

Spatial and temporal patterns of nitrogen isotopic composition of ammonia at U.S. ammonia monitoring network sites



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HIGHLIGHTS

- Monthly $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$ values are reported for 9 AMoN sites over a year.
- $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$ values ranged from -42.4 to $+7.1\text{‰}$ with an average of $-15.1 \pm 9.7\text{‰}$.
- US agricultural regions have low and seasonally variable $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$ values.
- Rural nonagricultural areas have higher and seasonally consistent $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$ values.
- US spring agricultural activity peak is accompanied by a decrease in $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$ values.

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ABSTRACT

Ammonia (NH_3) emissions and ammonium (NH_4^+) deposition can have harmful effects on the environment and human health but remain generally unregulated in the U.S. $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ regulations require that an area not exceed an annual average $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ value of $12 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (averaged over three years), and since NH_3 is a significant precursor to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ formation these are the closest indirect regulations of NH_3 emissions in the U.S. If the U.S. elects to adopt NH_3 emission regulations similar to those applied by the European Union, it will be imperative to first adequately quantify NH_3 emission sources and transport, and also understand the factors causing varying emissions from each source. To further investigate NH_3 emission sources and transport at a regional scale, NH_3 was sampled monthly at a subset of nine Ammonia Monitoring Network (AMoN) sites and analyzed for nitrogen isotopic composition of NH_3 ($\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$). The observed $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$ values ranged from -42.4 to $+7.1\text{‰}$ with an average of -15.1 ± 9.7 . The observed $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$ values reported here provide insight into the spatial and temporal trends of the NH_3 sources that contribute to ambient $[\text{NH}_3]$ in the U.S. In regions where agriculture is prevalent (i.e., U.S. Midwest), low and seasonally variable $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$ values are observed and are associated with varying agricultural sources. In comparison, rural nonagricultural areas have higher and more seasonally consistent $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$ values associated with a constant "natural" (e.g. soil, vegetation, bi-directional flux, ocean) NH_3 source. With regards to temporal variation, the peak in U.S. spring agricultural activity (e.g. fertilizer application, livestock waste volatilization) is accompanied by a decrease in $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$ values at a majority of the sites, whereas higher $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$ values in other seasons could be due to shifting sources (e.g. coal-fired power plants) and/or fractionation scenarios. Fractionation processes that may mask NH_3 source signatures are discussed and require further investigation to optimize the utility of the nitrogen isotopic composition to determine NH_3 sources and dynamics.

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1. Introduction

Ammonium (NH_4^+) in wet deposition in the U.S. has increased over 49% during the past three decades and currently accounts for 60% of the total dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) in wet deposition (Du et al., 2014). This relative contribution is expected to

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increase given that ammonia (NH_3) emissions are generally unregulated in the U.S. whereas air quality regulations have led to dramatic decreases in NO_x emissions, a precursor to the other primary DIN component in wet deposition, nitrate (NO_3^-). NH_3 and subsequent wet and dry NH_x deposition products are substantial sources of nitrogen (N) to sensitive ecosystems and contribute to soil acidification, water body eutrophication, and decreases in biodiversity (Davidson et al., 2012; Fowler et al., 1998; Galloway et al., 2004). NH_x deposition to ecosystems, coupled with other forms of N input, have caused 20% of U.S. natural vegetation to receive N in excess of a critical load ($1000 \text{ mg (N) m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) as defined by Dentener et al., 2006. Prior to NH_x deposition to various ecosystems, NH_3 emissions can react with acidic species (e.g. H_2SO_4 and HNO_3) to form particulate aerosols. Fine particulate matter (PM) decreases visibility, is linked to human health impacts (respiratory and cardiovascular disease) (Pope and Dockery, 2006) and can affect climate through changing radiative forcing caused by particulate aerosols that scatter or absorb solar radiation (Zhu et al., 2015). $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ is regulated by a U.S. EPA National Ambient Air Quality Standard that requires an area not to exceed an average $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration of $12 \mu\text{g/m}^3$ (EPA, 2013). This $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ regulation is the closest indirect regulation of NH_3 emissions in the U.S. because modeled results indicate that $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ attainment goals can be reached via decreasing NH_3 emissions (Banzhaf et al., 2013; Bessagnet et al., 2015; Gu et al., 2014; Pinder and Adams, 2007; Zhu et al., 2015). However, reduction of NH_3 may prove more difficult than previous air quality goals. Unlike other pollutants that are released consistently and predictably through industrial or mechanical processes (e.g. NO_x or SO_x emissions from vehicles or power plants) and are readily quantifiable, NH_3 emissions from area sources (e.g. livestock waste and fertilizer) are a function of both chemical and biological process that often depend on climate and environmental conditions. Therefore, these sources are often highly variable over space and time and can lead to large uncertainties in total NH_3 emission inventories for the U.S. and the globe ($2.8\text{--}3.2$ and $44\text{--}83 \text{ Tg NH}_3\text{-N yr}^{-1}$, respectively) (Paulot et al., 2014). To produce effective policies or regulations, it is critical to quantify emissions of NH_3 from key sources including fertilizer application, livestock waste, vehicles, coal-fired power plants. It is equally important to understand NH_3 transport and factors that affect NH_3 emissions fluxes including climate, agricultural techniques, waste mitigation techniques, soil and vegetation characteristics (USDA, 2014).

As a consequence of recent increases in NH_x deposition fluxes, there is heightened interest in improving our understanding of NH_3 emission sources, the processes controlling the formation and decomposition of NH_4^+ aerosols subject to long-range transport, and ultimately the deposition and bi-directional flux of NH_3 products in wet and dry deposition. As a result of this growing concern, U.S. monitoring networks for wet and dry deposition chemistry, the National Atmospheric Deposition Program (NADP) and the Clean Air Status and Trends Network (CASTNET), respectively, have established a monitoring network, the “Ammonia Monitoring Network (AMoN).” The network began with trials in fall 2007, became an official NADP network in October 2010, and has rapidly expanded to include more than 90 sites with an ultimate goal of NH_3 monitoring sites adequately covering North America (NADP, 2015). The network deploys Radiello passive samplers to obtain NH_3 concentrations and aims to provide spatially dense long term ambient NH_3 concentration [NH_3] data that aids air quality modelers, ecologists and policy-makers in validating atmospheric models, estimating N deposition, and assessing $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ compliance (NADP, 2015). Preliminary results from the AMoN network along with other more localized NH_3 studies have helped quantify spatial and temporal trends in ambient [NH_3] (Butler et al., 2015; Chen

et al., 2014; Mukerjee et al., 2012; NADP, 2015; Yao and Zhang, 2013). Most of these studies report high [NH_3] in spring and summer due to peak agricultural activity and volatilization, with lower concentrations in winter due to lack of agricultural activity and limited volatility and condensation (Bari et al., 2003; Felix et al., 2014; Mukerjee et al., 2012; Reche et al., 2015).

Air mass back trajectories, emission dispersion models and knowledge of seasonal variation in emission source activity allow researchers to infer probable emission sources that contribute to ambient [NH_3]. However, these generalizations can lead to errors in source attribution and cannot explain seasonal [NH_3] anomalies that have been reported (Butler et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2014; Yao and Zhang, 2013). For instance, Chen et al., 2014 report relatively high [NH_3] at agricultural sites when NH_3 volatilization should be minimal and Yao and Zhang, 2013 observed [NH_3] increases at some sites when ambient temperature was $<-7^\circ\text{C}$. Also, while much of the NH_3 emissions in the U.S. are attributed to agricultural activity, [NH_3] in urban areas are often higher than in rural areas where most agricultural activity takes place (Edgerton et al., 2007; Felix et al., 2014). NH_3 in cities may result from transport from rural agricultural sources but urban sources (e.g. vehicles, wastewater, sewage, and industry) may also be the primary contributors. Urban studies report large ranges in [NH_3] within an urban region which makes it difficult to qualify sources contributing to ambient [NH_3] (Bari et al., 2003; Felix et al., 2014; Mukerjee et al., 2012; Reche et al., 2015).

An approach to aid in identifying NH_3 emission source contribution to ambient concentrations is to exploit the difference between the $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$ values associated with different NH_3 emission sources (Fig. 1). For instance, the primary sources of NH_3 , volatilized livestock waste and fertilizer, are generally reported to have low $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$ values, -56‰ to -9‰ and -48‰ to -36‰ , respectively

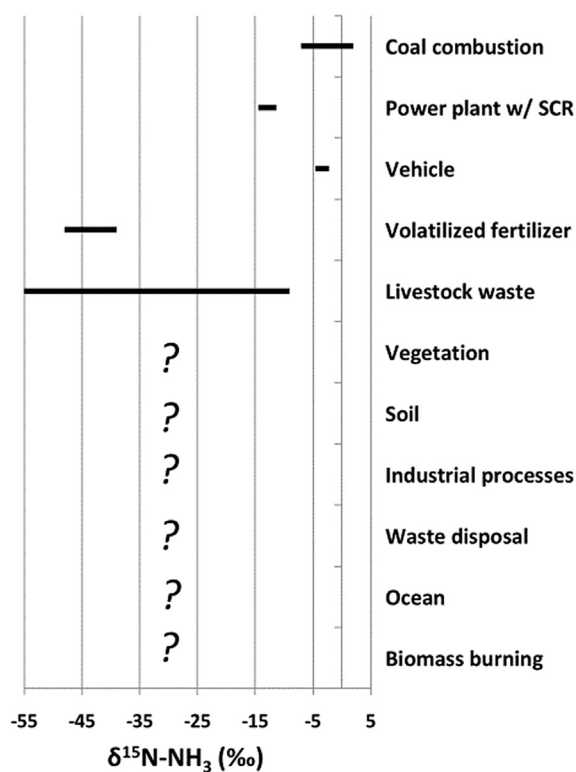


Fig. 1. : $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$ values of emissions sources and a list of source that have not been characterized (Felix et al., 2013; Freyer and Republic, 1978; Heaton, 1987; Hristov et al., 2009; Heaton, 1986).

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