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# 1 Measurement of ammonia emissions from temperate and sub-polar seabird 2 colonies

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14 **Key Words:** Coastal nitrogen; seabirds; penguins; temperate; sub-polar; NH<sub>3</sub>  
15 emissions; atmospheric dispersion; inverse modelling

## 16 Abstract

17 The chemical breakdown of marine derived reactive nitrogen transported to the land  
18 as seabird guano represents a significant source of ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) in areas far from  
19 other NH<sub>3</sub> sources. Measurements made at tropical and temperate seabird colonies  
20 indicate substantial NH<sub>3</sub> emissions, with emission rates larger than many  
21 anthropogenic point sources. However, several studies indicate that thermodynamic  
22 processes limit the amount of NH<sub>3</sub> emitted from guano, suggesting that the percentage  
23 of guano volatilizing as NH<sub>3</sub> may be considerably lower in colder climates. This study  
24 undertook high resolution temporal ammonia measurements in the field and coupled  
25 results with modelling to estimate NH<sub>3</sub> emissions at a temperate puffin colony and  
26 two sub-polar penguin colonies (Signy Island, South Orkney Islands and Bird Island,  
27 South Georgia) during the breeding season. These emission rates are then compared  
28 with NH<sub>3</sub> volatilization rates from other climates. Ammonia emissions were  
29 calculated using a Lagrangian atmospheric dispersion model, resulting in mean  
30 emissions of 5 µg m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> at the Isle of May, 12 µg m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> at Signy Island and 9 µg m<sup>-2</sup>  
31 s<sup>-1</sup> at Bird Island. The estimated percentage of total guano nitrogen volatilized was  
32 5% on the Isle of May, 3% on Signy and 2% on Bird Island. These values are much  
33 smaller than the percentage of guano nitrogen volatilized in tropical contexts (31-  
34 65%). The study confirmed temperature, wind speed and water availability have a  
35 significant influence on the magnitude of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions, which has implications for  
36 reactive nitrogen in both modern remote regions and pre-industrial atmospheric  
37 composition and ecosystem interactions.

## 38 1. Introduction

39 Nitrogen is found in all living cells and is necessary for the growth and survival of all  
40 living things. However, nitrogen in its most abundant form, diatomic nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>), is  
41 a relatively un-reactive molecule and needs to be 'fixed' to become useable as  
42 reactive nitrogen (N<sub>r</sub>) compounds. N<sub>r</sub> includes all N forms with the exception of N<sub>2</sub>,  
43 including ammonium and nitrate ions, gases such as nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O), nitrogen  
44 oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>) and ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) and organic nitrogen compounds. Human activities,

45 including the Haber-Bosch process, legume cultivation and fossil fuel combustion, are  
46 estimated to create 210 Tg of plant-useable  $N_r$  annually (Fowler et al., 2013).  
47 Reactive nitrogen added to the Earth's surface as fertilizer can wash off into the  
48 hydrosphere, volatilize to the atmosphere as  $NH_3$  or form organic nitrogen compounds  
49 in soils. Further decomposition of oceanic, terrestrial, plant and animal  $N_r$  can  
50 produce  $N_2$  as well as  $NO_x$  and  $N_2O$ .

51 Studies suggest the emission of  $NH_3$  gas is likely to negatively impact local  
52 ecosystems causing acidification and eutrophication, which has been shown to alter  
53 local interspecies competition and biodiversity (Cape et al., 2009; Sutton et al., 2011,  
54 2012). Currently, the biogeochemical processes following the addition of seabird  
55 derived  $N_r$  to the surface of land are not well understood. However studies have  
56 reported  $NH_3$  emission from poultry excreta which has similar properties to seabird  
57 guano (Elliott and Collins, 1982; Harper et al., 2010) and a study of Adelie penguin  
58 colony on the Antarctic continent suggests volatilized  $NH_3$  creates a spatial impact  
59 zone of up to 300 km<sup>2</sup> surrounding the colony where phosphomonoesterase activity is  
60 increased in indigenous organisms (Crittenden et al., 2014). In order to be emitted as  
61  $NH_3$ , excreted uric acid must first be hydrolysed under microbial decomposition to  
62 produce ammonium and bicarbonate ions. Both the processes of uric acid hydrolysis  
63 and  $NH_3$  volatilization appear to be affected by environmental conditions, including  
64 water availability and temperature (Nemitz et al., 2001; Sutton et al., 2013). Food  
65 composition and pH may also play a significant role in  $NH_3$  emission (Elliott and  
66 Collins, 1982; Harper et al., 2010) where  $NH_3$  emission depends on the ratio between  
67 the nitrogen and energy content of the food (Wilson et al., 2004) and the pH affects  
68 the rate at which uric acid is converted to ammonium (Elliott and Collins, 1982).

69 In a theoretical study on seabird  $N_r$  excretion by Riddick et al. (2012), the estimated  
70 percentage of  $N_r$  that volatilizes ( $P_v$ ) ranged from 9 % in colder temperatures (average  
71 temperature during breeding season *c.* 5°C) to 100 % at colonies in higher  
72 temperatures (> 19°C). Recent measurement-based estimates showed mean  $P_v$  values  
73 of 31 to 65 % at two tropical seabird colonies estimated (Riddick et al., 2014).  
74 Additionally, some variation in  $P_v$  is expected in relation to habitat, so that birds  
75 nesting in vegetation and breeding in burrows (such as puffins), would show a lower  
76 percentage emission as  $NH_3$  as compared with birds nesting and breeding on bare  
77 rock surfaces (Blackall et al., 2007; Riddick et al., 2012). Similarly, Zhu et al. (2011)  
78 suggest temperature is an important driver in the production of  $NH_3$ , however they  
79 also suggest temperature may not be the sole climatic variable that affects  $NH_3$   
80 emission.

81 Seabird colonies are well suited for measuring  $NH_3$  emissions because they are  
82 generally remote from human activity, resulting in near-background  $NH_3$   
83 concentrations in the surrounding area. Biogeochemical processes are relatively  
84 simple because the majority of seabirds nest on rocky surfaces where excreted guano  
85 can: (1) build up on the surface; (2) decompose, converting uric acid to ammoniacal  
86 forms which are liable to volatilization, or (3) be washed into the sea. As a model  
87 system for studying the effect of climate/environment on  $NH_3$  emissions, seabird  
88 colonies also have the advantage that they are generally not influenced by human  
89 management practices (other than those which may affect seabird numbers). In  
90 addition to this, the penguin species' annual presence in the nitrogen poor regions of  
91 the Southern Ocean supplies 858 Gg of  $N_r$  per year ( $\sim 3 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$ ) in the form of guano  
92 to the land (Riddick et al., 2012). In agriculture terms, the average penguin colony

93 receives 30,000 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> compared with 246 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> for fertilizer consumption on  
94 arable land in the UK in 2015 (Worldbank, 2015).

95 As a result of these features, seabird colonies offer a system that is well fitted to  
96 address the question of how NH<sub>3</sub> emission rates vary globally through different  
97 climatic regimes as well as develop understanding of atmosphere-ecosystem  
98 interaction in the natural world. The present study contributes to this question by  
99 providing data on NH<sub>3</sub> emissions from seabird guano in temperate and sub-polar  
100 conditions, for comparison with previous measurements in tropical conditions  
101 (Riddick et al., 2014). By bringing these measurements together with other published  
102 datasets, we are then able to investigate the global scale variation in NH<sub>3</sub> emission  
103 rates.

## 104 **2. Methods and Materials**

### 105 **2.1 Ammonia measurements**

106 Two methods were applied in this study to make NH<sub>3</sub> concentration measurements:  
107 (1) passive sampling and (2) an on-line active sampling NH<sub>3</sub> analysis instrument, as  
108 summarized below.

109 The passive samplers used (ALPHA samplers, CEH Edinburgh) consist of a 23 mm  
110 diameter sampler with a 6 mm diffusion path between a Teflon membrane and an  
111 adsorbent sampling surface (filter-paper disc impregnated with citric acid). Further  
112 details of ALPHA sampler and its system of pre- and post-sampling protective caps  
113 are provided by Tang et al. (2001). In this study, triplicate samplers were used at each  
114 sampling location and exposed for periods of 2 to 4 weeks. The samplers were  
115 attached by Velcro to an upturned plant saucer (for protection) that was fastened to a  
116 pole (The sampling heights above the ground for the different sites are described  
117 below, with further details given in Supplementary Material 7). Aluminium strips  
118 were mounted on top of each saucer to deter perching birds.

119 At all times, except during deployment, the ALPHA samplers were sealed in plastic  
120 containers and refrigerated. In the laboratory, the NH<sub>3</sub> concentration of the air at the  
121 seabird colony was determined using ammonium flow injection analysis, based on  
122 selective diffusion of NH<sub>3</sub> across a Teflon membrane at high pH (FLORRIA,  
123 Mechatronics, NL). Laboratory and field blanks were also analysed to ensure samples  
124 were not contaminated. In the present study, the high sensitivity ALPHA samplers  
125 were used with a Method Detection Limit (MDL) = 0.09 µg m<sup>-3</sup> for two-weekly  
126 exposure on Signy Island. A description of how the MDL was calculated is given in  
127 Supplementary Material Section 1. ALPHA samplers were also deployed at Bird  
128 Island and the Isle of May for comparison with the on-line measurements.

129 The on-line NH<sub>3</sub> concentration measurements were made with an AiRRmonia gas  
130 analyser (Mechatronics, NL) on Bird Island and a Nitrolux 1000 gas analyser  
131 (Pranalytica, USA) on the Isle of May. At each site air was drawn into the instrument  
132 through 20 m PTFE tubing, to minimize NH<sub>3</sub> sticking the PTFE tubing was heated  
133 and insulated a full description of the online active measurement set up is given in  
134 Supplementary Material Section 3, with inlet flows of 8 l min<sup>-1</sup>.

135 The AiRRmonia analyser (Norman et al., 2009) is based on a similar principle to the  
136 FLORRIA. In this case, atmospheric air is passed over a first Teflon membrane with a  
137 counterflow of dilute acid to allow gaseous NH<sub>3</sub> to transfer to aqueous ammonium in  
138 solution. Sodium hydroxide is then added to liberate molecular NH<sub>3</sub>, which then  
139 diffuses across a second Teflon membrane into a counter flow of deionized water,

140 with reformed ammonium then detected by conductivity. The AiRRmonia has an  
141 instrument delay time (the time taken between air sampling and instrument response)  
142 of ~ 5 minutes with 15 min averages used to assure quantitative response, with a  
143 Limit of Detection (LOD) of  $\sim 0.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  and a MDL in this context of  $0.07 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ .  
144 The AiRRmonia measurements were recorded every minute and then the data  
145 averaged to 15 minute periods for application in the inverse dispersion model.  
146 Calibration of the AiRRmonia was carried out every five days and agreed within 5%  
147 over the periods of measurement.

148 The Nitrolux analyser is a photoacoustic instrument that uses absorption of  $\text{NH}_3$   
149 molecules from a line-tuneable  $\text{CO}_2$  laser to measure concentration. The Nitrolux  
150 1000, as used here, has a detection limit of  $\sim 0.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , a MDL in this context of  $0.1$   
151  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , a range of  $0.1 - 2000 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , and measures concentrations every 45 s. The  
152 instrument delay time of the instrument is a function of temperature and relative  
153 humidity (typically 4 (3-5) minutes), allowing the data to be averaged up to 15 minute  
154 periods for application in the inverse dispersion model. The Nitrolux 1000 requires  
155 six-monthly calibrations (Cowen et al., 2004).

## 156 2.2 Field Methodology

### 157 Site 1: The Isle of May, Scotland

158 The Isle of May ( $56.19^\circ\text{N}$ ,  $2.56^\circ\text{W}$ ) is a nesting site for many seabird species,  
159 including Common Guillemot (*Uria aalge*), Herring Gull (*Larus argentatus*), Arctic  
160 Tern (*Sterna paradisaea*), Black-legged Kittiwake (*Rissa tridactyla*) and Atlantic  
161 puffin (*Fratercula arctica*). The island is located at the entrance to the Firth of Forth  
162 in eastern Scotland (Figure 1) and has a temperate climate (average temperature of  
163  $15^\circ\text{C}$ , average humidity of 80% and average wind speed of  $4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  during the  
164 breeding season). Passive and active measurements of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations and  
165 meteorological parameters were made above Atlantic puffin burrows (Figure 1).  
166 Atlantic puffins breed on vegetated slopes and amongst rocky outcrops, where they  
167 dig and nest in 1-2 m long burrows. Atlantic puffins burrow in most parts of the Isle  
168 of May with a colony total of 45,000 pairs during June and July 2009 (Harris et al.,  
169 2009), with approximately 20,000 burrows in our study area, between the Low Light  
170 and Kirk Haven (area shaded dark grey in Figure 1). Measurements were carried out  
171 from 01/07/09 to the 06/09/09 during (July) and after (August and September) the  
172 period of chick rearing, where large numbers of prospecting juvenile birds are present  
173 in addition to breeding birds.

### 174 Active Sampling Campaign

175 The Nitrolux trace gas analyser measured  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations on-line over the  
176 Atlantic puffin colony on the Isle of May from 30/06/09 to 23/07/09. The air inlet was  
177 positioned 1.26 m above the ground at the measurement site (labelled in Figure 1).  
178 Measurements during the Isle of May campaign were limited to daylight hours to  
179 reduce disturbance to fledging puffins by the generator. Micrometeorological  
180 parameters were measured using a Gill Windmaster Pro sonic anemometer on a mast  
181 2.5 m above the ground. Meteorological data were collected by instruments on a mast  
182 on the highest point of the island (Figure 1). Data collected included: air temperature,  
183 relative humidity, solar radiation (all at 1 m above ground) and ground temperature  
184 was using temperature sensors on the surface. The weather station was located away  
185 from the colony to avoid interfering with birds' nesting behaviour.

186 <<INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE>>

### 187 Passive Sampling Campaign

188 Triplicate ALPHA samplers were used to measure NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations above the  
189 Atlantic puffin colony (“Measurement Site”, as labelled in Figure 1), at a height of 1.5  
190 m, for 4 periods of 15 days, as described in Supplementary Material Section 7A.  
191 Meteorological data were collected by a weather station positioned at the highest  
192 point of the island (Figure 1).

### 193 **Site 2: Bird Island, South Georgia**

194 Bird Island is part of South Georgia, 1000 km south-east of the Falkland Islands  
195 (Figure 2). Ammonia concentrations were measured at the ‘Big Mac’ Macaroni  
196 penguin (*Eudyptes chrysolophus*) colony at the western end of the island (54.0106 °S,  
197 38.0753 °W), where 40,000 breeding pairs were present during the measurement  
198 period from 07/11/10 and 26/12/10 (D. Briggs, British Antarctic Survey, pers.  
199 comm.). Immediately to the east of the active measurement site, the ‘Little Mac’  
200 colony is located (450 pairs of Macaroni penguin in a small satellite colony). The  
201 average temperature was 3°C, average relative humidity 92 % and average wind  
202 speed 5 m s<sup>-1</sup> during the measurement period.

### 203 Active Sampling Campaign

204 On-line NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations were measured at Fairy Point to the south of Big Mac  
205 (Figure 2). The air inlet for the AiRRmonia analyzer was positioned at 2 m above the  
206 ground. All the instruments were housed in a tent to provide protection from the  
207 wind, precipitation, sea spray and sun. Micrometeorological parameters were  
208 measured using a Gill Windmaster Pro sonic anemometer on a mast 2.5 m above the  
209 ground. Meteorological data were collected by instruments on two masts on the  
210 highest point at Fairy Point. Data collected included: air temperature, humidity and  
211 solar radiation at 1 m above ground, and wind speed at three heights above ground  
212 (0.5 m, 1 m, and 2 m). Ground temperature was measured using a Tiny Talk data  
213 recorder placed on the ground (Supplementary Material Section 4).

214 <<INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE>>

### 215 Passive Sampling Campaign

216 Ammonia concentrations were recorded at nine locations on Bird Island using  
217 ALPHA samplers mounted at 1 m above ground (Figure 2). These were exposed in  
218 seven sampling periods of around 2 weeks from 07/11/2010 to 26/12/2010.

### 219 **Site 3: Signy Island, South Orkney Islands**

220 Signy Island is a small island in the South Orkney Islands in the Southern Ocean  
221 (Figure 3). A relatively flat area on the Gourlay Peninsula was used for passive  
222 sampling of NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations from 10/01/2009 to 21/02/2009 at a colony of 10,000  
223 pairs of Adélie penguins (*Pygoscelis adeliae*) and 9,000 pairs of Chinstrap penguins  
224 (*P. antarcticum*) (60.73° S, 45.59° W). Both species breed in snow free areas and  
225 build rudimentary nests of small stones. The climate at this site represents sub-polar  
226 conditions with average temperature of 2°C, average relative humidity of 84 % and  
227 average wind speed of 5 m s<sup>-1</sup> during the breeding season.

228 ALPHA samplers were deployed at five locations (Mast 1 – 5, Figure 3) over three  
229 separate sampling periods of 2 weeks each. Masts 1 and 2 had ALPHA samplers at 1  
230 m and 1.5m from the ground. Mast 5 was located as far as possible from any birds to  
231 sample background NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations, *en route* from the base at Borge Bay to

232 Gourlay (Supplementary Material 3). Representative meteorological data  
233 (temperature, wind speed, relative humidity and precipitation) were obtained from the  
234 nearest weather station, the Argentinean Orcadas Base on Laurie Island, South  
235 Orkney Islands (US National Climatic Data Center (NCDC) Integrated Surface  
236 Hourly (ISH) database; NCDC, 2011).

237 <<INSERT FIGURE 3 HERE>>

### 238 **2.3 Estimation of NH<sub>3</sub> Emissions**

239 Estimates of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions were calculated using an inverse application of the  
240 WindTrax atmospheric dispersion model version 2.0 (Flesch et al., 1995). Given  
241 potential temporal covariance between atmospheric NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations and  
242 dispersion, such calculations should ideally be based on short-term measured  
243 concentrations.

244 For input into WindTrax, both the on-line NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations and meteorological  
245 data were averaged over 15 minutes to minimise any effects of turbulence while  
246 preserving variation caused by environmental or atmospheric change (Laubach et al.  
247 2008; Flesch et al. 2009). Fifteen minute averages of wind speed ( $u$ , m s<sup>-1</sup>), wind  
248 direction ( $WD$ , °), temperature ( $T$ , °C), NH<sub>3</sub> concentration at 2 m ( $X$ , µg m<sup>-3</sup>),  
249 roughness height ( $z_0$ , cm) and the Monin-Obukhov length ( $L$ , m) were used as input to  
250 WindTrax.

251 For each on-line NH<sub>3</sub> concentration dataset, data were removed for calibration  
252 periods, any periods when the instrument was not sampling the colony due to wind  
253 direction and any periods of high atmospheric stability (wind speed,  $u < 0.15$  ms<sup>-1</sup>,  
254 friction velocity,  $u_* < 0.1$  ms<sup>-1</sup> and Monin-Obukhov Length  $|L| < 2$ ). Each WindTrax  
255 simulation used 50,000 particle projections to back-calculate the NH<sub>3</sub> emission.

256 While the first focus of the emission calculations was on applying the on-line NH<sub>3</sub>  
257 concentration measurements, it is also of interest to assess how the inverse model  
258 performs when using time-integrated NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations, since it is not always  
259 feasible to deploy on-line NH<sub>3</sub> instrumentation (e.g. as at Signy Island). For this  
260 reason, we also applied the Windtrax model using two-weekly averaged NH<sub>3</sub>  
261 concentrations, coupled with the time-resolved estimates of atmospheric turbulence.  
262 In principle, this relaxation is expected to contribute significant errors in the resulting  
263 flux estimates. However, experience under other conditions indicates that these errors  
264 may be small when compared with other sources of error or with the difference in  
265 emission rates between sites (Riddick et al., 2014; Theobald et al., 2013). The  
266 deployment of both passive and active sampling at the Isle of May and at Bird Island  
267 allowed comparison these two approaches, providing a basis to assess confidence in  
268 the passive measurements at Signy Island, where only the passive NH<sub>3</sub> concentration  
269 data were available.

270 The comparison of estimated NH<sub>3</sub> emissions calculated using the passive and on-line  
271 sampling methods can also be used to provide an indicative estimate of the respective  
272 sources of error in each approach (Riddick et al., 2014). To do this, the concentrations  
273 recorded by the on-line continuous NH<sub>3</sub> detector are first averaged for the same  
274 periods as the passive ALPHA sampler data, and then used to estimate NH<sub>3</sub> fluxes  
275 using the WindTrax system. The difference in mean flux between the approach using  
276 15 minute NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations and the 2-weekly averaged data from the on-line  
277 system gives an estimate of the micrometeorological error associated with low-time  
278 resolution NH<sub>3</sub> concentration data. By comparison, the difference in mean flux

279 between the 2-weekly averaged data of the on-line system and the 2-weekly estimates  
280 from the ALPHA samplers gives an estimate of the chemical sampling error. This  
281 chemical sampling error can be mostly associated with the on-line system, because it  
282 only samples for part of the time (i.e. semi-continuous), as compared with the passive  
283 system, which samples continuously.

## 284 **2.4 Other Uncertainties**

285 In order to further understand the uncertainties in the emission calculation, the input  
286 variables were assessed for both field sites. The uncertainty caused by each variable  
287 was estimated using WindTrax to back-calculate the consequent change in estimated  
288 NH<sub>3</sub> emission. The total uncertainty was then calculated as the square root of the sum  
289 of the squares of the individual uncertainties. Further details are provided in the  
290 Supplementary Material Section 6.

## 291 **3. Results**

### 292 **3.1 Isle of May**

#### 293 Active measurements and meteorological data

294 Measured NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations ranged from 0 to 105 µg m<sup>-3</sup> and were found to be  
295 lower during the morning and evening than during the day (Figure 4). Ground  
296 temperature ranged from 12 to 27 °C and peaked during the early afternoon. The  
297 roughness length estimated using the ultrasonic anemometer on the Isle of May  
298 ranged from 0.1 to 13.8 cm, i.e., within the useable range of WindTrax. Ammonia  
299 emissions generally followed a diurnal pattern with low emission early in the morning  
300 (<5 µg m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>), building to a peak in the early afternoon (10 to 25 µg m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>), before  
301 dropping back to low values (<5 µg m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) in the evening (Figure 4). Overall, for the  
302 active measurements the average emission rate was 5 µg m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>.

303 The uncertainty in background NH<sub>3</sub> concentration for the southern North Sea (0.03 -  
304 1.49 µg m<sup>-3</sup>) resulted in an emission uncertainty of 6 %. The uncertainty in the size of  
305 the NH<sub>3</sub> emission area (range of 0.2 – 0.3 km<sup>2</sup>), caused by puffins moving around  
306 near their burrows during the day, resulted in an uncertainty in NH<sub>3</sub> emission of 10 %  
307 (Supplementary Material Section 6). Considering only these components, the overall  
308 uncertainty in the modelling of the emission estimate on the Isle of May is estimated  
309 at 12 %. A major source of uncertainty is the representativity of the NH<sub>3</sub> sampling,  
310 given that measurements were only made for part of the time, with the generator  
311 having to be switched off during the hours of darkness. This is addressed further in  
312 section 3.4.

313 <<INSERT FIGURE 4 HERE>>

#### 314 Passive measurements

315 Ammonia concentrations decreased from a maximum of 36.1 µg m<sup>-3</sup> during the first  
316 period to a minimum of 0.9 µg m<sup>-3</sup> during the fourth measurement period, due to  
317 measurements being made towards the end of the breeding season. The NH<sub>3</sub> emission  
318 was highest during Period 1 (01/07/09 - 15/07/09), estimated at 5.1 µg m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. By mid-  
319 July, most puffins had fledged and had left the nesting site. As a consequence, NH<sub>3</sub>  
320 emission decreased to 1.9, 0.4, 0.1 µg m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> during measurement periods 2, 3 and 4,  
321 respectively (for more details see Supplementary Material Section 7A). Temperatures  
322 were broadly similar through the four sampling periods (Supplementary Material  
323 Section 7A).

324 The uncertainty in the estimated emission caused by the roughness length,  $\text{NH}_3$   
325 background and emission area were 12, 8 and 10 %, respectively (See Supplementary  
326 Material Section 6). The largest estimated uncertainty was the Monin-Obukhov length  
327 at 28%. Overall, these factors contributed a combined uncertainty of  $\pm 38$  % to the  
328 model results from the passive campaign on the Isle of May. However, this does not  
329 include the micrometeorological uncertainty associated with long-averaging periods,  
330 which is considered separately in Section 3.4.

### 331 **3.2 Bird Island, South Georgia**

#### 332 Active measurements and meteorological data

333 The  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations measured by the AiRRmonia trace gas analyser were  
334 between 0 and  $60 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , with higher concentrations recorded during the daytime  
335 (Figure 5). Ground temperature ranged from 1 to  $12^\circ\text{C}$ , with maximum values  
336 during the early afternoon (Figure 5). The roughness length estimated from the ultra-  
337 sonic anemometer on Bird Island ranged from 6 to 12.5 cm and was within the  
338 useable range of WindTrax. Gras (1983) estimated open water background  $\text{NH}_3$   
339 concentration for Antarctica, a location representative of this area, at  $0.15 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ,  
340 which was used as the background concentration in WindTrax. The minimum and  
341 maximum  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions from the Big Mac penguin colony during the measurement  
342 period were  $0.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  and  $52.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , respectively (Figure 5). The largest  
343 emissions occurred during the daytime, associated with higher wind speeds (Figure  
344 5), with smaller emissions at night.

345 The emission uncertainty caused by the uncertainty in the size of the excretion area,  
346 again caused by penguins moving around the edge of the nesting site, and  $\text{NH}_3$   
347 background were estimated at 27 % and 4 %, respectively (Supplementary Material  
348 Section 6). The combined uncertainty calculated for the modelled emission  
349 estimate from the Big Mac penguin colony was at  $\pm 28$  %. The additional uncertainty  
350 associated with the semi-continuous nature of the  $\text{NH}_3$  measurements is examined in  
351 Section 3.4.

352 <<INSERT FIGURE 5 HERE>>

#### 353 Passive measurements

354 Ammonia concentrations nearest the colony (3 m from the edge of Big Mac)  
355 decreased from a maximum of  $34.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  during the third period (21/11/2010 to  
356 28/11/2010) to a minimum of  $11.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  during the fifth measurement period  
357 (06/12/2010 to 12/12/2010;  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration data is presented in Supplementary  
358 Material Section 7B, full transect data to be published elsewhere (Tang et al. in prep.).  
359 The  $\text{NH}_3$  emission, calculated with WindTrax, was highest during Period 2 (Table 1),  
360 estimated at  $11.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  and lowest during the fifth measurement period at  $3.2 \mu\text{g}$   
361  $\text{m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ .

362 The uncertainty in the estimated emissions caused by the roughness length,  $\text{NH}_3$   
363 background and emission area were 15, 12 and 12%, respectively (Supplementary  
364 Material Section 6). The largest estimated uncertainty was associated with  
365 micrometeorology at 35%. Overall, these amount to a combined uncertainty for the  
366 passive campaign on Bird Island of  $\pm 42$ %.

### 367 **3.3 Signy Island**

368 On Signy Island the ALPHA samplers were exposed for three two-week periods  
369 (Supplementary Material Section 7C). The  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations at Masts 1 and 2,

370 measured at a height of 1 m above the ground in the middle of the colony, were the  
371 highest (maximum  $483 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) of the different sampling locations at Signy.  $\text{NH}_3$   
372 concentration decreased with distance from the penguin colony to a minimum at Mast  
373 5 ( $0.9$  to  $2.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ). The ALPHA samplers lower to the ground (1 m height)  
374 measured larger  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration, as expected (see Supplementary Material Section  
375 7C for details). The atmospheric conditions averaged over the measurement period  
376 were estimated as neutral, (i.e. ( $L = |\infty|$ )) because of low ground heating and relatively  
377 high wind (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006). The most obvious sources of aerodynamic  
378 roughness in the otherwise very flat area were the penguins (average height 60 cm)  
379 and any larger rocks (maximum height estimated at 1 m). Therefore, a roughness  
380 height of 10 cm, corresponding to an object height of 1 m (Seinfeld and Pandis,  
381 2006), was used for modelling. The  $\text{NH}_3$  source area was assumed to be the observed  
382 nesting area, which was  $2.7 \times 10^3 \text{ m}^2$ .

383 The calculated  $\text{NH}_3$  emission fluxes for the penguin colony on Signy Island were 18,  
384 8 and  $9 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  for periods 1, 2 and 3, respectively. The wind was almost constantly  
385 from the north-west, which suggests that the footprint of the source sampled by each  
386 ALPHA sampler was not a very significant source of variation. The  
387 micrometeorological conditions on Signy Island could only be estimated from  
388 available data on Laurie Island, South Orkney Islands, and therefore a larger  
389 uncertainty is associated with meteorological data needed to estimate  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions.

390 The difference in the  $\text{NH}_3$  emission rates between the first and second/third  
391 measurement periods may be explained by the birds' behaviour, with colony  
392 attendance during the first measurement period being high for both Adélie and  
393 Chinstrap penguins. The lower emissions during the second and third periods may be  
394 associated with the departure of the Adélie penguins around late January.

395 Together, the uncertainty in roughness length and stability resulted in an uncertainty  
396 in emission of 26 % (Supplementary Material Section 6). The uncertainty associated  
397 with background concentration from Gras (1983) was 7 % and the associated  
398 uncertainty in area was estimated at  $\pm 6 \%$ . The combined uncertainty in modelling  
399  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions for Signy Island was estimated at  $\pm 37 \%$ , although this does not  
400 include uncertainty related to application of the time-integrated ALPHA sampling,  
401 which is addressed in Section 3.4.

### 402 **3.4 Comparison of Active and Passive Sampling methods**

403 A summary of the measurements made at the different colonies of this study is  
404 provided in Table 1. For the Isle of May, the mean fluxes from the passive and active  
405 sampling campaigns were  $5.1$  and  $5.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , respectively. The estimate of the  
406 flux from the active sampling averaged for the same period as the ALPHA  
407 measurements was  $6.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . The difference between the first and third of these  
408 fluxes represents the Uncertainty in Sampling Period (USP), at  $-1.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , while  
409 the difference between the second and third of these represents the Uncertainty in  
410 chemical Sampling Method (USM), at  $-1.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . In both cases the USP and  
411 USM amount to around  $\pm 20\%$  of the mean flux at Isle of May.

412 <<INSERT TABLE 1 HERE>>

413 A similar comparison of active and passive sampling at Bird Island gave a mean flux  
414 during the first period from the passive and active sampling campaigns of  $11.2$  and  
415  $10.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , respectively. The mean fluxes during the second period from the  
416 passive and active sampling campaigns were  $8.9$  and  $10.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , respectively.

417 The estimate of the flux from the active sampling averaged for the first and second  
418 periods as the ALPHA measurements was  $10.6$  and  $10.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , respectively. The  
419 estimate of the flux from the active sampling averaged for the average of the two  
420 periods of the ALPHA measurements was  $10.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ . In this case the USP  
421 amounts to around 3% of the mean measured fluxes, whereas the USM was 6% for  
422 the first period and 17% for the second period (Table 1).

423 In the case of Signy, only passive estimates of the flux were available, where the  
424 overall mean of the three runs was  $12 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ . Although active sampling was not  
425 possible at this site, the performance comparison distinguishing USP and USM at Isle  
426 of May and Bird Island may be taken as an indication of the scale of uncertainty  
427 associated with the long sampling periods on Signy.

428

## 429 **4. Discussion**

### 430 **4.1 Variation in $\text{NH}_3$ emissions from seabird colonies**

431 The largest weekly average  $\text{NH}_3$  emission measured by this study was  $18 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$   
432 on Signy Island, South Orkney Islands. Higher rates of  $\text{NH}_3$  emission ( $22 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ )  
433 were observed above the Brown noddy colony on Michaelmas Cay, Great Barrier  
434 Reef, Australia (Riddick et al., 2014), while Blackall et al. (2007) reported even larger  
435 emission rates equivalent to  $240 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  from Atlantic gannets on the Bass Rock,  
436 Scotland. These results illustrate how  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions from seabird colonies are  
437 considerable discrete  $\text{NH}_3$  sources in a wide range of climates.

438 However, such figures tend to mask the climatic dependence of  $\text{NH}_3$  emission, since  
439 they are also a function of nesting density, and for total colony emissions, of bird  
440 numbers, types and colony attendance, etc. It is therefore helpful to normalize the  
441 emission rates per g of bird biomass. In this case, it can be seen that  $\text{NH}_3$  emission is  
442 much higher at the tropical colony ( $7.5 \pm 2.6 \text{ mg NH}_3\text{-N g}^{-1} \text{ bird yr}^{-1}$ ; Michaelmas  
443 Cay) than at the sub-polar Bird Island colony reported here ( $0.05 \pm 0.01 \text{ mg NH}_3\text{-N g}^{-1}$   
444  $\text{bird yr}^{-1}$ ).

445 Another way to normalize the  $\text{NH}_3$  emission data is to calculate the percentage of  
446 excreted nitrogen that volatilizes as  $\text{NH}_3$  ( $P_v$ , %), as described in Supplementary  
447 Material Section 8. An excretion rate (Furness et al., 1991; Wilson et al., 2004),  
448 calculated from the adult/chick mass, nitrogen content of the food, energy content of  
449 the food, assimilation efficiency of ingested food and proportion of time spent at the  
450 colony during the breeding season has been used instead of direct measurements of  
451 guano depth up at the colony to reduce disturbance to breeding birds and minimize the  
452 risk of egg/chick abandonment. For the measurements reported here, a  $P_v$  value of  
453  $4.7 \pm 0.5$  % was calculated for the Atlantic puffin colony on the Isle of May,  
454 compared with  $1.6 \pm 0.4$  % for Bird Island and  $3.1 \pm 1.1$  % for Signy Island,  
455 respectively (percentage error in measurement and modelling; Table 1).

456 In Table 2 the values from the present study are compared with emission rates and  
457 estimates of  $P_v$  from other published studies. This shows the largest values of  $P_v$  at  
458 tropical colonies, such as the Brown noddy colony on Michaelmas Cay, where  $P_v$  was  
459 estimated at  $65 \pm 22$  % (Riddick et al., 2014), and the smallest values in sub-polar  
460 conditions, with comparable values for Bird Island and Signy Island (2%, 3%,  
461 respectively) and Cape Hallet on mainland Antarctica (2%, Theobald et al., 2013).  
462 These observations are in agreement with Zhu et al. (2011) who also found that  $\text{NH}_3$

463 emissions are larger under increased temperature. However, moisture limitation can  
464 also be important at high temperatures.

465 As Riddick et al. (2014) showed for the two tropical islands, the higher value for  
466 Michaelmas Island (67%) than for Ascension Island (32%) reflected a moisture  
467 limitation at the latter site. In this instance, of two sites with similar temperatures, it  
468 appears that the limited water availability at Ascension Island resulted in a lower rate  
469 of uric acid hydrolysis, thereby leading to lower  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions. By contrast, the  
470 overall increase in observed  $P_v$  with increasing temperature across the sites (Table 2)  
471 may be a consequence of both increasing volatility of  $\text{NH}_3$  and increasing rates of uric  
472 acid hydrolysis, where sufficient moisture is available, although it is not possible to  
473 distinguish these component effects from our measurements. In order to examine  
474 these drivers separately, specific process modelling is needed (Riddick, 2012; Riddick  
475 et al. in prep).

476 <<INSERT TABLE 2 HERE>>

477 It is worth noting that the measured  $P_v$  for the Atlantic puffin colony on the Isle of  
478 May (5%) is much lower than the estimate by Riddick et al. (2012) and the  
479 measurements made in similar conditions on the rocky cliffs of the Isle of May  
480 (Guillemot) and Bass Rock (Northern gannet) by Blackall et al. (2004; 2007) (16-  
481 36%). The much lower emission rate for Atlantic puffins, compared with Northern  
482 gannets and Guillemot under the same climate, may be attributed to their habitat  
483 preference as burrow nesters in grassland. This illustrates how climatic conditions are  
484 not the only factors to affect  $\text{NH}_3$  emission. In the case of the puffins on the Isle of  
485 May case, the comparison suggests that emissions rates are about 14-31% of what  
486 would be emitted by bare-rock breeding birds under the similar temperate climatic  
487 conditions.

488 Excretory behaviour of Atlantic puffins varies between individual birds and can lead  
489 to variation in  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions. The entrance chambers of most puffin burrows are free  
490 from guano, with chicks deeper in the nest excreting inside the burrow, but adults do  
491 not excrete in the burrow (M. Newell, pers. comm.). A significant fraction of the  $\text{NH}_3$   
492 emitted from subterranean excreta can therefore be expected to be absorbed by  
493 overlying soil and vegetation. The amount of puffin excretion on the land surface  
494 changes during the day as well as between days, puffins can be observed in large  
495 numbers across the colony, often at dusk and less so at dawn (Harris & Wanless,  
496 2011).

497 In earlier modelling estimates, the presence of substantial amounts of vegetation has  
498 been estimated to reduce  $\text{NH}_3$  by a multiplier of 0.2 (Wilson et al., 2004), while  $\text{NH}_3$   
499 emissions from excretion inside burrows was estimated to be 0.1 of that on bare rock.  
500 Based on the  $P_v$  values presented in Table 2, the present measurements in the Firth of  
501 Forth indicate 0.14 or 0.31 times lower emissions for Puffins (grass and burrows)  
502 compared with Northern Gannets or Guillemots, respectively (which are both bare  
503 rock breeders) which are broadly consistent with the prior model estimates.

#### 504 **4.2 $\text{NH}_3$ Emissions and environmental conditions**

505 The  $\text{NH}_3$  emission estimates from the on-line measurements offer the possibility to  
506 compare and interpret emission rates with environmental parameters during the course  
507 of the measurement campaigns. This is illustrated for the Isle of May and Bird Island  
508 in the present study and for Ascension Island (Riddick et al., 2014), based on a  
509 comparison of hourly emission estimates to each environmental variable (ground

510 temperature, relative humidity, wind speed and precipitation) at each site  
511 (Supplementary Material Section 10).

512 The results show ground temperature is positively correlated to measured NH<sub>3</sub>  
513 emission at each site, representing tropical, temperate and sub-polar climates. The  
514 strongest correlation with temperature was found at the Isle of May (R=0.7; P<0.001).  
515 Conversely, the weakest correlation between ground temperature and NH<sub>3</sub> emissions  
516 was found for Ascension Island (R=0.2; P<0.001), which appears to have been due to  
517 the overriding importance of moisture-limitation on the temporal pattern of emissions  
518 at this site (Riddick et al., 2014). This is illustrated by a higher correlation between  
519 NH<sub>3</sub> emission and relative humidity (R = 0.4; P<0.001) and NH<sub>3</sub> emission and  
520 precipitation events (R = 0.3; P<0.001) at Ascension Island. In fact, Ascension is the  
521 only field site where there is a positive correlation between NH<sub>3</sub> emission and both  
522 relative humidity and precipitation, whereas relative humidity is inversely correlated  
523 to emission at the Isle of May and Bird Island. This indicates that, where there is  
524 sufficient water availability for uric acid hydrolysis (as at Bird Island and the Isle of  
525 May), excess water tends to suppress the measured NH<sub>3</sub> emission.

526 Wind speed has a positive correlation with emission at all sites, with this correlation  
527 being strongest in the sub-polar conditions of Bird Island (R = 0.9; P<0.001) and  
528 weakest in the tropical conditions of Ascension Island (R = 0.1; P=0.09). This may  
529 reflect the fact that Bird Island is the windiest site (2 - 18 m s<sup>-1</sup>) with the smallest  
530 moisture limitation and temperature variation, so that turbulence is the major  
531 controller of hourly variation in NH<sub>3</sub> emissions. By contrast, wind speeds were lower  
532 at Ascension Island, so that the effect of varying moisture limitation largely masked  
533 the effect of wind speed.

534 It was assumed that the pH at each site remained constant throughout. No direct  
535 measurements of pH were taken because of access restrictions to the breeding sites  
536 and changes in pH of the guano may explain some of the variance in results.  
537 Supplementary Material Section 11 shows there is some correlation between soil pH  
538 and  $P_v$  ( $R^2 = 0.40$ , number of points = 11, p-value 0.04). Supplementary Material  
539 Section 11 also shows that there is also a negative correlation between seabirds' food  
540 energy to nitrogen ratio ( $R^2 = 0.61$ , number of points = 11, p-value 0.004). The  
541 energy to nitrogen ratio is significantly correlated to  $P_v$ , but that the response is very  
542 weak as the ratio only goes from 167 to 189, ie around 10% variation, so cannot  
543 propagate much to other estimates, and may simply reflect input uncertainty in the  
544 dataset. The sample size of species and diet is very small and further investigation is  
545 required to ensure this is not correlated solely with temperature.

### 546 **4.3 Comparison of Active and Passive sampling methods**

547 The comparison summarized in Table 1 shows that the approach of calculating time-  
548 averaged NH<sub>3</sub> fluxes from ALPHA samplers provided surprisingly similar estimates  
549 to those calculated from on-line sampling with 15 minute averaging. This finding is  
550 consistent with a similar comparison by Riddick et al. (2014) for tropical colonies,  
551 and by Theobald et al. (2013) for measurements on mainland Antarctica. In principle,  
552 while co-variance between NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations and varying atmospheric turbulence is  
553 expected to lead to significant errors, these comparisons show that the errors  
554 associated with this can be relatively modest in practice. While this finding may be a  
555 surprise to micrometeorologists, it appears to result from the fact that non-linearities  
556 associated with averaging over periods of changing atmospheric stability are

557 relatively modest when compared with other sources of uncertainty, especially for  
558 such sites at relatively windy locations.

559 By calculating the flux using the on-line NH<sub>3</sub> sampling, but with the time resolution  
560 of the ALPHA samplers, we can also compare the chemical and meteorological  
561 sources of uncertainty. In this way, Table 1 shows that the Uncertainty associated  
562 with the Sampling Period (USP) is of comparable magnitude to the Uncertainty  
563 associated with the chemical Sampling Method (USM). This study therefore further  
564 provides support for the utility of low-cost passive sampling measurements at remote  
565 locations where it is often logistically much harder to deploy expensive active  
566 sampling methods. While such passive NH<sub>3</sub> flux measurements cannot replace  
567 continuous measurements for the examination of detailed (e.g. hourly) temporal  
568 controls on emissions (Supplementary Material Section 10), they may serve a useful  
569 role in gathering data over longer periods (e.g. 2-weekly measurements over several  
570 years) for comparison of seabird colonies in different climates.

## 571 **5. Conclusions**

572 The analysis shows that each of the environmental variables investigated have an  
573 influence on NH<sub>3</sub> emission (ground temperature, relative humidity, precipitation,  
574 wind speed). Increases in NH<sub>3</sub> emission caused by increases in relative humidity and  
575 rain events were only observed at the arid Ascension Island field site, where lack of  
576 moisture appeared to limit rates of uric acid hydrolysis. At other sites in colder  
577 climates, increases in precipitation result in decreased NH<sub>3</sub> emission, because rain  
578 events dilute available ammonium pools, while having the potential to wash uric acid  
579 and NH<sub>3</sub> from the surface. Ammonia emission was found to increase with wind speed  
580 especially at the cooler sites, reflecting a reduction in both aerodynamic and boundary  
581 layer resistances at higher wind speeds. Overall, the most consistent relationship is  
582 the increase in NH<sub>3</sub> emission with increasing ground temperature.

583 Future work will examine these mechanisms more explicitly using a mechanistic  
584 model (Blackall, 2004; Riddick, 2012), allowing the observed relationships between  
585 environmental conditions and NH<sub>3</sub> emission to be better understood, as well as  
586 providing a basis for simulating the effect of future climate change scenarios on  
587 global NH<sub>3</sub> emissions from seabird colonies.

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Figure 1 Left pane: Location of the Isle of May off the coast of Scotland, UK (56.19 °N, 2.56 °W). Right pane: Details of the Isle of May showing the Atlantic Puffin study colony, meteorological station and the site for on-line campaign measurements of ammonia concentration.

Figure 2 Top left pane: Location of measurement site on South Georgia (54.01 °S, 38.08 °W). Bottom left pane: Location of Bird Island in relation to South Georgia. Right pane: North western Bird Island indicating locations of Big Mac Macaroni penguin colony being studied, location of passive samplers and the site of the active ammonia concentration measurements, at Fairy Point.

Figure 3 Top left pane: Location of measurement site on South Orkney Island (60.73 °S, 45.59 °W). Bottom Left pane: Location of Signy Island relative to the South Orkney Islands. Right pane: Details of south-eastern Signy Island showing the ammonia sampling locations (ALPHA masts) in relation to the studied nesting area of Adélie and Chinstrap penguin nests on the Gourlay Peninsula of Signy Island.

Figure 4. Time-course of measured ammonia concentrations (top), calculated NH<sub>3</sub> emissions (bottom) for the active sampling campaign on the Isle of May, Scotland July 2009.

Figure 5 Time-course of measured ammonia concentrations (top), calculated NH<sub>3</sub> emissions (bottom) for the active sampling campaign on Bird Island, South Georgia, November & December 2010.

Table 1 Comparison of active and passive sampling. Summary of seabird colony  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions estimated from temperate and sub-polar measurement campaigns.  $P_v$  is the percentage of excreted nitrogen that volatilizes as  $\text{NH}_3$ , Ground T is the ground temperature, USP represents the uncertainty in the flux attributable to the choice of sample averaging period and USM represents the uncertainty in the flux caused by the choice of sampling method (see notes below). Colony M indicates Isle of May, colony B indicates Big Mac on Bird Island and colony S indicates Signy Island.

Table 2 Summary of seabird colony  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions estimated from measurement campaigns at the field sites in this study as compared with other recent measurements. Column  $P_v$  describes the percentage of seabird excreted nitrogen that volatilizes as  $\text{NH}_3$ .

Colony	Measurement Period	Passive				On-line measurement								USP ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ )	USM ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ )
		[NH <sub>3</sub> ] ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	Av. Flux NH <sub>3</sub> ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) (Flux a.)	Uncertainty in flux $\pm$ ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ )	$P_v$ (%)	Av. Flux NH <sub>3</sub> ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) (Flux b.)	Uncertainty in flux $\pm$ ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ )	$P_v$ (%)	Av. [NH <sub>3</sub> ] ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	Flux using Av. [NH <sub>3</sub> ] ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) (Flux c.)	Uncertainty in flux $\pm$ ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ )	$P_v$ (%)			
M	1	36 <sup>1</sup>	5.1	1.9	5	5.3	0.6	5	41 <sup>4</sup>	6.0	2.0	6	-1.0	-1.0	
M	2	16 <sup>1</sup>	1.9	0.7	2										
M	3	3 <sup>1</sup>	0.4	0.2	2										
M	4	1 <sup>1</sup>	0.1	0.1	0										
B	1	13 <sup>2</sup>	3.6	1.5	1										
B	2	36 <sup>2</sup>	11.2	4.7	3	10.3	2.9	2	9 <sup>5</sup>	10.6	2.9	3	-0.3	0.6	
B	3	34 <sup>2</sup>	8.9	3.7	2	10.5	2.9	2	9 <sup>5</sup>	10.7	2.9	3	-0.2	-1.8	
B	4	16 <sup>2</sup>	4.4	1.8	1										
B	5	11 <sup>2</sup>	3.5	1.5	1										
B	6	16 <sup>2</sup>	4.3	1.8	1										
B	7	29 <sup>2</sup>	9.2	3.9	2										
S	1	290 <sup>3</sup>	18.2	6.1	3										
S	2	171 <sup>3</sup>	7.9	2.7	3										
S	3	339 <sup>3</sup>	9.0	3.1	3										

<sup>1</sup> Ammonia concentrations measured in the middle of the colony (Passive Measurement site, Isle of May) and 1.5 m from the ground

<sup>2</sup> Ammonia concentrations measured at 3 m from the edge of the colony (Mast 1, Bird Island) and 1 m from the ground

<sup>3</sup> Ammonia concentrations measured in the middle of the colony (Mast 1, Signy Island) and 1 m from the ground

<sup>4</sup> Ammonia concentrations measured in the middle of the colony (Active Measurement site, Isle of May) and 1.26 m from the ground

<sup>5</sup> Ammonia concentrations measured at 300 m from the edge of the colony (Active Measurement site, Bird Island) and 2 m from the ground

#### Notes:

Flux a. Flux calculated as the mean (+/- uncertainty) of hourly flux estimates based on hourly meteorology and time-integrated NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations from passive sampling

Flux b. Flux calculated as the mean (+/-uncertainty) of available hourly flux estimates derived from application of the on-line hourly NH<sub>3</sub> measurements with hourly meteorology.

Flux c. Flux calculated as the mean (+/-uncertainty) of flux estimates calculated from the on-line NH<sub>3</sub> measurements based on block averaging the NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations to the same extended sampling periods as used for the passive sampling.

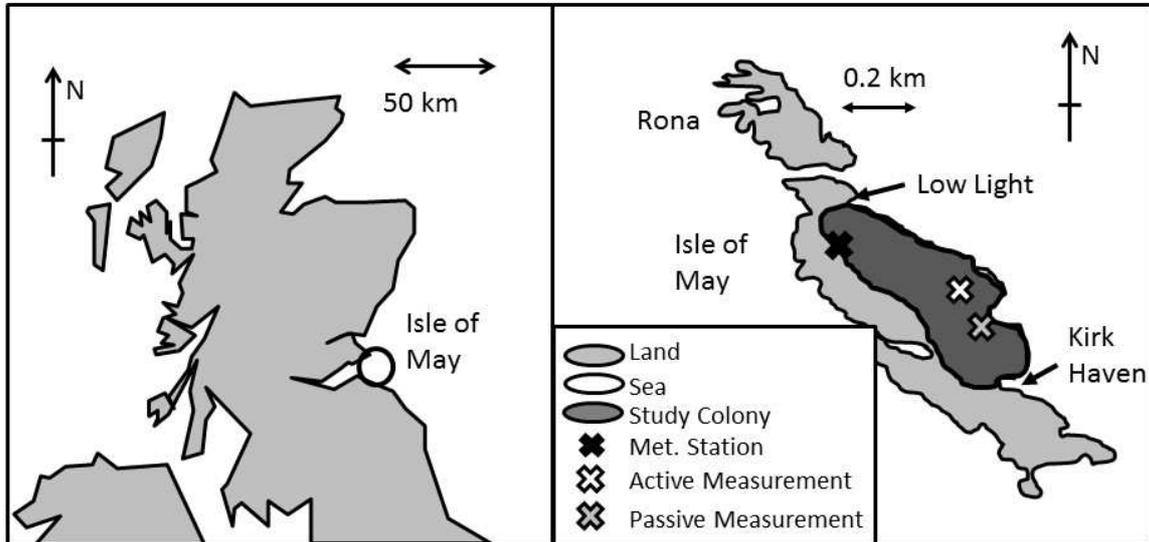
USP is calculated as flux b minus flux c, and estimates the uncertainty in flux a and c due to using time-integrated  $\text{NH}_3$  sampling instead of continuous hourly  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations. USM is calculated as flux a minus flux c, and estimates the uncertainty in flux b and c due to incomplete sampling when using the on-line measurement system.

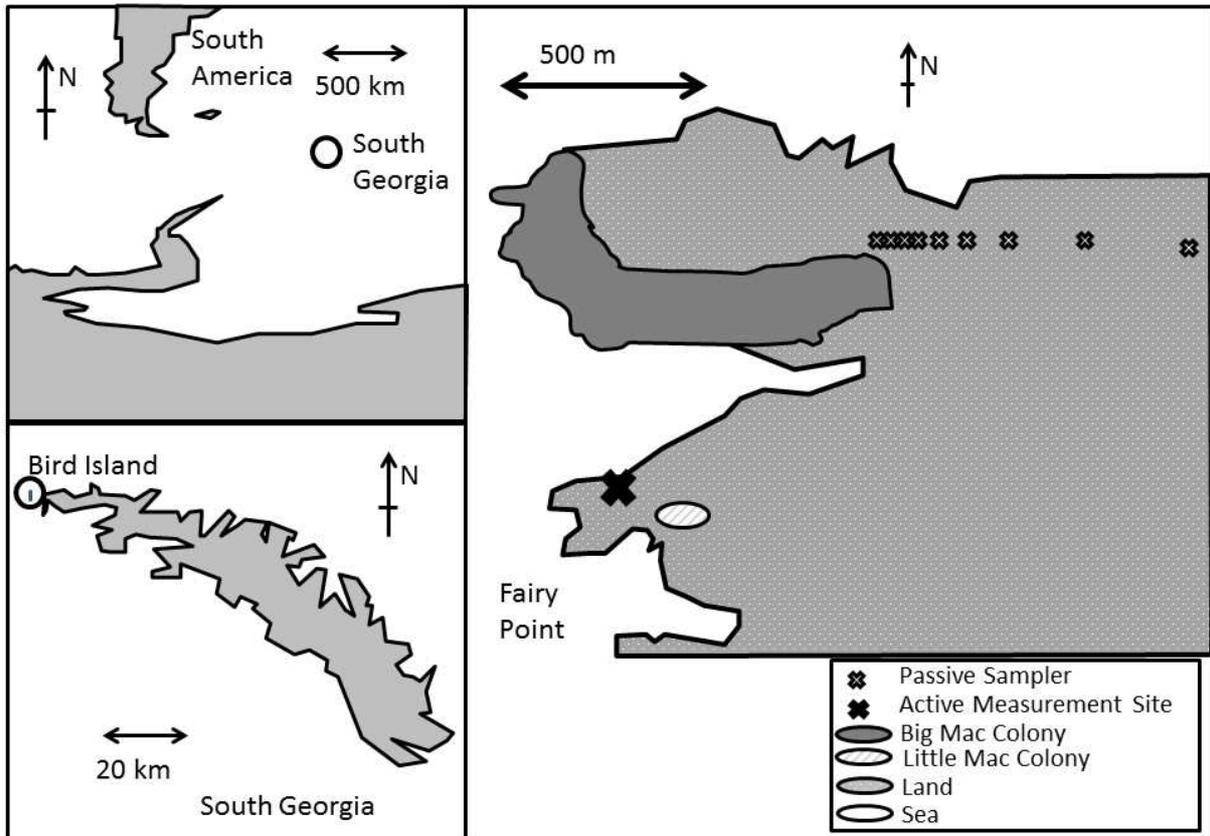
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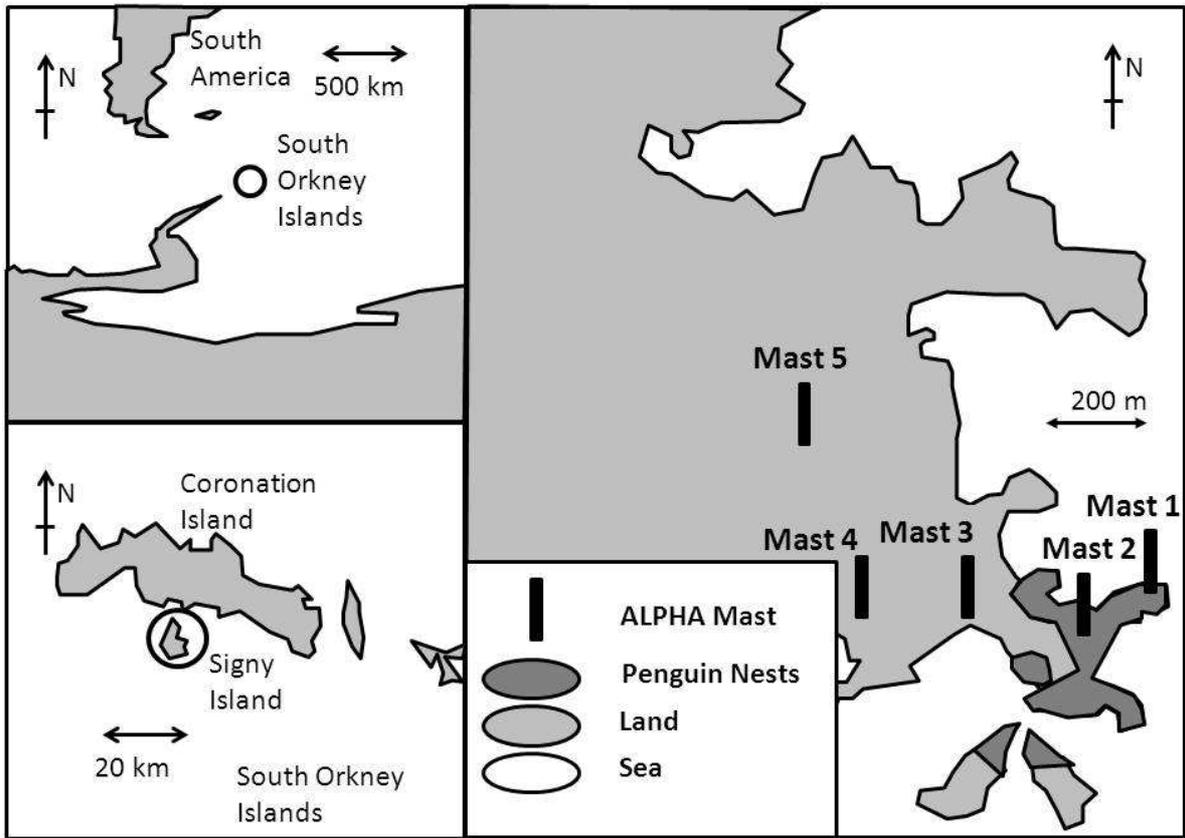
Colony	Average T (°C)	Breeding pairs of seabirds	Bird species measured	Calculated NH <sub>3</sub> emission (µg m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )	P <sub>v</sub> (%)	Source
Isle of May (Scotland) <sup>#</sup>	14	41,000	Atlantic puffin	5	5	This study
Signy Island (South Orkney)	2	19,000	Adélie and Chinstrap penguins	12	3	This study
Bird Island (South Georgia) <sup>#</sup>	3	40,000	Macaronic penguin	9	3	This study
Mullet Island (California, USA)	32	4,000 <sup>a</sup>	Double-crested Cormorant	58 <sup>a</sup>	22 <sup>a</sup>	Tratt et al. (2014)
Ascension Island (Atlantic)	30	1,00,000	Sooty tern	19	32	Riddick et al. (2014)
Michaelmas Island (Australia)	30	10,000	Sooty tern	22	67	Riddick et al. (2014)
Cape Hallet (Antarctica)	-1	39,000	Adélie penguin	2	2	Theobald et al. (2013)
Isle of May cliffs (Scotland)	14	2,00,000	Guillemot	3	16	Blackall et al. (2007)
Bass Rock (Scotland)	17	44,000	Northern gannet	240	36	Blackall et al. (2007)
Amanda Bay, Antarctica	4		Emperor penguin		12	Zhu et al. (2011)
Gardener Island, Antarctica	4		Adélie penguin		1	Zhu et al. (2011)

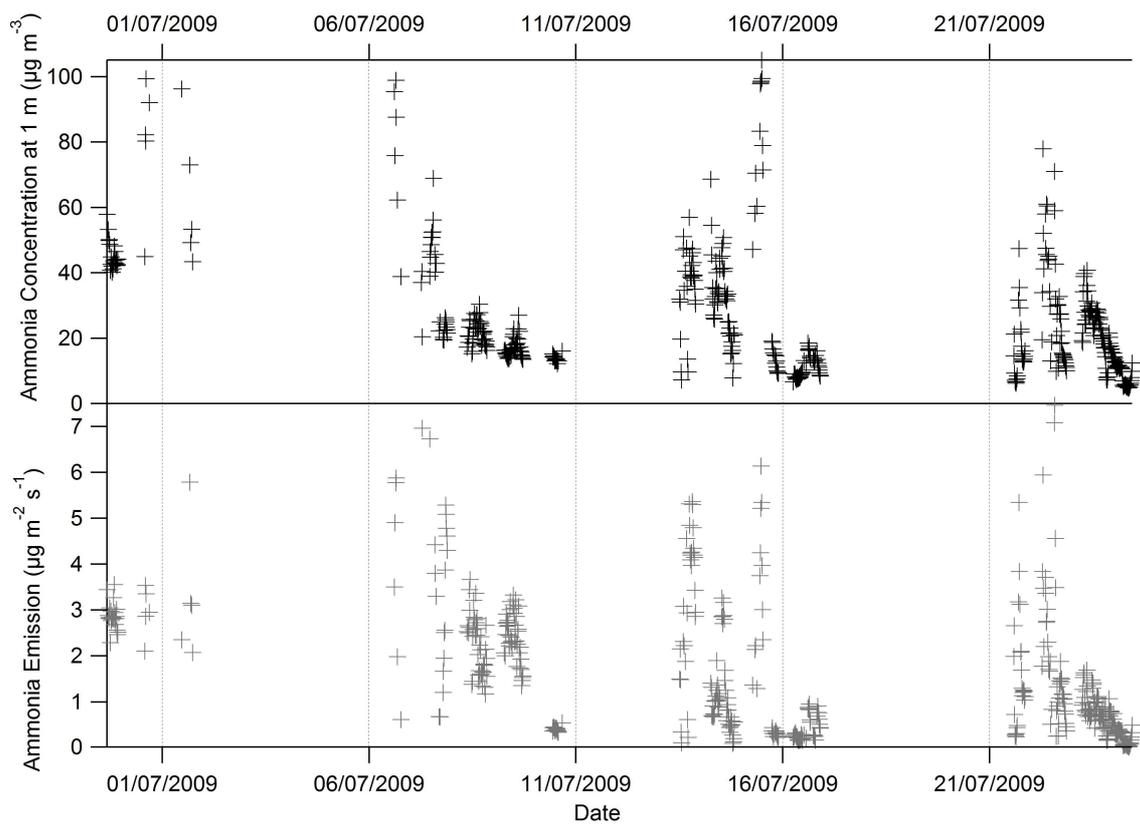
<sup>a</sup> Estimates based on data in Tratt et al. (2014) and data from Riddick et al. (2012).

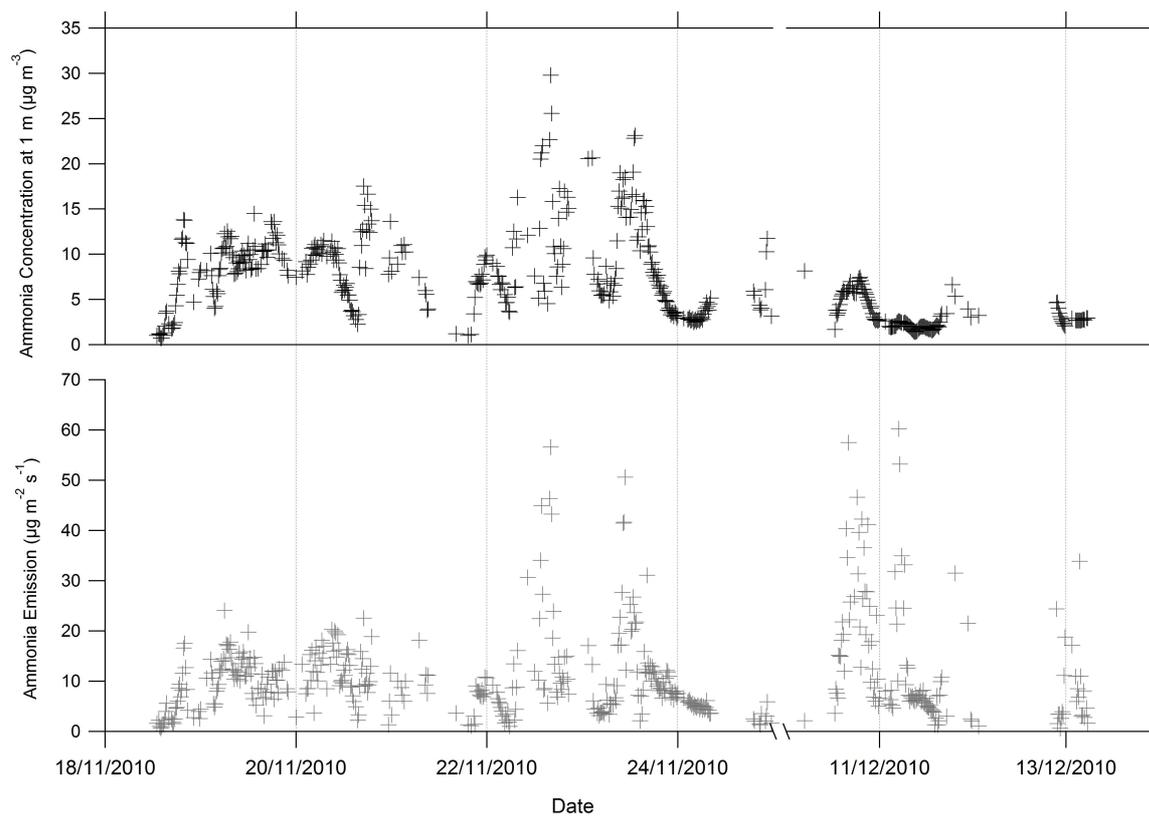
<sup>#</sup> mean of the estimates from active and passive sampling (Table 1).











>The effect of meteorology on  $\text{NH}_3$  fluxes from temperate and sub-polar seabird colonies is measured. >The percentage of excreted nitrogen that volatilized was 3% at sub-polar penguin colonies. > The percentage of guano nitrogen volatilized in temperate and sub-polar environments is much smaller than in tropical contexts. > Confirms that temperature has a significant influence on the magnitude of  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions.

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