Global impact of fossil fuel combustion on atmospheric NOx

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Global impact of fossil fuel combustion on atmospheric NO\(_x\)

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Abstract. Fossil fuel combustion is the largest global source of NO\(_x\) to the troposphere. This source is concentrated in polluted continental boundary layers, and the extent to which it impacts tropospheric chemistry on a global scale is uncertain. We use a global three-dimensional model of tropospheric chemistry and transport to study the impact of fossil fuel combustion on the global distribution of NO\(_x\) during northern hemisphere summer. In the model, we tag fossil fuel NO\(_x\) and its reservoir NO\(_x\) species in order to determine the relative contribution of fossil fuel combustion to NO\(_x\) concentrations in different regions of the world. Our model includes a detailed representation of NO\(_x\)-O\(_3\)-nonmethane hydrocarbon (NMHC) chemistry, which is necessary to properly simulate the export of reactive nitrogen, including organic nitrates such as peroxyacyl nitrates (PANs), from the continental boundary layer. We find that fossil fuel combustion accounts for over 40% of NO\(_x\) concentrations in the lower and middle troposphere throughout the extratropical northern hemisphere. PANs are shown to provide an important mechanism for transporting NO\(_x\) from source regions to the remote troposphere, accounting for over 80% of the fossil fuel NO\(_x\) in the lower troposphere over most of the ocean. Sources in the United States are found to contribute about half of the fossil fuel NO\(_x\) over the North Atlantic Ocean. Emissions from China, which are expected to increase rapidly in the coming decades, currently account for about half of the fossil fuel NO\(_x\) over the western North Pacific Ocean; the influence of these emissions extends into the tropics. Because of this tropical influence, emissions from China have more potential than emissions in the United States to perturb the global oxidizing power of the atmosphere.

1. Introduction

Tropospheric ozone is the major precursor of the hydroxyl radical (OH), the primary oxidant for a large number of atmospheric trace species. As such, ozone is an important contributor to the oxidizing power of the atmosphere [Thompson, 1992]. In addition, ozone is an important greenhouse gas, particularly in the upper troposphere [Lacis et al., 1990]. Near the surface, high concentrations of ozone are detrimental to public health and to vegetation [National Research Council, 1991]. Nitrogen oxides (NO\(_x\)=NO+NO\(_2\)) are the limiting precursors for O\(_3\) production throughout most of the troposphere [Chameides et al., 1992], and also directly influence the abundance of OH [Logan et al., 1981]. Fossil fuel burning provides the largest global source of NO\(_x\) (about half of the total), but this source is concentrated in the polluted continental boundary layer (CBL) [Benkovitz et al., 1996]. Much of the NO\(_x\) from fossil fuel burning is rapidly oxidized to HNO\(_3\) (with a lifetime of less than a day) and removed from the atmosphere before it can be transported out of the CBL. The contribution of fossil fuel emissions to the abundance of NO\(_x\) in the remote atmosphere depends strongly on the fraction of NO\(_x\) that is exported out of the CBL, either as NO\(_x\) itself or as reservoir species that can regenerate NO\(_x\). Fossil fuel NO\(_x\) that is exported from the CBL can efficiently produce O\(_3\) in the remote troposphere, and may contribute significantly to global tropospheric O\(_3\) [Liu et al., 1987; Mauzerall et al., 1996; Liang et al., 1998].

In this study, we investigate the impact of fossil fuel NO\(_x\) emissions on the global distribution of NO\(_x\), using a three-dimensional tropospheric chemistry and transport model. We limit our study to the (northern hemisphere) summer season, when NO\(_x\) exported from fossil fuel source regions is expected to have the greatest potential impact on ozone distributions on a hemispheric scale. In addition to studying the impact of global fossil fuel NO\(_x\) emissions, we focus attention on the importance of emissions from two particular countries: the United States, the current leading emitter of fossil fuel NO\(_x\), which is representative of industrialized nations in the northern middle to high latitudes; and China, which is representative of rapidly developing countries closer to the equator that are expected to become leading emitters of fossil fuel NO\(_x\) in the future [Benkovitz et al., 1996; Galloway et al., 1996]. We determine the influence of fossil fuel combustion in our model by adding tracers to represent NO\(_x\) and other reactive nitrogen species originating from fossil fuel sources (either globally or from a particular country), allowing us to track these species separately from reactive nitrogen from other sources, without altering the overall model results. We also assess the importance of peroxyacetyl nitrates (PANs) for the long-range transport of fossil fuel NO\(_x\).

The chemistry of NO\(_x\) is highly nonlinear. Thus the procedure used in this study of tagging fossil fuel NO\(_x\) and reactive nitrogen is expected to provide a different measure of the importance of fossil fuel combustion than would a technique of turning on or off individual NO\(_x\) sources. Many previous studies of the impact of fossil fuel combustion on concentrations of NO\(_x\) (or, O\(_3\) or OH)
have either considered the impact of fossil fuel combustion in the absence of other NOx sources [Levy and Moxim, 1989; Penner et al., 1991], or considered the change resulting from turning on or off the fossil fuel combustion source in the presence of other sources [e.g., to study the change from pre-industrial to present times] [Czuchaszek and Zimmerman, 1991; Ehhalt et al., 1992; Levy et al., 1997; Wang and Jacob, 1998]. The present study (and also that of Lamarque et al. [1996]), by using a tagging procedure, looks instead at the role of fossil fuel combustion in the present atmosphere, accounting for interactions with other sources.

Previous modeling and data analysis studies have found that fossil fuel NOx emissions contribute significantly to NOx and reactive nitrogen (NOx = NO + its oxidation products) in the lower troposphere throughout the northern hemisphere [Prospero and Savoie, 1989; Penner et al., 1991; Ehhalt et al., 1992; Kasibhatla et al., 1993; Lamarque et al., 1996; Singh et al., 1996], with peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN) playing an important role in transporting the NOx from source regions to the remote troposphere [Moxim et al., 1996]. These previous studies have disagreed about the sources of upper tropospheric NOx. Lamarque et al. [1996] found that lightning was the most important source, with significant contributions from aircraft and fossil fuels; Ehhalt et al. [1992], using a quasi-two-dimensional model, found that continental surface sources (mostly fossil fuel combustion) and aircraft were the dominant sources at northern midlatitudes.

Horowitz et al. [1998] used a continental-scale model to study the export of NOx and its oxidation products from North America. The NOx emissions in their model included only fossil fuel combustion, which is the dominant source of NOx in the CBL over North America. A detailed evaluation of the model predictions for O3, NOx species, and other photochemical tracers with surface observations over North America was performed, the results of which will be discussed in the context of this study in section 3. It was found that export of NOx plus organic nitrates from the United States during summertime represents an important source of NOx on the scale of the northern hemisphere, considerably exceeding estimates of the hemispheric source of NOx from aircraft and the stratosphere, though about a factor of 3 smaller than the hemispheric source from lightning. Organic nitrates, primarily PANs derived from the oxidation of isoprene, were found to be important contributors to the export flux of reactive nitrogen. Liang et al. [1998] used the same continental-scale model to calculate the direct export of O3 and to estimate the O3 production from exported NOx and PANs. They found that pollution from the United States makes a significant contribution to tropospheric O3 on the scale of the extratropical northern hemisphere, primarily through the export of NOx and PANs.

In the present study, we expand upon the continental-scale studies of Horowitz et al. [1998] and Liang et al. [1998] by tracing reactive nitrogen throughout the global troposphere to determine the impact of fossil fuel combustion on the global distribution of NOx. This work improves upon previous global-scale studies by its use of the detailed NOx-hydrocarbon chemical mechanism developed by Horowitz et al. [1998]. Accurate chemistry of nonmethane hydrocarbons (particularly isoprene) must be included in a model in order to properly simulate the export of reactive nitrogen from polluted continental boundary layers to the global troposphere [Horowitz et al., 1998]. Isoprene chemistry within the continental boundary layer stimulates the production of O3 and promotes the production of organic nitrates such as PAN, which play an important role in transporting NOx on a global scale. The chemical mechanism used in our model has been developed to properly represent chemistry within the continental boundary layer.

We present a description of our model in section 2. The model is evaluated in section 3 by comparison of simulated concentrations of NOx, O3, and other oxidants with observations. In section 4 we assess the contribution of fossil fuel NOx emissions to the global distribution of NOx, looking particularly at the effects of national emissions from the United States and China.

2. Model Description

Our model expands to the global scale the continental-scale model used by Horowitz et al. [1998]. The model grid has a horizontal resolution of 4ø (latitude) x 5ø (longitude), with seven vertical layers in the troposphere extending from the surface to 150 mbar along a sigma (terrain-following) coordinate. Chemical non-linearities within urban and power plant plumes in North America are accounted for using a nested subgrid scheme [Sillman et al., 1990], in which concentrated emissions are isolated for up to 8 hours before being diluted to the scale of a grid box, as described by Jacob et al. [1993]. Meteorological input is provided by a data archive from a general circulation model (GCM) developed at the Goddard Institute for Space Studies (GISS) [Hansen et al., 1983] with a time resolution of 4 hours. Advection of chemical species (tracers) is calculated using the second-order moments (SOM) scheme [Prather, 1986]. The mixed layer height varies every 4 hours, ranging from 500 m (one layer) to 2.5 km (three layers). The model accounts for sub-grid-scale dry and wet convective mass transport in a manner consistent with that of the GISS GCM [Prather et al., 1987]. Wet deposition of soluble tracers (HNO3, H2O2, and organic hydroxynitrates) is performed using the method of Balkanski et al. [1993], which includes scavenging in convective updrafts and rainout by large-scale precipitation. Dry deposition velocities for O3, HNO3, NO2, CH3O, H2O2, PAN and other organic nitrates are calculated as described by Jacob et al. [1993], using a resistance-in-series model [Wesely, 1989].

The model includes the detailed mechanism of Horowitz et al. [1998] for O3, NOx-hydrocarbon chemistry, with 80 chemical species and over 300 photochemical reactions. This mechanism includes detailed photooxidation schemes for five nonmethane hydrocarbons (NMHCs): ethane, propane, butane, propene, and isoprene. Heterogeneous conversion of N2O5 and NO3 to HNO3 on sulfate aerosols is included (with a reaction probability of γ=0.1); aerosol surface areas are derived from a sulfation simulation in our chemical transport model (CTM) as described by Liang et al. [1998]. A loss of HO2 on sulfate aerosols is also included (with γ=1.0). Horowitz et al. [1998] have evaluated this chemical mechanism, and shown that it provides a reasonable simulation of chemistry within the CBL. The chemistry is integrated numerically using a Gear algorithm [Jacobson and Turco, 1994]. Tracers transported in the model (Table 1) include odd oxygen (O3), CO, the major reactive nitrogen compounds (NOx, HNO3, N2O5, HNO4, PAN, and other organic nitrates), five NMHCs, and several hydrocarbon oxidation products. We have expanded the selection of tracers from that used by Horowitz et al. [1998] to separately resolve the nitrogen species N2O5 and HNO4, which may have long lifetimes in the upper troposphere, and to include the long-lived hydrocarbon ethane, which is of importance for PAN formation in the remote atmosphere [Kanakidou et al., 1991]. Methane is present in the model at a fixed concentration of 1.7 ppmv. Ethene, aromatic hydrocarbons, and biogenic pinenes are neglected, as their large-scale effects on O3 and NOx are of little importance based on current knowledge.

In order to expand the model from continental-scale to global-scale, it was necessary to make several significant modifications.
Comprehensive global inventories for anthropogenic emissions and process-based formulations of natural emissions and deposition are incorporated into the model. The emission inventories are based on the seasonally varying inventory (version 1B) compiled by the Global Emissions Inventory Activity (GEIA) [Benkovitz et al., 1996]. The production of NOx from lightning is based on the scheme of Price and Rind [1992], with the source distributed vertically in a “C-shaped” profile [Pickering et al., 1998]. A summary of the total NOx sources used in the model for the northern hemisphere is contained in Table 2. Emissions of isoprene from terrestrial vegetation are computed as a function of vegetation type, leaf area index (LAI), temperature, and solar radiation, using an algorithm developed by Guenther et al. [1995] as modified by Wang et al. [1998a]. Flux upper boundary conditions are imposed in the model at 150 mbar (top of model layer 7) to represent the cross-tropopause transport of O3, NOx, and HNO3. These fluxes are specified as a function of latitude and month on the basis of climatological information [Wang et al., 1998a]. Other tracers are assumed to have zero flux across the 150 mbar level. While the actual extratropical tropopause is lower than 150 mbar, we consider layer 7 in our model (approximately 260-150 mbar) to be representative of upper tropospheric air; this is a consequence of the tropopause heights in the GISS II GCM as well as our imposition of “cross-tropopause” fluxes at this level.

The total June–August source of NOx in the northern hemisphere from each of the emission sources is listed in Table 2. The fossil fuel source accounts for more than half of the total during the summer (and for about 60% in the annual average). While fossil fuel NOx emissions show little seasonal variation, some of the other sources have strong seasonal cycles. At mid-latitudes, the source from lightning is strongest during summer; however, the variation in the tropics (where most lightning occurs) is smaller. The biomass burning source in the northern hemisphere is much smaller during summer than the annual average, since it is the wet season in the northern tropics, during which little burning occurs. The source of NOx from soils depends strongly on temperature, and is at a maximum during summer.

In this work, we focus on model results for the northern hemisphere during summer. Our model is run from April 1 – August 31, with the period April 1 – May 31 used for initialization. We have verified that the 2-month initialization is sufficiently long to dissipate the influence of our initial conditions on model results in the Northern (summer) Hemisphere, where photochemistry is relatively fast. A longer model run would be necessary to provide a reasonable simulation in the Southern (winter) Hemisphere. The model results in the Southern Hemisphere are adequate, however, to provide a boundary condition for simulation of conditions in the Northern Hemisphere, the region of interest for this study.

### Table 1. Chemical Tracers in the Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tracer</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>NOx = NO+NO2+NOy+NHO3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>O3 = O2+O+NO2+2x(NO3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>PAN (peroxymethylene nitrite)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>HNO3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>NOy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>HNO4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>PMN (peroxymethylene acryloyl nitrate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>FPN (lumped peroxyacetyl nitrate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>ISN2 (organic hydroxynitrates derived from isoprene)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>RN2 (lumped alkyl nitrate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>CO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>H2O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>ethane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>propane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>ALK4 (lumped alkane C4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>PRPE (lumped alkene C3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>isoprene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>CH2O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>CH2CHO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>RCHO (lumped aldehyde C3)</td>
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<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>acetone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>MEK (lumped ketone C4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>methylvinyl ketone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>methacrolein</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2. Sources of NOx in the Northern Hemisphere Troposphere

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Annual Tg N yr(^{-1})</th>
<th>June–August(^{b})</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fossil fuel combustion</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lightning</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biomass burning</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soils</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aircraft</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport from stratosphere(^{a})</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td>0.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*See Wang et al. [1998a] for a more detailed description of the emission sources (and also for global emission totals).

\(^{a}\)There is an additional HNO3 source from the stratosphere of 0.22 Tg N yr\(^{-1}\) (annual) and 0.18 Tg N yr\(^{-1}\) (summer).

\(^{b}\)Extrapolating summer emissions to the full year.
Concentrations of NO, rather than those of NO\textsubscript{x}, are used for comparison since the measurement of NO is considered to be more reliable [Crosley, 1996; Crawford et al., 1996]. A similar evaluation was presented by Wang et al. [1998b] using an earlier version of our model with the same meteorological data and emissions, but with parameterized chemistry. The evaluation presented here reveals some differences between our results and those of Wang et al. [1998b]; we attribute these differences mainly to the improved representation of chemistry in our model.

3.1. NO\textsubscript{y} Species

The global distributions of NO\textsubscript{x}, PAN, and HNO\textsubscript{3} simulated by the model in June–August are shown in Figures 1–3. Concentrations of NO\textsubscript{x} (defined in our model as in Table 1) are highest in the CBLs where emission sources are concentrated. The abundance of NO\textsubscript{x} decreases rapidly away from the continents as a result of the short chemical lifetime of NO\textsubscript{x}, with concentrations over the oceans about 2 orders of magnitude lower than over the continents. At higher altitudes in the troposphere, the model concentrations of NO\textsubscript{x} show smaller zonal gradients, reflecting the longer lifetime of NO\textsubscript{x} and the stronger winds.

PAN is formed by the reaction of NO\textsubscript{2} with the peroxyacetyl radical, a product of NMHC oxidation, and is lost primarily by thermal decomposition. Near the surface, PAN concentrations are highest over the continents where NO\textsubscript{x} emissions are high. Concentrations of PAN decrease rapidly away from the continents in warm regions, with concentrations less than 1 pptv over much of the low-latitude ocean. Higher in the atmosphere, the concentrations do not decrease as sharply away from the continents because of the longer lifetime of PAN at colder temperatures.

Production of HNO\textsubscript{3} occurs primarily by the reaction of NO\textsubscript{2} with OH, and by the hydrolysis of N\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{5}. Loss of HNO\textsubscript{3} is primarily by dry and wet deposition. Concentrations of HNO\textsubscript{3} are high in surface air near NO\textsubscript{x} source regions over the continents. Away from the continents, concentrations decrease because of the effects of dry and wet deposition.

**Figure 1.** Mean June-August model concentrations of NO\textsubscript{x} (pptv) at 3 model levels. The model levels are defined by a sigma coordinate; the corresponding pressures given here are for an underlying surface at sea level. NO\textsubscript{x} is defined as in Table 1.
of deposition and decreased production. In the upper troposphere, HNO₃ concentrations show a pronounced minimum in the tropics, as a result of scavenging by wet convection and negligible transport down from the stratosphere.

Aircraft observations of NOₓ species for the northern hemisphere summer are largely limited to the Atmospheric Boundary Layer Experiment (ABLE) campaigns at high northern latitudes, ABLE 3A and ABLE 3B [Harris et al., 1992, 1994], and the Chemical Instrument Test and Evaluation 2 (CITE 2) campaign over the western United States and the eastern Pacific Ocean [Hoell et al., 1990]. The corresponding regions and dates are listed in Table 3. All observations within a given region are binned vertically in 1 km intervals and averaged [J. Bradshaw et al., submitted paper, 1999; Wang et al., 1998b]. Observed regional vertical profiles are compared to model results averaged over June–August for the corresponding grid boxes.

Simulated and observed vertical profiles of daytime NO are compared in Figure 4. Agreement is generally within 20% in the free troposphere. Near the surface, simulated concentrations of NO increase due to surface NOₓ sources, but the observations do not show a surface enhancement (except for the eastern United States). This discrepancy may result from the deliberate choice of remote locations in the vertical profiling strategy of the aircraft. The model also simulates high concentrations of NO in the upper troposphere because of sources from lightning and deep convection, the long lifetime of NOₓ (several days), and the preferential partitioning of NOₓ toward NO (versus NO₂) in this region. This feature cannot be evaluated with the ABLE 3 data which did not extend above 400 mbar. Previous comparisons of NO concentrations in the tropical upper troposphere by Wang et al. [1998b] indicated agreement to within usually 25% between model and observations.
Vertical profiles of PAN are compared in Figure 5. The data coverage for PAN (and HNO₃, discussed next) is even more sparse than for NO and thus may not provide representative regional vertical profiles. The model generally tends to overestimate PAN compared to observations, particularly in the lower troposphere where the model concentrations are too high by a factor of 2 or more. Wang et al. [1998b], who similarly overestimate PAN over Alaska and Canada using a different version of our model, attribute this problem to excessive transport of polluted air from the eastern United States. In surface air over eastern North America, simulated concentrations match observations at rural sites to within 30% [Horowitz et al., 1998]. Our predicted zonal mean concentrations of PAN exceed those of the Moxim et al. [1996] global model throughout most of the Northern Hemisphere, by as much as a factor of 2. The discrepancy may result from the neglect of isoprene chemistry in the model of Moxim et al. [1996].

We compare vertical profiles of HNO₃ from the model and observations in Figure 6. In the eastern United States, the vertical profile of HNO₃ predicted by the model is in agreement with observations. Simulated surface concentrations in this region exceed surface-based observations by about 25% [Horowitz et al., 1998]. In remote regions, however, the model considerably overestimates observed HNO₃ concentrations, frequently by a factor of 2 or more. Several other model studies also show large overestimates of HNO₃ concentrations in the remote troposphere [Brasseur et al., 1996; Singh et al., 1996; Wang et al., 1998b]. Possible explanations for the overestimate of HNO₃ include scavenging on mineral dust aerosols [Tabazadeh et al., 1998], conversion of HNO₃ to NOₓ on sulfate and soot aerosols [Chatfield, 1994], scavenging on ice particles [Lawrence and Crutzen, 1998], or uncertainties in key reaction rates involved in NOy cycling [e.g., Donahue et al., 1997]. Additional discussion of the overestimate of HNO₃ can be found in the work by Wang et al. [1998b].
Table 3. Aircraft Observations of NO\textsubscript{y} Species

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Campaign</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Longitude</th>
<th>Latitude</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ABLE 3A</td>
<td>Alaska</td>
<td>170°W - 150°W</td>
<td>50°N - 75°N</td>
<td>July 1988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABLE 3B</td>
<td>central Canada</td>
<td>90°W - 75°W</td>
<td>44°N - 57°N</td>
<td>July 1990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CITE 2</td>
<td>eastern Canada</td>
<td>70°W - 55°W</td>
<td>49°N - 57°N</td>
<td>July 1990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CITE 2</td>
<td>western U.S.</td>
<td>120°W - 110°W</td>
<td>30°N - 40°N</td>
<td>August 1986</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABLE 3A</td>
<td>U.S. East Coast</td>
<td>80°W - 70°W</td>
<td>30°N - 40°N</td>
<td>August 1988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABLE 3B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>August 1990</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Concentration data for NO\textsubscript{y} species is from compilation by J. Bradshaw et al. (submitted paper, 1999).

Figure 4. Mean observed (solid lines) and simulated (dotted lines) regional vertical profiles of daytime NO (pptv) (including all data points for which the solar zenith angle was < 85°). Diurnal variation in NO throughout the daytime, which is expected to be relatively small [Logan et al., 1981], is neglected in this comparison. Observations are regional profiles from aircraft missions as constructed by Wang et al. [1998b], based on a compilation by Scott Smyth at the Georgia Institute of Technology (J. Bradshaw et al., submitted paper, 1999, and references therein). Model results are for the corresponding range of latitude and longitude during June-August. The standard deviation of the observations are indicated by solid horizontal bars. The model standard deviations (dashed bars) are computed from the mean summertime concentration of each grid box within the region.
3.2. Ozone

Simulated ozone concentrations for June–August are shown in Figure 7. Elevated \( \text{O}_3 \) concentrations are found in the model over the industrial regions of the Northern Hemisphere and in the biomass burning regions of the southern tropics (particularly southern Africa). Outside of these regions, the concentration of \( \text{O}_3 \) increases with altitude, reflecting net production in the upper troposphere (as well as downward transport from the stratosphere) and net destruction in the lower troposphere (as well as deposition to the surface) [Liu et al., 1980]. In the upper troposphere, high \( \text{O}_3 \) concentrations at high latitudes result from a combination of downward transport of \( \text{O}_3 \) from the stratosphere and efficient in situ production.

Simulated mean vertical profiles of \( \text{O}_3 \) for June–August are compared Figure 8 with multiyear observations for the same months from ozonesondes [Logan, 1999]. The predicted concentrations of \( \text{O}_3 \) are within the range of interannual variability of the observations at most sites. The model profiles of \( \text{O}_3 \) exhibit a vertical gradient qualitatively similar to that observed, with concentrations low near the surface and increasing with altitude. At many of the sites, however, the vertical gradient of \( \text{O}_3 \) in the model tends to be somewhat weaker than in the observations. This problem may be the result of excessive vertical mixing within the troposphere. Wang et al. [1998b] noted that the model has excessive vertical mixing from the free troposphere into the boundary layer, particularly in the tropics, causing the vertical gradient in \( \text{O}_3 \) to be too weak. At a few sites (e.g., Alert and Naha) the model overestimates \( \text{O}_3 \) throughout most of the troposphere.

4. Contribution of Fossil Fuel Combustion to Global \( \text{NO}_x \) Concentrations

The generally favorable comparisons of model results with observations of \( \text{NO}_y \) species and \( \text{O}_3 \), with the notable exception of
Figure 6. Same as Figure 4 but for HNO₃ (pptv).

HNO₃ increase our confidence that the model provides a reasonable simulation of atmospheric reactive nitrogen. In this section we assess the impact of fossil fuel combustion on the global distribution of NOₓ, by tracking the fate of fossil fuel NOₓ in our model. This was performed by segregating the different NOₓ species in our model into two separate sets of tracers, “fossil fuel” (FF) and “other” (OT), similar to the procedure used by Lamarque et al. [1996]. Each reaction involving NOₓ species in our standard mechanism is decomposed into two reactions, one involving FF-NOₓ and the other OT-NOₓ, both with the same rate constants as in the original mechanism. For instance, the reaction NO+O₃→NO₂+O₂ is decomposed into a reaction FF-NO+O₃→FF-NO₂+O₂ and a reaction OT-NO+O₃→OT-NO₂+O₂. (In the case of dinitrogen species, the procedure is slightly more complicated. For example, the reaction NO₂+NO₃+M→N₂O₅+M is decomposed into the following four reactions: FF-NO₂+FF-NO₃+M→FF-N₂O₅+M, OT-NO₂+OT-NO₃+M→OT-N₂O₅+M, FF-NO₂+OT-NO₃+M→0.5 OT-N₂O₅+M, and OT-NO₂+FF-NO₃+M→0.5 OT-N₂O₅+0.5 FF-N₂O₅+M.) The partitioning into “fossil fuel” and “other” NOₓ tracers has a slight effect on the results of the chemical simulation, up to a few percent in some grid boxes, due to nonlinearities in the SOM advection scheme. We define fossil fuel NOₓ to include only surface sources (not aircraft emissions). In evaluating the impact of fossil fuel emissions, we focus particularly on the impacts of national emissions from the United States (section 4.2), which is currently the largest emitter, and from China (section 4.3), where emissions are growing rapidly.

4.1. Worldwide Fossil Fuel Combustion

The contribution of worldwide fossil fuel combustion to NOₓ concentrations in the model is shown in Plate 1. Fossil fuel combustion contributes over two-thirds of the NOₓ in the mixed layer over the major emission regions in the northern hemisphere, including the United States, Western Europe, and East Asia. Over the central/western United States, large NOₓ emissions from soils...
reduce the contribution from fossil fuel combustion to as little as 40–60%. In surface air over the North Atlantic Ocean, we find that 50–70% of the NO\textsubscript{x} results from fossil fuel combustion. Over the remote North Pacific, where NO\textsubscript{x} concentrations are quite low, the fossil fuel source accounts for over 40% of the NO\textsubscript{x}. In the tropics, the relative influence of the fossil fuel source is low, due to sources of NO\textsubscript{x} from biomass burning and soils.

At higher levels in the troposphere, the influence of the fossil fuel source decreases, and has a more zonally uniform distribution, reflecting in part the longer lifetime of NO\textsubscript{x} at these altitudes. In the midtroposphere (model level 4, ~2.5–5 km altitude), fossil fuel combustion contributes approximately 40–60% of the NO\textsubscript{x} at middle and high northern latitudes, and about 20–30% in the Southern Hemisphere. In the upper troposphere (model level 7, ~10.5–14 km altitude), the contribution is smaller, in the range 20–50% in the extratropical Northern Hemisphere, and generally <10% in the tropics and the Southern Hemisphere.

Our finding that fossil fuel combustion is the major source of NO\textsubscript{x} throughout the lower troposphere in the Northern Hemisphere agrees qualitatively with the results of Lamarque et al. [1996]. However, the contribution of the fossil fuel source in this region is generally smaller in our model than in that of Lamarque et al. [1996]. For instance, for the latitude range 30º–60ºN at 900 mbar we find that fossil fuel combustion contributes 55% of the zonal mean NO\textsubscript{x} concentration, compared to 70% in Lamarque et al. [1996]. In the upper troposphere (10.5–14 km), fossil fuel combustion accounts for ~30% of the zonal-mean NO\textsubscript{x} in the Northern Hemisphere, in good agreement with the results of Ehhalt et al. [1992] but higher than the value of 10–15% found by Lamarque et al. [1996]. Part of the discrepancy with the results of Lamarque et al. [1996] may be accounted for by their use of global lightning source that was 67% larger than that in our model, although our source appears to be more heavily weighted toward the upper troposphere.
At Mauna Loa Observatory (20°N, 156°W, 3.4 km altitude), the mean model NOx concentration (18 pptv, sampled from the model grid box at the appropriate altitude) is lower than the value observed during MLOPEX 2d (30±13 pptv) [Atlas and Ridley, 1996]. The model PAN concentrations agree with observations at this site, while HNO3 is considerably overestimated. We find that about 37% of the NOx at Mauna Loa during summer results from fossil fuel combustion, consistent with the findings of Lamarque et al. [1996] that the main source of NOx at this location was fossil fuel emissions (that study found that the second most important source was lightning). However, since both our model and that of Lamarque et al. [1996] underestimate NOx at Mauna Loa, our conclusions about the importance of fossil fuel emissions remain somewhat uncertain.

During the ABLE 3B in July–August 1990 [Harriss et al., 1994], the major source of O3 over central and eastern Canada was found to be the dispersed in situ photochemical production driven by background levels of NOx [Mauzerall et al., 1996], which were sustained by the decomposition of PAN [Fan et al., 1994]. The extent to which fossil fuel sources contribute to background PAN concentrations (and thus to O3 production) in this region has been uncertain. Talbot et al. [1994], finding no evidence for anthropogenic enhancement of NOy, argued that local forest fires are the major source of PAN over central Canada. However, Bakwin et al. [1994] found that industrial sources had a significant influence on NOx in the boundary layer over Schefferville, Quebec. Our model results indicate that fossil fuel combustion is an important contributor to NOx over central and eastern Canada, accounting for 40–
50% of the NO$_x$ at altitudes of 0–6 km. The analysis in the next section indicates that emissions from the United States contribute 40–80% of the fossil fuel NO$_x$ over the ABLE 3B region. Since our model overestimates NO and PAN in this region, most likely as a result of excessive transport of pollution from the eastern United States, the contribution of fossil fuel sources to NO$_x$ in this region is somewhat uncertain.

4.2. Fossil Fuel Combustion in the United States

Fossil fuel NO$_x$ emissions from the United States (at a rate of 6.7 Tg N yr$^{-1}$ during summer in our model) account for approximately one-third of the total fossil fuel emissions in the northern hemisphere [Benkovitz et al., 1996]. In order to isolate the contribution of U.S. fossil fuel emissions on the tropospheric distribution of NO$_x$, we performed a model run in which we “tagged” only the fossil fuel NO$_x$ emitted from the contiguous United States. Our model results (Figure 9) indicate that U.S. fossil fuel combustion accounts for a large fraction of the NO$_x$ in surface air over the North Atlantic Ocean (20°N–50°N), ranging from almost 100% near the east coast of the United States to around 20% in the central North Atlantic. At higher altitudes, the U.S. emissions contribute 20–30% of the total NO$_x$ across the entire North Atlantic basin at these latitudes; this is equal to about 50–75% of the fossil fuel NO$_x$ in this region. The contribution of U.S. emissions to NO$_x$ over the Pacific Ocean is important near the surface of the subtropical eastern Pacific, reflecting the circulation around the Pacific High, but it declines considerably with increasing altitude. In the middle and upper troposphere, U.S. fossil fuel emissions account for 10–50% of the total NO$_x$ throughout much of the extratropical northern hemisphere. However, there is little influence from U.S. emissions on NO$_x$ in the tropics, where the effect on O$_3$ and OH concentrations would most significantly perturb the oxidizing power of the atmosphere [Logan et al., 1981; Thompson, 1992].
Plate 1. Mean fractional contribution of NO$_x$ from fossil fuel combustion (FF NO$_x$) to total model NO$_x$ concentrations in three model layers for June-August. The total model NO$_x$ concentrations are given in Figure 1.
4.3. Fossil Fuel Combustion in China

The contribution of fossil fuel combustion from China to global NO$_x$ concentrations was assessed by "tagging" the fossil fuel NO$_x$ emitted by China. The source of NO$_x$ from fossil fuel combustion in China (1.8 Tg N yr$^{-1}$ in our model) is considerably smaller than that from the United States [Galloway et al., 1996]. However, it is projected to increase rapidly in the future, reaching 3.9–5.4 Tg N yr$^{-1}$ by 2020, while the source from the United States is projected to remain relatively constant [Galloway et al., 1996]. Thus emissions from China are likely to become increasingly important to the global budget of NO$_x$ in the future.

Model results (Figure 10) indicate that, in the CBL over southern and eastern China, fossil fuel emissions from China currently account for most of the NO$_x$ present. Higher in the atmosphere above this region, the contribution of emissions from China is 10–40% of the total. In addition to the region directly above China, emissions from China have a significant impact over a large area of the North Pacific Ocean. In the latitude range 0–40°N, emissions from China account for 10–20% of the NO$_x$ present over the western North Pacific throughout most of the depth of the troposphere. Within the marine boundary layer, the contribution of China to fossil fuel NO$_x$ decreases more quickly away from the continent, and does not extend as far eastward. At Mauna Loa, we find that emissions from China account for 12% of the total NO$_x$. Comparison of Figures 9 and 10 indicates that the emissions from China have a stronger impact in the tropics than do the emissions from the United States, reflecting in large part the lower latitude of the source.

4.4. Role of Peroxyacyl Nitrates (PANs)

The long-range transport of NO$_x$ from source regions to the global atmosphere is facilitated by the formation of peroxyacyl nitrates (PANs = PAN + homologs, including PPN and PMN in Table 1), which serve as long-lived reservoirs for NO$_x$ [Crutzen,
Horowitz and Jacob [1998] found that export of PANs from the United States CBL in summer amounts to about half of the export of NO$_x$, and that the major source for these PANs is the oxidation of isoprene. Analysis of observations from Alaska and eastern Canada during ABLE 3A [Jacob et al., 1992] and ABLE 3B [Fan et al., 1994] indicate that decomposition of PAN can provide a large fraction of the NO$_x$ present in these remote regions. Besides PAN, additional NO$_x$ species, including HNO$_3$ and other organic nitrates, may be exported may be transported out of the CBL; however, these other species are likely to be removed by wet or dry deposition before they can regenerate NO$_x$. In the case of HNO$_3$, there are also considerable uncertainties in our simulation (as shown in section 3.1). Thus we focus in this study on the role of PANs.

In this section, we quantify the amount of fossil fuel NO$_x$ in the remote troposphere attributable to long-range transport via PANs. We define a fossil fuel NO$_x$ molecule to be transported via PANs if it resulted from the decomposition of a peroxyacyl nitrate which, at some point in its lifetime, was outside of the CBL. This definition, which is similar to that used by Mozim et al. [1996], is represented schematically in Figure 11. Note that in defining whether a NO$_x$ molecule has cycled through PANs, we include PANs that are formed either within the CBL or in the remote atmosphere; molecules of NO$_x$ which have cycled through PANs only within the CBL, where NO$_x$ and PAN are in rapid thermal equilibrium, are excluded. For the purposes of this accounting we define the CBL to include all grid boxes below 5.0 km altitude (model layers 1-4) for which more than 25% of the surface is covered by land. This domain includes the model mixed layer, which can extend up to 2.5 km (top of model layer 3), plus one additional vertical layer. We further expand our definition of the CBL laterally to include a buffer zone of one grid box in each horizontal direction.

We find that PANs provide an important reservoir for the long-range transport of fossil fuel NO$_x$ to the remote troposphere. The contribution of transport by PANs to the global distribution of

Figure 10. Mean fractional contribution of NO$_x$ from fossil fuel combustion in China (China FF NO$_x$) to total model NO$_x$ concentrations in three model layers for June-August.
Figure 11. Schematic for tracking the transport of fossil fuel NO$_x$ via PANs. The box on the left represents the continental boundary layer (CBL). When PANs which have traveled outside of the CBL decompose, they produce "tagged" species denoted by the PAN subscript.

NO$_x$ from fossil fuel combustion in the model is shown in Figure 12. In the lower and middle troposphere over the oceans, transport via PANs accounts for 80-100% of the supply of NO$_x$ from fossil fuel combustion. This result agrees qualitatively with the findings of Moxim et al. [1996], who found that turning off PAN chemistry in their model caused large decreases in the simulated concentrations of NO$_x$ in the remote lower troposphere. Over the continents, where direct transport of NO$_x$ emitted from surface sources can occur readily, we find that indirect transport via PANs is less important than over the oceans. In the upper troposphere, where

Figure 12. Mean fraction of fossil fuel NO$_x$ transported by PANs ([FF NO$_x$ from PANs] / [FF NO$_x$]) for June-August. The global distribution of NO$_x$ concentrations is shown in Figure 1 and the fractional contribution from fossil fuel combustion is shown in Plate 1.
the chemical lifetime of PANs is very long, transport via PANs typically accounts for 20–40% of the fossil fuel combustion NO$_x$ at northern midlatitudes, and 40–60% at northern high latitudes.

5. Conclusions

We have performed a simulation of tropospheric O$_3$-NO$_x$-NMHC photochemistry using a global three-dimensional model. Model results were evaluated by comparison with observed vertical profiles of O$_3$ and NO$_x$ species. We used our model to assess the contribution of fossil fuel combustion to NO$_x$ concentrations in the global troposphere, focusing particular attention on the impact of emissions from the United States and China. This was accomplished by the addition of “tagged” chemical species and tracers to the model to represent the NO$_x$ compounds originating from fossil fuel combustion. This method allows us to separately track the influence of fossil fuel combustion without altering the overall chemical simulation.

We find that fossil fuel combustion accounts for over two-thirds of NO$_x$ concentrations in the summertime mixed layer over the major emission regions at northern midlatitudes. Over the oceans, fossil fuel combustion accounts for over 40% of NO$_x$ in the marine boundary layer throughout the extratropical northern hemisphere; most of this NO$_x$ from fossil fuel combustion is provided by decomposition of PANs formed within or downstream of the NO$_x$ source regions. Over the North Atlantic Ocean, 50–70% of the NO$_x$ in the lower and middle troposphere comes from fossil fuel combustion, with the United States accounting for about half of this amount. Over the regions of central and eastern Canada of the NO$_x$ in the lower and middle troposphere comes from fossil fuel combustion. This model allows us to separately track the influence of fossil fuel combustion without altering the overall chemical simulation.

Most of the removal of long-lived trace gases by reaction with OH takes place in the tropics [Logan et al., 1981]. As a result, the global oxidizing power of the atmosphere is sensitive to perturbations to NO$_x$ and O$_3$ in the tropics. We find that the fossil fuel combustion in the United States has little influence on NO$_x$ in the tropics, limiting its potential impact on global OH concentrations. Emissions from China have a larger influence in the tropics, contributing approximately half of this total. In the upper troposphere, the contribution of fossil fuel NO$_x$ at northern middle and high latitudes is 25–45%.

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