



N₂O as a tracer of mixing stratospheric and tropospheric air based on CARIBIC data with applications for CO₂



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HIGHLIGHTS

- We explore the concept to use N₂O as another STE tracer for trace-gases in UTLS.
- We analyze the distribution of de-trended N₂O for NH ground stations and UTLS region.
- We introduce the N₂O-threshold aimed to distinguish tropospheric and stratosphere-affected air.
- We demonstrate the use of N₂O as a STE tracer for CO₂ and CO₂ isotopes in UTLS.
- We demonstrate the use of N₂O as a tracer for STE flux by deep stratospheric intrusions.

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ABSTRACT

Stratosphere–troposphere exchange (STE) affects distributions of trace gases, with ozone (O₃) and CO being commonly used to study mixing process in the UTLS (Upper Troposphere and Lower Stratosphere) region. Here we explore the application of N₂O as a tracer of stratosphere to troposphere flux for CO₂ and its isotopes, using N₂O and CO₂ mixing ratios including a set of CO₂ isotope data for CARIBIC aircraft samples and NOAA–Carbon Cycle flask samples. A frequency distribution of CARIBIC N₂O data (mostly UTLS at mid- and high-latitudes) reveals a narrow distribution around a tropospheric maximum at nearly the same N₂O mixing ratio as the distribution peak for the station Mauna Loa (MLO) however with a skewing due to STE. We demonstrate that upper-tropospheric and STE-affected air can be distinguished using a threshold value based on the N₂O distribution width at MLO. A comparison with the use of O₃ is given. N₂O is discussed to be a robust and linear (season and latitude independent) tracer of STE mixing proportions. We propose that CARIBIC data coupled with CO₂ isotopic data published for the stratosphere and data of NOAA stations can be used as a frame of reference for δ¹⁸O(CO₂) and Δ¹⁷O(CO₂) STE fluxes. The Δ¹⁷O(CO₂) flux is of particular interest as it is thought to constrain estimates of biosphere productivity, atmospheric oxygen cycle and global gross CO₂ fluxes. CARIBIC data can also help tracing STE flux by deep stratospheric intrusions and a data analysis is given for the Walliguan (WLG) observatory on the Tibetan Plateau.

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1. Introduction

Stratosphere/Troposphere Exchange (STE) has been studied especially because of its importance for the flux of O₃ into the

troposphere. The net downward flux likewise delivers air with specific stratospheric “signatures”, e.g. a depletion in N₂O, causing detectable reductions in upper tropospheric N₂O mixing ratios (e.g. (Ishijima et al., 2010)). Similarly the tropospheric distributions of other important trace gases, especially CO₂ and CH₄ are affected by the stratosphere to troposphere flux, with the net effect depending on the air mass fluxes and growth rate (e.g. SF₆), or growth rate and seasonality (e.g. CO₂) or growth rate, seasonality, and chemistry (e.g. N₂O and CH₄).

Most experimental STE investigations are based on correlations between O₃ and CO measured onboard research aircraft, whereby O₃ is the tracer for stratospheric air and CO for tropospheric air.

Abbreviations: UTLS, Upper Troposphere and Lower Stratosphere; LMS, Lower Most Stratosphere; O₃-CT, Ozone-Chemical Tropopause defined after (Zahn et al., 2004a); STE, Stratosphere–Troposphere Exchange; PV, Potential Vorticity; PVU, Potential Vorticity Units.

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Detailed analysis of CO–O₃ correlations (e.g. (Hoor et al., 2004; Pan et al., 2004; Zahn et al., 2004a,b)) have highlighted the complexity of mixing in the UTLS and revealed the existence of a variable mixing layer in the Lowermost Stratosphere (LMS). In such studies the use of parameters measured onboard is preferred over the use of Potential Vorticity (PV) values as derived from the re-analyses of meteorological model data, because of the higher spatial resolution of the experimental data. Moreover, a selection of in situ measured tracers is often available.

For all flights of CARIBIC, ~50% of the time is spent in the LMS with the balance in the troposphere. For a total of 3600 samples since 2005, 47% pertain to PV values of 1.5 PVU or higher and 33% was sampled in air masses having PV values of over 3.5. This choice for discriminating stratospheric air from tropospheric air is to a degree arbitrary and in this paper we will scrutinize the use of the distribution of N₂O in the UTLS. The accidental coincidence that large passenger aircraft cruise most efficiently exactly there where the tropopause forms at mid-latitudes, there where in the northern hemisphere (NH) most air traffic takes place due to economical developments, thus intersecting the tropopause frequently, render passenger aircraft measurements especially useful for STE studies insofar the relevant parameters can be measured using such platforms.

N₂O, with a lifetime of ~120 years, has a near uniform distribution in the troposphere, with little seasonal variation and is only removed in the stratosphere (Nevison et al., 2011, 2004) and references therein. The immediate reason for exploring N₂O is that the CARIBIC observatory (Civil Aircraft for the Regular Investigation of the atmosphere Based on an Instrument Container, www.caribic-atmospheric.com) has generated fairly large sets of trace gas data, including N₂O, using air samples collected. For a subset of CARIBIC flights CO₂ isotopes have been measured (Assonov et al., 2009).

One question dealt with in this paper targets the measurement precision required for a given STE tracer. One can question if it is necessary to improve measurement precisions of O₃, CO₂, N₂O, CH₄, or SF₆ to optimize the information we gain. Related are questions pertaining to spatial and time resolution as well as the inter-seasonal comparability of the tracer. Although often practical considerations like availability of equipment is decisive, it stands to reason to analyze the performance of tracers for certain processes, particularly since passenger aircraft will continue to be used in the years to come (e.g. (Brenninkmeijer and CARIBIC-Team, 2007; Cammas and Volz-Thomas, 2007; Machida et al., 2007; Volz-Thomas and IAGOS-Team, 2007)).

Besides the development of the use of passenger aircraft, high performance optical analyzers for in situ measurement of CO₂, CH₄, N₂O and CO have become available. Since N₂O is an important greenhouse gases with a complex budget and therefore will be measured more frequently, it is worthwhile to explore what scope N₂O measurements in the UTLS have. Although N₂O data is still based on post flight flask analyses in many laboratories and thus suffers the disadvantage of a smaller dataset with relatively lower resolution compared to O₃, this situation will change to warrant a closer look. The CARIBIC N₂O dataset is currently one of the largest ones in the UTLS region. In conjunction with CO₂, N₂O may have advantages over the use of the much shorter lived O₃, and here we follow up the approach discussed by Assonov et al. (2010). The other data set we use is for N₂O results of flask sampling obtained for stations by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration-Earth System Research Laboratory (NOAA-ESRL).

Here we also focus on CO₂ and CO₂ oxygen isotope signals in the UTLS (Upper Troposphere/Lower Stratosphere) using N₂O as a tracer. For improved understanding of the carbon cycle and to “constrain” carbon fluxes, tropospheric CO₂ concentrations are widely measured. In addition, isotopic analyses are used to shed additional light on the carbon cycle, with δ¹⁸O being mostly

controlled by the atmosphere-land biosphere CO₂ exchange e.g. (Welp et al., 2011). In the stratosphere however, δ¹⁷O–δ¹⁸O of CO₂ is modified by photochemistry, namely through its interaction with O(¹D) formed through the photolysis of O₃ under energetic UV light (Yung et al., 1991). Given the highly unusual oxygen isotopic composition of stratospheric O₃ (Heidenreich and Thiemens, 1983; Mauersberger, 1981), namely a strong enrichment in ¹⁸O and especially a disproportionally high enrichment in ¹⁷O, stratospheric CO₂ bears a unique signal that in its origin fundamentally differs from all isotope signals due to tropospheric processes. The ST (Stratosphere–Troposphere) flux delivers such specifically isotopically modified CO₂ to the troposphere. Moreover, the global flux of excess ¹⁷O(CO₂) to the troposphere is a special tracer that helps to evaluate global biosphere productivity and global CO₂ fluxes (Hoag et al., 2005; Luz et al., 1999).

In the following sections we will analyze the N₂O frequency distributions at the NH background stations and in the UTLS obtained by CARIBIC. This demonstrates that tropospheric and STE-affected air can be distinguished using a certain threshold of the N₂O mixing ratio. Then we compare resolving ability of O₃ and N₂O for STE events and discuss differences in tracer seasonality including UTLS at mid- and high-latitudes and the Polar Vortex. Moreover, to verify the applicability of the N₂O-based approach, we investigate CO₂ isotope data obtained previously by aircraft, balloon and surface measurements. The use of N₂O is evaluated to constrain flux estimates of excess ¹⁷O and ¹⁸O in CO₂ into the troposphere. Finally we discuss how stratospheric signals in N₂O, ¹⁷O(CO₂) and ¹⁸O(CO₂) can be distinguished during deep stratospheric intrusions.

2. Data analysis

2.1. NOAA N₂O data and de-trending

The NOAA-ESRL N₂O data provide a representative geographical and seasonal coverage (Hall et al., 2007). A description of data and analytical aspects is given by Hirsch et al. (2006). N₂O was analyzed for the same flask samples that were also used for CO₂ and its isotope measurements.

The N₂O time series for Mauna Loa, Hawaii (MLO), Barrow, Alaska (BRW) and South Pole Observatory, Antarctica (SPO) (Fig. 1, Table 1) demonstrate the four key features of the global N₂O distribution: the monotonous increase, weak seasonal cycles with a NH–SH ~180° phase shift and a small NH–SH gradient. Stations in the higher NH latitudes capture the larger seasonality with a peak-to peak amplitude of ~2.2 ppb. It was concluded that stratospheric influx of low N₂O air is one of two major drivers of the N₂O seasonality at high latitudes (Nevison et al., 2011), the second one is the ocean degassing.

For de-trending N₂O data we use the increase rate observed at MLO. The linear fit for the MLO data (Jan-2007–Dec-2011, 0.844 ± 0.001 ppb y^{−1}, Fig. 1, upper panel) captures nearly all of the variance with residuals being symmetrically distributed with a standard deviation of 0.33 ppb (1σ). Because the precision of CARIBIC data is 0.35 ppb (1σ), we do not apply a sine-function to account for N₂O seasonality, which is about 1.3 ppb from peak to peak at MLO with significant interannual variability. Another potential complication not considered here is a small interannual variability in the N₂O rate of increase (Nevison et al., 2011). However, a refined de-trending is not needed for the present application; the MLO peak width of 0.33 ppb includes seasonal and interannual variability as well as the analytical uncertainty.

Because N₂O at background NH stations confirms the absence of a latitudinal gradient and demonstrate the same rate of increase (cf. Table 1 and Fig. 1), the same de-trending is applied to data from all

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