

# Nitrate radical chemistry over the sub-Arctic Pacific

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## 1. Introduction

In mid-latitudes, nocturnal chemistry and physics strongly affect the nitrogen oxides ( $\text{NO}_x = \text{NO} + \text{NO}_2$  nitric oxide, nitrogen dioxide) budget and consequent production of ozone ( $\text{O}_3$ ; Brown et al. 2004). A large fraction of  $\text{NO}_2$  forms nitrate radicals,  $\text{NO}_3$ , and dinitrogen pentoxide,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  during the night. The variability in  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  chemistry can lead to either strong or weak sinks for  $\text{NO}_x$  (Brown et al. 2004). Tropospheric  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  permits reversible, temperature-dependent storage and/or transport of  $\text{NO}_x$ . It hydrolyzes readily to nitric acid ( $\text{HNO}_3$ ) via a heterogeneous reaction on the surface of aerosol particles, a potentially efficient  $\text{NO}_x$  sink.  $\text{NO}_3$  can react with reduced sulfur compounds and hydrocarbons to produce  $\text{HNO}_3$ .

During daytime photolysis and the presence of NO efficiently destructs  $\text{NO}_3$ . Because  $\text{NO}_2$  is photolyzed to form  $\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{NO}_x$  repartitions to notable amounts of NO. Some of the NO destroys  $\text{NO}_3$  and limits  $\text{NO}_3$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$ . Often NO is more a limiting factor for daytime  $\text{NO}_3$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  than  $\text{NO}_3$  photolysis. NO also reacts with free radicals from photolysis of volatile organic compounds (VOC). These free radicals recycle NO to  $\text{NO}_2$ . This means that each molecule of NO can produce  $\text{O}_3$  multiple times until the VOC chains of carbon compounds are too short to be photolyzed. Over the ocean, the main VOC source is from ship emissions. In mid-latitudes, the reaction of  $\text{NO}_2$  with photochemically-produced OH produces  $\text{HNO}_3$  and accounts for the majority of  $\text{NO}_x$  loss during the day (Brown et al. 2004).

In mid-latitudes, peroxyacetyl nitrates (PANs) formation is a significant instantaneous  $\text{NO}_2$  loss, but not a long-term  $\text{NO}_x$  sink. A source of peroxy radicals is the thermal decay of photochemically-produced PAN that can persist into the night. In the sub-Arctic, however, PAN becomes subject to long-range transport (Moxim et al. 1996) even in the atmospheric boundary layer (ABL) and serves as a long-term reservoir for  $\text{NO}_x$  (Mölders et al. 2010). Under certain atmospheric conditions ( $T < 263\text{K}$ ),  $\text{NO}_3$  can be a more important sink for polycyclic aromatic

hydrocarbons (PAH) than  $\text{NO}_2$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$ , or  $\text{O}_3$  after long  $\text{NO}_3$  exposure times. In the sub-arctic winter, temperatures are typically lower than this threshold.

In mid-latitudes, ozone concentrations decrease towards the surface and are about 40ppb in the upper nocturnal boundary layer (NBL). The positive  $\text{O}_3$ -gradient results from dry deposition and titration with NO emitted close to the ground.  $\text{NO}_2$  often develops a negative vertical gradient due to production by reactions of NO with  $\text{O}_3$ . The vertical profiles of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  depend strongly on those of  $\text{NO}_3$ ,  $\text{NO}_2$  and temperature (Geyer and Stutz, 2004).

This paper examines the fate of  $\text{NO}_3$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  as either a reservoir or a sink for  $\text{NO}_x$  over the sub-Arctic Pacific in January. In subarctic and Arctic winter, hardly any daylight and photochemistry exist. Radiative cooling suppresses convection and often generates stable vertical stratification. The negative buoyancy reduces the vertical transport produced by wind shear. Inversions over the sub-Arctic Pacific (Bering Sea, Gulf of Alaska) may trap the pollutants emitted along sea routes. Characterization of the nocturnal processes is critical to understanding the cycling of  $\text{NO}_x$  in sub-Arctic winter.

## 2. Experimental design

We used WRF/Chem with the following model setup: Cloud microphysical processes were treated with Lin et al.'s (1983) bulk-parameterization scheme that considers cloud-water, rainwater, cloud-ice, snow, graupel and hail. Grell and Dévényi (2002) cumulus ensemble scheme was applied for convection. Long-wave and shortwave radiation were considered by the Rapid Radiative Transfer Model (RRTM; Mlawer et al. 1997) and the Goddard shortwave scheme, respectively. Viscous sub-layer and ABL processes were dealt with by the similarity scheme and the Mellor-Yamada-Janjic scheme of the Eta model. The exchange of heat, and moisture at the atmosphere-surface interface was calculated by the Noah land-surface model (Chen and Dudhia 2000). Noah predicts soil temperature and moisture states at four depths, canopy moisture and snow-cover. Fractional sea-ice was considered.

Atmospheric chemistry reactions were described by the Regional Acid Deposition Model version 2 (RADM2; Stockwell et al. 1990). Inorganic reactions and constants involve 14 stable inorganic compounds, four inorganic short-lived intermediates and three abundant stable species (oxygen, nitrogen, water). The organic chemistry scheme considers 26 groups of stable organic compounds and 16 groups of organic short-lived intermediates (peroxy radicals). Photolysis calculation considered 21 photo-chemical reactions (Madronich 1987).

We used the Modal Aerosol Dynamics Model for Europe (MADE; Ackermann et al. 1998) to simulate aerosol physics and chemistry and aqueous reactions. The Secondary Organic Aerosol Model (SORGAM; Schell et al. 2001) was applied to simulate secondary organic aerosols. Sea-salt properties were calculated as a function of wind speed.

Wesley's (1989) dry deposition module was modified in accord with (Zhang et al. 2003) to treat dry deposition of trace gases more realistically at low temperatures as they occur in Siberia and Alaska during January. Since the stomata of boreal forest are still open at  $-5^{\circ}\text{C}$ , the threshold for total closure of stomata was lowered accordingly. Alaska-typical vertical profiles of background concentrations were used (Mölders et al. 2010).

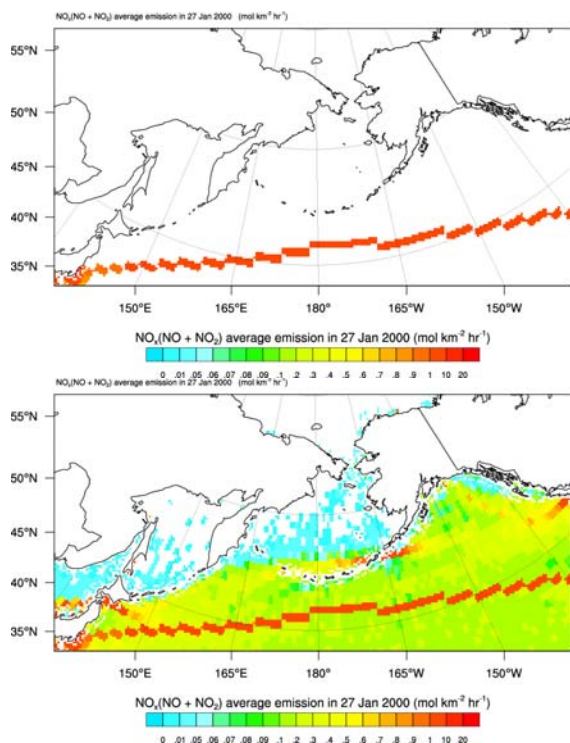


Fig. 1. Average ship emission of  $\text{NO}_x$  for 1-27-2000 from international ship traffic derived from EDGAR (top) and average ship emissions as obtained from the combined data from EDGAR and RETRO (bottom).

Anthropogenic emissions for 2000 were derived from the Emission Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR) that provides annual emission inventories on a  $1^{\circ}\times 1^{\circ}$  grid. It considers fossil-fuel related sources, bio-fuel combustion, industrial production and consumption processes including solvent use and landuse-related sources including waste treatment. Since EDGAR only includes the international ship emissions, the domestic ship emissions are taken from the REanalysis of the TRO-

pospheric (RETRO) to account for the total ship emissions (Fig. 1). This dataset has a  $1^{\circ}\times 1^{\circ}$  and monthly resolution for domestic ship emissions. To obtain hourly emission data allocation functions for the month, day-of-the-week and hour were used (Wang et al. 2007, Mölders 2009). The VOC and NMVOCs split follows Theloke and Friedrich (2007) for all anthropogenic emissions except from ships that follows Eyring et al. (2005).

Biogenic emissions of isoprene, monoterpenes, and other VOCs from vegetation and nitrogen from the soil were calculated inline in accord with Guenther et al. (1994) and Simpson et al. (1995).

The model domain encompasses the atmosphere over the North Pacific (centered at  $59^{\circ}\text{N}$ ,  $179^{\circ}\text{E}$ ) from East Asia to western Canada (Fig. 1) with  $240\times 120$  grid points and a horizontal grid increment of 30km and 27 vertical layers that increase with height.

The National Center for Atmospheric Research and National Centers for Environmental Prediction  $1^{\circ}\times 1^{\circ}$  and six-hour resolution global final analysis (FNL) data served as initial and boundary conditions for meteorological quantities.

At the beginning of the simulation, the chemical fields were initialized using typical Alaska background concentration (Mölders et al. 2010). The chemical fields of the previous simulation were used as initial conditions for the next simulation of the following day. The meteorological conditions were initialized every 5 days.

### 3. Preliminary results

The cyclones that occur frequently over the northern Pacific during the episode of interest take up pollutants from emissions in Asia and along the international sea routes transporting pollution to the sub-Arctic Pacific and Alaska. Secondary pollutants form during transport. The long nights affect atmospheric chemistry.

$\text{NO}_2$  is less than 0.01ppb in northern Siberia, the Chukchi Sea and northern Alaska in areas that do not receive any insolation.  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations exceed 5ppb over the Asian industrial centers, and Seattle and Vancouver that have large ports. Along the warm fronts of cyclones that moved over these industrial centers and/or sea routes, concentrations are around 0.5 and locally exceed 1ppb.

In areas that receive insolation,  $\text{NO}_x$  shows a diurnal cycle with higher concentrations at day than night. Phase and amplitude depend on the duration and intensity of insolation.  $\text{NO}_x$  is highest in the surface layer and decreases rapidly with height. At 2km, average  $\text{NO}_x$  concentrations are more than an order of magnitude smaller than close to the surface.

In areas that do not receive any solar radiation at all within 24h,  $\text{NO}_3$  concentrations range between 0.01 and 0.05ppt all the time. However, this area without insolation decreases as days get longer later in January. Southward of this area,  $\text{NO}_3$  goes down to less than 0.01ppt during the day and builds up as night falls. Typically, values are around 0.05ppt during the night, but locally increase as cyclones take up pollutants from the sea routes and/or from Asia. Over the Asian industrial areas, nighttime  $\text{NO}_3$  concentrations are around 5ppt, but locally exceed 10ppt. In cyclones that passed the Asian industrial centers and/or sea routes,  $\text{NO}_3$  reaches up to 5ppt. On average,  $\text{NO}_3$  decreases with height. At 2.5km,  $\text{NO}_3$  concentrations are typically about half their near-surface values.

North of 65°N,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  concentrations exceed 0.05ppt most of the time. During hours without solar radiation  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  exceeds 50ppt over the Asian industrial centers and ranges between 5 and 10ppt over the sea routes. If a cyclone takes up polluted air from Asia and/or the sea routes,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  concentration will show the pattern of the cyclone when there is no insolation. As solar radiation increases,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  is destroyed and approaches zero. During the next night,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  will form again and depict the cyclone's pattern, but with lower concentrations than the night before until the cyclone decays. In these cyclones,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  concentrations locally exceed 10ppt and typically range between 0.1 and 5ppt.  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  concentrations are highest in the surface layer and decrease with height. Typically,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  concentrations are an order of magnitude or more smaller at 2km height than at the surface.

In areas with solar radiation,  $\text{NO}_3$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  show distinct diurnal cycles (Fig. 2).  $\text{NO}_3$  formation starts earlier and destruction starts later than for  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$ . As January progresses the amplitude of the diurnal  $\text{NO}_3$  cycle slightly decreases on average. In areas with low duration of insolation, the diurnal cycle hardly exists. Obviously, during the dark nights advection of polluted air governs  $\text{NO}_3$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  concentrations. In areas with insolation, the diurnal cycle governs the  $\text{NO}_3$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  and peak concentrations are slightly affected by advection of polluted air.

$\text{HNO}_3$  concentrations are around 0.05ppb except for China and Japan, and in fronts. Over the Asian industrial centers,  $\text{HNO}_3$  concentrations amount ~5ppb. Cyclones take the  $\text{HNO}_3$  burdened air onto Pacific. In fronts,  $\text{HNO}_3$  concentrations amount between 0.1 and 0.5ppb. Ahead of the fronts,  $\text{HNO}_3$  concentrations are less than 0.001ppb.

The  $\text{HNO}_4$  concentrations show a distinct diurnal cycle. North of 70°N  $\text{HNO}_4$  concentrations exceed 0.1ppt most of the time, but locally sometimes exceed 1ppt. In the downwind of the Asian industrial

centers,  $\text{HNO}_4$  concentrations exceed 10ppt the entire time, while these concentrations are exceeded occasionally in the downwind of the sea routes.

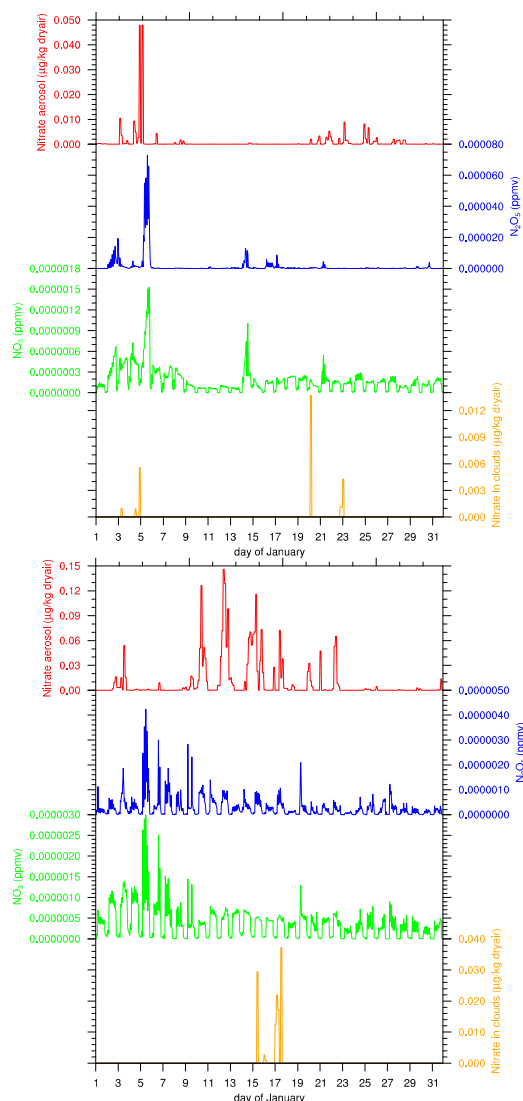


Fig. 2. Time series near-surface  $\text{NO}_3$ ,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$ , nitrate aerosol and nitrate in clouds at 61.97N, 148.26W (Bering Sea, top), and 47.96N, 177.32E (middle of North Pacific, bottom) Nitrate concentration in cloud is zero if no fog exists or only ice fog occurs.

In the area of the Asian industrial centers, daylight hours are long enough to permit for PAN formation. Cyclones transport PAN onto the Pacific to the subarctic Pacific and Alaska. PAN concentrations are highest in the cold sector of cyclones (~0.3ppt or higher). As the cyclones move north, ambient air becomes relatively cooler than farther south for which lifetime of PAN increases. Thus, PAN concentrations are high over the subarctic and Alaska. As PAN-loaden air moves south, PAN decreases in re-

sponse to increasing temperature due to thermal decomposition into  $\text{NO}_x$  (Fig. 3). Subsequently,  $\text{NO}_x$  concentrations increase.

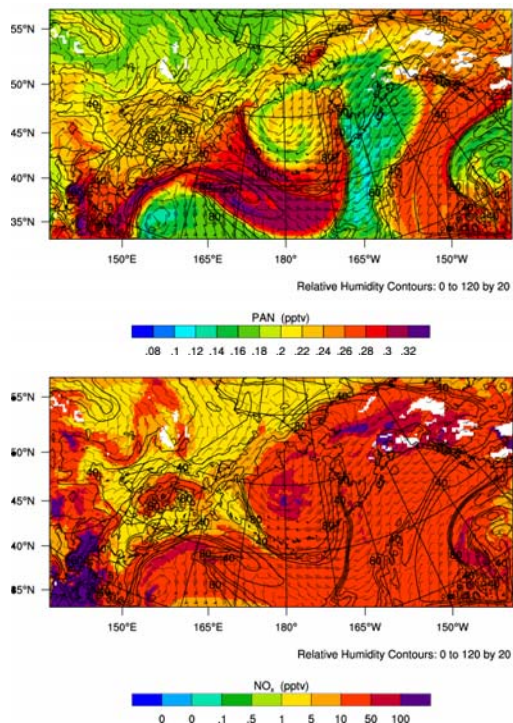


Fig. 3. Simulated PAN (top) and  $\text{NO}_x$  concentrations at 850hPa for January 18 2000UTC.

$\text{NO}$  titrates  $\text{O}_3$ . Ozone concentrations are around 40ppb most of the time with higher concentrations in cloud-free areas and at low than high latitudes. In polluted air,  $\text{NO}_x$  locally titrates  $\text{O}_3$  to below 20ppb. Eventually, as this  $\text{NO}_x$  dilutes with background air downwind, the ozone becomes the more available species.

In the Aitken mode,  $\text{NO}_3$  aerosol concentrations (nitrate anion  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) and nitrate in clouds (nitrate radical) are more than an order of magnitude higher ahead of fronts than elsewhere. In the accumulation mode,  $\text{NO}_3$  aerosol concentrations and nitrate in clouds are high in the warm sector of cyclones.  $\text{NO}_3$  aerosol concentrations are reduced in cloudy areas as compared to adjacent cloud-free areas. On average,  $\text{NO}_3$  aerosol and nitrate in cloud concentrations show a slight diurnal sensitivity. In clouds, nitrate is highest in the lower ABL around 400m above NSL. Above 2km height, hardly any nitrate exists in clouds. Nitrate in clouds shows a distinct diurnal cycle with a maximum around 1600 UTC (end of night in the southern part of the domain). Nitrate aerosol concentrations show a slight diurnal sensitivity with higher concentrations at night. They are highest close to the surface and decrease with height. From the

surface to 250m above NSL they decrease by more than half. Above 1.5km average nitrate aerosol concentration falls below  $1.5 \cdot 10^{-3} \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ .

### Acknowledgements

We thank C.F. Cahill, G. Kramm, and H.N.Q. Tran for fruitful discussion. This research was in part supported by NSF under ATM-0926220 and a grant of HPC resources from the ARSC at UAF as part of the DoD HPC Modernization Program.

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