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## VARIABILITY OF NO AND NO<sub>2</sub> ABOVE THE SNOWPACK AT SUMMIT, GREENLAND

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VARIABILITY OF NO AND NO<sub>2</sub> ABOVE THE SNOWPACK  
AT SUMMIT, GREENLAND

By

Zhixin Wang

A THESIS

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

In Geology

MICHIGAN TECHNOLOGICAL UNIVERSITY

2015

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This thesis has been approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of MASTER OF SCIENCE in Geology.

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Last but not the least, biggest thanks is given to my parents, elder brother and elder sister, for their consistent support, understanding, and help all through my life.

Thank you all!

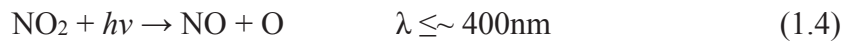
# Abstract

Nitric oxide (NO) and nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) were measured at levels of approximately 7.5 m, 3 m, and 0.5 m above the surface snowpack at Summit, Greenland from July 2008 to July 2010, respectively, with two sets of instrument systems. Instrument I measured NO and NO<sub>2</sub> at levels of 3 m and 0.5 m with two inlets, and instrument II measured NO and NO<sub>2</sub> at a level of 7.5 m plus total reactive nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>y</sub>) at the same level with one inlet. Compared to previous measurements, the data provided the first year-round simultaneous record of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> at different levels above the snowpack at a high latitude Arctic site.

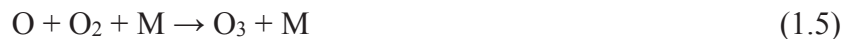
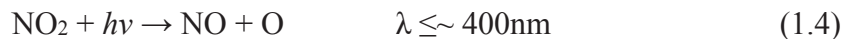
Apparent seasonal and diurnal cycles were observed for both NO and NO<sub>2</sub> at different levels. NO reached high levels when solar radiation was high from late spring to summer in a seasonal scale and at around noon in a diurnal scale, while NO<sub>2</sub> reached high levels from early spring to early fall in a seasonal scale and from afternoon to night in a diurnal scale. The vertical gradients of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> between 3 m and 0.5 m above the snowpack suggested the emission of NO from the surface snowpack. An improved mechanism for snowpack photochemistry at Summit is proposed to explain the seasonal variability of NO and NO<sub>2</sub>. Furthermore, a pollution event study showed that FLEXPART retroplume simulations were in agreement with the measurements. During polar night season, NO<sub>2</sub> exactly followed FLEXPART simulation. Nitrate accumulation through snowpack deposition was proposed to attribute NO<sub>2</sub> increase in early spring. In sunlight season, nitrate deposition was proposed to occur during the pollution events and was re-emitted from the snowpack via photolysis after the event, resulting in subsequent NO<sub>2</sub> increase.

# Chapter 1 Introduction

The nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>), which includes nitric oxide (NO) and nitrogen dioxides (NO<sub>2</sub>), are very important atmospheric components due in part to the role they play in atmospheric chemistry. The catalytic formation of tropospheric ozone is highly dependent on the levels of NO<sub>x</sub> during the oxidation of carbon monoxide (CO), methane (CH<sub>4</sub>), and other hydrocarbons (Crutzen 1973, 1979; Zimmerman et al., 1978). The following reactions involving CO take place to produce ozone:



where M denotes any molecule in the atmosphere that absorbs the excess energy of the reactants. NO<sub>x</sub> serves as a catalyst in this mechanism. The net reaction 1.6 indicates that one ozone molecule is produced per oxidation of one CO molecule. In case of methane and other hydrocarbons, ozone is produced through a set of reactions below:





where the symbol R represents radical species like CH<sub>3</sub>, and CH<sub>3</sub>C(O), which are intermediate products of hydrocarbon oxidation in the atmosphere (Altshuller, Bufalini, 1971; Demerjian et al., 1974). R also can be H from reaction 1.1 as the intermediate product of CO oxidation. Through this scheme an oxygen molecule is dissociated into O, which cannot take place in the troposphere due to insufficient solar energy (Crutzen, 1979).

However, if there is insufficient NO, the following reactions may take place, to take CO for example:



or:



The relative rates of reaction 1.3 and reaction 1.14, therefore, will determine whether ozone is produced or lost in the troposphere. A critical volume mixing ratio of NO can be estimated by comparing the rate constants of reaction 1.3 and reaction 1.14, above which ozone production is larger than its destruction. In a typical clean air the critical mixing ratio

of NO is about 5 pptv (Howard et al., 1977). However, if an increase occurs to NO even under a low level, ozone destruction will be reduced and therefore ozone will increase (Honrath, 1991).

Besides controlling ozone production in the troposphere, through the following reactions, NO<sub>x</sub> has much effect on the concentration of tropospheric hydroxyl radical (OH), which can remove a variety of atmospheric compounds like CO, CH<sub>4</sub>, and halocarbons (Levy, 1971; Logan 1983):

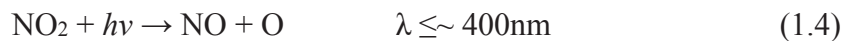


O(<sup>1</sup>D) is mainly deactivated by N<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> molecules to ground state O(<sup>3</sup>P), Nitric acid (HNO<sub>3</sub>), product of reaction of OH with NO<sub>2</sub>, is a major component of acid precipitation (Galloway, Likens, 1981; Logan, 1983):



The life time of NO<sub>x</sub> is rather short. This reaction, followed by rainout or surface deposition of HNO<sub>3</sub>, helps to prolong the lifetimes of NO<sub>x</sub> to ~1-2 days at mid-latitudes in summer and ~10 days in winter (Logan et al., 1981).

NO can be rapidly oxidized to NO<sub>2</sub> by ozone in the atmosphere. NO<sub>2</sub> can be converted to NO by solar radiation. The relevant reactions are as follows:



This interconversion between NO and NO<sub>2</sub> is very fast at midday of mid-latitude with a time constant of minutes. Therefore, NO and NO<sub>2</sub> are often treated as a single entity, NO<sub>x</sub>.

At global scale, the dominant sources of tropospheric nitrogen oxides primarily include fossil fuel combustion, biomass burning, biogenic emissions from soil, and lightning (Logan 1983). Combustions of fossil fuel and biomass burning account for approximate 50% and 20% of the total  $\text{NO}_x$  emission, respectively (Delmas, et al., 1997), which result from production of NO from  $\text{N}_2$  and  $\text{O}_2$  combustion under high-temperature (Seinfeld, 1975). Anthropogenic emissions have substantially increased in recent decades due to fossil fuel combustion from observations.

Anthropogenic emissions are distributed in industrialized continental areas, and the impact they have on  $\text{NO}_x$  concentrations in remote regions is limited due to the rather short lifetime of  $\text{NO}_x$ . However,  $\text{NO}_x$  still can be transported over a long range to remote regions like the Arctic in the form of relatively stable reservoir species such as peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN) (Singh and Hanst, 1981; Singh et al., 1986), which is highly stable under low temperature in the free troposphere. PAN is primarily formed from photochemical reactions of a variety of hydrocarbons in the presence of  $\text{NO}_x$  (Stephens, 1969). The lifetime of PAN is highly temperature-dependent, ranging from days in the mid-latitude to three months in the mid-troposphere (Singh, 1987). Therefore, it is proposed that nitrogen oxides are transported into the free troposphere in the form of PAN. It is a mechanism for the transport of  $\text{NO}_x$  from polluted areas to the free troposphere that PAN will be thermally decomposed and release  $\text{NO}_x$  with rising temperatures in the lower troposphere (Singh and Hanst, 1981).

In the Arctic, in-situ measurements of  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{NO}_y$ , PAN, and other atmospheric species are very scarce, especially year-round and long-term observations. Here  $\text{NO}_y$  refers to the total reactive oxidized nitrogen, including  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ , PAN, and other reactive nitrogen species in the troposphere. Thus,  $\text{NO}_y = \text{NO} + \text{NO}_2 + \text{HNO}_3 + \text{PAN} + \text{NO}_3 + \text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{others}$ . There is evidence that PAN accounts for a primary fraction of  $\text{NO}_y$  in the Arctic free troposphere (Sandholm et al., 1992; Singh et al., 1992; Kramer et al., 2014).

NO,  $\text{NO}_x$ , and  $\text{NO}_y$  were measured in the Arctic region in March 1983 on several aircraft flights (Dickerson, 1985). The measurements presented that NO mixing ratio was always below the detection limit of 10 ppt,  $\text{NO}_x$  mixing ratio was  $\sim 600$  ppt in the boundary layer,

$\text{NO}_y$  mixing ratio was 1500 ppt, and ratios of  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{NO}_y$  were 0.81 near the surface and 0.46 at 6400 m, probably due to presence of higher levels of PAN or other organic nitrate compounds in the free troposphere (Dickerson, 1985). PAN mixing ratio was measured individually during springtime of 1986, and 1989 at Albert, Canada, indicating that PAN is an important component of  $\text{NO}_y$  in the springtime Arctic (Bottenheim et al., 1986; Barrie et al., 1989; Bottenheim et al., 1989). Ground-level mixing ratios of  $\text{NO}_y$  and NO were measured at Barrow, Alaska in summer 1988, spring 1989, and March-December 1990, which revealed a seasonal cycle of  $\text{NO}_y$  with high values in early spring (median 560-620 ppt) and ~70 ppt (median) during summer, an hourly average of NO <8 ppt and a pulse to ~35 ppt (maximum hourly average) in late spring, and a positive correlation between mixing ratios of  $\text{NO}_y$  and  $\text{O}_3$  (Honrath, 1991).

Snowpack  $\text{NO}_x$  photochemistry has been a hot topic in recent years. Field measurements and lab experiments were conducted from polar regions (Honrath et al., 1999; Beine et al., 2002; Jones et al., 2000) to mid-latitudes (Honrath et al., 2000b). The snowpack is not only a receptor but also a source for many trace gases. There is evidence that  $\text{NO}_x$  is produced in, and released from, the snowpack through nitrate photodecomposition at Summit, Greenland in summertime when insolation is available, resulting in elevated  $\text{NO}_x$  levels in the boundary layer (Honrath et al., 1999; Dibb et al., 2002). Measurements of vertical gradients of  $\text{NO}_x$ , HONO, and  $\text{HNO}_3$  at Summit in summer 2000 in the lower 1-2 m above the snowpack indicated that  $\text{NO}_x$  and HONO emissions from the snowpack and  $\text{HNO}_3$  deposition into the snowpack occurred simultaneously, and the average emissions is much larger than the average deposition, implying  $\text{NO}_x$  export occurrence from the boundary layer (Honrath et al., 2002). Isotope measurements of nitrogen and oxygen of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in snowpack at Summit indicate that loss of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  from snow due to photolysis and/or evaporation during the day is primarily recovered at night through  $\text{NO}_x$  deposition to  $\text{HNO}_3$  (Steig and Sigman, 2004). A year long investigation of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  suggests that a maximum of 7% of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  is lost from snowpack annually (Burkhart et al., 2004). The proposed mechanism for the production of NO,  $\text{NO}_2$ , and HONO in snowpack is nitrate photolysis via the reactions below:



where reaction 1.20 is more efficient than reaction 1.21 by roughly a factor of 8 to 9 from two lab experiments in aqueous phase (Warneck and Wurzinger, 1988) and on ice surfaces (Dubowski et al., 2001; Grannas et al., 2007).

## 1.1 Research goals

Previous measurements in the Arctic usually focused on  $\text{NO}_x$  and were very short or not consecutive for a whole year, which are inadequate for fully and precisely understanding the magnitude and diurnal and seasonal variability of NO and  $\text{NO}_2$ . Honrath (1991) performed measurements of  $\text{NO}_y$  and NO in summer 1988, spring 1989, and March-December 1990 with month gaps in one single year. The NO,  $\text{NO}_2$ , and  $\text{NO}_y$  data this thesis used were collected with two separate instrument systems, from July 2008 to July 2010, one measuring NO,  $\text{NO}_2$ , and  $\text{NO}_y$  at a level of approximately 7.5 m above the snowpack, the other measuring NO and  $\text{NO}_2$  at levels of 3.0 m, and 0.5 m. The measurements provided the first year-round concurrent record of  $\text{NO}_x$  at 3 levels at a high latitude Arctic site. Measurements at three levels above the snowpack provided a way to investigate snowpack emission and its impact on seasonal and diurnal cycles of NO and  $\text{NO}_2$ . They also made it possible to investigate the impact of boundary layer conditions on the diurnal cycles. Boundary layer variability was proposed to have a significant impact on the diurnal cycles of  $\text{NO}_x$  at Dome C, Antarctica, which reached maximum height in the early afternoon and lower height in the evening, leading to dilution of  $\text{NO}_x$  concentration combined with convective upward mixing of snowpack  $\text{NO}_x$  emission and accumulation of snowpack  $\text{NO}_x$  emission, respectively (Frey et al., 2013). Boundary layer conditions may also be a factor impacting levels of trace gases at Summit through diurnal variation (Cohen, et al., 2007; Van Dam et al., 2013).

Here, the first year-round measurements of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios at three levels above the snowpack at Summit could help us better understand the seasonal and diurnal cycles of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> at different levels, snowpack emission mechanism, vertical gradients and the interaction of snowpack emission with seasonal and diurnal variability and vertical gradients. Furthermore, combined with FLEXPART retroplume analyses, we can better understand the impact of long range transport emissions on the measurement site and how nitrate deposition and re-emission occur during and after a pollution event.

Using these measurements the following goals were addressed in this thesis:

1. To identify and describe the seasonal cycles of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> from the surface up to approximately 7.5 m above the snowpack in the Arctic boundary layer at Summit, Greenland.
2. To verify whether NO<sub>x</sub> is released from the snowpack with NO and NO<sub>2</sub> gradients and propose a mechanism for snowpack photochemistry at Summit.
3. To determine how the diurnal cycles of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> change from the surface up to the top of the snow tower.
4. To observe changes of NO<sub>x</sub> above the snowpack just after a large pollution event and compare NO and NO<sub>2</sub> before, during and after each event.

## **1.2 Thesis outline**

The thesis includes 5 chapters. In chapter 1, chemistry, sources, long range transport, previous measurements and snowpack photochemistry of nitrogen oxides, plus research goals and thesis outline are covered. Chapter 2 discusses the introduction of measurement site, instrumentation, measurement method, and FLEXPART model. In chapter 3, seasonal cycles, vertical gradients, diurnal cycles of NO and NO<sub>2</sub>, plus pollution transport events are analyzed with the data measured at Summit. Chapter 4 covers conclusions and future work. This final section is a summary on what the final results have shown and what can be derived.

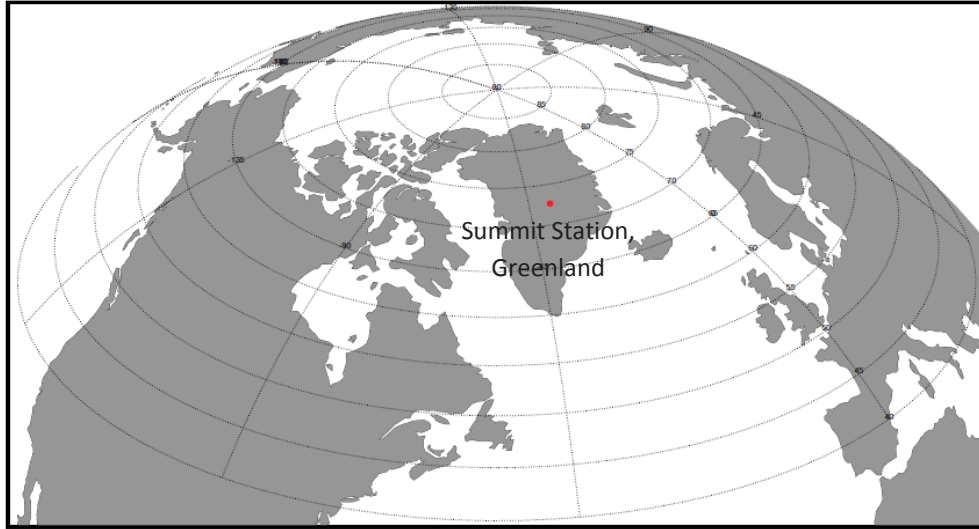
# Chapter 2 Measurements

## 2.1 Measurement site

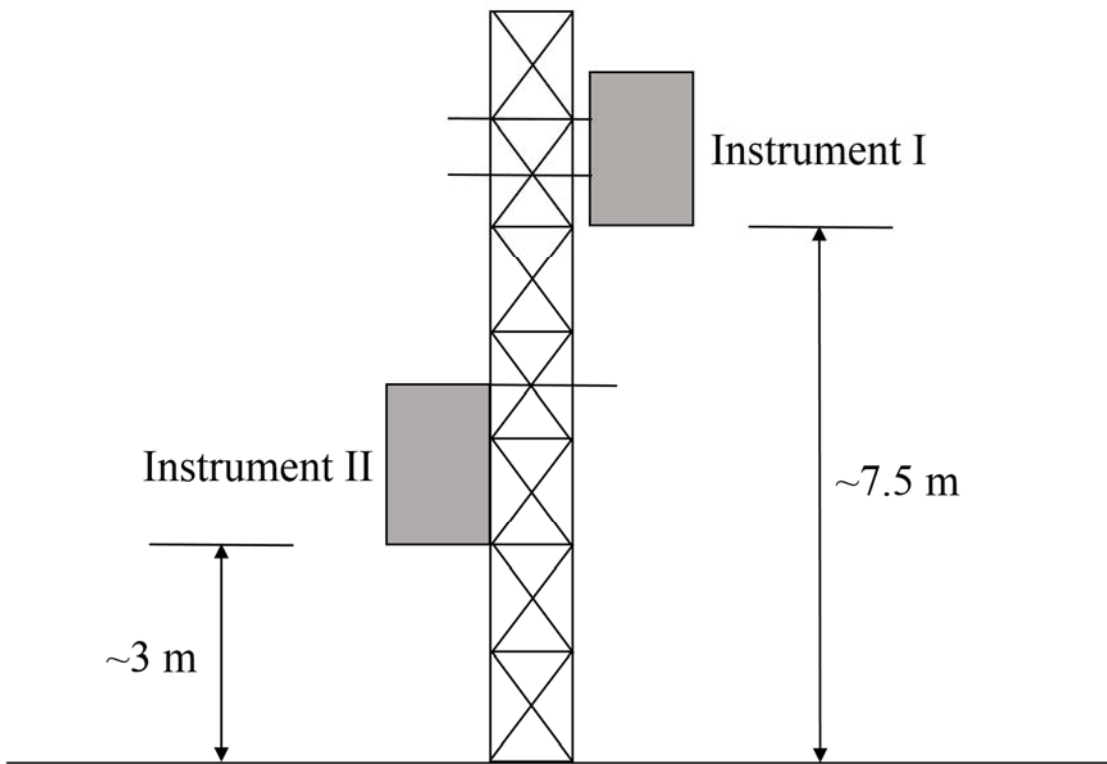
The measurements of NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, and NO<sub>y</sub> were conducted from July 2008 to July 2010 at the GEOSummit Station (hereafter called Summit), Greenland (72.34° N, 38.29° W, 3212 m.a.s.l). Summit is located on the apex of the Greenland Ice Sheet. It is approximately 360 km from the east coast and 500 km from the west coast of Greenland (Figure 2.1). It is relatively free from local pollution. Furthermore, due to its high altitude and proximity to North America and Europe, Summit is an ideal location for sampling long-transported anthropogenic emissions and biomass burning emissions from North America, Europe and forest fires in the troposphere.

One inlet for Instrument I at a level of approximately 7.5 m and two inlets for Instrument II at levels of approximately 3 m and 0.5 m, above the snow surface were installed on the tower (Figure 2.2). Instrument I measures NO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>y</sub>, which was developed for the project “A study of biomass-burning and anthropogenic impacts on arctic tropospheric chemistry using measurements at Summit, Greenland as part of the POLARCAT IPY project (NASA grant NNX07AR26G)”. Instrument II measures NO<sub>x</sub> only, which was built for the project “Collaborative research: A synthesis of existing and new observations of air-snowpack exchanges to assess the Arctic tropospheric ozone budget (NSF Award number 0713943)”. The tower is approximately 660 m south-west of the main camp within the “clean air” sector, where the impact from station emission can be minimized so long as there is no north wind blowing from the main camp. Tubing and cables were routed through a heated pipe to a buried laboratory facility.





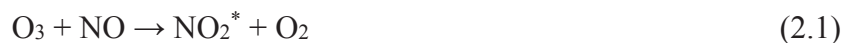
**Figure 2.1.** Location of the GEOSummit Station in Greenland



**Figure 2.2.** Instrument I and Instrument II on the snow tower.

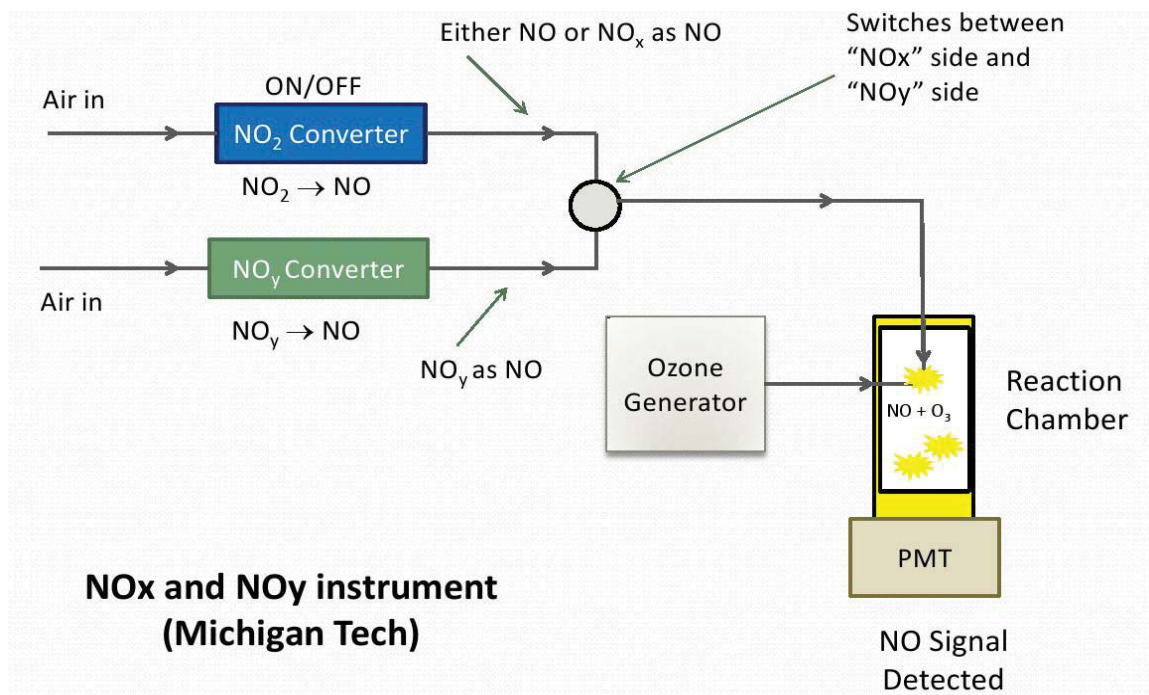
## 2.2 Measurements

NO is measured with an automated ozone-induced chemiluminescence detection system (Ridley and Grahek, 1990). Chemiluminescence can be defined as emission of non-ionizing radiation like ultraviolet, visible, or infra-red light from a molecule or an atom as a result of the transition of an electronically excited state in a chemical reaction without an apparent change in temperature (Navas et al., 1997). Ozone-induced chemiluminescence technique is of great importance in analytical chemistry and is widely used in determination of NO and a great variety of atmospheric compounds. The following reactions will occur during the process:



NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>y</sub> are measured with the same method. Prior to the above process, however, NO<sub>2</sub> is photolyzed to NO with NO<sub>2</sub> converter (Kley and Mcfarland, 1980) and NO<sub>y</sub> is converted to NO with gold-catalyzed NO<sub>y</sub> converter in the presence of CO (Bollinger et al., 1983; Fahey et al., 1985), respectively.

Instrument I was developed at Michigan Technological University and was based on previous version installed at Summit during campaigns in 1998, 1999, and 2000 (Honrath et al., 1999, 2002; Dibb et al., 2006). Instrument II is a modified version with the NO<sub>y</sub> measuring function removed. Figure 2.3 shows schematic diagram of Instrument I. For Instrument II, no NO<sub>y</sub> converter is installed.



**Figure 2.3.** Schematic diagram of Instrument I

There are two main types of converters for NO<sub>2</sub>, thermal converters and photolytic converters. In this instrument system, a photolytic blue LED NO<sub>2</sub> converter (Air-Quality Design Inc., Colorado) is utilized. A thermal converter with molybdenum catalyst has a higher efficiency and a longer lifetime, however, it is not specific to NO<sub>2</sub> and can also respond to other nitrogen containing species such as nitrous acid (HONO) and PAN, consequently increasing the interferences (Villena et al., 2012). A photolytic converter has a lower conversion efficiency and needs to be calibrated regularly, but it is specific to NO<sub>2</sub> and can reduce interferences from other nitrogen species. (Villena et al., 2012). In order to minimize the residence time of NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>y</sub> species inside the PFA tubing in Instrument I, the sample mass flow controller (MFC) and the NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>y</sub> converters are housed inside the inlet box on the tower.

The measurement cycles for both instruments are 10 min, which is very important when we want to measure variability on a short time scale. For instrument I, 30s averages of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> and 20s averages of NO<sub>y</sub> were recorded. Zero measurements are performed to determine the interference signal in the reaction chamber. Regular calibrations are needed

to determine the sensitivity of the instrument and conversion efficiency of  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_y$  converters. More details about screening and correction of the datasets can refer to Kramer et al. (2014). In this thesis, 30 min averaged  $\text{NO}_x$ , and  $\text{NO}_y$  data were employed. Similar procedures in  $\text{NO}_x$  measurements and data processing were performed for Instrument II (Toro, 2011).

## **2.3 FLEXPART**

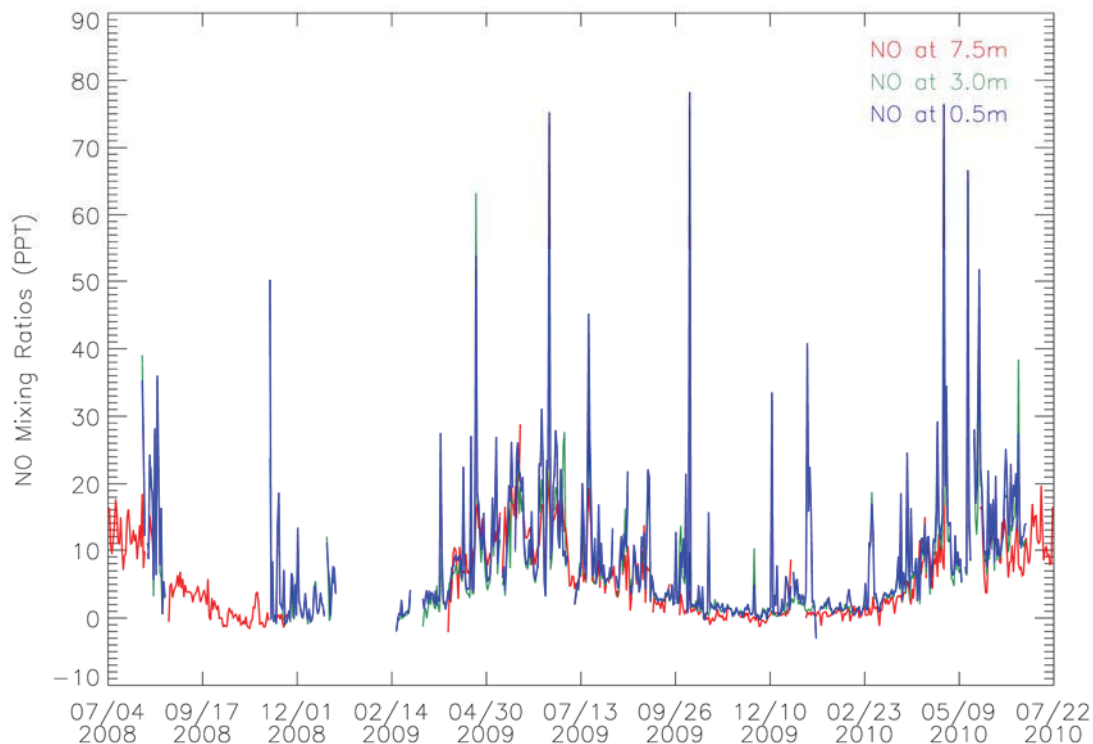
Potential pollution “events” (periods when the site was apparently impacted by local or transported polluted air masses) were identified with FLEXPART (version 8.2) (Kramer et al., 2014). The Lagrangian particle dispersion model FLEXPART simulates long-range atmospheric transport from the sources with European Centre for Medium Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) data (forward mode), which can also simulate given receptors back to potential sources (backward mode) (Stohl et al., 2005). In this thesis, FLEXPART backward mode was utilized with black carbon as the tracer for both anthropogenic ( $\text{BC}_{\text{anthro}}$ ) and biomass burning emissions ( $\text{BC}_{\text{fire}}$ ) (Kramer et al., 2014). The data source for BC anthropogenic and BC biomass burning emissions tracer, and comparison between BC tracer and carbon monoxide tracer for anthropogenic emissions are explained in Kramer et al., (2014).

# Chapter 3 Results and Discussion

### 3.1 Seasonal cycles

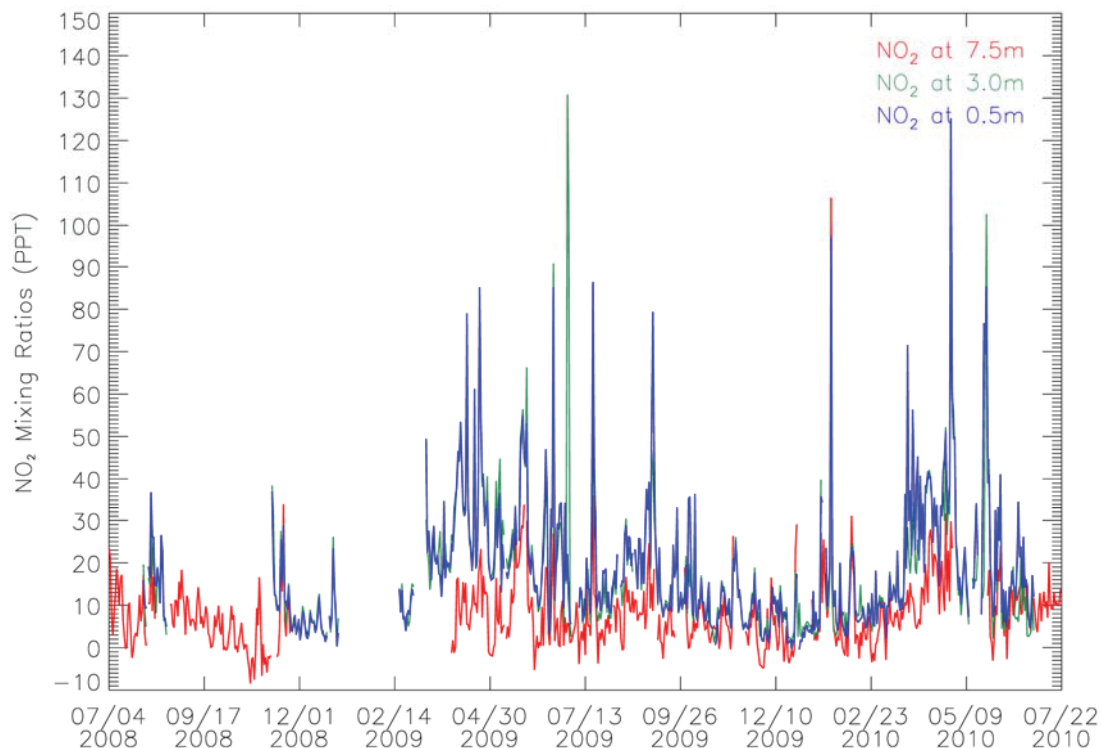
Here seasonal cycles of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> were measured and analyzed separately. The time series of daily averaged mixing ratios of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> at three different levels (7.5 m, 3 m, and 0.5 m) above the snowpack at Summit, Greenland from July 2008 to July 2010 are displayed in Figure 3.1 and Figure 3.2, respectively. Due to instrument malfunctions there are some gaps within the datasets. For the dataset measured at 7.5 m above the snowpack with Instrument I (red line), the largest gap is from November 24, 2008 to March 30, 2009. For datasets measured at 3 m (green line) and 0.5 m (blue line) above the snowpack with Instrument II, the data in July 2008, September 2008, October 2008, and July 2010 are missing.

For daily mixing ratios of NO, apparent seasonal cycles can be observed in Figure 3.1 with higher levels from late spring to summer and lower levels from fall to early spring. Furthermore, the values at three levels are close to one another and have same trends. The short periods of enhancements with large values are primarily due to anthropogenic and biomass burning emissions transported from North America and Europe (Kramer et al., 2014). Note that Instrument II data records started in August 2008 and due to missing ozone data for data correction no data were measured in the following September and October. As Instrument II has two inlets, ozone data is required to correct the NO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> reaction in the sampling lines that result in an overestimation of NO and an underestimation of NO<sub>2</sub>. So the data in August might not be very reliable. For Instrument I, it has only one inlet and we calibrate at the inlet we use. So the correction is not needed.



**Figure 3.1.** Time series of daily averaged mixing ratios of NO at 7.5 m, 3 m, and 0.5 m, respectively, above the snowpack at Summit, Greenland from July 2008 to July 2010.

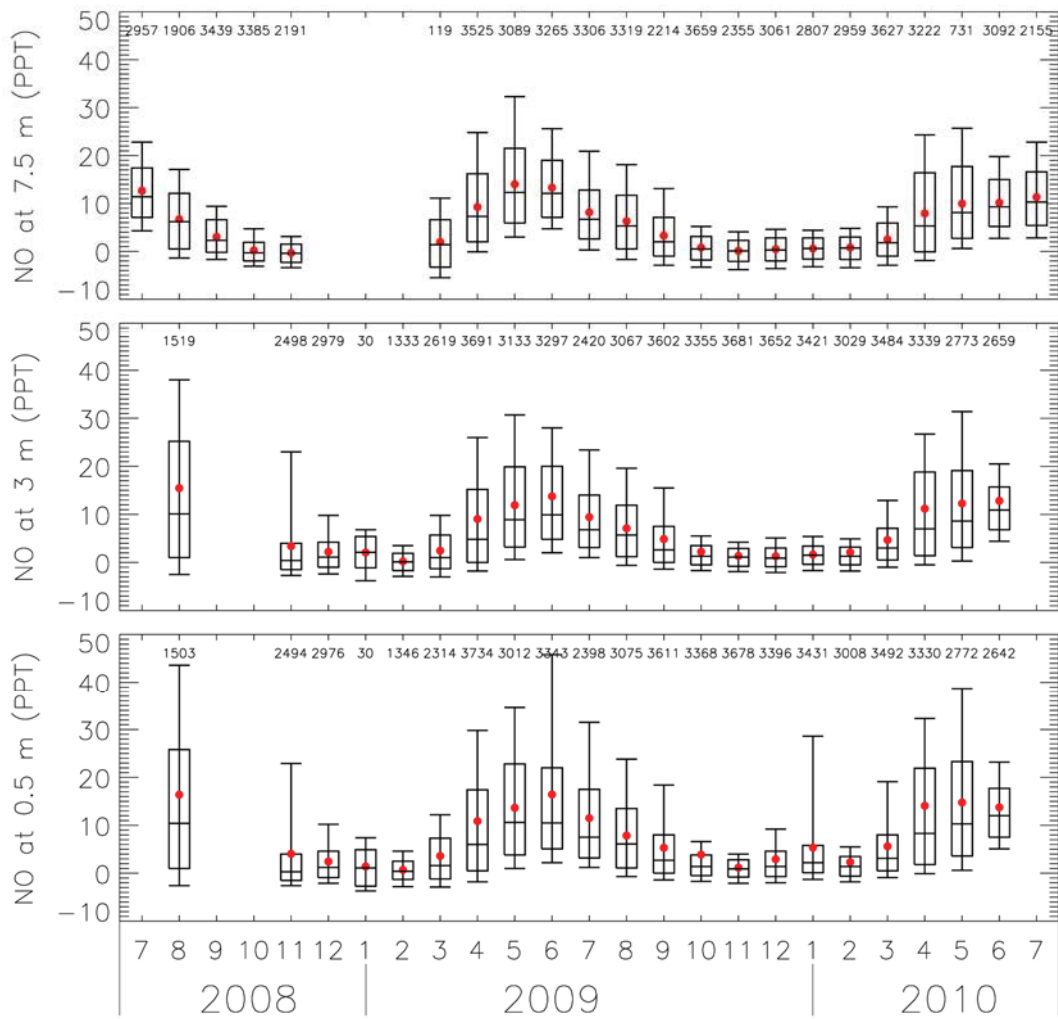
For  $\text{NO}_2$  as shown in Figure 3.2, similar seasonal cycles can be observed with higher levels from spring to early fall and lower levels from fall to late winter. The  $\text{NO}_2$  mixing ratio at 7.5 m above the snowpack is much lower than those at 3m and 0.5 m, especially in spring, while NO at 7.5 m is very close to NO at 0.5 m and 3 m. The hypothetical mechanism will be discussed in section 3.2. Both NO and  $\text{NO}_2$  have many short term enhancements in the time series plots, indicating that external polluted air mass sources transported from lower latitudes, or downward transport from the lower stratosphere, play an important role at this measurement site (Kramer et al., 2014). These events will be identified with FLEXPART retroplume simulations as pollution events and be analyzed for further investigation in Section 3.4.



**Figure 3.2.** Time series of daily averaged mixing ratios of NO<sub>2</sub> at 7.5 m, 3 m, and 0.5 m, respectively, above the snowpack at Summit, Greenland from July 2008 to July 2010.

In Figure 3.3 the monthly averaged NO at 7.5 m, 3 m, and 0.5 m, respectively, measured from July 2008 to July 2010 at Summit is presented. NO mixing ratios display a broad maximum above or close to 10 ppt during months of high insolation from April to July. With the weakening of solar radiation, NO mixing ratios decrease and become stable and close to zero during polar night. Table 3.1 gives a statistical summary for the monthly averages of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> from July 2008 to July 2010. As mentioned no data were recorded in the following September and October after August 2008, so NO monthly average in August might not be reliable. In consideration of this condition, NO monthly average in August 2008 was excluded when NO maximums were analyzed. Therefore, the maximums of NO monthly average at levels of 0.5 m, 3 m, and 7.5 m are  $16 \pm 31$  ( $1\sigma$ ) ppt in June 2009,  $14 \pm 29$  ( $1\sigma$ ) ppt in June 2009, and  $14 \pm 9$  ( $1\sigma$ ) ppt in May 2009, respectively. Note maximums of monthly NO average decrease with the distance above the snowpack.

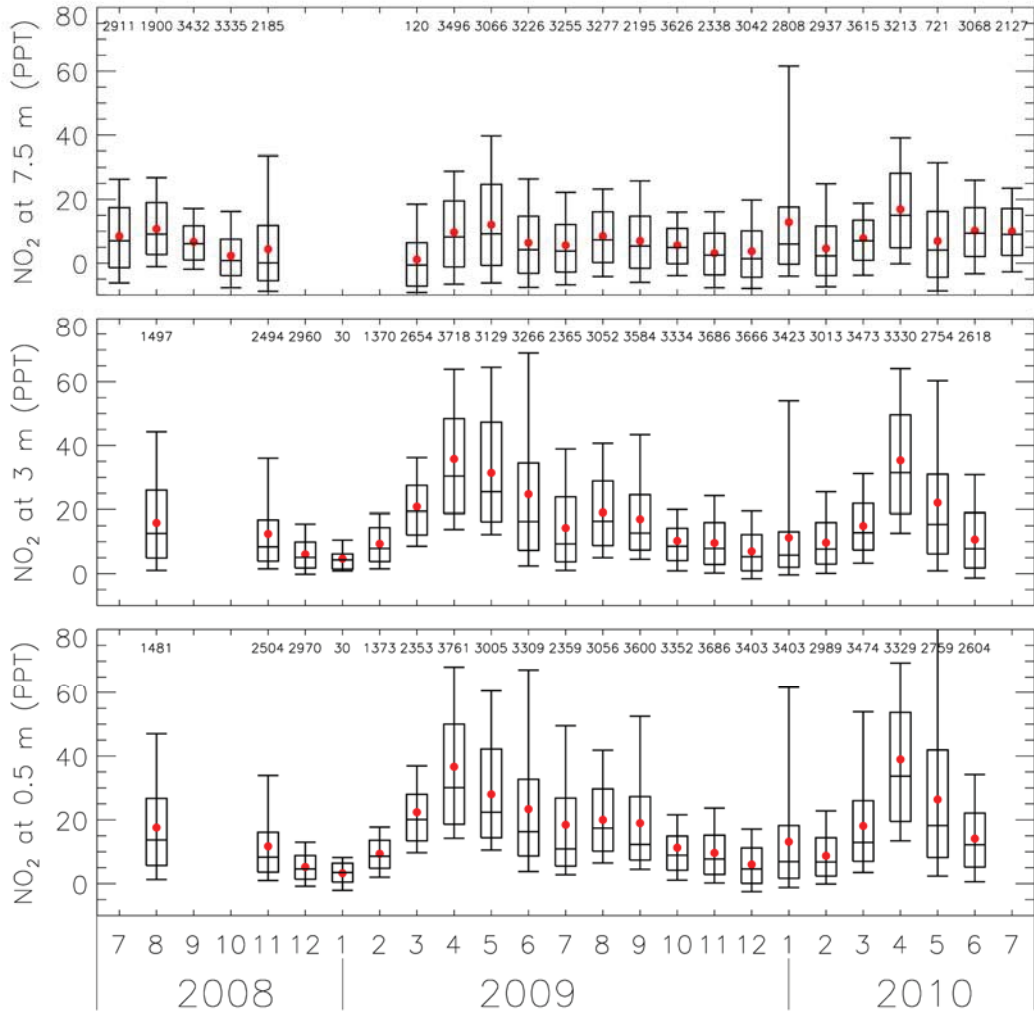




**Figure 3.3.** Box plots of NO monthly averages at 7.5 m, 3 m, and 0.5 m above the snowpack at Summit from July 2008 to July 2010. The vertical whiskers represent the 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentile of the data. The box represents the middle 67% of the data. The horizontal line and red filled circle represent the median and mean of the data, respectively. The numbers at the top of each plot represent the number of data records included in the distribution.

Figure 3.4 displays statistical analyses of NO<sub>2</sub> monthly averages measured from July 2008 to July 2010 at Summit, Greenland. It can be discovered that NO<sub>2</sub> monthly average at 7.5 m is much smaller than those at 0.5 m and 3 m and that its variation is not as big as the latter ones. However, similar seasonal cycles can still be observed from the plot. Monthly NO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios show higher values from March to September and lower values from

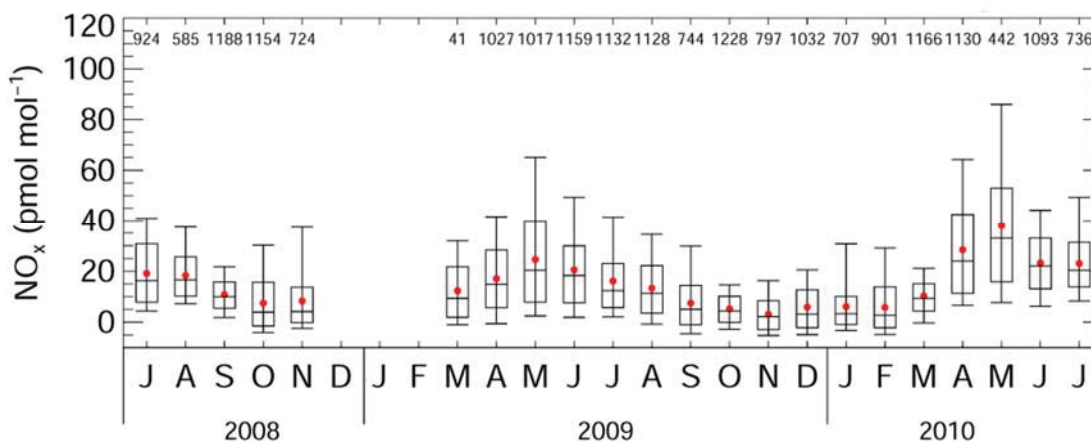
October to February of the next year. From Table 3.1 we know that the maximums of NO<sub>2</sub> at 0.5 m, 3 m, and 7.5 m occur in April 2010, April 2009, and April 2010 with mean levels of 39±39 (1σ) ppt, 36±35 (1σ) ppt, and 17±14 (1σ) ppt, respectively.



**Figure 3.4.** Box plots of NO<sub>2</sub> monthly average at 7.5 m, 3 m, and 0.5 m above the snowpack at Summit from July 2008 to July 2010. Horizontal lines, red filled circles, box, and numbers at the top of each plot are defined in Fig. 3.3.

**Table 3.1.** Monthly statistics for NO and NO<sub>2</sub> measured at Summit, Greenland from July 2008 to July 2010

Year	Month	NO (ppt)			NO <sub>2</sub> (ppt)		
		0.5 m	3 m	7.5 m	0.5 m	3 m	7.5 m
2008	7	--	--	13±10	--	--	8±13
	8	16±38	15±27	7±6	18±25	16±14	11±9
	9	--	--	3±4	--	--	7±6
	10	--	--	0±3	--	--	2±8
	11	4±20	3±13	0±2	12±19	12±22	4±16
	12	2±6	2±7	--	5±5	6±6	--
2009	1	1±4	2±3	--	3±3	5±4	--
	2	1±3	0±2	--	9±7	9±9	--
	3	4±14	2±14	2±5	22±32	21±20	1±12
	4	11±31	9±26	9±10	37±41	36±35	10±14
	5	14±21	12±20	14±9	28±23	31±22	12±14
	6	16±31	14±29	13±7	23±29	25±37	6±12
	7	11±18	9±19	8±7	18±30	14±23	6±13
	8	8±9	7±15	6±6	20±13	19±15	8±10
	9	5±15	5±20	3±7	19±26	17±17	7±11
	10	4±34	2±15	1±4	11±27	10±23	6±8
	11	1±7	1±16	0±2	10±19	10±8	3±8
	12	3±11	1±3	0±3	6±11	7±9	4±14
2010	1	5±12	2±2	1±2	13±22	11±21	13±12
	2	2±9	2±8	1±4	9±14	10±10	5±12
	3	6±12	5±10	2±5	18±18	15±11	8±11
	4	14±37	11±28	8±10	39±39	35±30	17±14
	5	15±21	12±20	10±8	26±30	22±33	7±15
	6	14±18	13±25	10±8	14±11	11±12	10±9
	7	--	--	11±8	--		10±9



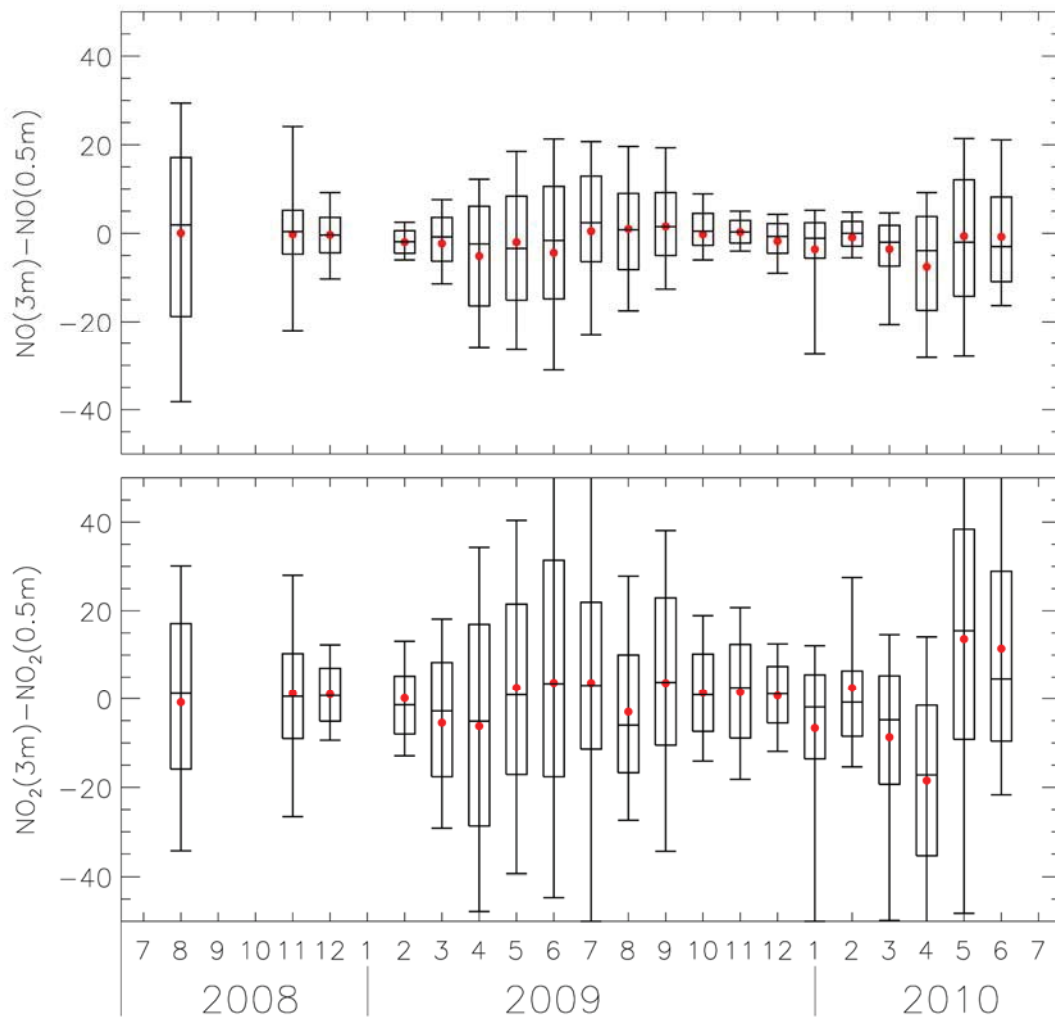
**Figure 3.5.** Box plots of  $\text{NO}_x$  monthly average at 7.5 m above the snowpack at Summit from July 2008 to July 2010 (Kramer et al., 2014). Horizontal lines, red filled circles, box, and numbers at the top of each plot are defined in Fig. 3.3.

The  $\text{NO}_2$  monthly average is approximately 4 times, 5.6 times, and 3 times the magnitude of  $\text{NO}$  monthly average at 7.5 m, 3 m, and 0.5 m above the snowpack, respectively. Therefore,  $\text{NO}_x$  is mainly composed of  $\text{NO}_2$  at Summit. However,  $\text{NO}$  plays an essential role in characterizing the seasonal cycle of  $\text{NO}_x$  as shown in Figure 3.5 (Kramer et al., 2014). Why does the  $\text{NO}_2$  monthly average at 3 m above the snowpack have a maximum of 4.6 times higher than  $\text{NO}$  monthly average at the same level? The hypothesis is that a portion of  $\text{NO}$  released from the snowpack is oxidized to  $\text{NO}_2$ , causing  $\text{NO}_2$  to increase at 3 m, and thereafter  $\text{NO}_2$  was diluted and mixed with ambient air as moving upward due to gradient difference. The confirmation of this hypothesis will be discussed in Section 3.2 via  $\text{NO}$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  gradients.

### 3.2 Vertical gradients

Monthly vertical gradients of  $\text{NO}$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  were calculated separately between 3 m and 0.5 m, and between 7.5 m and 0.5 m. In the first step, mixing ratio differences were calculated. For the mixing ratio differences between 7.5 m and 0.5 m, the data at 7.5 m were recalculated on the time base of data at 0.5 m as the two sets of data had different time bases. In the second step, monthly averaged mixing ratio differences were calculated and

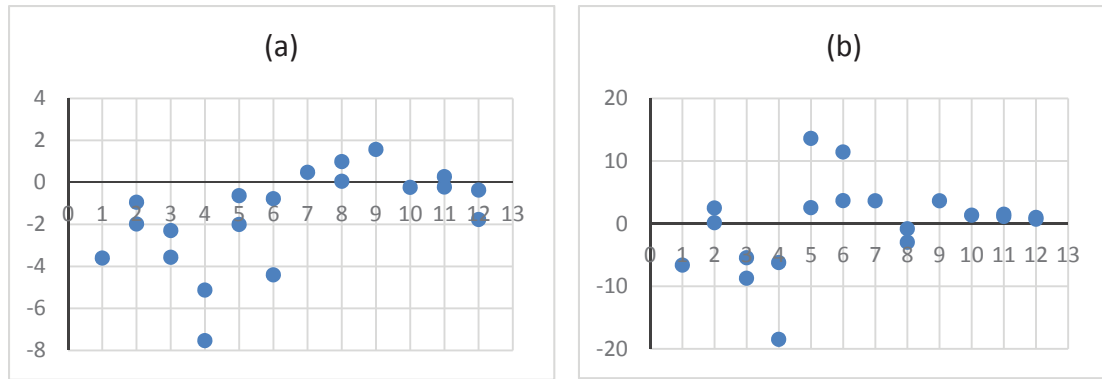
plotted with box plot procedure. From Section 3.1 it is discovered that monthly averaged NO mixing ratios are very close to one another at levels of 0.5 m, 3 m, and 7.5 m above the snowpack, while monthly averaged NO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios are more complicated than that of NO. Firstly, NO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios are approximately 2 to 4 times bigger than NO mixing ratios due to its longer lifetime in hours, more sources including PAN thermal decomposition (however, this is likely to be very limited due to low temperatures at Summit), the conversion from NO to NO<sub>2</sub>; Furthermore, NO<sub>2</sub> monthly averaged mixing ratios at 7.5 m above the snowpack are far smaller than those at 0.5 m and 3 m. That can be explained as follows: During the upward ventilation process up to approximate 7.5 m above the snowpack, NO<sub>2</sub> emission from the snowpack was mixed with the ambient air and was diluted; the photolytic conversion (Reaction 1.4) may also attribute to the sink of NO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio. The seasonal cycles of the measured vertical gradients of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> between 3 m and 0.5 m above the snowpack are shown in Figure 3.6. NO gradient between 3 m and 0.5 m is below zero during most of the time, meaning mixing ratio of NO is higher at 0.5 m than that of at 3 m, while NO<sub>2</sub> gradient is above zero under most circumstances, indicating mixing ratio of NO<sub>2</sub> is higher at 3 m than that of at 0.5 m.



**Figure 3.6.** Box plots of seasonal cycles of the difference between NO monthly averaged mixing ratios at 3 m and 0.5 m (shown is  $\text{NO}(3\text{m})-\text{NO}(0.5\text{m})$ ), and the difference between  $\text{NO}_2$  monthly averaged mixing ratios at 3 m and 0.5 m (shown is  $\text{NO}_2(3\text{m})-\text{NO}_2(0.5\text{m})$ ).

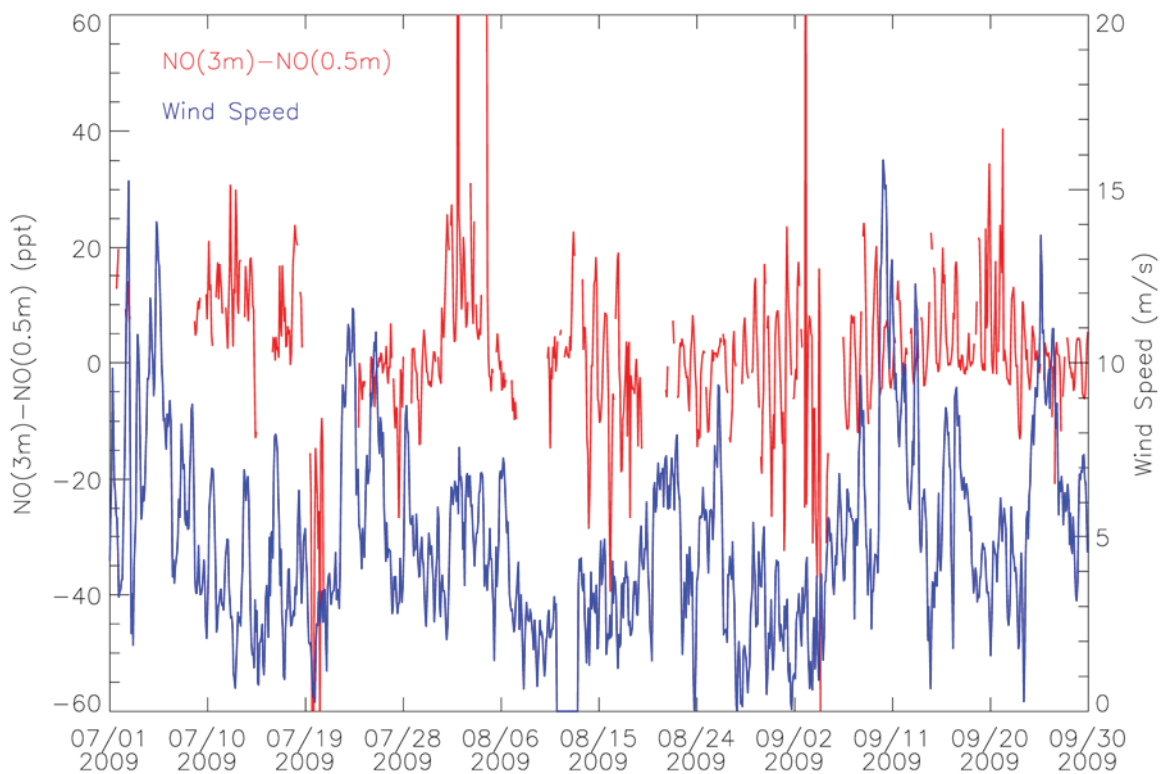
Figure 3.7 (a) clearly displays an NO monthly average difference between 3 m and 0.5 m above the snowpack. The gradient is below or very close to zero except in July, August, and September 2009. Negative gradient from early spring to late summer suggests NO emission from the surface snowpack when solar radiation is available during the sunlight season. However, the gradients from July to September 2009 are positive due to some reasons. Solar radiation, boundary layer conditions, wind speed, and wind direction are

likely the contributing causes. Solar radiation data from July 2008 to July 2010 did not show unusual variation during the investigated time of period. Unlike the case in south pole, NO and NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations do not have a clear correlation with the stable to weakly stable boundary layer in June 2010 at Summit, Greenland (Van Dam et al., 2013). Since no boundary layer depth measurements are available, it will be part of the future work to investigate the correlation between boundary layer conditions and mixing ratio variation of trace gases at Summit.



**Figure 3.7 (a)** NO monthly average difference between 3 m and 0.5 m above the snowpack; **(b)** NO<sub>2</sub> monthly difference between 3 m and 0.5 m above the snowpack.

Wind speed plays an important part in determining mixing ratios of NO<sub>x</sub> at Summit via wind pumping and changing gas transport speed. However, wind speed data measured by NOAA at Summit did not show an obvious correlation between the wind speed from July to September 2009 and the positive gradient (Figure 3.8).

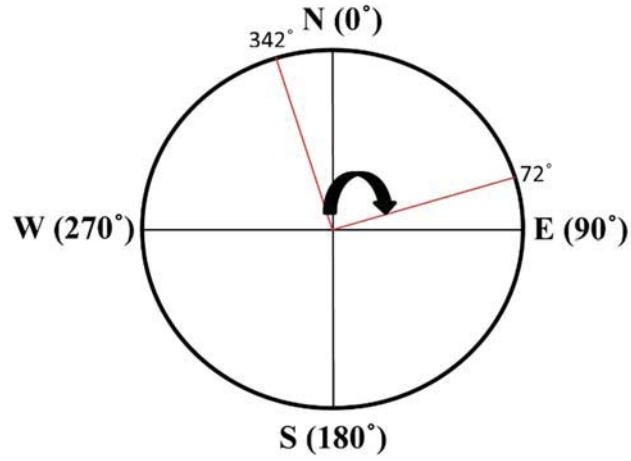


**Figure 3.8.** Two hours average of wind speed at Summit, Greenland from July 2009 to September 2009.

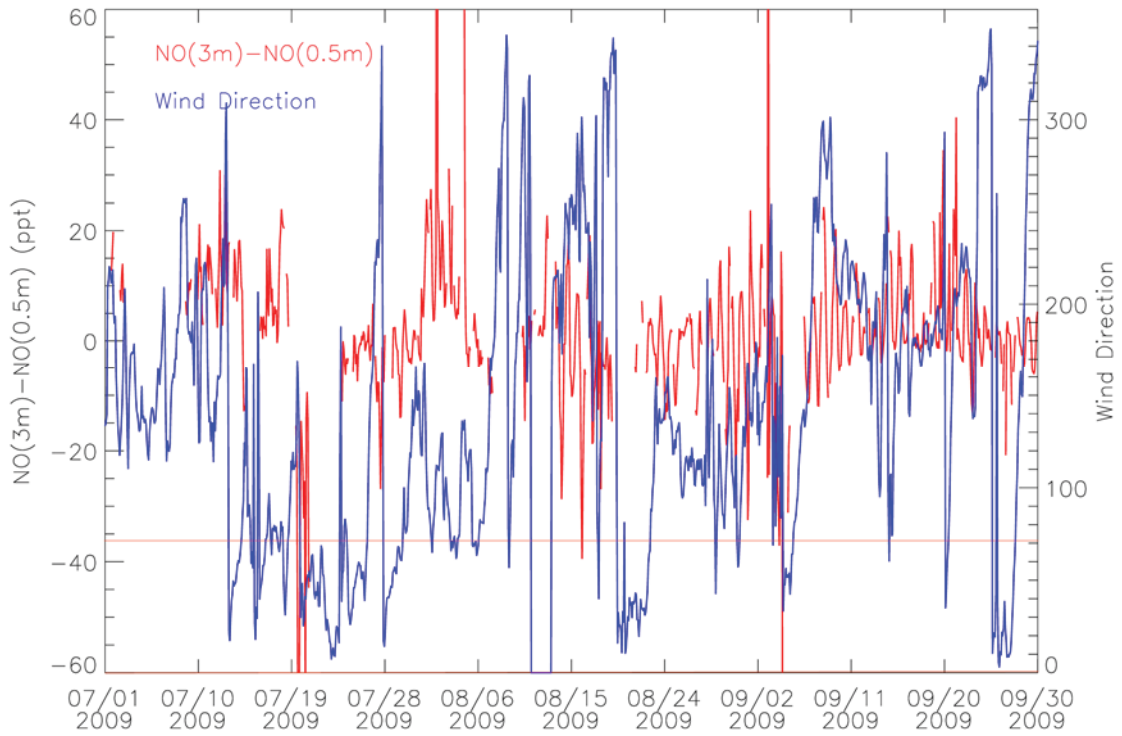
Wind direction itself has little impact on the mixing ratio of  $\text{NO}_x$ . However, through the air masses wind carries, wind direction can change the observed  $\text{NO}_x$  mixing ratio. The measurement site is approximately 660 m south-west of the main camp within the “clean air” sector, where winds blow from south during most time of the year, consequently minimizing the impact from the main camp. At Summit the north winds are defined as shown in Figure 3.9, which are a bit different from the standard north winds due to the relative locations of the main camp and snow tower. If north winds occurred, local pollution could directly increase the measurements. Figure 3.10 shows the hourly wind direction from July 2009 to September 2009 at Summit. The black lines between the two red lines denote north wind occurring during the time of period. Therefore, there might be polluted air masses containing NO and other species transported to the measurement site. Since NO difference between 3 m and 0.5 m was very small, even small amount of NO



source could change the gradient. Wind direction might be a contributor that cannot be ignored.



**Figure 3.9.** Definition of north winds at Summit, Greenland



**Figure 3.10.** Two hours average of wind direction at Summit, Greenland from July 2009 to September 2009.

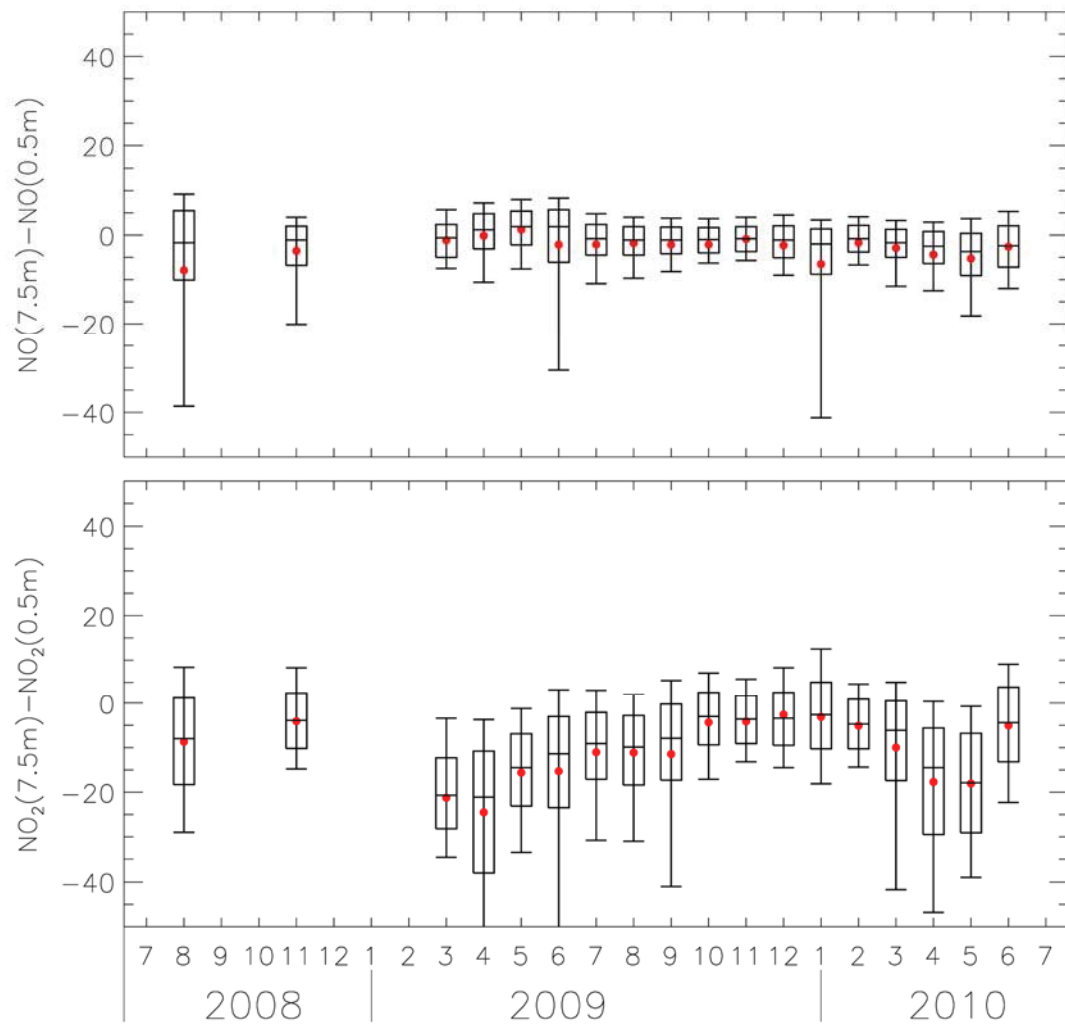
The negative gradient of NO between 3 m and 0.5 m above the snowpack from early spring to late fall resulted in positive gradient of NO<sub>2</sub> as NO emitted from the surface snowpack was converted to NO<sub>2</sub>. The mechanism for snowpack nitrate photolysis is discussed in Chapter 1 through the reactions below:



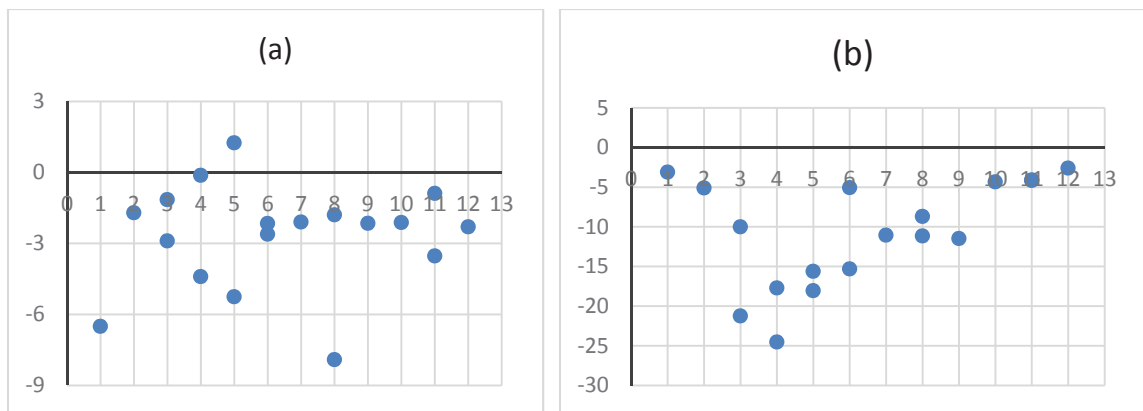
where reaction 1.19 is more efficient than reaction 1.20 by roughly a factor of 8 to 9 from two lab experiments in aqueous phase (Warneck and Wurzinger, 1988) and on ice surfaces (Dubowski et al., 2001) and that reaction 1.21 and reaction 1.22 are two different routines following reaction 1.20 (Jacobi and Hilker, 2007; Chu and Anastasio, 2007; Grannas et al., 2007). Obviously the above mechanism does not fully work at Summit if NO<sub>2</sub> photolysis is not considered. If reaction 1.19 driven scheme combined with reaction 1.20 driven scheme followed by reaction 1.22 (hereafter named **NO<sub>2</sub> scheme**) exceeded reaction 1.20 driven scheme followed by reaction 1.21 (hereafter named **NO scheme**), the dominant product of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> photolysis would be NO<sub>2</sub>, which does not agree with the positive NO<sub>2</sub> gradient between 3 m and 0.5 m above the snowpack. It is also possible that NO<sub>2</sub> in the snowpack originating from photolysis of nitrate during the sunlit season is subsequently photolyzed to NO. NO that is emitted from the snowpack could also be oxidized by O<sub>3</sub> to form NO<sub>2</sub>. Due to the fact that there are no measurements of NO<sub>2</sub> photolysis into NO and NO oxidization into NO<sub>2</sub> at Summit during sunlit season, it is impossible to draw a conclusion here. However, the NO<sub>2</sub> scheme is in agreement with the negative NO<sub>2</sub> gradient in early spring (from March to April). In addition, nitrate accumulation in the snowpack through nitrate deposition during polar night season is proposed in Section 3.4, which will be re-emitted via photolysis when solar radiation is available, attributing to NO<sub>2</sub> increase in early spring. Therefore, the proposed snowpack photochemical mechanism at Summit

is that NO<sub>2</sub> scheme exceeds NO scheme in early spring due to nitrate accumulation during polar night season and that NO scheme is of higher efficiency from late spring to late fall. Vertical gradients of NO<sub>x</sub> and HONO measured at a level of 1-2 m above the snowpack at Summit during summer 2000 showed that the daily average export rate of NO<sub>x</sub> emission from the snowpack is  $2.52 \times 10^{12}$  molecules m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and that HONO export emission rate is  $4.64 \times 10^{11}$  molecules m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> (Honrath et al., 2002). So the source of NO emission via  $\text{HONO} + h\nu \rightarrow \text{NO} + \text{OH}$  should also be considered.

The seasonal cycles of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> difference between 7.5 m and 0.5 m above the snowpack are displayed in Figure 3.11. From the snowpack NO<sub>x</sub> photochemical mechanism discussed above, NO mixing ratio is expected to decrease with the distance above the snowpack, while NO<sub>2</sub> will increase first at around 3 m above the snowpack and then decrease along with the rising of distance above the snowpack, diluted and mixed with the ambient air. Additionally, the boundary layer variations might impact the mixing ratios of NO and NO<sub>2</sub>. Typically the boundary layer is stable, but when the radiation changes diurnally, for example, in spring, the warming of the surface can result in the boundary layer height increasing, which will then dilute any gases in the boundary layer like NO<sub>x</sub>. Therefore, both NO gradient and NO<sub>2</sub> gradient between 7.5 m and 0.5 m are tending to be below zero due to the gas dispersion process.



**Figure 3.11.** Box plots of seasonal cycles of the difference between NO monthly averaged mixing ratios at 7.5 m and 0.5 m (shown is  $NO(7.5m) - NO(0.5m)$ ), and the difference between NO<sub>2</sub> monthly averaged mixing ratios at 7.5 m and 0.5 m (shown is  $NO_2(7.5m) - NO_2(0.5m)$ ).



**Figure 3.12 (a)** NO monthly average difference between 7.5 m and 0.5 m above the snowpack; **(b)** NO<sub>2</sub> monthly average difference between 7.5 m and 0.5 m above the snowpack.

Figure 3.12 (a) and (b) displayed NO and NO<sub>2</sub> monthly difference between 7.5 m and 0.5 m above the snowpack, respectively. We notice NO difference is positive in May 2009, which should be negative if no NO source is transported to the measurement site. Pollution events are identified with FLEXPART retrorplume analyses in Section 3.4. Anthropogenic event 41 to 45 and fire event 6 occurred in May, which are the likely contributors to the NO increase at 7.5 m above the snowpack. Long range transported pollution to the site from North America and Europe and stratosphere-troposphere exchange might contribute to the gradient enhancements. That is different from the gradients between 3 m and 0.5 m, which is mainly driven by snowpack nitrate photolysis.

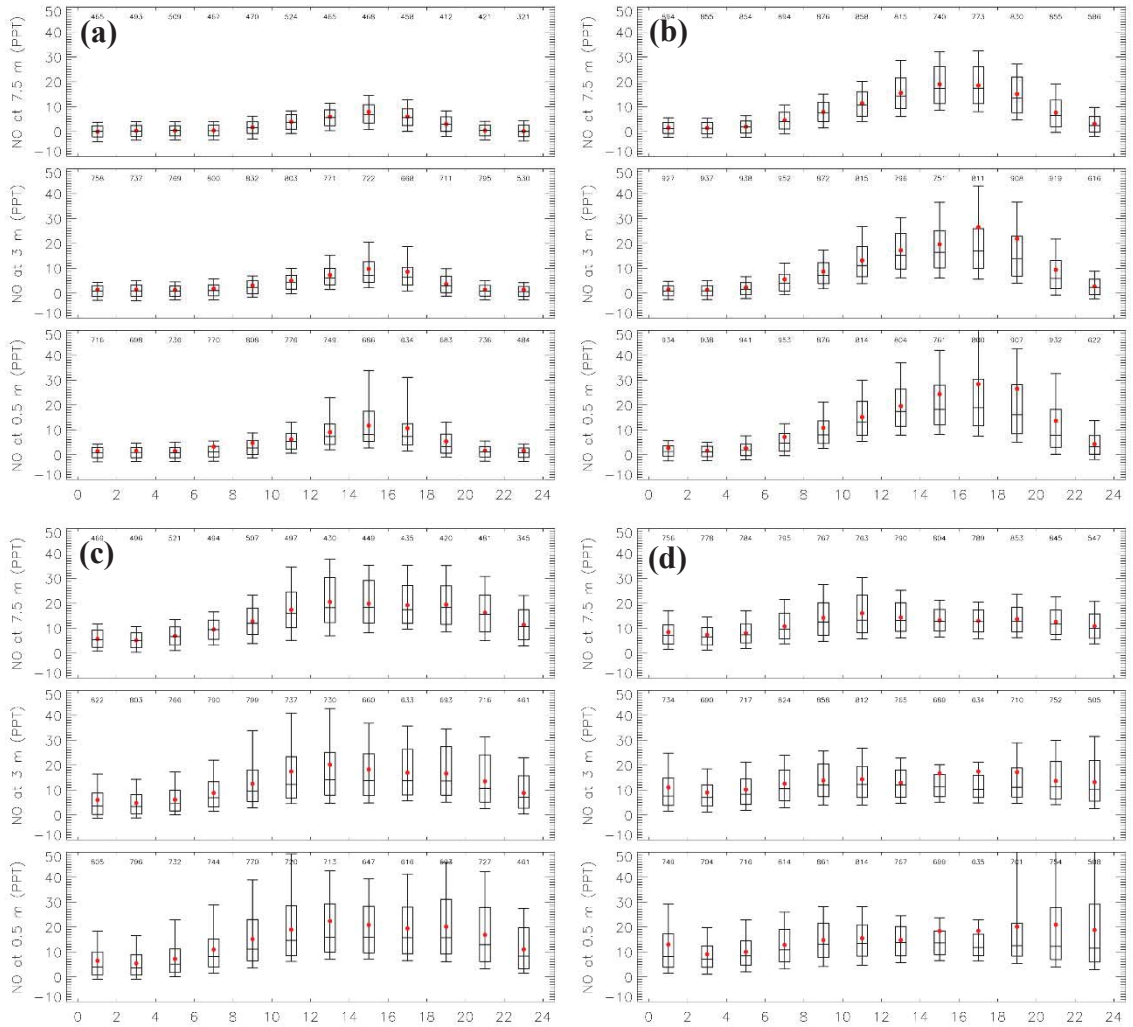
### 3.3 Diurnal cycles

Since NO and NO<sub>2</sub> are mainly produced via nitrate photochemical reactions, it is expected that NO and NO<sub>2</sub> vary diurnally with sunlight intensity. Here diurnal variability of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> was investigated in March, April, May, and June from 2009 to 2010 (no data from March to June in 2008) separately when solar radiation is available at Summit. The analysis gives information about the patterns of diurnal cycles for NO and NO<sub>2</sub> in sunlight season.

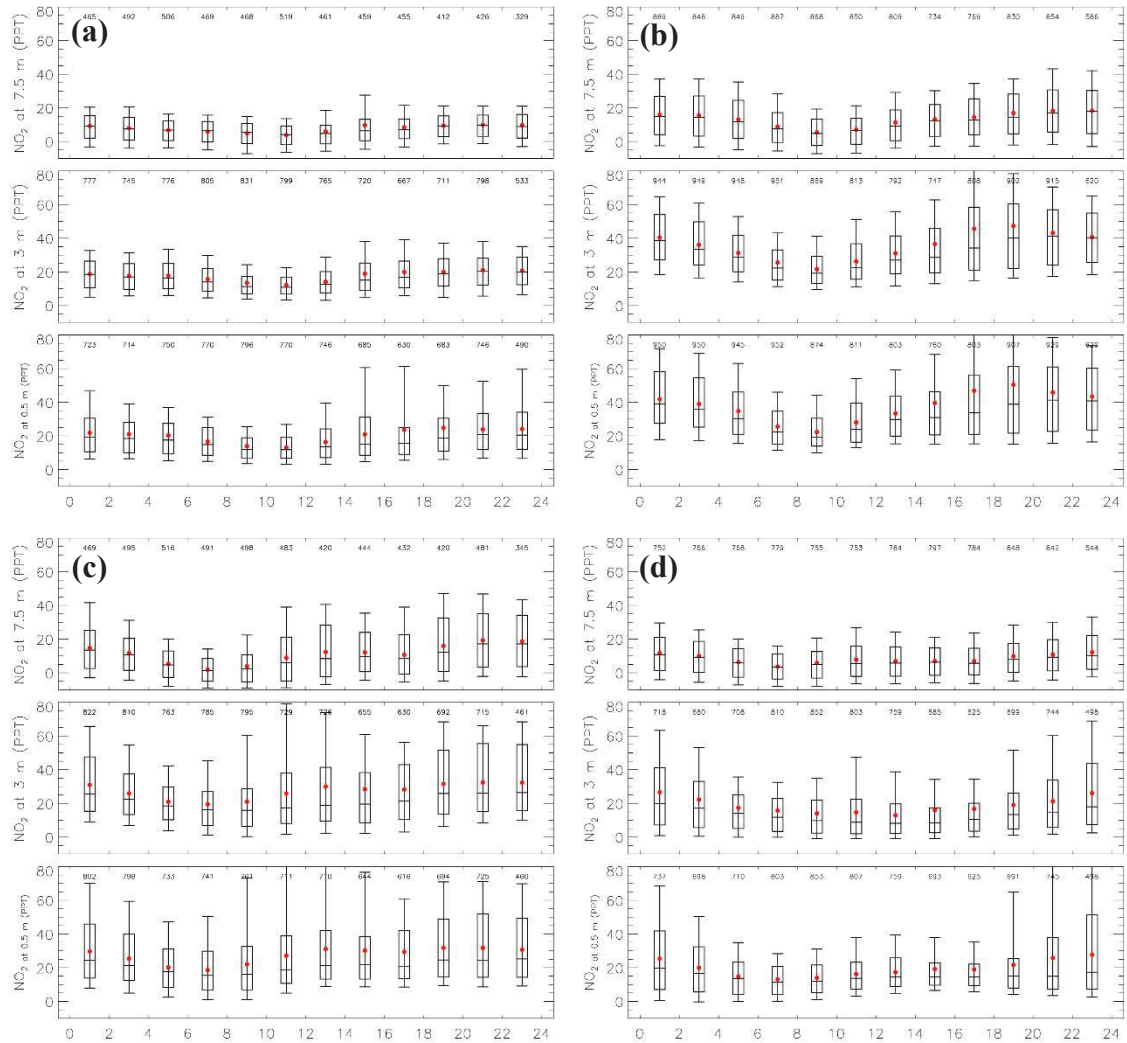
Figure 3.13 shows diurnal cycles of NO at levels of 7.5 m, 3 m, and 0.5 m above the snowpack from March to June during the measurement period. Each box represents 2-hour average of the data measured during each time of the day. The time is shown as UTC with local noon corresponding to approximate 3 PM. The mean and median are close to each other under most circumstances, but they are usually not at the middle of the data, which indicates that the data are not evenly distributed but clustering at either ends (Toro, 2011). Under the circumstance that the mean is far larger than the median, the data are clustered at high values, indicating occurrence of likely enhancements.

Apparent diurnal cycles were observed with high values around local noon, exactly following the solar radiation variation and also consistent with the expectation that NO is the product of nitrate photolysis within the snowpack (Toro, 2011; Honrath et al., 2002). The diurnally varying boundary layer depth may also have an impact on the diurnal cycles. Prior study showed the boundary layer depth in June 2010 was not an important factor in determining the levels of trace gases like at South Pole, but it is still an influential factor. More investigations should be conducted. Note NO diurnal cycle in June is anomalous compared to those in March, April, and May. The enhancement from the 18<sup>th</sup> to 24<sup>th</sup> hour might be the cause. The values at the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile are 57, 67, and 58, respectively, for the three boxes, which are not shown in the plot due to y-axis range limitation. It indicates, combined with the larger difference between the mean and median, that there is a greater amount of outliers during that time of the day in June. Under such circumstance, if median is chosen instead of mean to display the diurnal cycle, however, a similar cycle can still be

observed. The gradients of NO are similar to what is discussed in Section 3.2 in the corresponding months.



**Figure 3.13.** Box plots of NO average diurnal cycles for the months of March (a), April (b), May (c), and June (d) from 2009 to 2010 (no data from March to June in 2008) 7.5m, 3 m, and 0.5 m above the snowpack at Summit. The vertical whiskers represent the 5<sup>th</sup> and 95<sup>th</sup> percentile of the 2-hour average of all the data. The box represents the middle 67% of the data. The horizontal line and red circle represent the median and mean of the data, respectively. The time is shown as local time (UTC) with local noon corresponding to approximate 3 PM.



**Figure 3.14.** Box plots of  $\text{NO}_2$  average diurnal cycles for the months of March (a), April (b), May (c), and June (d) from 2009 to 2010 (no data from March to June in 2008) 7.5m, 3 m, and 0.5 m above the snowpack at Summit. The description is similar to Figure 3.13.

The diurnal cycle for  $\text{NO}_2$  is displayed in Figure 3.14. Still take the case at 0.5 m above the snowpack for example, obvious diurnal cycles can be observed except in June with higher values in the afternoon and lower values in early morning till noon. April is the month when  $\text{NO}_2$  reaches highest values, which was discussed in Section 3.1. Average mixing ratios of  $\text{NO}_2$  started to increase from local noon (3 PM) and reached maximums at 5 PM, while it is at local noon that NO reached its maximums. Therefore, NO is expected to have



an important impact on NO<sub>2</sub>. In June, NO<sub>2</sub> is as anomalous as NO and the diurnal cycle is very weak, which might be caused by enhancement or decreased solar radiation.

### **3.4 Event analysis**

The short term peaks in Figure 3.1 and Figure 3.2 and the positively skewed whiskers in the box plots indicate that the measurement site was often impacted by external pollutions transported from lower latitudes and in consequence air masses containing high levels of nitrogen species were sampled year-round (Kramer et al., 2014). Here a short term peak with elevated levels of NO or NO<sub>2</sub> is defined as an event when anthropogenic emission tracer BC<sub>anthro</sub> is larger than 75<sup>th</sup> percentile of the total BC<sub>anthro</sub> and lasts for at least 12 hours during the measurement period, or when biomass burning emission tracer BC<sub>fire</sub> is greater than 90<sup>th</sup> percentile of the total BC<sub>fire</sub> (Kramer et al., 2014). The former criteria corresponds to BC<sub>anthro</sub> > 0.082 ppt and the latter corresponds to BC<sub>fire</sub> > 7 ppt. There are 85 anthropogenic events (Table 3.2) and 13 biomass burning events (Table 3.3) in total that were identified with FLEXPART retroplume analyses under the previous criterion during the whole measurement period from July 2008 to July 2010 (Kramer et al., 2014).

**Table 3.2.** Statistics of start date, event length,  $BC_{\text{anthro}}$ , plume age, and source for a part of anthropogenic events identified with FLEXPART (Kramer et al., 2014).

Event	Start Date	Event Length (h)	$BC_{\text{anthro}}$ (ppt)	Plume Age <sup>a</sup> (days)	Source <sup>b</sup>
1	07/04/2008	12	0.012	8	EU
2	07/05/2008	21	0.017	9	EU
3	07/28/2008	18	0.025	9	EU
4	07/29/2008	66	0.023	10	EU
5	08/02/2008	18	0.011	12	EU
6	09/01/2008	27	0.023	7	EU
7	09/12/2008	51	0.016	9	EU
8	10/09/2008	54	0.017	11	NA
--	---	--	--	--	--
<b>16</b>	<b>11/18/2008</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>0.051</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>NA</b>
--	---	--	--	--	--
<b>45</b>	<b>05/27/2009</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>0.014</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>EU</b>
--	---	--	--	--	--
<b>70</b>	<b>01/22/2010</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>0.053</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>EU</b>
78	03/14/2010	81	0.015	12	EU
79	03/20/2010	18	0.013	13	EU
80	03/30/2010	18	0.013	14	EU
81	04/02/2010	33	0.012	15	EU
82	04/03/2010	24	0.015	14	EU
83	04/07/2010	18	0.013	11	EU
84	05/11/2010	15	0.022	7	NA
85	05/18/2010	51	0.014	12	EU

<sup>a</sup> represents mean weighted age from FLEXPART;

<sup>b</sup> represents primary anthropogenic emission source. NA=North America, EU=Europe, AS=Asia.

**Table 3.3.** Statistics of start date, event length,  $BC_{\text{fire}}$ , plume age, and source for biomass burning events identified with FLEXPART (Kramer et al., 2014).

Event	Start Date	Event Length (h)	$BC_{\text{fire}}$ (ppt)	Plume Age <sup>a</sup> (days)	Source <sup>b</sup>
1	07/25/2008	33	30.6	9	NA
2	08/01/2008	15	25.0	15	NA
3	08/03/2008	252	90.7	14	NA
4	03/15/2009	60	58.6	12	EU
5	03/18/2009	33	23.1	15	EU
6	03/21/2009	21	17.6	16	EU
<b>7</b>	<b>05/27/2009</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>17.7</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>AS</b>
8	07/17/2009	12	19.9	13	NA
9	07/18/2009	15	13.5	14	NA
10	08/16/2009	18	11.8	18	NA
11	08/18/2009	12	9.5	17	NA
12	06/07/2010	27	11.3	13	NA
13	07/18/2010	51	27.4	9	NA

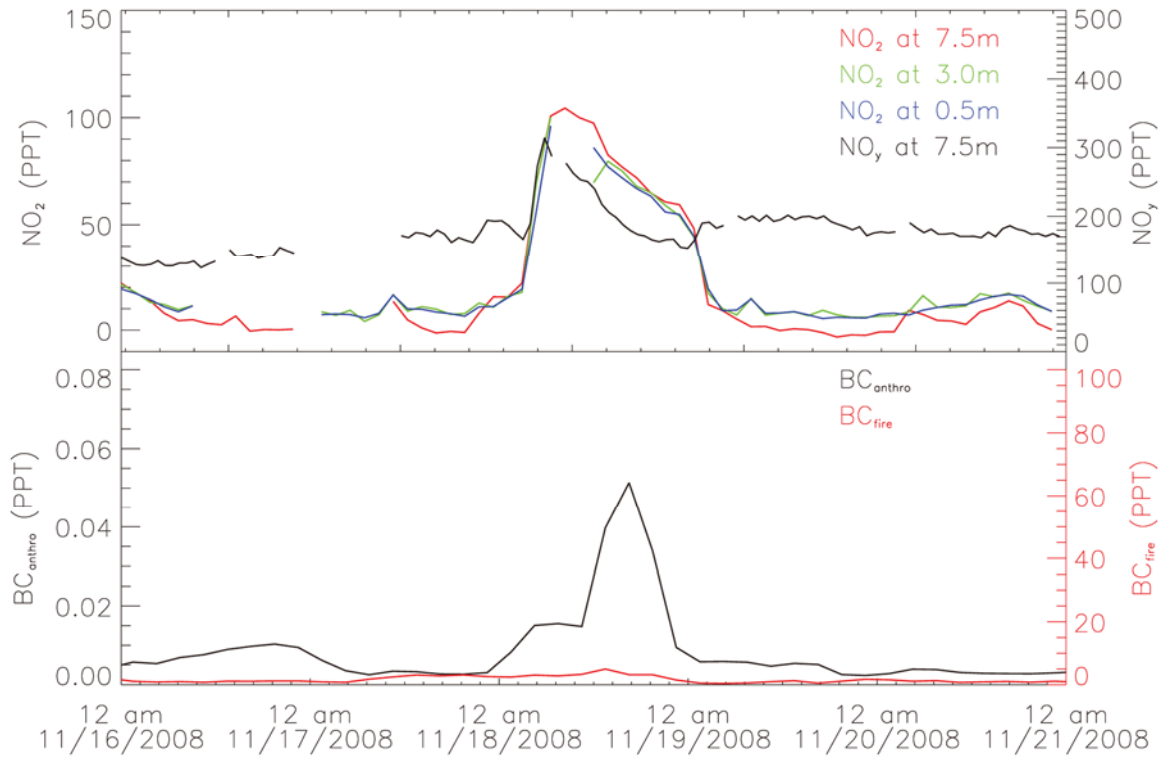
<sup>a</sup> represents mean weighted age from FLEXPART;

<sup>b</sup> represents primary BB source. NA=North America, EU=Europe, AS=Asia.

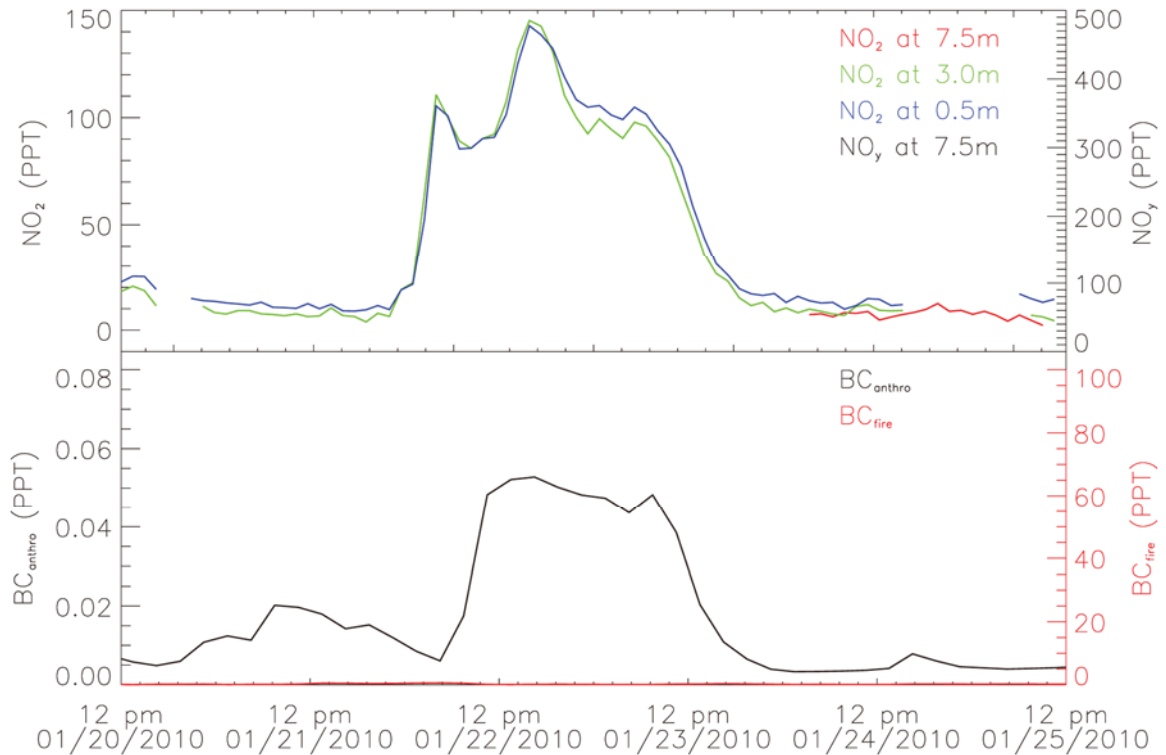
All anthropogenic and biomass burning events were investigated visually. Besides the missing data mentioned in Section 3.1, there are additionally some small gaps within the observed NO and NO<sub>2</sub> data due to transient instrument malfunctions or power outage at the station, which happened to be located within the event periods, leading to that many events are hard to analyze. For anthropogenic events, 33 out of 85 have no or only have limited corresponding NO and NO<sub>2</sub> data. For biomass burning events, it is 4 out of 13. In consequence, 38% in total of the events do not have sufficient corresponding data. Besides, the length of a portion of events lasts for days, causing the long range transported pollution from lower latitudes mixed together with snowpack photolysis emissions. Under this circumstance it is impossible to investigate the variations of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> before, during, and after the event with the dataset available. In summary, 20 anthropogenic events and 3 biomass burning event last for over approximate 2-3 days, which account for 23% of the total events. Furthermore, limited quantities of the events are not in agreement with FLEXPART simulations like anthropogenic event 52 and 53 probably due to missing BC tracer in FLEXPART. The remaining events still have a big problem that most of the events

are composed of a series of small events, making it hard to track the exact source of the transported emissions.

Due to the above challenges, only three events are selected to investigate what happened during an event. Figure 3.15 and Figure 3.16 showed two anthropogenic events during the polar night season when sunlight is limited. The anthropogenic tracer  $BC_{\text{anthro}}$  from FLEXPART retroplume simulations is in agreement with the observed NO and NO<sub>2</sub> data. When the anthropogenic pollution is transported to the site, NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>y</sub> mixing ratios were elevated quickly and reached their maximums. As the pollution was transported out of the site, the mixing ratios of the above species decreased and returned to a level close to that before the event. The event has a direct impact on the NO<sub>2</sub> gradients, which might imply the height of the transport pathways and its variations.

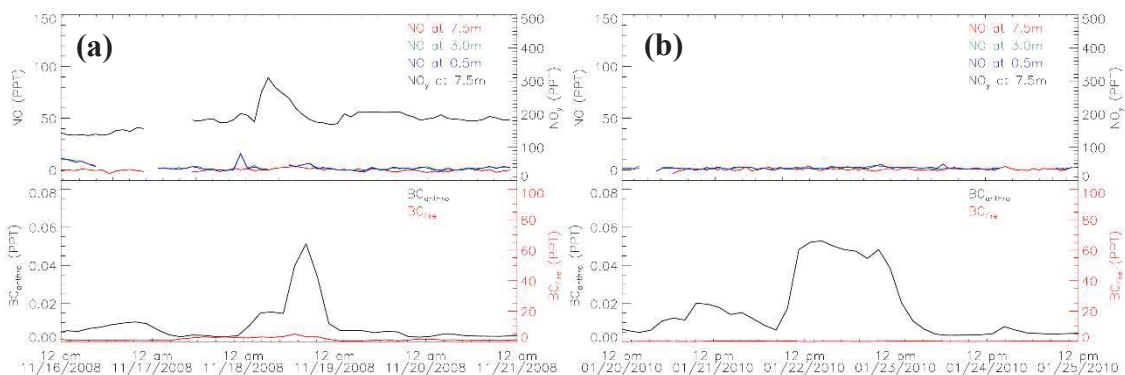


**Figure 3.15.** Anthropogenic event 16 identified with FLEXPART is in agreement with the observed data. The upper plot displays the hourly averaged mixing ratios of NO<sub>2</sub> at levels of 7.5 m, 3 m, and 0.5 m, and NO<sub>y</sub> at a level of 7.5 m above the snowpack. The bottom plot shows FLEXPART simulated anthropogenic emission tracer BC<sub>anthro</sub> and biomass burning emission tracer BC<sub>fire</sub>.



**Figure 3.16.** Anthropogenic event 70 identified with FLEXPART is well in agreement with the observed data. All symbols and definitions are same as Figure 3.15.

NO mixing ratio variations during the anthropogenic events were also investigated as shown in Figure 3.17. It can be seen that anthropogenic events have very limited impact on the NO mixing ratios (close to zero during the time period) during polar night season, which implies the anthropogenic emissions contain very limited NO. It is also possible that the boundary layer was very low during polar nights in winter and the anthropogenic transported emissions did not mix with the boundary layer, and therefore were not measured. Anthropogenic event 70 is solely controlled by anthropogenic emission, while biomass burning emission partially has an impact on anthropogenic event 16, which explains the small variation of NO during the event. Actually most of the anthropogenic pollution events occurring in summertime are a mixture of anthropogenic emissions and biomass burning emissions.



**Figure 3.17. (a)** NO mixing ratio variations during anthropogenic event 16; **(b)** NO mixing ratio variations during anthropogenic event 70.

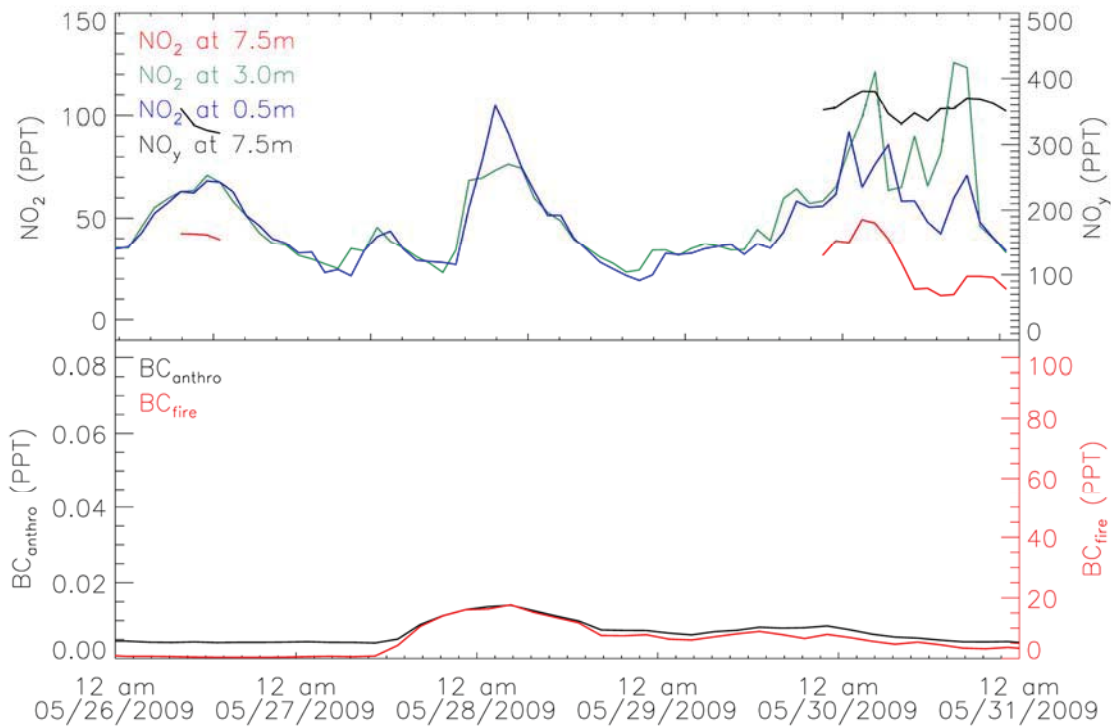
Figure 3.18 represents an event that was impacted by both anthropogenic emissions and biomass burning emissions during summertime 2009. It is identified as anthropogenic event 45 and biomass burning event 7 by FLEXPART retroplume analysis, which is more complicated than the previous two events occurring during polar night season. Both anthropogenic emissions and biomass burning emissions impacted on the variation of  $\text{NO}_2$ . Furthermore, nitrate snowpack emission,  $\text{HNO}_3$  deposition and re-emission also contribute to the variation (Honrath et al., 2002). Here it is not possible to quantify the contributions that the contributors made to the variation of  $\text{NO}_x$  with the current data available. However, it is possible to show something about the deposition and re-emission of nitrate.

The events shown in Figure 3.15 and Figure 3.16 indicate that  $\text{NO}_2$  mixing ratios are highly elevated during the events but returned to previous levels after the events. Furthermore, no subsequent  $\text{NO}_2$  increase is observed that is directly relevant to the disappeared events. However,  $\text{NO}_2$  mixing ratios in Figure 3.18 were observed to increase 2 days after the event and far exceeded the levels before the event. The subsequent  $\text{NO}_2$  increase can be explained by  $\text{NO}_2$  emission from the snowpack. Vertical fluxes of  $\text{NO}_x$ , HONO, and  $\text{HNO}_3$  above the snowpack measured during summer 2010 at Summit showed that daily average of upward fluxes of  $\text{NO}_x$  and HONO ( $\text{HONO} + h\nu \rightarrow \text{NO} + \text{OH}$ ) was larger than that of  $\text{HNO}_3$  deposition by 3.5 times (Honrath et al., 2002). Therefore, it is possible that  $\text{NO}_2$  was deposited to the snowpack during the event and re-emitted from snowpack after the event

via nitrate photolysis, which contributed the subsequent peaks. The above explanation is based on the assumption that FLEXPART retroplume simulations are reliable. There is possibility that the subsequent peak was due to another pollution event, which FLEXPART simulation failed to identify. In addition, pre-existing snowpack emission, wind pumping may also be the contributors to the subsequent peaks. It is impossible to determine an exact reason for the peak with current available data. More work needs to be done to investigate this event.

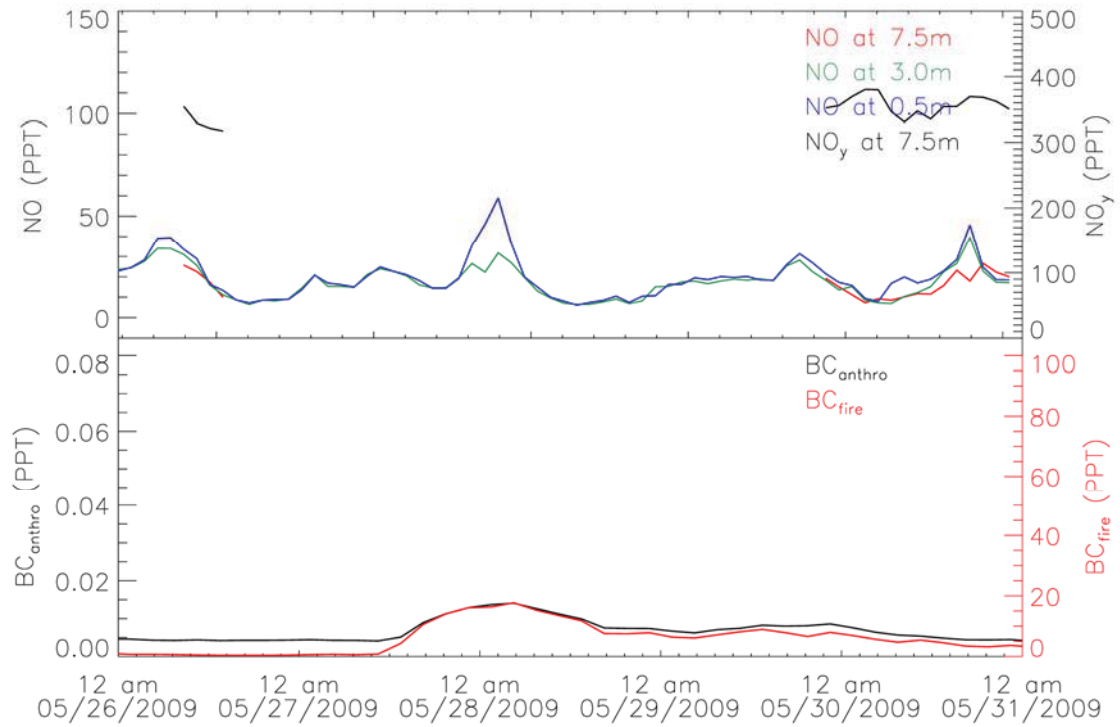
Depending on the weather conditions, NO<sub>2</sub> can be deposited to the snowpack by dry deposition or/and wet deposition. Since snowfall is very limited at Summit, dry decomposition is expected to prevail over wet deposition during most time of the year. The deposition process plays a role in altering the gradient of NO<sub>2</sub>. During a “pure” dry decomposition process without post-depositional emissions from the snowpack, NO<sub>2</sub> gradient is expected to be negative. Before the anthropogenic event 70 as shown in Figure 3.18, the mixing ratio of NO<sub>2</sub> was smaller at 3 m than at 0.5 m. As the anthropogenic emission was being transporting to the site, NO<sub>2</sub> at 3 m became larger than at 0.5 m. At the end stage of the event after the peak, dry decomposition occurred and caused NO<sub>2</sub> at 0.5 m became larger than 3 m. Therefore, both transported emissions and deposition process can impact the gradient of NO<sub>2</sub>.





**Figure 3.18.** Anthropogenic event 45, which is also identified as biomass burning event 7. All symbols and definitions are same as Figure 3.15.

Figure 3.19 displays variation of NO mixing ratio during the event. It is in good agreement with FLEXPART simulations, reaching a maximum when both BC<sub>anthro</sub> and BC<sub>fire</sub> tracer reached the maximums. It is always of higher values at 0.5 m above the snowpack due to snowpack nitrate photolysis. Two smaller peaks were observed after the event. Similarly, they can be explained by missed pollution events by FLEXPART. They may also be combination effects from nitrate re-emission, pre-existing nitrate photolysis, and/or wind pumping. Therefore, more data and model simulations are needed to investigate this event.



**Figure 3.19.** NO mixing ratio variations during anthropogenic event 16 (or biomass burning event 7).

# **Chapter 4 Conclusions and Future Work**

The thesis focused on the analyses of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> measured at 7.5 m, 3 m, and 0.5 m above the snowpack from July 2008 to July 2010 at Summit, Greenland. Seasonal cycles and diurnal cycles were investigated through NO and NO<sub>2</sub> gradients. Furthermore, pollution events caused by long range transported anthropogenic emissions and biomass burning emissions were identified with FLEXPART retroplume simulations. Due to the challenges from the data, three events with two in polar night season and one in sunlight season were selected and analyzed to study the variation of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> before, during and after the events.

## 4.1 Conclusions

- Both NO and NO<sub>2</sub> showed apparent seasonal cycles at three levels. For NO, higher values from late spring to summer and lower values from fall to early spring plus similar mixing ratios at three levels were observed. For NO<sub>2</sub>, higher values from early spring to early fall and lower values from fall to late winter plus decreased mixing ratios and weakened seasonal cycle at 7.5 m above the snowpack were observed. NO<sub>2</sub> at three levels all reached the maximum mixing ratios in April, while NO reached maximums in May or June. NO<sub>2</sub> represented most of NO<sub>x</sub> at all levels at Summit. Its monthly average is approximately 4 times, 5.6 times, and 3 times the magnitude of NO monthly average at 7.5 m, 3 m, and 0.5 m, respectively.
- The vertical gradients of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> between 3 m and 0.5 m above the snowpack suggested the emissions of NO from the surface snowpack. The positive gradient of NO from July to September 2009 was proposed to be caused by wind pumping and pollution from the main camp. An improved mechanism for snowpack photochemistry was proposed to explain the negative NO<sub>2</sub> gradient in early spring. Gradients between 7.5 m and 0.5 m were always negative due to gas dispersion process except in May 2009, which was most likely caused by long range transport emissions. Wind pumping, pollution from the camp and lower latitudes highly impacted vertical gradients of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> at Summit.
- Apparent diurnal cycles of NO were observed from March to June with high values at around local noon, following the solar radiation variation. For NO<sub>2</sub>, higher values

from afternoon till night and lower values from early morning till noon were observed. Diurnal cycles in June were weak which might be caused by outliers. For a photolysis driven variable at Summit, the seasonal cycle is a simplified long diurnal cycle, while the diurnal cycle is a complicated short seasonal cycle.

- Summit was often impacted by anthropogenic emissions and biomass burning emissions mainly transported from Europe and North America. A number of 85 anthropogenic emission events and 13 biomass burning emission events were identified with FLEXPART retroplume analyses under the defined criterion in Section 3.4. The model simulations were in good agreement with the measurements. During polar night season,  $\text{NO}_2$  exactly followed FLEXPART simulation. Nitrate accumulation through snowpack deposition is proposed to attribute to  $\text{NO}_2$  increase in early spring. In sunlight season, the deposited nitrate is proposed to be re-emitted from the snowpack via photolysis, resulting in subsequent  $\text{NO}_2$  increase after the event.

## 4.2 Future work

Future work will focus on measurements of  $\text{NO}_x$  snowpack emissions before and after short period pollution events to quantitatively investigate the proposed nitrate deposition and re-emission and evaluate accuracy of chemical transport model simulations. Furthermore, box photochemical modeling of  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{O}_3$  and VOCs above the snowpack in spring to verify whether the simulated  $\text{O}_3$  is equal to the observed data at Summit with NCAR Master Mechanism model. If model simulated  $\text{O}_3$  is smaller than the observed data, additional  $\text{O}_3$  source from stratosphere can be verified. By changing the values of input parameters, the correlation between non-methane hydrocarbons (NMHC) decrease and  $\text{O}_3$  increase in spring will be investigated.

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