to vary depending on the measurement site, with the highest values reported at the ZOTTO (Zotino Tall Tower Facility) tower in central Siberia. Long-term trend measurements at the ZOTTO facility showed that aerosol absorption coefficients were highest in the autumn and decreased gradually toward winter. Similar seasonal variation was also reported by Heinzenberg et al. (2011) on the ZOTTO (Zotino Tall Tower Facility) tower in central Siberia. Long-term trend measurements at the ZOTTO facility showed that aerosol absorption coefficients were highest in spring or summer and decreased gradually toward winter.
suggest some seasonal differences (Panchenko et al. 1996, Kozlov et al. 2009). The campaign-type measurements in summer with airborne lidar show a spatial decrease in surface aerosol scattering coefficient towards the north, while the scattering at higher altitudes is deduced to largely depend on the atmospheric stratification (Khattatov et al. 1997). No clear picture about the latitudinal or longitudinal distribution of aerosol concentration over Siberia can be obtained based on available measurements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Site</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Arshinov et al. 2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Arshinov et al. 2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Dal Maso et al. 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Zryanyan et al. 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Zamolodchikov et al. 2005</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Yermakov et al. 2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Glagolev et al. 2010a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Glagolev and Smagin 2006, Arshinov et al. 2006f, Glagolev et al. 2010a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Golobokova et al. 2006</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Vaganov et al. 2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Asmi et al. 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Golovatskaya and Dyukarev 2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Heinzenberg et al. 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Glagolev and Suzorov 2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Glagolev et al. 2010a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Inisheva 2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Arshinov et al. 2006cde, Arshinova et al. 2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Belan et al. 2005a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Belan et al. 2005b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Inisheva et al. 2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Kuokka et al. 2007, Vartiainen et al. 2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Paris et al. 2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Dolman et al. 2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Belelli Marchesini et al. 2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>van Huissteden et al. 2005, van der Molen et al. 2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Kutzbach et al. 2007, Wille et al. 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Gažovič et al. 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Heikkinen et al. 2002, Heikkinen et al. 2004</td>
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<td>32</td>
<td>van Malderen et al. 1996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Naumov et al. 2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>Panchenko et al. 1996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>Khattatov et al. 1997</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. References for corresponding stations and campaigns in Table 1 (* = not depicted on the map).

Total aerosol number concentrations have usually been observed to be higher in summer than in winter (Heintzenberg et al. 2011), even though seasonal changes in particle number concentrations may be different between the boundary layer and the free troposphere (Paris et al. 2009). Contrary to this, quantities proportional to the aerosol mass or volume concentrations have been found to display a winter maximum (Panchenko et al. 1996, Koutsenogii, 1997, Kozlov et al. 2009, Heintzenberg et al. 2011). Besides the seasonal variability, some studies have reported a clear diurnal cycle for aerosol number concentrations. However, a few trend estimates are available for particles larger than about 400 nm in diameter, as well as for some chemical compounds (Belan and Tolmachev 1996, Arshinov et al. 2002).

Differences in the temporal variability between the aerosol number concentrations and mass-related quantities are indicative of the variability of the sources, or sinks, affecting particles of different sizes. Identified natural aerosol sources in Siberia include mineral dust and sea salt (Tolmachev 1999, Belan et al. 2001), primary biogenic particles (Matthias-Maser et al. 2000, Borodulin et al. 2005), and atmospheric new particle formation discussed in more detail in the next subsection.

An important anthropogenic source of Siberian aerosols, identified in several studies, is biomass burning (Soja et al. 2004, Kuokka et al. 2007, Kozlov et al. 2008, Vivchar et al. 2010, Heintzenberg et al. 2011). Siberian biomass burning is of particular international interest due to its suggested significant impacts on the arctic climate (e.g. Stohl 2006, Warneke et al. 2010). Yet, the estimates of the source strength of particulate matter and its chemical content by this burning present a large spread of values (Conard et al. 2002, Soja et al. 2004, Samsonov et al. 2005, McRae et al. 2006, Kozlov et al. 2008). A major fraction of this biomass burning comes from frequent forest fires and agricultural fires taking place in spring and summer (e.g. Sukhinin et al. 2004, Korontzi et al. 2006),
Table 3. Gas and aerosol instrumentation at three selected stations (refer to Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Unit of measurement</th>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Error (%)</th>
<th>Comments</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CO₂</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>L-061-2</td>
<td>0.0001–0.2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>differential absorption in the IR</td>
<td>TOR-Station</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO₂</td>
<td>ppm</td>
<td>L-061-02 (GMM222)</td>
<td>0–10000</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td>“Fonovyi”, BEC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO</td>
<td>mg m⁻³</td>
<td>L-061-2</td>
<td>0.1–200</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>electrochemical sensor</td>
<td>TOR-Station</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO</td>
<td>mg m⁻³</td>
<td>K-100</td>
<td>0–400</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td>“Fonovyi”, BEC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O₃</td>
<td>µg m⁻³</td>
<td>3-02P</td>
<td>0–1000</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>chemiluminescence</td>
<td>TOR-Station, “Fonovyi”, BEC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO₂</td>
<td>µg m⁻³</td>
<td>P-310-11 and P310-A</td>
<td>0–1000</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>chemiluminescence</td>
<td>TOR-Station, “Fonovyi”, BEC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>µg m⁻³</td>
<td>P-310-11 and P310-A</td>
<td>0–1000</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>chemiluminescence</td>
<td>TOR-Station, “Fonovyi”, BEC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₂S</td>
<td>µg m⁻³</td>
<td>SV-320</td>
<td>0–200</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td>BEC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NH₃</td>
<td>µg m⁻³</td>
<td>N-320</td>
<td>0–1000</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td>BEC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SO₂</td>
<td>µg m⁻³</td>
<td>C310</td>
<td>0–2000</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td>“Fonovyi”, BEC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N(r)</td>
<td>cm⁻³</td>
<td>photoelectrical particle counter A3-5</td>
<td>1–300</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.2 µm &lt; r ≤ 10 µm; 12 channels in the 0.2 µm &lt; r ≤ 5 µm range</td>
<td>TOR-Station</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N(r)</td>
<td>cm⁻³</td>
<td>diffusional aerosol spectrometer DAS</td>
<td>1–10000</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.003 µm ≤ r ≤ 0.2 µm; 15 channels in the 0.008 µm ≤ r ≤ 0.2 µm range</td>
<td>TOR-Station, BEC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>cm⁻³</td>
<td>Aerosolmeter, GRIMM 1108</td>
<td>0–300</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td>“Fonovyi”, BEC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>α (0.55 µm)</td>
<td>km⁻¹</td>
<td>photoelectrical nephelometer FAN</td>
<td>0.001–1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>TOR-Station</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
whereas in winter domestic heating may be important. Indicative of anthropogenic combustion sources, elevated number concentrations of Aitken and accumulation mode particles have been observed to correlate with gaseous nitrogen oxide, carbon monoxide and sulfur dioxide concentrations in Siberia (Vartiainen et al. 2007). Moreover, some studies reported the evidence of long-range transported anthropogenic particles of Siberian aerosols with suggested origin in industrial regions of north Kazakhstan and former Soviet Union (Van Malderen et al. 1996, Koutsenogii et al. 1998). Van Malderen et al. (1996) stated that these particles have potential to be further transported and deposited in the Arctic, which was also supported by the recent modelling studies (e.g. Stohl 2006). Similarly, analyses of air mass transport patterns have shown that the lowest particle number and mass concentration are usually observed in the Arctic air masses originating from northern Siberia or the Arctic Ocean, whereas most polluted air masses can be traced to industrial regions in Russia, Kazakhstan and even China (Kuokka et al. 2007, Heintzenberg et al. 2011).

New-particle formation over Siberia

Atmospheric new-particle formation taking place in Siberia is of high interest because the region encompasses a major fraction of the whole boreal forest area. Studies conducted in the Scandinavian part of the area suggest that new-particle formation associated with boreal forest emissions is a frequent phenomenon, being the dominant source of the particles in terms of their number concentration during the summer part of the year (Tunved et al. 2006, Dal Maso et al. 2007). If the same applies to the whole boreal forest zone, natural emissions from boreal forests might induce regionally significant indirect radiative effects (Kurtén et al. 2003, Spracklen et al. 2008, Tunved et al. 2008, Lihtavainen et al. 2009).

While indications of atmospheric new-particle formation have been reported in several studies conducted in Siberia (Bashurova et al. 1992, Koutsenogii and Jaenicke 1994, Arshinov and Belan 2000, Vartiainen et al. 2007, Heintzenberg et al. 2011), including the free troposphere (Arshinov and Belan 2004, Paris et al. 2009), systematic investigations of this phenomenon are very limited in this region. Dal Maso et al. (2008) analysed year-long measurement data sets from two Siberian locations and found that new-particle formation events took place in roughly 10% of the days. Such event frequency is clearly lower than that observed over Scandinavian boreal forests (Dal Maso et al. 2007, Kristensson et al. 2008) or in most other European sites with long-term measurements (Manninen et al. 2010). Dal Maso et al. (2008) reported that new-particle formation events are most common in the spring, but it must be noted that the available measurement data are insufficient for drawing firm conclusions about the seasonal behavior of Siberian new-particle formation.

Consistent with measurements made elsewhere within continental boundary layers (Kulmala et al. 2004, Kerminen et al. 2010), new-particle formation over Siberia seems to be photochemically driven (Arshinov and Belan 2000, Arshinov et al. 2006a, Dal Maso et al. 2008). The formation rates of new particles have been estimated in a few studies as well. Earlier studies reported relatively low new-particle formation rates (Arshinov and Belan 2000, 2004), whereas later investigations obtained rates on the order of 0.4–0.5 cm$^{-3}$ s$^{-1}$ (Arshinov et al. 2006a, Dal Maso et al. 2008). The same studies estimated the growth rates of a few nm hour$^{-1}$ for newly-formed particles. Both the new-particle formation and growth rates observed in Siberia are comparable to those found in Scandinavian boreal forests (Dal Maso et al. 2007, Kristensson et al. 2008). This indicates that atmospheric new-particle formation taking place over Siberia has clearly potential to influence the regional aerosol population and, thereby, the whole climate system.

Greenhouse gas measurements

Greenhouse gas (here, mainly carbon dioxide and methane) measurements have been conducted over Siberia at different levels of temporal and spatial integration. The smallest of the spatial scales addressed, a few dm$^2$, are studied
via flux measurements using chambers (Christensen et al. 1998, Zamolodchikov and Karelin 2001). This method was used, for example, to study the effect of temperature, water table depth and plant community variations on CO$_2$ and CH$_4$ exchange in boreal mires (Naumov et al. 1994, Shibistova et al. 2002, Riutta et al. 2007). The micrometeorological eddy covariance method is a nonintrusive way of measuring the net gas balance at the ecosystem level, on an area typically including several hectares (Baldocchi 2003). In case of CO$_2$, flux measurements can in principle be applied as a year-round operation since the sensors are sufficiently robust to allow for the necessary automation. By using a chamber technique on leaves and branches, it is straightforward to measure net photosynthesis rates during the day and total respiration (Res$_{tot}$) by darkening the chamber, or by measuring at night. Chambers used to enclose soil and understory measure during the day the net exchange of carbon, which is the sum of Gross Primary Production (GPP) and Res$_{tot}$, and solely Res$_{tot}$ at night (which is the sum of autotrophic and heterotrophic respiration). Similarly, on an ecosystem scale integrative measurement techniques, such as micrometeorological method, observe the net flux between GPP and Res$_{tot}$, called Net Ecosystem Exchange (NEE), directly integrated over few hectares. If one is interested in the component fluxes GPP and Res$_{tot}$, they have to be estimated indirectly (Reichstein et al. 2005). If one uses a chamber method and would like to know NEE, simple response modeling and temporal extrapolation are usually involved. Furthermore, if spatially averaged information, for example to ecosystem scale, is estimated from chamber data, spatial extrapolation methods are needed. Long-term eddy-covariance sites have been organized globally under FLUXNET (Baldocchi et al. 2001), which has regional networks such as EUROFLUX (Reichstein et al. 2007) and ASIAFLUX (Kato and Tang 2008).

The Global Atmospheric Watch (GAW) programme of the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) coordinates observations of atmospheric trace gas concentrations at a global network of stations (http://gaw.empa.ch/gawxisis/). GAW aims at providing reliable scientific data on the chemical composition of the atmosphere and its natural and anthropogenic change focusing on global networks for GHGs, ozone, UV, aerosols, selected reactive gases, and precipitation chemistry. From Russia, CO$_2$ and CH$_4$ concentrations from flask samples collected in Teriberka, Kola Peninsula, have been reported to the GAW database (http://gaw.kishou.go.jp/wdegg/) (Paramonova et al. 2001). The GAW main site nearest to Russia is at Pallas, in northern Finland (Aalto et al. 2007), which has been in operation since 1996. Recently, high-quality GHG monitoring was conducted at a tall tower site in central Siberia (Kozlova et al. 2008). The most utilized global standardized data source is the co-operative flask sampling network maintained by the U.S. National Oceanic & Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Earth System Research Laboratory (ESRL) Carbon Cycle Greenhouse Gases (CCGG) group (http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/index.html), which aims to document the spatial and temporal distributions of carbon-cycle gases and provide essential constraints to our understanding of the global carbon cycle. Air samples are collected approximately weekly from a globally distributed network of sites and analyzed in Boulder by CCGG. From Russia, air samples collected in Obninsk, 100 km SW from Moscow, are analyzed within this network. In 2011 (or 2012), the NOAA co-operative flask sampling network is starting a new site in Tiksi on the coast of the Laptev Sea. These data give area-averaged information about daily, seasonal and annually changing atmospheric burdens, but cannot be used to infer exchange fluxes.

On the landscape level, spatial variations of greenhouse gas concentrations have been measured by aircraft (Paris et al. 2008). Aircraft platforms can also be used to infer vertical GHG fluxes, by equipping the aircraft with fast response turbulence instrumentation (Desjardins et al. 1994). Otherwise, landscape level uptake and emissions have to be calculated from concentration profiles combined by budgeting methods such as the CBL method (Lloyd et al. 2001), or by calculating land–atmosphere fluxes from a network of vertical concentration profiles analyzed together with wind fields (Crevoisier et al. 2010). Vertical profiles have been used also to verify and improve large-scale inversion model results (Stephens et al. 2007). Data from aircraft plat-
forms have the advantage of spatial integration, but become expensive especially if used for long-term monitoring. The total column GHG burden has also been measured by ground-based Fourier Transform Spectrometers using detailed spectral information on absorbed solar radiation (Geibel et al. 2010). The column observations will be used in regional and global carbon cycle models and satellite validation. Globally this network is organized as Total Column Carbon Observation Network (http://www.tccon.caltech.edu/).

In summary, flux measurements usually are relatively small in terms of their spatial coverage from soil or leaf chambers to flux towers. Based on these types of measurements, annual balances have been estimated by extrapolating observations at a number of specific ecosystems to country scale using land use information (for methane, see e.g. Glagolev et al. 2010b). Carbon storages and fluxes have been estimated from biomass and soil carbon inventories (e.g. Kurganova et al. 2010). Top-down methods use atmospheric concentration data and dispersion models to estimate emissions. Reshetnikov et al. (2009) used this method to estimate methane emissions from western Siberian gas fields. Large scale emission fields have been produced from atmospheric concentration data by inversion models, which optimize a-priori flux intensity maps using atmospheric gas concentrations observations to reach optimized spatial flux intensity fields (Gurney et al. 2002). The large-scale top-down estimates were used to develop bottom-up carbon accounting estimates and their uncertainties (Gusti and Jonas 2010).

Soil and leaf enclosure measurements of CO₂

The traditional way of making gas exchange measurements is the chamber method, which has been used in many studies in the western Siberian lowlands. The measurements of carbonaceous greenhouse gases in west Siberia were started in early 1990s in the Tomsk district, in the area where the Great Vasyugan Bog is located, the largest peatland system in the world (53 000 km²). From the beginning, the station near the Plotnikovo village at the Bakhcharsky mire has been the main measurement site (Naumov et al. 1994, Panikov et al. 1995). The CO₂ emission rates in Vasyugan peatland were investigated by Inisheva and Golovatskaya (2002). During the growing season, highest variations of the CO₂ emissions were in high bog forest and lowest in the open sedge–spaghnum site. Cumulative emissions of CO₂ throughout the vegetative period of 1999 were 80 g(C) m⁻² at low and high forest bog areas in the lower rim of the bog. In the raised center of the bog, cumulative CO₂ emissions were 60 and 66 g(C) m⁻² in the sparsely forested and open sedge–spaghnum microsites, respectively. Golovatskaya et al. (2008) found positive correlation between temperature and negative correlation between water table height and CO₂ emissions. Golovatskaya and Dyukarev (2009) presented the results of a long-term (1999–2007) investigation of vegetation productivity and CO₂ emissions from the surface of an oligotrophic mire. The studied ecosystems include pine–shrub–spaghnum (PSS) community, a similar community with a low tree stand (LPSS), and sedge–spaghnum fen (SSF). Field measurements of NPP and CO₂ emissions in combination with reference data on methane emissions, winter CO₂ and CH₄ emissions and carbon export by river run-off were used to develop an overall carbon budget of the mire ecosystems. The studied mire ecosystems were found to be net sinks for atmospheric carbon and to accumulate peat. Rates of the actual modern annual carbon accumulation were equal to 21, 112 and 102 g(C) m⁻² for PSS, LPSS and SSF communities, respectively.

Studies in the central part of the western Siberia, the Khanty-Mansiysk district, have been recently centered around the Mukhrino research station. Summer average CO₂ soil respiration ranged between 5.6 to 11 g(CO₂) m⁻² d⁻¹ at different mire microsites in fen and pine bog ecosystems (Naumov et al. 2007). In the northern part of the western Siberia, forest measurements in the tundra subzone with a discontinuous permafrost layer near Pangody showed that summer average CO₂ emissions were 5.4 and 4.6 g(CO₂) m⁻² d⁻¹ in frozen palsa and oligotrophic hollow, respectively (Naumov et al. 2007).

A large number of GPP and Respₐ measurements were conducted by transparent and opaque chambers in several locations spanning
the Siberian Arctic region (Zamolodchikov and Karelin 2001). GPP and Resp$_{tot}$ were modelled using biomass and environmental data. Together with landuse and environmental information from Russian tundra, total carbon balances were calculated. The annual GPP of Russian tundra zone for the area of 2350 000 km$^2$ was estimated at $-485.8$ Tg(C) and Resp$_{tot}$ at 474.2 Tg(C), resulting in a small net sink of $-11.6$ Tg(C) (Zamolodchikov and Karelin 2001).

**Micrometeorological CO$_2$ and CH$_4$ flux measurements**

The state-of-the-art method for obtaining the understanding of ecosystem CO$_2$ or CH$_4$ exchanges is the eddy covariance technique (Bal-docchi et al. 1988, Aubinet et al. 2000). It is a non-destructive micrometeorological technique that does not affect environmental conditions such as light distribution, temperature, CO$_2$ and H$_2$O concentrations and turbulence. Based on eddy flux measurements, various aspects of gas exchange related to e.g. photosynthesis, respiration, soil processes, seasonal cycles and measurement methods have been studied. In this review, we try to present those studies which aim at seasonal or annual balances of CO$_2$ and CH$_4$ exchange.

Within the EuroSiberian Carbonflux Project intensive measurements were conducted in central Siberia close to Zotino, as well as in European Russia forest and mire ecosystems. These sites lie outside the permafrost region. Lloyd et al. (2002) presented a study of the old pine forest on sandy soil in Zotino (see also Valentini et al. 2000 for summer measurements in the same region). The forest was a substantial annual sink for CO$_2$, around 160 g(C) m$^{-2}$. Flux measurements in three forests, a deciduous birch-dominated, a coniferous spruce-dominated and a mixed forest growing on Cambisol soils near Zotino, were described by Röser et al. (2002). Measured uptake for the growing season was 250 g(C) m$^{-2}$ in the Betula stand, 100 g(C) m$^{-2}$ in the mixed boreal forest, and 270 g(C) m$^{-2}$ in the Abies stand. Interestingly, there was an upland spruce site and another one located on organic soil (60 cm peat layer) where the water-table level was often close to the surface. The upland spruce site was an annual sink of carbon from the atmosphere (144 g(C) m$^{-2}$), while the organic soil site was a source of carbon (200 g(C) m$^{-2}$).

Measurements of ecosystem CO$_2$ and H$_2$O fluxes and associated climatic variables were conducted over three growing seasons at two bogs: Fyodorovskoye located in European Russia, and Zotino in central Siberia (Arneth et al. 2002). In Zotino, the inter-annual variability in climate, and also in the CO$_2$ balance during the snow-free period, was small. Arneth et al. (2002) estimated that the annual sink during two years in Zotino bog was 22 and 36 g(C) m$^{-2}$. At Fyodorovskoye, summer climate was more variable. During the year which was below-average dry, the mire was a source of CO$_2$ to the atmosphere, roughly 50 g(C) m$^{-2}$. During a climatologically normal year, the bog was a sink of CO$_2$.

The first micrometeorological CO$_2$ flux measurements in the permafrost region of Sakha (Yakutia) were done in 1993 (Hollinger et al. 1995, Arneth et al. 1996, Kelliher et al. 1997). In the same area, Dolman et al. (2004) measured CO$_2$ fluxes at a Siberian larch (Larix cajanderii) site. They estimated that annual carbon sink was 160 g(C) m$^{-2}$ in 2001. Zyryanov et al. (2008) studied effects of microclimate on CO$_2$ exchange at a larch (Larix gmellini) site in Evenkia. They estimated that the forest was a carbon sink during the growing season.

Belelli Marchesini et al. (2007) measured CO$_2$ fluxes of natural graminoid small-tussock steppe in the Iyus-Shira region of the Republic of Hakasia. According to micrometeorological measurements, a sink of carbon of 150 g(C) m$^{-2}$ accumulated during the growing season from May to September.

The landscape at tundra locations often consists of microsites of bare soil, vegetated dryer areas and moist vegetated depressions, where methane production may occur in organic soil.

Carbon dioxide and methane fluxes were measured at a tundra site near Chokurdakh, in the lowlands of the Indigirka river in north-east Siberia (van der Molen et al. 2007). As compared with those at other tundra sites, net carbon dioxide fluxes were high having an annual sink of 92 g(C) m$^{-2}$.

Kutzbach et al. (2007) investigated the flux of CO$_2$ between wet arctic polygonal tundra
the atmosphere by the micrometeorological eddy covariance method in the centre of the Lena River Delta in northern Siberia. They observed a substantial CO$_2$ sink of 32 g(C) m$^{-2}$ over the summer and an estimated annual net ecosystem CO$_2$ sink of 19 g(C) m$^{-2}$.

Carbon dioxide, energy flux measurements and methane chamber measurements were carried out in an Arctic wet tussock grassland located on a flood plane of the Kolyma river in NE Siberia over a summer period of 155 days (Corradi et al. 2005). The cumulative annual net carbon flux from the atmosphere to the terrestrial surface was estimated to be about 38 g(C) m$^{-2}$. During the next year the site was a small source of CO$_2$ to the atmosphere (Merbold et al. 2009). The site was artificially drained by lowering the water table depth by 5–30 cm during the growing season. This resulted in a growing season CO$_2$ balance of close to zero (Merbold et al. 2009).

In Tiksi, close to the Laptev Sea in northern Sakha, we started measuring CO$_2$ fluxes in summer 2010 on tundra surface where there are moist methane-emitting depressions present (Laurila et al. 2010).

Micrometeorological fluxes of CO$_2$ were measured in late July–September in 2000–2002 in the vicinity of the settlement of Lavrentiya, Chukchi Peninsula (Zamolodchikov et al. 2003). The tundra ecosystem under examination was characterized by the well-pronounced cryogenic microrelief, represented by the hummocks and small depressions between them. The dominating vegetation was an assortment of shrubs, weeds and mosses. During 23 July–30 September, the tundra was a carbon sink of 26, 42, 47 g(C) m$^{-2}$ in the years of 2000, 2001 and 2002, respectively (Zamolodchikov et al. 2005). Mean air temperature explained the interannual variation.

Wetland methane emissions

In anaerobic soils, methane is produced by the degradation of organic matter. The emission factors have been traditionally measured by chambers. Similar to CO$_2$, micrometeorological methods are a powerful tool to make seasonal methane emission measurements, which are emerging from Russia as well. Sachs et al. (2010) compared chamber and micrometeorological measurements in the wet polygonal tundra in the Lena river delta. They reported that methane emissions responses to the main environmental parameters, water table depth and near-surface turbulence, depended critically on the measurement method. They call for nonintrusive methods to obtain unbiased results.

Wille et al. (2008) reported extended growing season measurements from the Lena river delta site. The surface is characterized by wet polygonal tundra, with a micro-relief consisting of raised, moderately dry sites, depressed wet sites, polygonal ponds, and lakes. The annual CH$_4$ emission measured by the micrometeorological method was estimated to be 2.4 g(C) m$^{-2}$.

In addition to CO$_2$ fluxes by micrometeorological technique, CH$_4$ emissions were measured by the chamber method in the Indigirka lowlands in Sakha Republic (van Huissteden et al. 2005). Methane fluxes from arctic tundra soils on a river terrace and floodplain in northeastern Siberia showed a high spatial variability. The CH$_4$ fluxes on the river terrace compare well with fluxes reported in other studies on tundra CH$_4$ fluxes. The average CH$_4$ flux was 4.3 mg m$^{-2}$ h$^{-1}$, and the average flux for wet microsites was 7.2 mg m$^{-2}$ h$^{-1}$ and for dry microsites 0.18 mg m$^{-2}$ h$^{-1}$, with negative fluxes occurring locally. The fluxes from floodplain sites were considerably higher, with an average flux of 12.5 mg m$^{-2}$ h$^{-1}$, an average for wet microsites of 23.4 mg m$^{-2}$ h$^{-1}$, and an average for dry microsites of 1.6 mg m$^{-2}$ h$^{-1}$. On average, annual methane emission was estimated at 3.1 g(C) m$^{-2}$ (van der Molen et al. 2007).

Merbold et al. (2009) reported multiannual emissions from the highly productive site (Corradi et al. 2005) close to Cherskii in Sakha Republic. During three growing seasons, methane emission varied between 20 and 24 g(C) m$^{-2}$. After the experimental water table went down in the fourth year, methane emissions were close to zero.

Western Siberian lowlands constitute the most extensive wetland area in the world. Mires deeper than 0.5 m cover an area of 690 000 km$^2$ (Romanova et al. 1977). Several Russian studies were conducted in the western Siberian lowlands. Methane emissions were measured either by static chambers or by solving it from
concentration profile in the peat (e.g. Glagolev and Shnyrev 2007, Glagolev et al. 2008). Methane emissions from natural mires in the middle and southern taiga zones of Tomsk oblast were studied in the summer and autumn of 2006 (Glagolev and Shnyrev 2008). Methane fluxes (mg(C) m⁻² h⁻¹) from different types of mires and different microelements of the surface topography were characterized by the following median values: 0.67 for a forested bog; 4.06 and 2.67 for hollows and elevations (hummocks) of an open (nonforested) mire, respectively; and 0.74 and 2.13 for hollows and ridges of a ridged bog, respectively.

Methane emission measurements in Khanty-Mansiysk district were conducted by Glagolev and Suvorov (2007). Naumov et al. (2007) measured summer average emissions of 5.6, 3.8 and 0.5 mg(C) m⁻² h⁻¹ from hollow, fen and ryam, respectively. Glagolev et al. (2008) made reference to measurements made in Noyabrsk in summer 1999, where the mean CH₄ emission from peat was 0.57 mg(C) m⁻² h⁻¹. In the tundra subzone with a discontinuous permafrost layer near Pangody, the summer average CH₄ emissions were 0.25 and 1.2 mg(C) m⁻² h⁻¹, in frozen palsa and oligotrophic hollow, respectively (Naumov et al. 2007).

CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes were measured from three small wetland lakes located in the middle taiga and forest tundra zones on West Siberian Lowlands (Repo et al. 2007). CH₄ ebullition was detected in two of the lakes. Total carbon evasion from the studied lakes during the active season was 23–66 g(C) m⁻², of which more than 90% was released as CO₂(C).

Glagolev et al. (2010b) calculated CH₄ emissions from mires of western Siberia by first compiling CH₄ emission factors for the various microsites in mires classified according to their nutrient status for different ecoregions and then combining the emission factors with land use information. This analysis gave total annual CH₄ emission from western Siberia to be 5.2 Mt(C).

Different ecosystems have specific net balances of greenhouse gases. Wetlands are characterized by methane emissions and, in stable conditions, net CO₂ uptake. Uplands are long-term net CO₂ sinks, but may lose large amounts of carbon during a disturbance event such as a forest fire. Climate change and direct human interventions perturb the long-term balance, which have prevailed during the past millennia. The environmental changes will be different in upland and wetland ecosystems and in the continuous and non-permafrost regions. The most visible changes will possible take place in the border zone where permafrost landscape elements disappear totally. The net GHG measurements by the micrometeorological method should span the dominant ecosystems and ecoregions in Siberia. More flux sites are needed especially in the intermittent permafrost zone, where hydrological and biological changes will be remarkable.

Atmospheric concentration measurements

The Voeikov Main Geophysical Observatory has monitored GHG concentrations in the Arctic since 1980s as part of the Global Atmosphere Watch programme of the World Meteorological Organization (WMO). Flask samples have been collected from Teriberka (69°12’N, 35°06’E) in the Kola Peninsula on the shore of Barents Sea and CO₂ has been analyzed since 1988 and CH₄ since 1999 (Paramonova et al. 2001). The data were submitted to the WMO World Data Centre for Greenhouse Gases (http://gaw.kishou.go.jp/wdcgg/). They have also reported to the WMO data centre a multiyear 1986–1993 dataset of CO₂ concentrations from Kotelny island (76°00’N, 137°50’E) in the Laptev Sea. Since 2003, CO₂ and CH₄ have been regularly analyzed from samples collected in Novyi Port in the north of the western Siberian lowlands. Zinchenko et al. (2008) and Reshetnikov et al. (2009) used these data together with additional measurements to estimate CH₄ emissions from natural gas production. Previously, Jagovkina et al. (2001) estimated that anthropogenic emissions in the summer are only about 10% of total wetland emissions in the area.

A measurement network was established in western Siberia within a Japan–Russia Siberian Tall Tower Inland Observation Network (Arshinov et al. 2009). The network consists of nine towers in steppe, taiga and extensive wetland environments. The top measurement heights vary between 43 and 85 m. CH₄ is measured by
a semiconductor sensor and CO₂ is measured by a non-dispersive infrared analyzer. According to Sasakawa et al. (2010), the main source of CH₄ concentration variations are wetlands in summer and fossil fuel emissions in winter.

Kozlova et al. (2008) described a tall (300 m) tower for CO₂, CO, CH₄ and O₂ concentration measurements at Zotino, in the boreal forest of central Siberia. Kozlova et al. (2008) quantified the oceanic component of the O₂ seasonal amplitude in this highly continental site. They also observed relatively high surface CO₂ emissions even during very cold season. More recently, a new low-maintenance system was set up (Winderlich et al. 2010). The data showed strong diurnal variations of CO₂ and CH₄ concentrations in the deep continental surface layer.

A series of continental scale snapshots of greenhouse, trace gas and aerosol concentrations were obtained using a laboratory wagon traveling along the Trans-Siberian railroad within the framework of the Trans-Siberian Observations Into the Chemistry of the Atmosphere (TROICA) project (Crutzen et al. 1998, Belikov et al. 2006, Kuokka et al. 2007, Tarasova et al. 2006, Vartiainen et al. 2007, Berezina and Elansky 2009, Elansky et al. 2007, Tarasova et al. 2009, Turnbull et al. 2009). During the midsummer, TROICA5 expedition found highest CH₄ emissions from wetlands in the western Siberian region (Oberlander et al. 2002). Outside urban areas, sources of elevated CH₄ concentrations were mire, forest fires and coal mining. Correlations between ²²²Rn and CO₂ concentrations showed that highest soil respiration rates were in the Far East, where climate was warm and dry (Oberlander et al. 2002).

A network of atmospheric concentration observations around Siberia is needed for inversion estimates of GHG balances of Siberia. At least two sites should be located near the coast of the Arctic Sea, one in the eastern and one in the western part of the Siberia. Similarly, there should be monitoring stations in the southern border of the Taiga region. A station in the Ural mountains would help to separate Siberian sources and sinks from the forested areas of the European Russia. The Zotino tower in the continental central part of Siberia is most valuable for regional separation and for understanding vertical atmospheric sites are needed to resolve sources and sinks in the non-permafrost, intermittent and continuous permafrost regions where environmental changes will be most likely different.

### Aircraft observations

Airborne observations may cover extensive areas and, as such, are appropriate for Siberia. The observed atmospheric concentration is a sum of emissions from both natural and anthropogenic sources. If those need to be separated, one has to use other information such as tracers of known origin or isotopes (Lloyd et al. 2002, Ramonet et al. 2002, Paris et al. 2010a).

In the boundary layer above western Siberia, Tohjima et al. (1996) observed elevated methane concentrations originating from gas and oil production facilities and wetlands. Extensive air sampling over European Russia and Siberia was conducted within the Japan–Russia joint program, the Siberian Terrestrial Ecosystem–Atmosphere–Cryosphere Experiment (STEACE) in the summers of 1992, 1993, and 1994 (Nakazawa et al. 1997). These first airborne observations in the free troposphere and boundary layer showed large scale summertime CO₂ uptake by taiga forests, which was confirmed by inverse relationship between CO₂ and stable isotopes δ¹³C. High concentrations of CH₄ were observed over wetlands and big industrial areas, such as Moscow region. Small horizontal and vertical gradients of nitrous oxide suggest low emission rates.

The European project EuroSiberian Carbon-Flux provided multi-year aircraft observations, which gave further insight into the seasonal cycles of GHG fluxes over European Russia and the central parts of Siberia (Levin et al. 2002). Lower troposphere GHG profiles over forested areas WNW from Moscow (Ramonet et al. 2002), the northern Urals (Sidorov et al. 2002) and central Siberia (Lloyd et al. 2002) revealed a significant increase in the seasonal amplitudes of CO₂ and δ¹³C-CO₂ in the free troposphere from western Europe to Siberia, where CO₂ seasonal amplitude was 15 ppm. The amplitude in the planetary boundary layer was even larger (25 ppm) and preceded about one month the free
troposphere cycle, demonstrating the strong CO$_2$ source-sink forcing by forests and wetlands over Russia. Styles et al. (2002) measured summertime CO$_2$ uptake and stable isotope discrimination on landscape level by the convective boundary layer (CBL) budget technique in a vegetated region in central Siberia. The source area analysis and covariance of GHG concentrations and isotopic signatures show that anthropogenic emissions are the major source of GHG concentration variations during winter (Levin et al. 2002). In the European Russia, anthropogenic emissions are the dominant source of concentration variations throughout the year (Ramonet et al. 2002).

Atmospheric inverse modeling is a tool for estimating the large-scale spatial GHG source and sink intensities. These calculations use a priori emission intensity maps, an atmospheric transport model, and GHG observations from a network, which are mostly surface observations. A major source of uncertainty in these calculations is a poor simulation of transport and mixing processes over the continents (Gurney et al. 2002). The vertical diffusion of depleted surface CO$_2$ concentrations in summer under convective conditions and of elevated concentrations in winter below strong inversion are not simulated accurately, which results in erroneous horizontal advection fields. The problem is stressed by the fact that inversions rely heavily on surface observations and, thus, on the simulation of exchange processes between the surface and the free troposphere.

For advancing our understanding of diffusion and advection processes over Siberia, a joint French–Russian research program Airborne Extensive Regional Observations in Siberia (YAK-AEROSIB) was organized, including aircraft measurement campaigns (Paris et al. 2010b). Observations of CO$_2$ and other trace gases on Trans-Siberian flights revealed long-range transport of anthropogenic pollutants by synoptic systems (Paris et al. 2008). One of the pathways of anthropogenic emissions from the industrialized Europe was to the Siberian lower troposphere. Emissions from China were more often advected to the upper troposphere over Siberia. A notable source of elevated concentrations of CO$_2$ and other trace gases was the biomass burning in Kazakhstan. In summer, depleted CO$_2$ concentrations were observed when air masses had stayed in the boundary layer over the boreal and Arctic Siberia (Paris et al. 2010a). In summary, airborne observations show the complicated atmospheric advection of elevated concentrations from various anthropogenic emission categories and biogenic activity during the growing season. Correct simulation of these processes is a challenge. The fact that in the continental part of Siberia atmospheric transport models have difficulties in properly calculating mass transfer from the surface to the free troposphere under very stable boundary layer conditions in winter and convective conditions in summer (Stephens et al. 2007) strongly supports in-situ monitoring of lower tropospheric concentrations by aircraft.

**Atmospheric column observations of CO$_2$ and CH$_4$**

Total atmospheric column concentrations are measured from high-resolution solar spectra. These data are useful for long-term trends and for atmospheric models because they provide information on the concentrations above the boundary layer (Kashin et al. 2004). There are currently regular spectroscopic column methane observations at three sites in Russia: at the Research Institute of Physics of the St. Petersburg State University, at the IAP Zvenigorod Scientific Station in the vicinity of Moscow and at the Institute of Experimental Meteorology in Obninsk, 100km SW from Moscow (Makarova et al. 2009). Kashin et al. (2008) reported on the long-term (beginning in 1980) CO$_2$ column observations in Kyrgyzstan. Recently, very accurate instrumentation has been obtained for these measurements in St. Petersburg (Poberovskii et al. 2010).

Total Carbon Column Observing Network (TCCON) of ground-based Fourier Transform Spectrometers, which record direct solar spectra in the near-infrared, uses standard setup for precise column-averaged abundances of atmospheric constituents, including CO$_2$, CH$_4$, N$_2$O, HF, CO, H$_2$O, and deuterated water (HDO) (Geibel et al. 2010, Wunch et al. 2011, http://www.tccon.caltech.edu). The network provides
an essential validation resource for the Orbiting Carbon Observatory and GOSAT (Greenhouse gases Observing SATellites) satellites which measure total concentrations from space. One of the ground-based stations is starting operation in Yekaterinburg.

Remote sensing observations of column total concentrations of CO₂ and CH₄ are becoming available from a Japanese GOSAT (Yokota et al. 2009) and a future OCO-2 satellites (Crisp et al. 2004) which use solar-reflected near-infrared radiation for retrieving the concentrations. The aim of these missions is to use global column concentration observations together with atmospheric transport fields and inversion models to obtain regional source and sink maps. Indeed, Chevallier et al. (2009) estimated that GOSAT observations should significantly improve our knowledge of the CO₂ surface fluxes over terrestrial vegetated region, even at a scale of a week and of a few hundred kilometers. The positive impact depends on the accuracy of the satellite product and the quality of the atmospheric transport modeling (Chevallier et al. 2010). The accuracy of the GOSAT products is still developing. In high northern latitudes, high solar zenith angle restricts the seasonal period of retrievals and the accuracy of the retrievals. A necessary condition for high quality retrievals is a cloudless sunny weather that significantly reduces the number of observations in boreal and arctic regions. For the development of the accuracy and validation of the space observation products, ground-based TCCON network should be extended to span geographical area and environmental conditions of Siberia. TCCON observations are more accurate than will be the space observations. Column measurements in inflow and outflow areas of Siberia could help in improving regional source and sink estimates in spite of the fact that it is difficult to resolve a very small latitudinal total concentration gradient embedded in a strong meridional gradient (Keppel-Aleks et al. 2011).

**Future issues and Pan Siberian Experiment (PSE)**

Although the overview presented in the previous section shows increasing efforts to obtain proper data and information from sources, sinks and concentrations of greenhouse gases and aerosols over Siberia, continuous, comprehensive and integrative measurements are still lacking; e.g. simultaneous continuous measurements of CO₂, methane, ozone, VOCs and aerosols, together with biosphere–atmosphere exchange, are missing. Nowadays, information is mainly coming via measurement campaigns, not via continuous monitoring. Actually, continuous and comprehensive investigations need be performed at different ecosystems. In practice this means (a) updating existing research stations and establishing new ones, (b) utilizing the data in different models via data handling and processing; (c) improving data quality; (d) ensuring the access to the data; (e) developing new instrumentation when needed; (f) utilizing satellite data for wider geographical areas all around Siberia; and (g) utilizing observations from all scales to develop and evaluate process-models of biota-atmosphere interactions.

Due to the significance of boreal forest and arctic area from the climate change point of view, and due to the lack of detailed information, more investigations are needed. Based on the overview presented in the previous section, several scientific questions related to Siberian aerosols and greenhouse gases and their connection with future climate change can be identified:

- How fast will the permafrost thaw proceed?
- How will the thawing permafrost affect hydrology, carbon fluxes and methane emissions?
- How rapidly will the permafrost melt? How will the melting permafrost affect methane emissions and net CO₂ uptake?
- How will the cryosphere change over the next decades?
- What are the foreseen land use changes in Siberia and other Euro-Asian boreal forest areas, and how would that affect exchanges of greenhouse gases and aerosol precursors?
- What are the present BVOC emissions and how will they change during the next 10 and 30 years over Siberia and other Euro-Asian boreal areas?
- What are the connections between ecosystem carbon cycle, the chemistry of biogenic
volatile organic compounds, ozone chemistry and the formation and growth of aerosol particles?

- What are the regional and global climate and air quality effects of biomass burning in Siberia? How do burning regimes change in response to land use change and to climate change?
- How could areas over Siberia especially sensitive to climate change be identified?
- How do the above processes and problems relate to spatial and temporal distribution of basic features of atmospheric planetary boundary layer (first of all, its height) over Siberia and other northern Euro-Asian areas?

Addressing these scientific questions and the related societal effects in changing climate requires inter-, multi- and cross-disciplinary research, along with a high level of technological and scientific innovation and expertise in the areas of chemistry, physics, biology and meteorology. As a solution, we propose a so-called Pan Siberian Experiment (PSE), which would investigate the concentrations and fluxes of aerosol particles, trace gases and greenhouse gases, including their interlinks and related processes. An important part of the PSE would be a network of research stations from Scandinavia to China with a continuous, comprehensive science program. Continuous data would also be obtained from satellites, and it would be complemented with in-situ measurement data from aircraft, trans-Siberian railway and research vessels. Several targeted field experiments would have to be performed as well to investigate processes in more detail. The station network would include several SMEAR-type stations (see Hari and Kulmala 2005, Hari et al. 2009) and GAW stations. It would be crucial to have one supersite in all major ecosystem areas (Fig. 1), which in practice would mean a station in every 2000–3000 km.

Our scientific plan in PSE is designed as a research chain that aims to advance our understanding of climate and air quality through a series of connected activities beginning at the molecular scale and extending to the regional and global scale (see Kulmala et al. 2009). Fundamental aerosol and carbon cycle processes need to be understood in order to quantify radiative properties and the influence of aerosols on cloud microphysics and dynamics at the scale of individual clouds, and to understand changes in carbon uptake dynamics. At larger scales, advances in our understanding of boundary layer meteorology are needed to understand atmospheric aerosol transport, trace gas (e.g. CO₂, methane, N₂O, O₃, SO₂, NOₓ, VOCs) and water vapor exchange and deposition processes. Boundary layer studies form a link to regional-scale processes and further to global-scale phenomena. In order to be able to simulate global climate and air quality, the most recent progress in this chain of processes must be compiled, integrated and implemented in Climate Change (CC) and Air Quality (AQ) numerical models via novel parameterizations. Anthropogenic effects on ecosystems and cryosphere will be investigated, including land use changes.

The in-situ field experiments would be carried out on ground-based stations, aircraft and ships, in addition to using existing data sets and archives. They would provide data on (i) short-lived pollutant concentrations and greenhouse gas concentrations in the air, biosphere and on snow and ice surfaces, (ii) seasonal evolution of terrestrial and oceanic snow and ice cover, (iii) surface radiation and heat exchange, (iv) fluxes of key species, (v) cloud properties, and (vi) relevant meteorological variables. The observation network would consist of existing intensive stations and their measurement programs, including quality analysis and data dissemination procedures developed in other projects. These would be updated with additional instruments addressing the research questions. To ensure long-term sustainability and comparability, these measurements would be connected to international networks wherever possible.

The basic observations would be performed within the atmospheric planetary boundary layer (PBL), that is, the strongly turbulent layer immediately affected by dynamic, thermal and other interactions with the Earth’s surface. It essentially differs in nature from the free atmosphere. The latter is only weakly turbulent (because of its very stable stratification) and experiences the abovementioned impacts indirectly, in an aggregated form thorough the PBL integration-and-coupling mechanisms. To some extent, the PBL
upper boundary plays the role of a lid preventing dust, aerosols, gases and other admixtures released from ground sources to efficiently penetrate upwards, thus blocking them within the PBL (Zilitinkevich 1991, Zilitinkevich et al. 2007). Furthermore, perturbations of the heat budget at the Earth’s surface are almost completely absorbed by the PBL through the very efficient turbulent heat-transfer mechanism. By these means, the PBL height, varying from a few dozen meters to a few kilometers, to a large extent controls dispersion and transport of atmospheric admixtures, extreme cold and heat, local amplification of global warming, and consequences of the land-use changes. Apparently, it affects terrestrial ecosystems, permafrost and cryosphere as a whole, not to mention the urban environment. The most sensitive are shallow stable PBLs typical of Siberian winters and the nighttime in all seasons (Zilitinkevich and Esau 2009). Comprehensive inventory of the PBL height over Siberia would be addressed in a sub-project within PSE, involving numerous Russian institutions.

Remote sensing with satellites would be used to retrieve information on e.g. aerosol and cloud properties, UV radiation, trace gas concentrations, biosphere, snow cover, ice extent, surface albedo, and top of atmosphere radiation. Many of the relevant quantities are measurable only from satellites. Satellites would complement in situ and modeling data related to chemistry, aerosols, clouds and their interactions, especially for the spatial and temporal distribution pattern of relevant quantities. Derived data would be used to evaluate large-scale models simulating important Earth System components.

Past variations in climate and corresponding forcing agents would be revealed by analysis of firn and ice cores in glaciers and ice sheets. Interpreting ice cores correctly is probably the area where atmosphere and cryosphere scientists have the greatest potential of working together, since both fields are needed for interpreting the ice core data and for utilizing them in Earth System Modeling.

Finally, a variety of modelling frameworks would be used to identify the importance of different processes on short-to-moderate temporal and spatial scales, to extrapolate measurement results and to predict future scenarios. The models, like observations, would cover different spatial and temporal scales, and they would be implemented in a hierarchical structure. The applied models would range from detailed process models and radiative transfer models up to regional and global chemical transport and climate models and Earth System models.

The proposed PSE plan is evidently highly ambitious. However, with well-coordinated cooperation using the already existing tools in an inventive way, it could be considered achievable (see also Groisman and Soja 2009, Gordov and Vaganov 2010). The results obtained from such an experiment would be highly useful for a broad scientific community.

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