brought to you by

BIOLOGICALLY PRODUCED VOLATILE COMPOUNDS: N10 EMISSIONS FROM SOILS

FINAL SCIENTIFIC REPORT for the period ;

September 1, 1984 - August 30, 1985

submitted by

DR. A. BANIN - PRINCIPLE INVESTIGATOR

related to

NASA-Ames Research Center Cooperative Agreement No. NCC 2-321 (FBFI-132161)

with

The Frederic Burk Foundation, Incorporated San Francisco State University

September, 1985

(NASA-CR-177111)BIOLOGICALLY FRODUCEDN86-29421VOLATILE COMPOUNDS: N10 EMISSIONS FROM SOILSFinal scientific Report, 1 Sep. 1984 - 30UnclasAug. 1985 (San Francisco State Univ.,UnclasCalif.)12 pCSCL 13B G3/4543245

SUMMARY:

The objective of this research program was to study introus-oxide (N_20) dynamics at the soll-atmosphere interface and their effects on the global N_20 budget.

A trend for increased tropospheric N₂O concentration has been established by careful studies over the last dacade. The increase, at a rate of 0.2-0.4% per year amounts to net annual addition of 2.8-5.6.10⁶ tons of N₂O-N to the atmosphere. The rate of increase is of the same order of magnitude as that observed for CO₂ in the atmosphere in the last 30 years, and may have important effects on the atmosphoric chemical cycles, the thermal balance of the Earth, and biospheric processes. The net nitrogen loss in the form of N₂O from the earth surface amounts to 5-10% of the world's annual industrial nitrogen fixation for production of nitrogen fertilizers and although it is clear today that denitrification of N-fertilizers <u>is not</u> the sole source of this added atmospheric N₂O- the cycled N₂O-nitrogen is a non-negligible component of the biospheric nitrogen cycles.

During the past year of activity, analytical work has been conducted on systems that measure N_20 emission from soils. A detailed review of the literature related to N_20 cycles, emission from various ecosystems and possible effects on the atmosphere and biosphere has been conducted. An analysis of global cycles and the global budget of N_20 has been prepared and published (Banin et al., copy attached).

Adv. Space Res. Vol.4, No.12, pp.207-216, 1984 Printed in Great Britain. All rights reserved.

GLOBAL N₂O CYCLES — TERRESTRIAL EMISSIONS, ATMOSPHERIC ACCUMULATION AND BIOSPHERIC EFFECTS

A. Banin, J. G. Lawless and R. C. Whitten

NASA/Ames Research Center, Moffett Field, CA 94035, U.S.A.

ABSTRACT

Tropospheric nitrous oxide concentration has increased by 0.2 - 0.4% per year over the period 1975 to 1982, amounting to net addition to the atmosphere of 2.8 - 5.6 Tg N₂O-N per year. This perturbation, if continued into the future, will affect stratospheric chemical cycles, and the thermal balance of the Earth. In turn it will have direct and indirect global effects on the biosphere. Though the budget and cycles of N₂O on Earth are not yet fully resolved, accumulating information and recent modelling efforts enable a more complete evaluation and better definition of gaps in our knowledge.

INTRODUCTION

1

:3

Nitrous oxide (N_2O) is a trace atmospheric component whose concentration is believed to be increasing in recent years as a result of anthropogenic effects. Thus it joins a group of trace gases including CO₂, CO and CH₄ whose atmospheric concentration are increasing, presumably due to human activities /1/. Studies in the mid-1970's suggested rapid, almost catastrophic, increases in the atmospheric fluxes of N₂O due to denitrification of fertilizer nitrogen, and combustion /2,3/. However, world wide systematic monitoring of atmospheric N₂O from 1975 to 1978 by Singh <u>et al</u>. /4/ did not show a statistically significant increase in atmospheric N₂O concentration. But more recently, data compiled for the period 1975 to 1982 have shown that N₂O concentration did indeed increase by 0.2%-0.4% per year /5,6/. Major increase in atmospheric N₂O will measurably affect stratospheric chemical cycles and the thermal balance of the Earth, and the resulting perturbations may have growing effects on the biosphere. Besides its role in atmospheric chemistry, N₂O is an important intermediate in biospheric nitrogen conversions and in the global nitrogen cycle.

In the following we will review in brief some of the recent findings on the budget and cycles of nitrous oxide on Earth. Sources and sinks for N_2O on the land, in the ocean, and in the atmosphere will be estimated using recent information, and the possible climatic and biospheric effects of the increase in atmospheric N_2O will be briefly assessed. Though these interactions are not yet fully resolved, the accumulating information and insight will lead to a more complete evaluation and a better definition of the gaps in our knowledge of N_2O dynamics on Earth.

NITROUS OXIDE IN THE ATMOSPHERE

Concentration and distribution. The distribution of nitrous oxide in both the troposphere and stratosphere has been studied by several investigators. Singh <u>et al</u> /4/ reported mixing fractions very close to 310 ppbv with no discernable latitudinal variation. An atmospheric N₂O lifetime greater than 20 years was inferred from the data.

Schmeltekopf <u>et al.</u> /7/ and Vedder <u>et al.</u> /8/, have found that measured N₂O mixing fractions at stratosphere altitudes, (i.e., height > 15 km) decreased more rapidly at high latitudes than in the tropics. This variation probably stems from both chemical and transport causes. At altitudes near the tropo-

*On leave from the Seagram Centre for Soil and Water, the Hebrew University, Rehovot, Israel

pause, the observed mixing fraction appears to converge to that measured by Singh $\underline{et} \underline{al}$. /4/.

<u>Atmospheric processes</u>. Although the major sources of nitrous oxide are nonatmospheric, minor amounts are produced directly within the atmosphere. Lightning is the best understood of these processes and produces several thousand tonnes per year as a result of shock-induced reactions /9/, a minor source compared with the Earth surface reactions. Excited-species chemistry have been recently suggested as possible atmospheric source /10,11/, perhaps contributing up to 20 Tg N₂O-N yr⁻¹ /11/.

There are no known significant processes for the destruction of nitrous oxide in the troposphere. Indeed, the only reaction for removing N_2O in the lower atmosphere is

(1)

$$N_{2}O + O(^{1}D) -> 2NO$$

Because of the very small tropospheric abundance of $O({}^{1}D)$, the lifetime of N₂O there is of the order of 10⁴ years. In the stratosphere the direct photolysis of N₂O becomes the dominant sink with reaction (1) contributing about 20% of the total loss rate. The estimated lifetime of N₂O against the loss processes is of the order of 100-200 years /5,6/, and current estimates put the loss rate at 6 to 11 Tg N₂O-N yr⁻¹ /12/.

Effect on ozone. The catalytic destruction of stratospheric ozone by nitrogen oxides (NO and NO₂) formed from N₂O decomposition (reaction(1)) was first proposed by Crutzen /13/ as a possible mechanism for maintaining the ozone mixing fraction at its observed levels.



Fig. 1. Ozone decrease vs. N_2O increase.

Global N₂O Cycles

We employed two photochemical models which simulate both transport and atmospheric chemistry to assess the impact of increased N₂O on stratospheric ozone. Figure 1 shows computed globally averaged ozone column decreases corresponding to atmospheric N₂O increases of 10%, 30%, 60%, and 100%, using the one-dimension stratospheric photochemical model of Turco and Whitten /14/. The results are consistent with those obtained with our two-dimensional model /15/ for a doubling of troposphere N₂O. An average decrease of about 1.5% in ozone column per 10% increase in N₂O is predicted.

Effect on climate. Nitrous oxide is an absorber of infrared radiation emitted by the earth, with strong bands at 7.78, 8.56, and 17.0 μ m. It is thus capable of contributing to the "greenhouse effect" in which part of the earth's infrared radiation is trapped in the troposphere rather than escaping to space. Wang et al., /16/ and Donner and Ramanathan /17/ have studied such effects with the aid of radiative-convective models. They estimated that a surface warming of 0.3 to 0.4° K may be likely for a doupling of N₂O. More recently a WMO expert group report /18/, estimated that the combined effects of doubling N₂O concentration, doubling methane and increasing chlorofluorocarbons (CFC's) from 0 to 1 ppb, will be to warm the surface of the Earth by a total of 0.9° K. The same group estimated that doubling CO₂ concentration will cause a 2° K warming.

<u>Biological effects</u>. It is well-known that ultraviolet radiation of wavelengths in the range 290-310 nm (UV-B) is biologically active. Hence, atmospheric change which increase the UV-B intensity of solar radiation reaching the earth's surface, is expected to affect both plant and animal species. Studies of over 100 plant species and varieties /19,20/, show that about 1/5 are sensitive to UV-B increases, another 1/5 are rather tolerant of increases in UV-B (up to a factor of 4), and the remainder are intermediate. Probably the most widely publicized effect of UV-B radiation is the production of skin cancer in humans. The association between UV-B and non-melanoma (non-fatal skin cancer) is fairly well understood, with a 1% decrease in ozone leading to a probable 2 to 5% increase in the disease /21/. On the other hand, the relation of UV-B to the fatal melanoma is not well-understood; it appears to be dependent upon the rate of UV-B exposure rather than on the total exposure alone.

NITROUS OXIDE PROCESSES ON THE EARTH SURFACE

Nitrous Oxide production on land and in the oceans results mainly from biologically mediated nitrogen conversions. These include natural biospheric processes which are an integral part of the nitrogen cycles, and anthropogenically-enhanced activities, such as nitrogen-fertilization and waste-water treatment. Non-biological production was observed in nature by chemically driven nitrate and nitrite reduction ("chemodenitrification"). In addition, non-biological anthropogenic sources including combustion, synthesis in high voltage power lines coronas, and biomass burning, also release N_2O to the atmosphere.

The production of N₂O by biological nitrogen transformations has been observed during denitrification, nitrate reduction, and nitrification. These processes involve many groups of microorganisms, and N₂O, in most cases, is an intermediate in a series of sequential oxidation-reduction nitrogen transformations. Both the oxidative conversion (nitrification) of ammonia nitrogen to nitrate $(N^{-3} \rightarrow N^{+5})$ and the reductive conversion (denitrification) of nitrate to dinitrogen $(N^{+5} \rightarrow N^0)$, have been shown to involve N₂O as an intermediate in which the valency of N is +1. As an intermediate gaseous product, N₂O may "leak" to the atmosphere before being consumed and further complicates the causative relationships between emission and environmental conditions, resulting in conflicting views with regard to N₂O production mechanisms, emission rates and environmental affects /22,23/.

OCEANS

Nitrous oxide concentration in the water column and N_2O emissions from the ocean have been measured and analyzed rather intensively since the early 1970's /24-32, 34-36/. Interestingly, estimates of the ocean's contribution to the global N_2O budget have been continuously decreasing over this period (Table 1).

Early works by Junge and Hahn /24/ and Hahn /25/, reported N₂O concentrations ranging up to 230% of saturation in the mixed layer of the north and

tropical Atlantic. The ocean was then identified as a major source of N₂O, emitting to the atmosphere about 135 Tg N₂O yr⁻¹ (86 Tg N₂O-N yr⁻¹), mostly due to denitrification /25/. However, a series of later studies showed lower or zero supersaturation of the mixed ocean layer, and undersaturation of deep ocean waters /26-29/. Localized emission may occur in upwelling areas /29-31/ and localized absorption may take place where anoxic conditions prevail /32/. Both of these, however, are believed to be unimportant on the global scale /5,11/. The more recent works suggested that most of the N₂O released from the ocean is produced by nitrification rather than denitrification /27,28,30,32/. Although at present there is still considerable debate regarding the prevailing mechanisms of N₂O production in the ocean /22/, it is believed now that the ocean is either a small source of 1-2 Tg N₂O-N yr⁻¹ /33/ or neither a source nor a sink for N₂O on the global scale /11/.

Net Global Flux Year of Publication Reference Suggested mechanism Tg N₂O-N yr 1974 Hahn /25/ Denitrification 86 1976 McElroy et al. /34/ Nitrification -40 1977 Hahn & Junge /35/ Denitrifition 45 1978 Elkins et al. /30/ Mostly nitrification < 10 1978 Weiss /29/ < 10 1979 Cohen & Gordon /28/ Mostly nitrification 4-10 1979 13-19 Singh et al. /4/ Denitrification 1980 Pierotti & Denitrification 48 Rasmussen /31/ Hahn /36/ 29 (8-76) 1981 Denitrification 1982 Denitrification 20-80 Soderlund & Rosswall /32/ 1983 Crutzen /33/ 1-2 1983 Kahlil & Rasmussen /6/ 6 -1983 Stedman & Shetter /11/ n

<u>TABLE 1</u> Estimates of Global N_2O Fluxes from (into) the Oceans

LAND

 N_2O emission from the land results from natural, mostly biological processes in soils, from soil processes enhanced by anthropogenic intervention and from purly anthropogenic processes. Our knowledge of this array of processes has improved considerably over the last decade, but is still far from complete. A major finding that complicates the picture is that N_2O emissions on land have large spatial and temporal variability, thus requiring detailed, continuous and long-term monitoring in order to be quantitatively characterized.

Soil Processes

The annual rate of emission of N_2O from soils into the atmosphere varies within wide limits as shown in Table 2, where variation spanning over two to three orders of magnitude is observed /38-47/. Daily, or hourly, fluxes may vary within even wider limits. A recent review /48/, showed that the rate of emission varies considerably with season, soil texture, soil temperature, soil moisture content, soil redox potential, soil-organic matter content, nitrogen application rates, fertilizer composition, vegetation type and its density, and agrotechnical and cultivational regimes. Technical problems and methodological differences were found also to cause differences between the findings of various research groups.

Table 2 Measured Ranges of N₂O Emission Rates from Soil to the Atmosphere

KG N20-N+HA-1-YR-1

NATIVE SOILS		
FOREST SOILS		
TROPICAL FOREST	0-13	KELLER et al. (1983) (BRAZIL)
TEMPERATE FOREST	0.4-39	ROBERTSON & TIDJE (1984) (MICHIGAN) (NON-DISTURBED CORES)
BOREAL FOREST	0-1.3	KELLER et al. (1983) (NEW HAMPSHIRE)
GRASSLAND		•
PRAIRIE	0.1-4.2	MOSIER et al. (1981) (COLORADO)
CULTIVATED SOILS		
FIELD-MINERAL SOILS		
NONFERTILIZED, NON- CULTIVATED SOILS;	0.5-1.5	DUXBURY et al. (1982)
INTERMEDIATELY FER- TILIZED, SEMI-	3-4	RYDEN (1981). (PER- ENNIAL GRASS)
INTENSIVE CROPS	1-2	ROLSTON et al., (1982), (PERENNIAL GRASS)
	2-3	HUTCHINSON & MOSIER (1979) (CORN)
HEAVILY FERTILIZED, HEAVILY IRRIGATED	6-40	RYDEN et al. (1979) (VEGETABLES)
FIELD-ORGANIC SOILS		
ORGANIC SOILS, CULTIVATED	50-150	DUXBURY et al. (1982)
MICROPLOTS		
MINERAL, WATERLOGGED SOILS	3-23	LENSI & CHALAMET (1982) EXTRAPOLATED FROM SHORT TERM (21 h) EXPERIMENTS TO A PER-YEAR RATE

<u>Natural</u> soils. In the mid 1970's it was believed that a major source of $N_{2}O$ emissions on land would be from N-fertilized fields /23/, but more recently Duxbury et al. /41/ have suggested that forest-soils and other non-cultivated lands still are, due to their much larger areal extent, the major source on Earth; however, only a few measurements of N_2O emissions from natural soils have been reported. Keller et al. /38/ have recently measured relatively high rates of emission from the soil in a Brazilian tropical forest site. Robertson and Tiedje /39/ reported high rates of N₂O emissions (using incubated, nondisturbed core samples), from soils sampled in hardwood and coniferous stands in a Michigan temperate forest. The rates were higher than those measured in many cultivated fields (Table 2), and there is a need for corroborating them by in situ measurements in forest soils. Only a few rate measurements were conducted in native woodlands, savanna and grasslands, and the rates of emission were in the range of 0.1-5 g N_2O-N ha⁻¹ day⁻¹ /40, 49/.

On the basis of the accumulating information for emissions of N_2O from native and nonfertilized soils, (partly listed in Table 2), we have estimated the range of emissions from the various terrestrial ecosystems (Table 3; Banin et al., unpublished data to be discussed in detail elsewhere). Multiplying these emissions by the surface area of the various ecosystems /49/, we computed the ranges of individual ecosystem contributions and further obtained the total global emission from native lands (Table 3). On the basis of the present limited data, we estimate the terrestrial natural source to be in the range of 2.6 to 25.0 Tg N_2O-N yr⁻¹. In a recently published N_2O budget, Crutzen /33/ did not include any value for the contribution of native soils, while Stedman and Shetter /11/ suggested arbitrary source and sink terms of 38 and 50 Tg N_2O-N yr⁻¹, respectively (net sink of 12 Tg N_2O-N yr⁻¹).

 $\underline{Cultivated}$ soils. Two major anthropogenic interventions in the nitrogen cycle in soils may increase N_2O emissions: organic matter decay, and N fertilization.

Cultivation causes rapid decrease of the organic matter content of native soils. Crutzen /33/ used estimated carbon release from cultivated soils to calculate emission of 1-3 Tg N₂O-N yr⁻¹ from this source. We have estimated (Table 3) global emissions of 0.75-2.25 Tg N₂O-N yr⁻¹ on the basis of area, and fluxes reported in the literature /41/; these values are still tentative.

<u>Table 3</u>	Estimates of	N ₂ O Emission	s from t	he World's	Terrestrial
	Ecosystems	-			

MAJOR ECOSYSTEM TYPES	SURFACE AREA, km ² x 10 ⁶	EMISSION, kg N ₂ O-N·ha ⁻ ,1·yr ⁻¹	GLOBAL FLUX, Tg N ₂ O·N·yr ⁻¹
• FOREST			
TROPICAL RAIN	10.0	• •	
TROPICAL SEASONAL	4.5	1-4	1.45-5.80
TEMPERATE EVERGREEN	3.0 60	0.5.10	0.30-6.00
TEMPERATE DECIDUOUS	3.0	0.0-10	0.30-0.00
BOREAL	9.0	0.1-0.5	0.09-0.45
PLANTATIONS	1.5	0.5-1.0	0.07-0.15
WOODLAND, GRASSLAND AND SAVANNA			
WOODLAND AND SHRUBLAND	4.5		
SAVANNA	22.5 39.5	0.1-1.5	0.40-5.93
GRASSLAND	12.5		
• TUNDRA	9.5	0.01-0.1	0.01-0.10
DESERT AND SEMIDESERT (SCRUB)	21.0	0.05-0.25	0.11-0.53
• EXTREME DESERT (PERMAFROST, ROCK, SAND)	24.5	0	0
• SWAMP AND MARSH	2.0	1-5	0.20-1.00
LAKE AND STREAM	2.0	0.1-0.2	0.02-0.04
• CULTIVATED LAND			2.65-25.00
MINERAL SOILS Organic	15.85	0.5-1.0	0.79-1.59
ORGANIC SOILS J Matter Decay	0.15 (est.)	50-150	0.75-2.25
• HUMAN AREA AND OTHERS	3.8	-	- 1.54-3.84
TOTAL	149.3		4.19-28.84

Estimates of the percentage of fertilizer-N that is volatilized in the form of N_2O have been considerably reduced, on the basis of field measurements, from the early estimates of up to 50% /34/. At present a value in the range of 0.1 to 2.5% may be taken as realistic /e.g., 42, 44-45, 50-53/. In In extreme cases, particulary under conditions of concentrated nitrate fertilization in soils having high bacterial activity and which are under partial anaerobiosis, a much higher percentage of the applied fertilizer nitrogen is emitted as N_{20} /e.g., 53/. It is quite likely that because of the economical incentives involved, and on the basis of the continued study of nitrogen balances in cultivated soils, fertilization practices will be modified to minimize such losses. On the other hand, agricultural intensification, higher inputs of nitrogen fertilizers in existing and new arable lands and an increasing proportion of irrigated intensive agriculture in world production, may all cause higher yearly N_2O emissions from fertilized soils in the future. Based on nitrogen fertilizer production of 57.2 Mt N in 1979/1980 /54/, and the estimated range of values for the percentage emitted as N_20 from the fertilizer (0.1-2.5%), a global flux of 0.06 to 1.43 Tg N_2 O-N yr is calculated.

Global N2O Cycles

<u>Soils as sinks for N₂O</u>. The consumption of N₂O by soil biota is a potential sink for atmospheric N₂O. In laboratory studies it was demonstrated that under reducing conditions, with no other available source of nitrogen, N₂O was taken from the atmosphere into the soil and converted by enzymatic reactions /55, 56/. Systematic diurnal variation of N₂O concentration in the air was brought as evidence for soils acting as a major sink for N₂O by Brice et al. /57/ and supported by Cicerone et al. /58/. However, these measurements were taken for only a few days; in a year-long study under better-controlled conditions, Pierotti et al. /59/ have not found evidence for such diurnal variation. Uptake of N₂O by soils in the field was observed by Ryden /42, 53/ in a non-fertilized perennial ryegrass plot in England. On the other hand a two year period of measurements of N₂O emissions in agricultural fields by Duxbury et al., /41/, and various samplings in native soils by Mosier et al., /40/ and Duxbury et al., /41/, have not shown N₂O uptake. At present, our knowledge of the conditions at which field soils act as sinks for N₂O, and the parameters affecting the influx when, they do so, is too limited to evaluate their importance in the global budgets. More careful long-term measurements are needed to document and quantify this potentially important global sink.

Biomass Burning

Crutzen <u>et al</u>. /60/ estimated this source to be 8 Tg N₂O-N yr⁻¹, an estimate that was used by Stedman and Shetter /11/ in their N₂O budget. A revised lower figure, based on unpublished results, has been recently given by Crutzen (1983) as 1-2 Tg N₂O-N yr⁻¹ /33/.

Purely Anthropogenic Sources

<u>Combustion of fossil fuels</u>. It was estimated that for the mid 1970's combustion processes produced between 1.6 and 2.2 N_2O-N yr⁻¹ /61,62/ and that this contribution is increasing by 3.5% per year /62, 5/.

<u>Wastewater treatment</u>. Modern wastewater treatments use bacterial nitrification-denitrification process-sequences to reduce the level of dissolved nitrogen in the water. It was estimated that about 1-2 Tg N_2O-N yr⁻¹ is released from this source /63, 11/.

<u>Corona production</u>. N₂O synthesis by corona processes in the atmosphere surrounding high voltage electrical transmission lines was estimated by Hill <u>et al</u>. /9/ to be 0.02-0.44 Tg N₂O-N yr⁻¹ for the U.S.A. in 1980. This may be another possibly important global anthropogenic source of atmospheric N₂O.

THE GLOBAL N20 BUDGET

Recent measurements have shown that the intrinsic variability of the N_2O mixing ratio in the atmosphere is smaller than was measured earlier; thus its atmospheric lifetime is quite likely longer than 100-150 years. Further, it established that atmospheric N_2O concentration increases with time but that the rate of increase is just 0.2-0.4% per year. These two observations put a strict upper boundary on the N_2O flux into the atmosphere, limiting it to only 9-17 Tg N_2O -N yr⁻¹. This is still difficult to reconcile with reliable evidence of significant emissions from various sources on Earth, as reviewed and estimated in the preceding sections. A global N_2O budget for the late 1970's is given in Table 4. The budget is based on available rate measurements and on conservative estimates of emissions from various natural ecosystems and anthropogenic sources. It shows an excess of documented sources by 0-51 Tg N_2O -N yr⁻¹ over documented sinks. We are forced to conclude that the global N_2O budget is still unbalanced, on paper at least. Precise, long term measurements are needed on the earth-surface, particularly on land to define quantitatively the sources and sinks of N_2O -- an important atmospheric and biospheric gas.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was conducted under NASA Task 199-30-32-02. A Senior NRC Research Associateship to A. B. is acknowledged. The help of Ms. S. Miller in the preparation of the manuscript for publication is appreciated.

<u>TABLE 4</u> The Global N_2O Budget (For the Late 1970's)

	Tg N ₂ O-N·yr ⁻¹	REFERENCE
SOURCES	_	
LAND		
NATURAL SOILS AND ECOSYSTEMS	2.6-25.0	(BANIN et al., 1984)
CULTIVATED SOILS FERTILIZER N-CONVERSIONS ORGANIC MATTER DECAY	0.1-1.5 1.5-3.8	(BANIN et al., 1984) (BANIN et al., 1984)
BIOMASS BURNING	1-2	(CRUTZEN, 1983)
FOSSIL FUEL BURNING	1-2	(CRUTZEN, 1983)
WASTE-WATER TREATMENT	1-2	(STEDMAN & SHETTER, 1983)
	7-36*	,
• OCEANS (INCLUDING ESTUARIES) -	1-10 1-10	(COHEN & GORDON, 1978) (CRUTZEN, 1983)
• ATMOSPHERE		
LIGHTNING	< 0.01	(HILL, 1984)
POWER LINE CORONA	0.02-0.5	(HILL, 1984)
EXCITED SPECIES CHEMISTRY	0-20(?)	(STEDMAN & SHETTER, 1983)
	0-21	
	9-67	
SINKS		
STRATOSPHERIC PHOTOLYTIC		
DECOMPOSITION	6-11	(CRUTZEN & SCHMAILZL, 1983)
	6-11	
ATMOSPHERIC ACCUMULATION		•
0.2-0.4% PER YEAR	2.8-5.6	(WEISS, 1981)
		(KAHLIL & RASMUSSEN, 1983)
	3-6	
UNACCOUNTED FOR		
UNKNOWN SINK: TROPOSPHERE(?) BIOSPHERE(?) PEDOSPHERE(?)	0-51	

*TOTALS ARE ROUNDED OFF.

REFERENCES

- 1. M.A.K. Kahlil and R.A. Rassmusen, Science 224, 54-56 (1984)
- 2. P.J. Crutzen, Ambio 3, 201-210 (1974)
- M.B. McElroy, S.C. Wofsy and Y.L. Yung, <u>Phil. Trans. R. Soc. Lond</u>. B277, 159-181 (1977)
- 4. H. Singh, L. J. Salas, and H. Shigeishi, <u>Tellus</u>, 31, 313-320 (1979)
- 5. R.F. Weiss, <u>J. Geophys. Res</u>. 83, 7185-7195 (1981)
- 6. M. A. K. Khalil and R.A. Rasmussen, <u>Tellus</u>, 35B, 161-169 (1983)
- 7. A.L. Schmeltekopf, D.L. Albritton, P.J. Crutzen, P.D. Goldan, W.J. Harrop, W.R. Henderson, J.R. McAfee, M. McFarland, H. I. Schiff, T.L. Thompson, D.J. Hofmann, and N.T. Kjome, <u>J. Atmos. Sci</u>. 34, 729-736 (1977)
- 8. J.F. Vedder, E.C.Y. Inn, B.J. Tyson, C.A. Boitnott, and D. O'Hara, <u>J.</u> <u>Geophys. Res.</u> 86, 7363-7367 (1981)

- 9. R.D. Hill, R.G. Rinker, and A. Coucouvinos, <u>J. Geophys. Res.</u> 89, 1411-1421 (1984)
- 10. S.S. Prasad, Nature 289, 386-388 (1981)
- 11. D.H. Stedman and R.E. Shetter, in: <u>Trace Atmospheric Constituents</u>, (ed. S.E. Schwartz), Wiley, NY, 1983, pp. 411-454.
- 12. P.J. Crutzen and U. Schmailzl, <u>Planet.</u> Space Sci. 31, 1009-1032 (1983)
- 13. P.J. Crutzen, Quart. J. Roy. Meteorol. Soc. 96, 320-325 (1970)
- 14. R.P. Turco and R.C. Whitten, NASA TP-1002, (1977)
- R.C. Whitten, W.J. Borucki, V.R. Watson, T. Shimazaki, H.T. Woodward, C.A. Riegel, L.A. Capone, and T. Becker, <u>NASA TP-1003</u>, (1977)
- 16. W.C. Wang, Y.L. Yung, A.A. Lacis, T. Mo, and J.E. Hansen, <u>Science</u> 194, 685-690 (1976)
- 17. L. Donner and V. Ramanathan, <u>J. Atmos. Sci.</u> 37, 119-124, (1980)
- WMO, <u>Ozone Project Report</u> No. 14, World Meteorological Organization, Geneva, Switzerland (1982)
- 19. Environmental Protection Agency, Report EPA-600/9-80-043, 1980.
- 20. D.S. Nachtwey and R.D. Rundel, in: <u>Stratospheric</u> <u>Ozone</u> <u>and</u> <u>Man</u>, (ed. F.A. Bower and R.B. Ward), CRC Press, Boca Raton, Fla., Vol. 2, 1982, pp. 81-121.
- 21. National Research Council, <u>Causes and Effects of Stratospheric Ozone</u> <u>Reduction</u>, NAS, Washington, 1982.
- 22. M.I. Scranton, in: <u>Nitrogen in the Marine Environment</u>, (ed. E.J. Carpenter and D.J. Capone), Academic Press, New York, 1983, pp. 37-64.
- 23. C.C. Delwiche, (ed.), <u>Denitrification</u>, <u>Nitrification</u>, <u>and Atmospheric</u> <u>Nitrous</u> <u>Oxide</u>, Wiley-Interscience, New York, 1981.
- 24. C. Junge and J. Hahn, J. Geophys. Res. 76, 8143-8146 (1971)
- 25. J. Hahn, Tellus 26, 160-168 (1974)

- 26. T. Yoshinari, Mar. Chem. 4, 189-202 (1976)
- 27. Y. Cohen and L.I. Gordon, Deep-Sea Res. 25, 509-524 (1978)
- 28. Y. Cohen and L.I. Gordon, J. Geophys. Res. 84, 347-353 (1979)
- 29. R.F. Weiss, Trans. Am Geophys. Union 59, 1101-1102 (1978)
- J.W. Elkins, S.C. Wofsy, M.B. McElroy, C.E. Kolb, and W.A. Kaplan, <u>Nature</u> 275, 602-606 (1978)
- 31. D. Pierotti and R.A. Rasmussen, Tellus 32, 56-72 (1980)
- 32. Y. Cohen, Nature 272, 235-237 (1978)
- P.J. Crutzen, in: <u>The Major Biogenic Cycles and Their Interactions</u>, (ed. B. Bolin and R.B. Cook), Scope 21, Wiley, New York, 1983, p. 65-113.
- M.B. McElroy, J.W. Elkins, S.C. Wofsy and Y.L. Yung, <u>Rev. Geophys. Space</u> <u>Phys.</u> 14, 143-150 (1976)
- 35. J. Hahn and C. Junge, Z. Naturforsch 32a, 190-214 (1977)
- J. Hahn, in: <u>Denitrification</u>, <u>Nitrification</u> and <u>Atmospheric Nitrous</u> <u>Oxide</u>, (ed. C.C. Delwiche), Wiley-Interscience, N.Y., 1981, pp. 191-140.
- 37. R. Soderlund and T. Rosswall, in: <u>Environmental Chemistry</u> (ed. O. Hutzinger), Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Vol. 1, Part B, 1982, pp. 61-81.

- M. Keller, T.J. Gorean, S.C. Wofsy, W.A. Kaplan and M.B. McElroy, <u>Geo-phys. Res. Lett.</u> 10, 1156-1159 (1983)
- 39. G.P. Robertson and J.M. Tiedje, <u>Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.</u> 48, 383-389 (1984)
- 40. A.R. Mosier, M. Stillwell, W.J. Parton and R.G. Woodmansee, <u>Soil Sci.</u> <u>Soc. Am. J.</u> 45, 617-619 (1981)
- 41. J.M. Duxbury, D.R. Bouldin, R.E. Terry, and R.L. Tate, <u>Nature</u> 298, 462-464 (1982)
- 42. J.C. Ryden, Nature 292, 235-237 (1981)
- D.E. Rolston, A.N. Sharpley, A.N. Troy, and F.E. Broadbent, <u>Soil Sci.</u> <u>Soc. Am. J.</u> 46, 289-296 (1982)
- 44. G.L. Hutchinson and A.R. Mosier, Science 205, 1125-1126 (1979)
- 45. J.C. Ryden, L.J. Lund, J. Letey, and D.D. Focht, <u>Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.</u> 43, 110-118 (1979)
- 46. J.C. Ryden and L.J. Lund, Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 44, 505-511 (1980)
- 47. R. Lensi and A. Chalamet, Soil Biol. Biochem. 14, 51-55 (1982)
- 48. R.C. Whitten, A. Banin and J.G. Lawless, paper AIAA-84-0190, Proc. AIAA 22nd Aerospace Sciences Meeting, Reno, Nevada, 9 p. (1984)
- 49. G.L. Ajtay, P. Ketner and P. Duvigneaud, in: <u>The Global Carbon Cycle</u> (ed. B. Bolin, E.T. Degens, S. Kempe and P. Ketner) SCOPE 13, 1979, p. 134-135, 144-145.
- 50. R. Conrad and W. Seiler, Atmos. Environ. 14, 555-558 (1980)
- 51. R. Conrad, W. Seiler, and G. Bunse, <u>J. Geophys.</u> <u>Res.</u> 88, 6709-6718 (1983)
- 52. F. Slemr, R. Conrad and W. Seiler, J. Atmos. Chem 1, 156-169 (1984)

53. J.C. Ryden, J. Soil Sci. 34, 355-365 (1983)

- 54. United Nations 1979/80 Statistical Yearbook, UN, N.Y., 1981, p. 742.
- 55. A.M. Blackmer and J.M. Bremner, <u>Geophys. Res. Lett.</u> 3, 739-742 (1976)
- 56. C.J. Smith, F.M. Wright, and W.H. Patrick, <u>J. Environ. Qual.</u> 12, 186-188 (1983)
- 57. K. Brice, A.E. Eggleton, and S.A. Penkett, Nature 286, 127-129 (1977)
- 58. R.J. Cicerone, J.D. Shetter, D.H. Stedman, D.H. Kelly and S.C. Liu, <u>J.</u> <u>Geophys.</u> <u>Res.</u> 83, 3042-3050 (1978)
- 59. D. Pierotti, R.A. Rasmussen and R. Chatfield, Nature 274, 574-576 (1978)
- 60. P.J. Crutzen, L.E. Heidt, J.P. Krasnec, W.H. Pollock and W. Seiler, <u>Nature</u> 282, 253-256 (1979)
- 61. D. Pierotti and R.A. Rasmussen, <u>Geophys. Res. Lett.</u> 3, 265-267 (1976)
- 62. R.F. Weiss and H. Craig, <u>Geophys. Res</u> Lett. 3, 751-753 (1976)
- 63. W. A. Kaplan, J.W. Elkins, C.E. Kolb, M.B. McElroy, S.C. Wofsy and A.P. Duram, <u>Pure Appl. Geophys.</u> 116, 423-438 (1978)