

Sources of Reactive Nitrogen in the Upper Troposphere During SONEX

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Abstract. The relationship among NO_y, O₃, N₂O, ultra-fine condensation nuclei (CN), and other trace gases in the upper troposphere (UT) and lower stratosphere (LS) observed during SONEX are analyzed with the goal to identify and quantify the sources of NO_y in the UT. We use N₂O to separate upper tropospheric air from stratospheric influenced air and focus our analysis to the former. The distributions of NO_y and O₃ show remarkable similarity when they are plotted as a function of N₂O. The only difference between NO_y and O₃ is found in upper tropospheric air where a large number of data points have high values of both NO_y and the NO_y/O₃ ratio. Major sources contributing to these high NO_y values are found to be emissions from lightning and surface sources transported to the UT by convection.

Introduction

Nitrogen oxides, i.e. NO_x (NO+NO₂) are key trace gases in the tropospheric photochemistry. Photochemical reactions involving NO_x, CO and CH₄ are a major source of tropospheric O₃. Because the lifetime of NO_x is short and the sources are small, NO_x concentrations in most parts of the troposphere are extremely low. As a result, NO_x is usually the rate-limiting precursor of O₃.

As O₃ in the UT is an effective greenhouse gas (Fishman et al., 1979), an environmental concern is the possible increase of O₃ in the UT due to NO_x emissions from subsonic aircraft (e.g. Singh et al., 1999). However, a quantitative evaluation of the increase in O₃ has turned out to be difficult and highly uncertain. A major contributor to the uncertainty is the lack of knowledge about the budget of NO_x and other reactive nitrogen species in the UT.

Concurrent observations of total reactive nitrogen or NO_y (NO + NO₂ + N₂O₅ + NO₃ + HNO₃ + HO₂NO₂ + PAN + other organic nitrates), NO and tracers such as N₂O, O₃, CN, CH₄, CO and others in the stratosphere have been shown to be valuable for studying the budgets of NO_y and O₃ (e.g. Murphy et al., 1993; Ridley et al., 1994). The study by Murphy et al. (1993) is particularly interesting in addressing

NO_y sources in the UT. By examining the ratio of NO_y to O₃ as a function of potential temperature observed from ER-2 aircraft over Punta Arenas, Stavanger, and Darwin during various airborne experiments, they were able to deduce that lightning was a major source of NO_y in the tropical UT and LS, confirming findings of modeling studies (Tuck, 1976; Kley et al., 1981; Ko et al., 1986).

In this work, we study the budget of NO_y by examining the relationship among NO_y, O₃, CN, N₂O, and other trace gases in the UT and LS observed on board the NASA DC-8 aircraft during SONEX. SONEX was an airborne field campaign conducted in October-November 1997 in the vicinity of the North Atlantic Flight Corridor to study the impact of aircraft emissions on NO_x and ozone (Singh et al., 1999). Following the work of Murphy et al. (1993), we will take advantage of the near-inert characteristics of O₃ and NO_y in the LS and UT. In these regimes, the O₃ lifetime against photochemical sink is on the order of a year, except inside the polar vortex (Brasseur and Solomon, 1986; Liu and Trainer, 1988).

Characteristics of NO_y and O₃ as a Function of N₂O

Figures 1a-1c depict the mixing ratios of NO_y and O₃, and the NO_y/O₃ ratio as a function of N₂O for all observations above 7 km. The observations used here are those from the 10 second merged data set as described by Singh et al. (1999). N₂O is used because it is a tracer that gives a good measure of the influence of stratospheric air. The smaller the N₂O mixing ratio is, the larger is the stratospheric influence. This is reflected clearly by the excellent anti-correlation between O₃ and N₂O in Fig. 1a which is typical for mid-latitude air observed near the tropopause (e.g. Murphy et al., 1993). In this study, 312 ppbv is chosen to represent the mixing ratio of N₂O at the tropopause based on an examination of the vertical distributions of N₂O, H₂O and O₃. The regime with mixing ratio of N₂O greater than 312 ppbv will be called upper tropospheric air (UTA) and below the value as the stratospheric influenced air (SIA). There is an uncertainty of about 1 ppbv in the determination of this tropopause value of N₂O. The uncertainty is small enough that it has a negligible effect on the major results of this work.

The relationship between NO_y and N₂O (Fig. 1b) is similar to that of O₃ and N₂O, especially when the stratospheric influence is significant. This can be seen in Fig. 1b for the regime below 312 ppbv of N₂O where the distribution of NO_y is very similar to that of O₃. The similarity between NO_y and O₃ in the SIA was observed consistently in a number of experiments before (e.g. Fahey et al., 1990; Murphy et al., 1993; Weinheimer et al., 1993) and is expected as both O₃ and NO_y have their major stratospheric sources in the upper stratosphere. In addition, the ratio of NO_y to N₂O in the SIA is in good agreement with previous observations (e.g.

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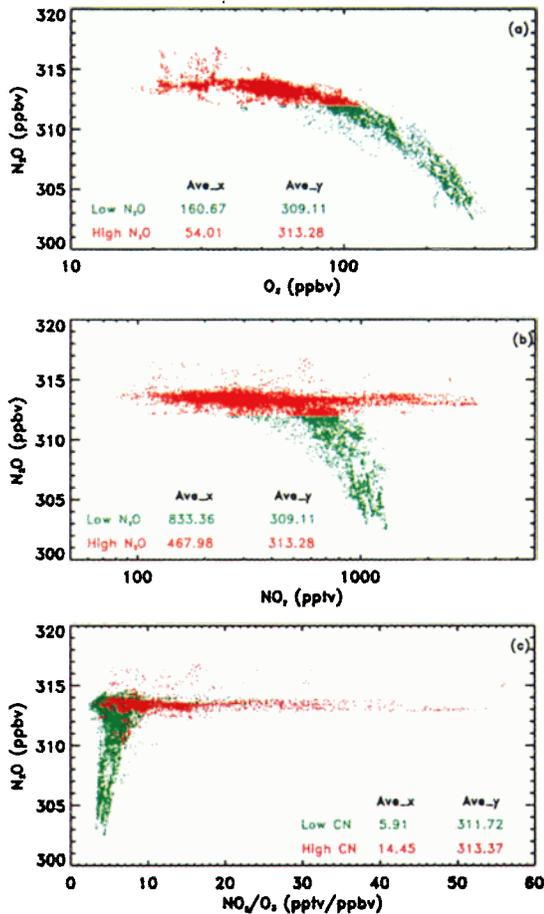


Figure 1a. Correlation between O₃ and N₂O for all data points above 7 km; 1b, same as 1a except for NO_y and N₂O; 1c, same as 1a except for NO_y/O₃ and N₂O.

Loewenstein et al., 1993; Murphy et al., 1993). The only significant difference between NO_y and O₃ is in the UTA where NO_y deviates from the smooth profile of SIA by having significant number of data points with large mixing ratios. Both the difference and the similarity between NO_y and O₃ are highlighted by the plot of the NO_y/O₃ ratio against N₂O in Fig. 1c. The ratio is nearly a vertical straight line in the SIA. In contrast, there is a long horizontal tail of high NO_y/O₃ ratio in the UTA as a result of large increases in NO_y mentioned above.

The nearly vertical distribution of NO_y/O₃ ratio in Fig. 1c is substantiated by the fact that the median value of NO_y/O₃ ratio increases by only about 70% from the lowest 10% of N₂O to the highest 10% of N₂O. In contrast, corresponding changes in the median values of O₃ (Fig. 1a) and NO_y (Fig. 1b) are greater than a factor of five. This drastic reduction in the variability suggests that NO_y and O₃ distributions in the UTA and the SIA are controlled by common factors or processes. One of the processes may be the exchange process between the UT and the LS that may have a strong influence on the O₃ and NO_y distributions in both the SIA and the UTA.

Identifying the Sources of NO_y in the UTA

What is the NO_y source(s) in the UTA? In order to address this question, an obvious approach is to examine data points

with high NO_y/O₃ ratio. Fig. 1c indicates that NO_y/O₃ ratio of 10×10^{-3} , above which about 20% of the data points reside, is a reasonable cut-off value for high NO_y/O₃ because it is close to the top quartile cut-off value and it clearly separates the high NO_y/O₃ tail from the rest of the data. The time periods and flight numbers of these points are plotted and examined (not shown). The major contributing flights listed in decreasing importance are flights 14, 12, 10, 3, and 9. A general description of the flight tracks and characteristics of these flights is presented in Singh et al. (1999). These five flights contribute to about 80% of the total points with NO_y/O₃ > 10×10^{-3} . An examination of the lightning frequency observed and back trajectories during each flight indicates that these were the very flights with significant occurrences of lightning or convective activities upwind. This strongly suggests that NO emissions from lightning or some other NO_x sources related to convection are the predominant sources of NO_y. This notion is also supported by the fact that most of the points with NO_y/O₃ > 10×10^{-3} have high concentrations of CN (> 5000 cm⁻³, red points in Fig. 1c) which are known to be produced in the convection (Ridley et al., 1997; Wang et al., 1999). Of course, high CN may also indicate emissions from aircraft (e.g. Schlarger et al., 1997; Anderson et al., 1999). However, aircraft contrails are characterized by short pulses/spikes of CN and NO_y of several seconds to a few minutes (e.g. Zheng et al., 1996; Wang et al., 1999) rather than the long pulses evident in flights 10, 12 (Fig. 2), and 14.

A strong piece of evidence supporting lightning or some other NO_x sources related to convection as the dominant sources of the high NO_y/O₃ data points can be seen in Fig. 1c. In this figure there are a total of 1,241 data points with NO_y/O₃ > 10×10^{-3} , 1239 of them in the UTA but only 2 points in the SIA. This large disparity is also seen in the distribution of the absolute levels of NO_y (Fig. 1b), e.g. there are significant number of points with NO_y increments of 1000 pptv or more above the median value (325.5 pptv) in the UTA (red points), but not a single point with such increment in the SIA (green points). Such a large disparity can only be explained by sources of NO_y that reside only in the troposphere. These sources can be lightning and/or surface sources, but not emissions from aircraft, because the North Atlantic Flight Corridor often cross into the LS in this season (Baughcum et al., 1996). This was confirmed by back-trajectory study of Koike et al., (1999) and Kondo et al. (1999) who showed a large number of aircraft flights occurred in the SIA.

The absolute value of NO_y can be used to calculate an upper limit of the aircraft contribution to the high NO_y values in the UTA. This is done by first calculating the occurrence of data points with NO_y increments of 325.5 pptv (median UTA NO_y) above the median NO_y level of each 1 pptv bin of N₂O. We find that 29 points occur in the SIA while 877 points occur in the UTA, i.e. a ratio of 3.3%. The value 3.3% is more than a factor of ten smaller than the ratio of number of data points in the SIA vs. that in the UTA ($2532/6158 = 0.41$ or 41%). By assuming all the high NO_y values observed in the SIA are from aircraft emissions, we can calculate an upper limit of the aircraft contribution to the high NO_y values in the UTA to be $3.3\%/0.41 = 8\%$.

Once the aircraft emissions are excluded as a major source of data points with NO_y/O₃ > 10×10^{-3} , the major contributing sources can be identified relatively easily as they each tend to

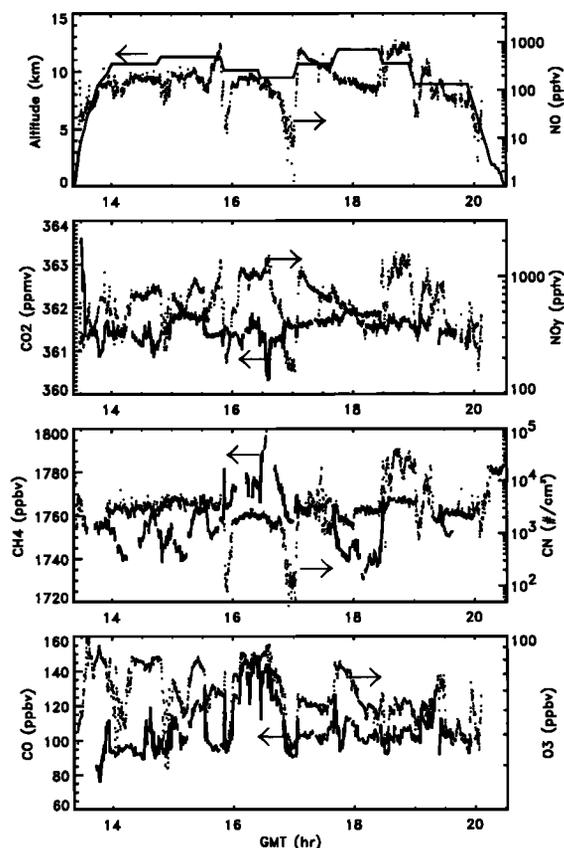


Figure 2. Time series of mixing ratios of key trace species and altitude observed during flight 12, November 3, 1997. The y-coordinates are denoted by arrows.

have unique characteristics in their relationship with various tracers. Zheng et al. (1995) was successful in using the correlation between NO_y and other trace gases such as CO, CO₂, CH₄, O₃, and H₂O to identify surface sources, lightning emissions, and stratospheric influence. We apply their method in the following analysis and an example is illustrated in Fig. 2 for flight 12 on November 3, 1997. Surface pollution can be clearly identified for the time period from about 1610 to 1645 Universal Time (UT). During this period the CO mixing ratio reached more than 145 ppbv. CH₄ was also above normal and the CN levels were also below normal. Interestingly the NO_x/NO_y ratio was low at 0.23, suggesting extensive atmospheric processing and significant production of O₃. Indeed, O₃ was high at about 85 ppbv. In contrast, a lightning source of NO_y can be seen between 1830 to 1850 UT during which NO_y, NO, and CN were all substantially elevated. The ratio of NO_x/NO_y was about 0.7, while O₃ was at a moderate level of about 55 ppbv, as expected from fresh emissions of NO_x. In addition, both CO and CH₄ were substantially lower than those of the surface pollution case.

When the above method is applied to all UTA points with NO_y/O₃ > 10 × 10⁻³, we obtain the following results: about 50% of the points are due to NO_x emissions from lightning, and about 20% due to convection of surface sources. The rest are not identified because of lack of clear signatures. They could be due to a mixture of sources, including lightning, surface sources, aircraft (< 8%) and other unknown sources. The average NO_y mixing ratio of all points with NO_y/O₃ >

10 × 10⁻³ is 1017 pptv (1239 points). Assuming the median NO_y mixing ratio (325.5 pptv) of the entire UTA data points (6158 points) as the background value of NO_y, we can calculate the contribution of the points with NO_y/O₃ > 10 × 10⁻³ to the upper tropospheric NO_y by calculating the average difference between the 1239 points with NO_y/O₃ > 10 × 10⁻³ and the background value, i.e. (1017 – 325.5) × 1239 / 6158 = 139.1 pptv. This is a lower limit because we include only the difference as the contribution. In reality, the points with NO_y/O₃ > 10 × 10⁻³ also contribute to the background NO_y. This lower limit is highly significant, representing about 30% of the total NO_y observed in the UTA (above 7 km) during SONEX. This translates to a lower limit of 21% (i.e. 30% × 70%) contribution by lightning and convection.

From the above discussion, aircraft emissions contribute less than 8% to the NO_y increments with NO_y/O₃ > 10 × 10⁻³, which is equivalent to (30% × 8% = 2.4%) of the total NO_y observed. Why the contribution is so low? Why are the contrails hardly noticed? If we can't see them in the data points with NO_y/O₃ > 10 × 10⁻³, can they still contribute significantly to the background NO_y distribution? In the following, we attempt to address these questions.

Contrails of subsonic aircraft were observed frequently before, often with NO_y spikes larger than several ppbv and time intervals of the spikes significantly greater than the 10 seconds data resolution used in this study (e.g. Zheng et al., 1995; Schlager et al., 1997). Therefore, the answer to the first two questions is most likely that the majority of aircraft contrails observed during SONEX were relatively old so that the NO_y levels in the contrails were diluted too much to raise the NO_y/O₃ ratio above 10 × 10⁻³. This suggests that aircraft emissions may contribute significantly to the data points with NO_y/O₃ < 10 × 10⁻³, including the background level of NO_y/O₃ (6.6 × 10⁻³ in the UTA). To address this problem, we have made a similar study of the contributing sources for the data points with NO_y/O₃ between 7 × 10⁻³ and 10 × 10⁻³. A total of 1466 data points are found in the UTA. The previously identified convection/lightning flights (14, 12, 10, 3, and 9) and time periods contribute about 60% to the total number of these data points. Although this again suggests the importance of lightning and surface sources, it does not rule out aircraft emissions as a major contributor to the other 40% of the points. Unfortunately, it is difficult to even make a qualitative identification of the contributing sources of these 40% of points because most of the points are from aged emissions that are characterized by low values of NO_x/NO_y ratio, low CN (< 5000 cm⁻³), and small spikes. The average NO_y level with NO_y/O₃ between 7 × 10⁻³ and 10 × 10⁻³ is 434.5 pptv, merely 109 pptv above the median value. If we apply the earlier method of calculating the lower limit of contribution to the NO_y abundance in the UTA, the 60% and 40% correspond to only 3.3% and 2.2% of the total NO_y, respectively. Thus, even if all 40% of the data points with NO_y/O₃ between 7 × 10⁻³ and 10 × 10⁻³ were from aircraft emissions, the contribution to the total NO_y observed in the UT (above 7 km) during SONEX would be only 2.2%.

Conclusions

By examining the distributions of NO_y, O₃, and NO_y/O₃ ratio as a function of N₂O, we have found that the data points with NO_y/O₃ ratio greater than 10 × 10⁻³ contribute more than 30% to the NO_y abundance in the UTA observed during

SONEX. The major sources (> 70%) contributing to these points are emissions from lightning and surface sources transported to the UT by convection, while the contribution from aircraft emissions is < 8%. For data points with NO_y/O₃ ratio between 7×10^{-3} and 10×10^{-3} , lightning and surface sources also appear to be the major sources, but aircraft emissions may account for as much as 40%. However, this 40% corresponds to only about 2% of the total NO_y abundance in the UTA. Finally, a few important points of caution are needed: first, our results apply only to the region sampled during SONEX; second, our method of analysis applies only to data points with relatively high ratios of NO_y/O₃; third, the method used in this study cannot be applied to the background level of NO_y which accounts for about 60% of the NO_y abundance in the upper tropospheric air observed during SONEX.

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