

## P1.16 VERTICAL PROFILES OF FREE RADICALS IN THE POLLUTED NOCTURNAL BOUNDARY LAYER: A ONE-DIMENSIONAL MODEL STUDY

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**Abstract.** The oxidation of anthropogenic and biogenic VOCs and NO<sub>x</sub> in the polluted nighttime boundary layer (NBL) is primarily controlled by NO<sub>3</sub> radicals. NO<sub>3</sub> oxidation can also lead to the formation of secondary peroxy and even hydroxyl radicals. Calculations of the oxidation capacity of the NBL from in-situ or long-path measurements of NO<sub>3</sub> and other radicals are, however, very difficult because the assumption of a well mixed boundary layer is often not valid during night. Since VOCs and NO<sub>x</sub> are emitted near the ground while NO<sub>3</sub> radicals are formed at all altitudes, we can expect unique vertical profiles of these species. Recent measurements and model studies show in fact pronounced vertical profiles of NO<sub>3</sub> in the NBL. Here we present results from a 1D chemical box model of the nocturnal radical chemistry. The model includes vertical transport based on measured micrometeorological data, deposition and emission, and a simplified NO<sub>3</sub> and RO<sub>x</sub> chemistry module. The model reproduced vertical profiles of NO<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and O<sub>3</sub> observed near Houston, where up to 180 ppt NO<sub>3</sub> at the top of the NBL and 40 ppt at the ground were found. It was found that vertical transport cannot be neglected at night. At certain altitudes, vertical transport of NO<sub>3</sub> even is a more important NO<sub>3</sub> source than its chemical production. The results also show that steady state calculations so far used in the investigation of NO<sub>3</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> chemistry are not representative in all cases. The model predicts high values of OH radicals close to the ground which are caused by downward transport of RO<sub>2</sub>, formed by the reaction of NO<sub>3</sub> + VOCs in heights above 10 m, towards the ground, where RO<sub>2</sub> is converted into HO<sub>2</sub> and OH by the emissions of NO. The dependence of the nocturnal radical chemistry on vertical stability, NO, and VOC emission fluxes will be discussed.

### 1 INTRODUCTION

Nocturnal atmospheric chemistry and physics play a crucial role in the conversion and removal of air pollutants such as nitrogen oxides and VOCs. Because of missing solar radiation, trace gases follow different pathways (both chemically and physically) in the nocturnal boundary layer (NBL) than during day in the convective boundary layer (CBL). The convective conditions are suppressed by radiative cooling of the surface generating stable vertical stratification. Consequently, vertical turbulent transport produced by wind shear is often reduced by negative buoyancy [Arya, 1988; Rao and Snodgrass, 1979]. Trace gases emitted near the surface will therefore accumulate close to the ground leading directly and indirectly to strong vertical gradients of a number of species. Because of higher vertical stability during night, vertical transport is a key component determining the concentration levels and height profiles of many trace gases. Recently it became clear that vertical transport and chemical conversion cannot be separated from each other in the NBL [Galmarini et al., 1997].

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Photolytic reactions, which are the driving force of atmospheric chemistry during daytime hours, are unimportant during night. As a consequence the free radical pool is modified: the NO<sub>3</sub> radical, which is rapidly photolysed during day (e.g., [Magnotta and Johnston, 1980; Wayne et al., 1991]), replaces the OH radical, which is mainly produced by the photolysis of ozone, HONO, or aldehydes (e.g., [Alicke et al., 2002; Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts, 2000]). Recently, however, first evidences were found that significant amounts of OH radicals could also be formed during night (e.g., [Faloona et al., 2001; Geyer et al., 2002]). The coupled effects of nocturnal boundary layer chemistry and limited vertical transport suggest unique vertical profiles of a number of species such as NO<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, NO, O<sub>3</sub>, and OH during nighttime.

Our present knowledge about the origin and development of height profiles of nocturnal key compounds such as NO<sub>3</sub>, RO<sub>2</sub>, HO<sub>2</sub>, and OH is, however, very poor:

Recently, first evidence was found that NO<sub>3</sub> has a unique vertical profile in the NBL [Aliwell and Jones, 1998; Fish et al., 1999; Friedeburg et al., 2002; Povey et al., 1998; Weaver et al., 1996]. First reasonably resolved profiles of NO<sub>3</sub> above urban areas were measured by [Friedeburg et al., 2002] and Wang et al. (P1.1, AMS2003) showing a strong increase of the NO<sub>3</sub> concentration up to the height of the NBL followed by a sudden decrease above the NBL. [Friedeburg et al., 2002] found near ground values (≈ 2 ppt) to be up to a factor 60 lower than at the top of the NBL, where 130 ppt were detected..

Height profiles of nocturnal RO<sub>x</sub> radicals were not measured up to now. Although there are a number of RO<sub>x</sub> models, e.g., [Bey et al., 1997; Bey et al., 2001; Geyer et al., 2002; Götz et al., 2001; Harrison et al., 1998], to our knowledge vertical transport was not considered in a nighttime RO<sub>x</sub> model study so far.

In our poster, we present results from a 1D model to calculate vertical profiles of reactive trace gases (e.g., NO<sub>3</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, RO<sub>2</sub>, HO<sub>2</sub>, OH) in the polluted nocturnal boundary layer. The model includes vertical transport, deposition and emission, and a simplified NO<sub>3</sub> and RO<sub>x</sub> chemistry set. The origin of the NO<sub>3</sub> and RO<sub>x</sub> profiles was investigated. The role of vertical transport for the vertical profiles of NO<sub>3</sub> and other reactive gases (especially RO<sub>2</sub>, HO<sub>2</sub>, OH) was quantified.

### 2 DESCRIPTION OF THE 1D - MODEL

The model is based on a system of one-dimensional transport-kinetics equations (eq. 1), where the rate of

change of the concentration  $c(z, t)$  of a trace gas is expressed as the sum of the rate of change by vertical transport ( $\frac{\partial}{\partial z}(\text{Diff}(z) \cdot \frac{\partial c}{\partial z})$ ), based on Fick's second law),

the rate of change by chemical reactions (total chemical production rate  $P(z,t)$  and loss rate  $L(z,t)$ ), and the emission rate  $\Phi(z,t)$ :

$$\frac{dc}{dt} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(\text{Diff}(z) \cdot \frac{\partial c}{\partial z}) + P(z,t) - L(z,t) + \Phi(z,t) \quad (1)$$

Concentration changes by advection are neglected in our model.

The model spans altitudes from the ground up to 100 m subdivided in 14 layers with a log-linear spacing between the layers. It includes an explicit calculation of the vertical exchange of all compounds between neighboring boxes, calculation of the temperature profile, a simplified chemical mechanism of nocturnal  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{NO}_3$ ,  $\text{RO}_x$ ,  $\text{O}_3$ , and VOC chemistry, heterogeneous reactions on aerosols, emission of NO from the soil and cars, emission of monoterpenes from the biosphere, and dry deposition on the ground. Because the model is restricted to nighttime conditions, photolysis is not included. Key parameters of the model are its variable vertical mixing strength and the NO and VOC emission rates (as well as emission heights).

## 2.1 Vertical transport

The concentration change of a trace gas in a box by vertical exchange is calculated using Ficks' second law from the height depending sum of the laminar diffusion coefficient  $D$ , which is of the order of  $0.1 \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$ , and the turbulent (eddy) diffusion coefficients  $K(z)$ . The calculation of the turbulent diffusion coefficient  $K(z)$  is based on an interpolation formula suggested by [Reichardt, 1951].  $K(z)$  can reach values of several  $10^4 \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$ :

$$K(z) = 10^4 \kappa \cdot u^* \cdot \frac{z_i}{\Phi\left(\frac{z}{L}\right)} \left(\frac{z}{z_i} - \tanh\left(\frac{z}{z_i}\right)\right) \quad (\text{cm}^2/\text{s}), \quad (2)$$

where  $\kappa$  is the von-Karman constant  $\approx 0.4$ ,  $u^*$  is the surface friction velocity, and  $z$  is the height above ground. Thereby,  $z_i$  is an empiric constant (representing approximately the height, where laminar and turbulent diffusion are of the same value) given by [Reichardt, 1951] as  $z_i = 10^{-5} \frac{\sqrt{T}}{u^*}$ . The dimensionless correction

function  $\Phi\left(\frac{z}{L}\right)$  is a function of the stability parameter,  $z/L$ , given by [Businger et al., 1971] (with  $L$  being the Monin-Obukhow length).

Because a constant surface friction velocity is assumed the calculation of  $K(z)$  is limited to the Prandtl layer covering approximately the first 50 - 100 m of the atmosphere.

The gradient of the potential temperature  $\Theta$  in the Prandtl layer is calculated from the heat flux  $H$  according to an equation presented for example by [Roedel, 1992] as:

$$\frac{d\Theta}{dz} = -\frac{H}{c_p \cdot \rho} \cdot \frac{1}{\kappa \cdot u^* \cdot z} \Phi_H\left(\frac{z}{L}\right) \quad (3)$$

Here,  $c_p$  represents the heat capacity of the air,  $\rho$  its density, and  $\Phi_H\left(\frac{z}{L}\right)$  the dimensionless correction function for heat transport published by [Businger et al., 1971]. The actual temperature profile, which can easily be derived from  $\frac{d\Theta}{dz}$ , is used in the calculation of temperature-dependent kinetic rate-constants within the chemical mechanism.

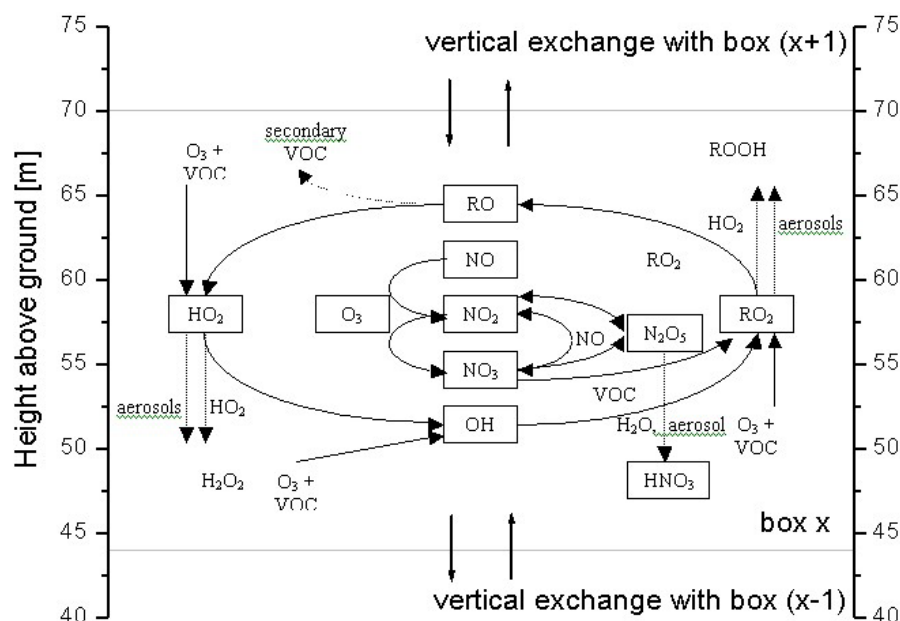


Figure 1. Chemistry and vertical transport of the 1D-boxmodel.

## 2.2 Chemical mechanism framework

The chemical reaction scheme of the model is shown in Figure 1. The inorganic reaction framework is taken from the Master Chemical Mechanism 3 (MCM3) published online under <http://chmlin9.leeds.ac.uk/MCMframe.html>. It is limited to three nocturnal key families: nitrogen oxides NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>3</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, and HNO<sub>3</sub>, ozone O<sub>3</sub>, and the HO<sub>x</sub> radical group OH and HO<sub>2</sub> (and the reservoir species HO<sub>2</sub>NO<sub>2</sub>) and reactions among each other. Updated rate constants are taken from [DeMore *et al.*, 1997; Sander *et al.*, 2000]. A key chain is the sequential oxidation of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> by O<sub>3</sub> into NO<sub>3</sub>. The nitrate radical also reacts with NO back into NO<sub>2</sub>. It also establishes a steady state with NO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, which can react with water vapor or water adsorbed on aerosol surfaces. For this process an uptake coefficient of  $\gamma(\text{N}_2\text{O}_5) = 0.05$  was chosen as suggested by the IUPAC subcommittee (June 2002) for water droplets. Another reaction path of NO<sub>3</sub> is the reaction with unsaturated VOCs.

The oxidation mechanisms of three individual VOCs:  $\alpha$ -pinene, isoprene, and propene are included in the model. The oxidation chains initiated by reactions with NO<sub>3</sub>, OH, and O<sub>3</sub> generally follow the sequence VOC – RO<sub>2</sub> – RO – HO<sub>2</sub> – OH, which is discussed in detail by e.g., [Geyer *et al.*, 2002]. This sequence is carried by reactions of RO<sub>2</sub> and HO<sub>2</sub> with NO, NO<sub>3</sub>, and RO<sub>2</sub>. The alkoxy radical RO either reacts very fast with molecular oxygen to HO<sub>2</sub> or forms secondary VOCs by its thermal decay or isomerization. The self-reaction of HO<sub>2</sub> forms H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, which is an end product in the model. Peroxy radicals can also react on aerosol surfaces. Uptake coefficients of 0.01 and 0.015 were chosen for RO<sub>2</sub> and HO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. In addition, ozonolysis can directly form HO<sub>2</sub> and OH radicals [Paulson and Orlando, 1996].

## 2.3 Deposition and emission

Dry deposition to the surface is calculated for reactive species in the lowest box, which is in contact with the ground. The number of molecules of each species in the this box colliding with the soil is calculated from kinetic gas theory and multiplied by the uptake coefficient  $\gamma$  to result in the loss on the ground. The following uptake coefficients were chosen:

$$\gamma(\text{O}_3) = 0.002, \gamma(\text{NO}_2) = 0.0015, \gamma(\text{NO}_3) = 0.0005, \gamma(\text{N}_2\text{O}_5) = 0.05, \gamma(\text{HNO}_3) = 0.20, \gamma(\text{RO}_2) = 0.01, \gamma(\text{HO}_2) = 0.01, \text{ and } \gamma(\text{OH}) = 0.005.$$

These coefficients are based on the values suggested by the IUPAC subcommittee (June 2002) for water droplets.

Nighttime emissions of NO and  $\alpha$ -pinene are included in the model (see for example [Fuentes *et al.*, 2000; Guenther *et al.*, 2000] for more details about biogenic emissions). NO is emitted from the soil into the lowest box or by cars in 50 cm height. A homogeneous emission of  $\alpha$ -pinene (for example from trees) was included between altitudes of 1 to 11 m.

## 2.4 Variation of input parameters

Height profiles were calculated for different scenarios, uncluding rural and urban environments, weak and strong atmospheric stability, and different temperatures (see Table 1).

## 3 Results

We discuss here first results of vertical profiles of O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, NO, NO<sub>3</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, and  $\alpha$ -pinene for an urban case of high NO emissions at moderate vertical stability (typical urban situation, Run 20 from Table 1). Vertical profiles of RO<sub>2</sub>, HO<sub>2</sub>, and OH are discussed by Stutz *et al.* (4.2, AMS2003).

Figure 2 shows the vertical profiles of O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, NO, NO<sub>3</sub>,

Run #	$u^*$ (m/s)	H (W/m <sup>2</sup> )	T (K)	H <sub>2</sub> O (cm <sup>-3</sup> )	p (mbar)	Aerosol surface ( $\mu\text{m}^2/\text{cm}^3$ )	NO <sub>2</sub> initial (ppb)	O <sub>3</sub> initial (ppb)	Isoprene initial (ppb)	Propene initial (ppb)	NO/ $\alpha$ -pinene flux (cm <sup>2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )
1	0.15	-7	290	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	400	10	60	0.2	4	$10^{10}/3 \times 10^9$
2	<b>0.1</b>	<b>-15</b>	290	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	400	10	60	0.2	4	$10^{10}/3 \times 10^9$
3	<b>0.25</b>	<b>0</b>	290	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	400	10	60	0.2	4	$10^{10}/3 \times 10^9$
4	0.15	-7	<b>280</b>	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	400	10	60	0.2	4	$10^{10}/3 \times 10^9$
5	0.15	-7	<b>300</b>	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	400	10	60	0.2	4	$10^{10}/3 \times 10^9$
6	0.15	-7	290	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	<b>100</b>	10	60	0.2	4	$10^{10}/3 \times 10^9$
7	0.15	-7	290	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	<b>700</b>	10	60	0.2	4	$10^{10}/3 \times 10^9$
8	0.15	-7	290	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	400	<b>1</b>	60	0.2	4	$10^{10}/3 \times 10^9$
9	0.15	-7	290	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	400	<b>60</b>	60	0.2	4	$10^{10}/3 \times 10^9$
10	0.15	-7	290	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	400	10	<b>10</b>	0.2	4	$10^{10}/3 \times 10^9$
11	0.15	-7	290	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	400	10	<b>100</b>	0.2	4	$10^{10}/3 \times 10^9$
12	0.15	-7	290	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	400	10	60	<b>0.05</b>	<b>0.4</b>	$10^{10}/3 \times 10^9$
13	0.15	-7	290	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	400	10	60	<b>1</b>	<b>10</b>	$10^{10}/3 \times 10^9$
14	0.15	-7	290	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	400	10	60	0.2	4	<b><math>0/3 \times 10^9</math></b>
15	0.15	-7	290	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	400	10	60	0.2	4	<b><math>10^{12}/3 \times 10^9</math></b>
16	0.15	-7	290	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	400	10	60	0.2	4	<b><math>10^{10}0</math></b>
17	0.15	-7	290	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	400	10	60	0.2	4	<b><math>10^{10}/10^{11}</math></b>
18	0.15	-7	290	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	400	10	60	0.2	4	$10^{10} + 5 \times 10^{10} / 3 \times 10^9$
19	0.15	-7	290	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	400	10	60	0.2	4	$10^{10} + 10^{11} / 3 \times 10^9$
20	0.15	-7	290	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	400	10	60	0.2	4	$10^{10} + 5 \times 10^{11} / 3 \times 10^9$
21	<b>0.1</b>	<b>-15</b>	290	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	400	10	60	0.2	4	$10^{10} + 5 \times 10^{10} / 3 \times 10^9$
22	<b>0.1</b>	<b>-15</b>	290	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	400	10	60	0.2	4	$10^{10} + 10^{11} / 3 \times 10^9$
23	<b>0.1</b>	<b>-15</b>	290	$2 \times 10^{17}$	1013	400	10	60	0.2	4	$10^{10} + 5 \times 10^{11} / 3 \times 10^9$

Table 1. Scenarios for 1D model.

$N_2O_5$ , and  $\alpha$ -pinene in the first 6 hours after model start. Throughout the night, NO,  $\alpha$ -pinene, and  $NO_2$  are increasing because of the NO and  $\alpha$ -pinene emissions. As a consequence,  $O_3$ ,  $NO_3$ , and  $N_2O_5$  are decreasing. After 6h,  $O_3$ ,  $NO_3$ , and  $N_2O_5$  reached zero levels near the ground.

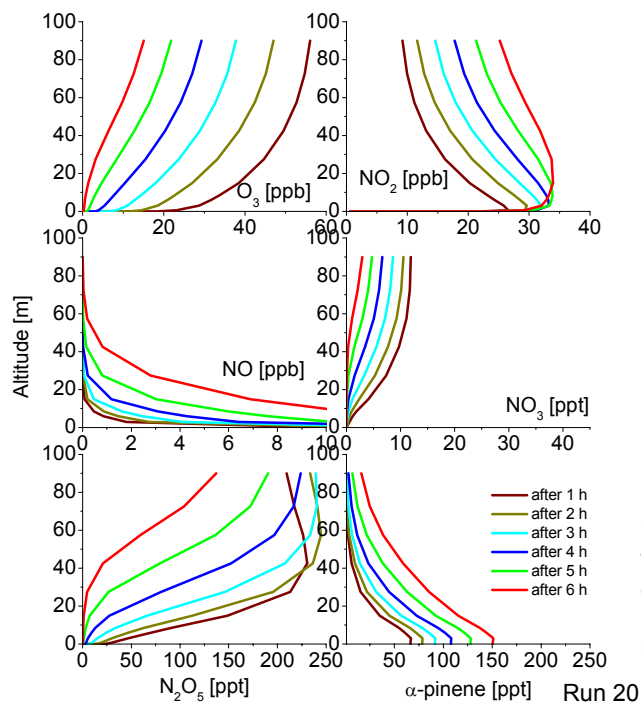


Figure 2. Vertical profiles of  $O_3$ ,  $NO_2$ ,  $NO$ ,  $NO_3$ ,  $N_2O_5$ , and  $\alpha$ -pinene for urban scenario.

In short, the high NO emissions are the driving force for the chemistry of this scenario. Vertical mixing transports NO from the lowest 50 cm of the atmosphere to higher altitudes. In this scenario, NO reaches altitudes of 20 m after 1 h. In this NO enriched layer, NO reacts with  $O_3$  to  $NO_2$  resulting in a decrease of  $O_3$  and an increase of  $NO_2$  towards the ground. Vertical mixing transports a major part of the  $O_3$  from altitudes above 20 m into the NO layer while  $NO_2$  is transported out of this layer. This transport constitutes the main source of  $O_3$  and the main sink of  $NO_2$  below 20 m.

Vertical transport also plays a major role for the  $NO_3$ - $N_2O_5$  system (Figure 3): The chemical production rate of  $NO_3$  is relatively constant with height. Its chemical sinks, however, are strongly depending on the altitude: The reaction with NO is the major sink of  $NO_3$  below 15 m while loss of  $N_2O_5$  on aerosols is the major (indirect) sink above this altitude. Reactions with VOCs or peroxy radicals play only a minor role in this scenario. Although direct vertical transport of  $NO_3$  is negligible, a major part of  $N_2O_5$  is transported from altitudes above 10 m towards the ground. There, its thermal decay forms about 25 - 50% of the  $NO_3$  radicals (the path from  $N_2O_5$  into  $NO_3$  is favored because of the high loss frequency of  $NO_3$ ).

Together, chemical processes and vertical transport result in a vertical profile of  $NO_3$  with low, but not negligible, concentrations in the NO enriched surface layer (first 20 m) and higher but almost constant concentrations above this layer.

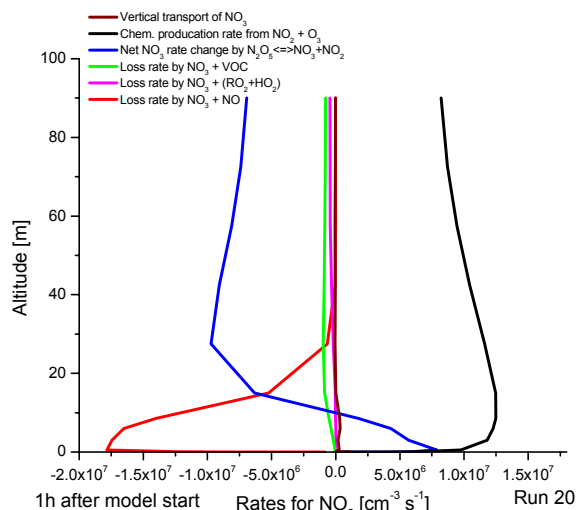


Figure 3. Rate analysis for  $NO_3$  for urban scenario.

We can now quantify the contribution of vertical transport of  $NO_3$  and  $N_2O_5$  to the development of the  $NO_3$  height profile. It was found in this study that the temporal change of  $N_2O_5$  ( $dN_2O_5/dt$ ) also has to be considered:

$$NO_3 = \frac{k_1 NO_2 O_3 + NO_3' v - \frac{dNO_3}{dt} + \frac{k_{2-} (N_2O_5' v - \frac{dN_2O_5}{dt})}{k_{2-} + k_3 Y}}{(k_{2+} - \frac{k_{2-} k_{2+}}{k_{2-} + k_3 Y}) NO_2 + k_4 X} \quad (4)$$

The constants  $k_1 - k_4$  represent the rate constants of the reactions  $NO_2 + O_3$ ,  $NO_3 + NO_2 \leftrightarrow N_2O_5$ , of the sum of other  $N_2O_5$  sinks Y, and other  $NO_3$  sinks X, respectively.

It is apparent from Figure 4 and 5 that vertical transport of  $N_2O_5$  and temporal change  $dN_2O_5/dt$  must be considered to calculate correct  $NO_3$  height profiles.

#### 4 The temperature profile and its impact on the $NO_3$ vertical profile

Because of surface cooling during night, modeled temperatures are generally increasing with height. In the case of very stable atmospheric conditions, our model predicts temperature differences of up to 10 K in the nocturnal boundary layer.

This vertical temperature profile impacts the  $NO_3$  vertical profile significantly. Because of the strong temperature dependence of the thermal decay of  $N_2O_5$ , loss of  $N_2O_5$  becomes more and more insignificant for the  $NO_3$  concentration at increasing temperatures [Geyer and Platt, 2002] and the  $NO_3$  levels increase. Therefore, the  $NO_3/N_2O_5$  steady state shifts, leading to increasing  $NO_3$  concentrations with altitude as a consequence of the increasing temperatures.

According to our calculations, the increasing temperature is the main cause of the  $\text{NO}_3$  vertical profile above altitudes of 20 m.

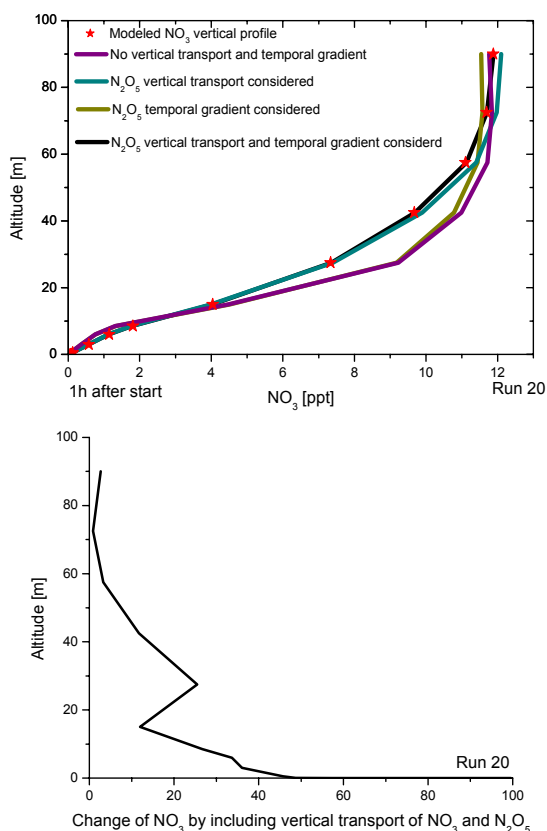


Figure 4 and 5. Contribution of vertical transport and temporal gradient of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  to the development of the  $\text{NO}_3$  height profile.

## 5 Conclusions

The following conclusions about the interaction of vertical transport and chemistry can be drawn from our model:

- The most important parameters determining the vertical distribution of all trace gases in the nocturnal boundary layer is the magnitude of vertical stability and the NO and VOC emissions.
- The model predicts  $\text{NO}_3$  vertical profiles with increasing  $\text{NO}_3$  with altitude. This is in agreement with measurements of the  $\text{NO}_3$  profile (see Wang et al., P1.1, AMS2003).
- The vertical profile of  $\text{NO}_3$  strongly depends on vertical transport and the temporal change of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$ .
- The main reason for the  $\text{NO}_3$  profile below 20 m are NO emissions from biosphere or traffic.
- The main cause for the  $\text{NO}_3$  profile above 20 m is the temperature profile during nocturnal inversions.

- The model predicts clear vertical profiles of  $\text{RO}_2$  and  $\text{HO}_2$  with levels mostly increasing with height (see Stutz et al., 4.2, AMS2003).
- The Model predicts very high nocturnal OH concentrations of some  $10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  in the first meter of the atmosphere (see Stutz et al., 4.2, AMS2003).

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