



## Examining the transport of ammonia emissions across landscapes using nitrogen isotope ratios



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### HIGHLIGHTS

- We document the utility of  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ – $\text{NH}_3$  values for examining  $\text{NH}_3$  transport.
- We use an isotope mixing model to make approximations of  $\text{NH}_3$  source contributions.
- We relate modeled  $\text{NH}_3$  deposition flux to measured  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ – $\text{NH}_3$  values.

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### ABSTRACT

The proportion of reactive nitrogen in wet deposition attributable to ammonium ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) has increased over the last three decades in the U.S. due to steadily increasing  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions and concomitant reductions in  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions. The importance of examining  $\text{NH}_3$  emission sources and transport is amplified as the fraction of  $\text{NH}_3$  contributing to reactive nitrogen budget increases. Presented here is a study illustrating how the nitrogen stable isotopic composition of  $\text{NH}_3$  ( $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ – $\text{NH}_3$ ) can be used to characterize the transport of  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions at the landscape-scale. To accomplish this, ambient  $\text{NH}_3$  was sampled across varying land use types (e.g. conventionally managed cornfield, tallgrass prairie, concentrated animal feeding operation (CAFO), dairy operation, urban setting) and analyzed for  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ – $\text{NH}_3$  values. Ambient  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ – $\text{NH}_3$  values at a conventionally managed cornfield were used in an isotope mixing model to make first order approximations of  $\text{NH}_3$  source contributions to ambient air over the cornfield. Results suggest that while volatilized fertilizer is a primary contributor to ambient  $\text{NH}_3$  after fertilizer application, during periods of low or no fertilization, vehicle  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions can be a substantial contributor to ambient  $\text{NH}_3$  over cornfields that are adjacent to roadways. These source approximations can aid in evaluating  $\text{NH}_3$  emission abatement techniques to local landscapes. Modeled  $\text{NH}_3$  deposition flux at a CAFO was found to contribute a considerable amount of nitrogen to the landscape and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ – $\text{NH}_3$  values were used to trace the livestock source contributing to this flux. Ambient  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ – $\text{NH}_3$  values were measured across an urban region and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ – $\text{NH}_3$  values indicated primarily fossil fuel-based emissions and large spatial variations in  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations.

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### 1. Introduction

Ammonia ( $\text{NH}_3$ ) emissions lead to wet and dry atmospheric deposition of  $\text{NH}_3$  and ammonium ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) that can be substantial

sources of nitrogen pollution to sensitive terrestrial, aquatic, and marine ecosystems (Davidson et al., 2012; Fowler et al., 1998; Walker et al., 2000). In the U.S.,  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations in precipitation have increased at 90% of monitoring sites (National Trends Network, National Atmospheric Deposition Program (NADP)) from 1985 to 2002 wherein increases exceeding 50% occurred in a large area of the central U.S. (Lehmann et al., 2005). Given that  $\text{NO}_x$  ( $\text{NO}_x = \text{NO} + \text{NO}_2$ ) emissions have decreased 36% since the implementation of the U.S. Clean Air Act, and  $\text{NH}_3$  are generally

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unregulated in the U.S., NH<sub>3</sub> is predicted to constitute 60% of nitrogen deposition by 2020 (Davidson et al., 2012). As a result NH<sub>3</sub> transport and deposition have become of increasing concern to air quality managers, modelers, epidemiologists and ecosystem scientists.

Global NH<sub>3</sub> emission sources are dominated by agricultural activities and in a review of NH<sub>3</sub> inventories reported for China, European Union, and U.S, livestock waste and fertilizer were determined to contribute between 80 and 93% of total NH<sub>3</sub> emissions (Reis et al., 2009). As opposed to NO<sub>x</sub> emissions that are predominantly fossil fuel-based, agriculturally-based NH<sub>3</sub> emissions occur in rural settings and can be deposited in nitrogen (N) sensitive ecosystems. Excess N loading to these sensitive ecosystems can lead to eutrophication of surface waters, decreased biodiversity, and increased soil acidity (Galloway et al., 2004).

Although the primary sources of NH<sub>3</sub> are agricultural, vehicles equipped with three-way catalytic converters can be a significant NH<sub>3</sub> source in urban areas (Cape et al., 2004; Kirchner et al., 2005). NH<sub>3</sub> is also emitted as 'fuel NH<sub>3</sub>' from electrical generating units (EGUs) and as 'NH<sub>3</sub> slip' from EGUs equipped with selective catalytic reduction and selective non-catalytic NO<sub>x</sub> reduction technologies. These fossil fuel-based NH<sub>3</sub> emissions are significant in urban areas where NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> can react with NH<sub>3</sub> to form fine particulate matter. Elevated particulate matter concentrations degrade visibility and are associated with adverse human health effects (i.e. respiratory and cardiovascular disease (Pope and Dockery, 2006)); both of these adverse health effects can be exacerbated in densely populated urban areas.

Agricultural and fossil fuel emissions are usually associated with rural and urban areas, respectively. However, NH<sub>3</sub> has an atmospheric lifetime of a few hours to 5 days and can also react with acidic gases to form NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> aerosols with longer lifetimes (1–15 days) and thus allow transport over large distances (Aneja et al., 2001). Investigating emission transport from individual NH<sub>3</sub> sources is necessary to understand the impact of agricultural emissions to urban areas and how emissions from fossil fuel combustion can potentially impact rural areas.

NH<sub>3</sub> emissions associated with agricultural and fossil fuel activities are reported to have distinctly different nitrogen isotopic compositions ( $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$ ) which can be used to characterize the transport of the varying NH<sub>3</sub> source emissions. Volatilized livestock waste NH<sub>3</sub> emissions from dairy operations, poultry operations, and other animal feeding operations are reported to have low  $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$  values (−56‰ to −9‰) (Felix et al., 2013; Freyer, 1978; Heaton, 1987; Hristov et al., 2009; Schulz et al., 2001; Skinner et al., 2006). Volatilized fertilizer NH<sub>3</sub> emissions also have low values (−48.0‰ to −36.3‰) (Felix et al., 2013). In comparison, reported  $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$  values of NH<sub>3</sub> emitted from coal combustion (−7 to +2‰) (Freyer, 1978), 'NH<sub>3</sub> slip' from EGU's (−14.6 to −11.3‰) (Felix et al., 2013) and vehicles (−4.6 to −2.2‰) (Felix et al., 2013) are considerably higher than those from livestock and fertilizer emissions. Building on this knowledge of varying isotopic signatures among NH<sub>3</sub> sources, this study: 1) documents the utility of ambient NH<sub>3</sub>  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values to examine transport of NH<sub>3</sub> across landscapes characterized by various land-use types (dairy operation, conventionally managed cornfield, concentrated animal feeding operation (CAFO) (i.e. large beef cattle feedlot), and tallgrass prairie); 2) uses an isotope mixing model to predict first order approximations of NH<sub>3</sub> source contributions to ambient NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations [NH<sub>3</sub>]; 3) relates modeled NH<sub>3</sub> deposition flux to measured  $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_3$  values and; and 4) uses  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  to investigate NH<sub>3</sub> sources in an urban region.

## 2. Methods

### 2.1. NH<sub>3</sub> emission collection methods for concentration and isotope analysis

Passive samplers, either Ogawa or Adapted Low-Cost Passive High Absorption (ALPHA), have been used in previous studies to collect NH<sub>3</sub> emissions and monitor [NH<sub>3</sub>] (Cape et al., 2004; Rogers et al., 2009; Sather et al., 2008; Siefert et al., 2004; Skinner et al., 2004, 2006; Tang et al., 2001; Felix et al., 2013). The Ogawa is a double-sided passive diffuse sampler equipped with a diffusive end cap, followed by a stainless steel screen, and a 14 mm quartz filter impregnated with phosphorous acid. The ALPHA is a circular polyethylene vial (26 mm height, 27 mm diameter) with one open end. The vial contains a position for a 25 mm phosphorous acid impregnated filter and PTFE membrane for gaseous NH<sub>3</sub> diffusion (Tang et al., 2009). In this study the Ogawa passive sampler was only used at the small dairy operation field site because the sampling surface was smaller than that of the ALPHA sampler, thus minimizing the amount of NH<sub>3</sub> collected for subsequent isotope analysis. During this study, ALPHA blanks in a sealed mason jar traveled with the deployed ALPHA samplers and were later analyzed for [NH<sub>3</sub>] so the 'blank concentration' could be subtracted from concentration of deployed samplers.

### 2.2. NH<sub>3</sub> concentration analysis method

After collection on the passive sampler filters, NH<sub>3</sub> was eluted with Milli-Q water and analyzed as NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> using the phenolate method (Eaton et al., 2005) and a Thermo Evolution 60S UV–vis. NH<sub>3</sub> air concentrations were calculated according to Ogawa or ALPHA sampler protocol (Ogawa and Co, USA, 2006; Tang et al., 2009).

### 2.3. Nitrogen isotopic analysis of NH<sub>3</sub> samples

After NH<sub>3</sub> collected on a filter is eluted, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> in the eluant is analyzed for nitrogen isotopic composition according to Felix et al. (2013). Briefly, this approach for  $\delta^{15}\text{N-NH}_4$  isotopic analysis combines two existing methods (Sigman et al., 2001; L. Zhang et al., 2007). An oxidation method (Zhang et al., 2007) employing a hypobromite oxidation solution was used to oxidize the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (diluted to 10  $\mu\text{M}$  NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) in the sample to nitrite (NO<sub>2</sub><sup>−</sup>). Conversion of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> to NO<sub>2</sub><sup>−</sup> is quantitative. After oxidation, sample pH is adjusted to between 3 and 9 using 6N HCl. 20 nmoles of sample NO<sub>2</sub><sup>−</sup> is then converted to N<sub>2</sub>O using the bacterial denitrifier *Pseudomonas aureofaciens* and introduced to an Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer (IRMS) (Sigman et al., 2001). The pH adjustment is needed because the high pH created by the addition of the bromate oxidizing agent to the sample is toxic to the denitrifying bacteria. Samples were analyzed for  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values using an Isoprime Trace Gas and Gilson GX-271 autosampler coupled with an Isoprime Continuous Flow IRMS at the University of Pittsburgh, Regional Stable Isotope Laboratory for Earth and Environmental Research. Values are reported in parts per thousand relative to atmospheric N<sub>2</sub> as follows:

$$\delta^{15}\text{N}(\text{‰}) = \frac{(^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N})_{\text{sample}} - (^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N})_{\text{standard}}}{(^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N})_{\text{standard}}} \times 1000. \quad (1)$$

International reference standards USGS34, USGS32, USGS25, and USGS26 were used for data correction according to Felix et al., 2013.

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