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Analysis of Sources and Sinks of Atmospheric Nitrous Oxide (N_2O)

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There are major unanswered questions about the sources of atmospheric nitrous oxide. Recent assessments of N_2O sources are diverging rather than converging. Here I use a simple model to place constraints on the relative sizes of N_2O sources in the northern and southern hemispheres (NH and SH). Using measurements of the rate of temporal increase of atmospheric nitrous oxide (N_2O) concentrations and observations of their cross-equator differences, I calculate the total sources of N₂O for the (NH and SH). The NH source Φ_N must exceed the SH source Φ_S ; their ratio $R (= \bar{\Phi}_N / \Phi_S)$ is between 1.7 and 2.4 for the case where the NH concentration is 1 ppb higher than that in the SH. When the NH concentration is 0.75 ppb higher, R is between 1.5 and 1.9. These values of R increase by about 50% when more rapid loss to the NH stratosphere is introduced. Slightly wider ranges of R are calculated for certain choices of parameters. For these calculations I have used a two-box model which permits an array of assumptions to be tested; a range of values is employed for interhemispheric exchange times and for removal times due to stratospheric destruction of N_2O . In addition to the common case of no uptake of atmospheric N₂O by soils. I have tested the model sensitivity to two hypothesized nonzero soil sinks. Relatively small soil sinks would decrease the atmospheric residence time of N_2O to values below those that are calculated from stratospheric removal alone.

1. INTRODUCTION

Nitrous oxide is an important trace gas in the atmosphere because it is an effective greenhouse gas and because it is the major source of stratospheric NO, which is important in ozone-layer chemistry. Its discovery and early views on its behavior are reviewed by Bates and Hays [1967]. Reactions that produce NO from N_2O in the stratosphere and other reactions that destroy N2O and their rates are discussed by Johnston et al. [1979]. Evidence that N₂O does release far more NO into the stratosphere than any other source was provided by Jackman et al. [1980]. As a greenhouse gas, N₂O functions through several absorption bands in the wavelength region 7.7 μ m to 17 μ m [Ramanathan et al., 1985]. In the past century the atmospheric concentrations of several greenhouse gases have increased, including CO2, CH4, chlorofluorocarbons, N₂O, and tropospheric ozone. Of the enhanced greenhouse effect (radiative forcing) due to these increases to date, N₂O increases have contributed 2 to 3%; depending on future concentrations, the contribution from N₂O could increase to about 10% [Dickinson and Cicerone, 1986].

Measurements show that N₂O is increasing in the global atmosphere. Weiss [1981] and Weiss et al. [1981] showed that the 1978 concentration in the northern hemisphere was 300 ppb and that the average annual increase between 1976 and 1980 was about 0.6 ppb (parts per billion by volume in dry air) per year, or about 0.2% per year. These data are from several stations spanning the globe and from several extended oceanic cruises. Weiss [1981] also showed that an annual increase of 0.65 ppb could be inferred for the period 1961–1978 from other data. More recent data (R. F. Weiss, private communication, 1988) shows that through 1987 the average annual increase

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Paper number 89JD02757. 0148-0227/89/89JD-02757\$05.00 was about 0.7 ppb and that the average excess in the northern hemisphere relative to the southern hemisphere of 0.8 ppb reported by *Weiss* [1981], persists. Analysis of an independent data set from Oregon and Tasmania (1979-1982) showed possibly larger annual increases of 0.2 to 0.4% per year, an interhemispheric difference similar to that of *Weiss* [1981], and evidence for seasonal cycles [*Khalil and Rasmussen*, 1983]. Data from an extended ship cruise (50° N to 40° S) in 1987 have shown an excess of N₂O in the northern hemisphere of about 1.0 ppb [*Butler et al.*, 1989].

Current knowledge indicates that N₂O is a very longlived gas once in the atmosphere. It is thought to be inert in the troposphere; photolysis (producing $O(^{1}D)$) and N_2) and attack by $O(^1D)$ (producing NO) in the stratosphere are the removal mechanisms. If these processes are the only removal mechanisms, then the atmospheric residence time τ_R for N₂O is over 100 years. Calculated lifetimes are somewhat sensitive to several factors including the photoabsorption cross section for O₂, $\sigma(O_2)$, in the Herzberg continuum wavelength region. Using early (larger) values for $\sigma(O_2)$ Johnston et al. [1979] and Golombek and Prinn [1986] found τ_R to be 180 years and 182 years, respectively. Mahlman et al. [1986] also deduced a 180-year value in their three-dimensional (3D) model but values between 100 and 130 years when they compared modeled N₂O stratospheric distributions with measurements of stratospheric N₂O. In their studies, Mahlman et al. concluded that measured and modeled N₂O distributions imply faster photochemical destruction of stratospheric N₂O than one calculates from then current photochemical and solar irradiance data. One possible way to increase these destruction rates is to employ lower photoabsorption cross sections for O_2 such as those of Johnston et al. [1984] but this has not yet been done in a 3D model. Using the one-dimensional (1D) model of Cicerone et al. [1983], I have calculated $\tau_R = 150$ years for N_2O with these smaller O_2 cross sections. Thus the exact value of τ_R for N₂O is not yet clear; it probably lies between 100 and 150 years if stratospheric destruction is the only sink. With au_R as large as 150 years, the observed annual increase of 0.7 ppb/year implies that the

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present annual source of N₂O is about 25% larger than the natural steady state source (see, for example, *Keller et al.*, [1986] and *Cicerone* [1987]).

Are human perturbations to the cycling of nitrogen through Earth's soils, oceans and atmosphere (see, for example, Delwiche [1981]) responsible for increasing atmospheric N₂O? This important question has not yet been answered, although human causes are likely. Attempts to construct an accurate ledger of N₂O sources have not yet succeeded; the proposed N₂O sources do not sum to the total of the atmospheric sink rates plus the observed annual increase. Recent attempts to construct balanced N₂O budgets [Keller et al., 1986; Gammon et al., 1986; Hao et al., 1987] have been undercut by newer measurements that indicate a much smaller (if any) N₂O source from combustion processes. Specifically, it has been shown that artifact N2O is produced in sample flasks when air samples are rich in moisture, NO or NO2 and SO2 [Muzio and Kramlich, 1988; Linak et al., 1989]. Thus earlier experiments with samples from power-plant exhaust gases and laboratory combustors that suggested significant sources of N₂O from combustion are probably in error, including the studies by Pierotti and Rasmussen [1976], Weiss and Craig [1978], and Hao et al. [1987]. It is also possible because of this experimental artifact that less N2O is released during biomass burning than has been estimated to date.

There is now a 15- or 20-year history of uncertainty in N₂O source sizes, identities, and τ_R [Liu et al., 1977]. It is this continuing uncertainty that prompts me to seek simple and useful constraints on some of these quantities.

In this study, I examine the implications of atmospheric N₂O data for the distribution of N₂O sources between hemispheres. I use a two-box model that is more complicated than Weiss's [1981] one-box model but still simple enough to allow analysis of several factors. From simple considerations, Weiss concluded that northern hemispheric (NH) sources must dominate. Khalil and Rasmussen [1983] adopted a specified distribution of sources (31% oceanic, 46% "land-based" and 23human activities") and calculated rates of N2O growth, north-south concentration differences (for a specified value each for ℓ and τ_{ℓ} , defined below). Recently, Butler et al. [1989] have used a twobox model to deduce north-south source differences, given north-south differences in concentrations; see section 4. Analysis by Levy et al. [1979, 1982] with three-dimensional global transport models that assumed mostly continental sources (and hence, mostly NH) calculated slightly larger N₂O concentrations in the SH than the NH, i.e., the opposite of what has been measured. The Levy et al. work prompted me to try a simpler approach to test the implications of several variables that could not be varied in their 3D model. Finally, I include consideration of another N_2O sink, consumption of atmospheric N_2O by soils, as discussed below. For a gas such as N_2O for which the only presently identified sinks lead us to estimate τ_R as long as 150 years or so, the possibility of other sinks is important to examine.

2. THE MODEL and INPUT DATA

For an atmospheric species like N₂O whose atmospheric residence time $\tau_R >> \tau_e$ (the time for exchange between hemispheres), we expect significant interhemispheric ex-

change. N_2O concentrations are measurably higher in the northern hemisphere than in the southern hemisphere, from 0.8 ppb [Weiss, 1981] to 1.0 ppb [Butler et al., 1989], and within each hemisphere N_2O is relatively well mixed, at least at the surface. Consequently, a two-box model can be used to obtain estimates of differences between northern and southern sources and of interhemispheric transport; shortcomings to this approach are discussed later.

Let N equal the total amount of N_2O in the northern hemisphere as a function of time, t, and let S equal the total amount of N_2O in the southern hemisphere. Then

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = \Phi_N - \Phi_{N-S} - N(\ell_N + D_N) \qquad (1)$$

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = \Phi_S + \Phi_{N-S} - S(\ell_S + D_S) \qquad (2)$$

where Φ_N is the total annual (gross) surface source of N₂O for the atmosphere of the northern hemisphere and Φ_S is the same but for the southern hemisphere. Also, $\Phi_{N-S} = (N-S)/\tau_e$, ℓ_N and ℓ_S are the rates of loss of N₂O from each hemisphere due to stratospheric processes, and D_N and D_S are the rates of loss of atmospheric N₂O in each hemisphere due to uptake by soils. In the calculations described below, I employ a range of values for ℓ_N and ℓ_S . For many of the cases I take $\ell_N = \ell_S$, but because there is some evidence from models that ℓ_N exceeds ℓ_S [Levy et al., 1982] I also study this case. I use the following units: for N and S, moles of N₂O; for Φ_N , Φ_S and Φ_{N-S} , moles per year. Destruction rates for N₂O, that is ℓ_N , ℓ_S , D_N, and D_S, are expressed as inverse time constants for the respective processes.

Solutions of (1) and (2) for Φ_N and Φ_S can be obtained algebraically after measured values are inserted for N, S, dN/dt, and dS/dt and estimates are used for ℓ_N , ℓ_S , D_N , and D_S . Two different interhemispheric gradients (N/S values) are examined: (N,S) values are proportional to (305 ppb, 304 ppb) respectively in one case, similar to measurements by *Butler et al.* [1989] and 305 ppb, 304.25 ppb, similar to the 0.8 ppb difference from Weiss [1981]. For N/S = 305/304, (N,S) = (2.7906, 2.7815) × 10¹³ mol of N₂O. For N/S = 305/304.25, (N,S) = (2.7906, 2.7837) × 10¹³ mol. For this study the exact N₂O concentrations, for example, 305 ppb in the northern hemisphere, are not of concern; the difference between hemispheres is the key factor. Again, the exact number of moles for N and S is quite insignificant but the difference N - S is important.

The rates of change in the two hemispheres, dN/dt, are taken to be equal: $dN/dt = dS/dt = 6.55 \times 10^{10}$ mol/year, based on a measured 0.7 ppb/year rate of increase [Weiss, 1981; R. F. Weiss, private communication, 1988] in each hemisphere. Four different rates of N₂O consumption in the stratosphere are treated here: $1/\ell =$ 100, 125, 150, and 180 years, where $\ell = (\ell_N + \ell_S)/2$, I adopt this range of values for $1/\ell$ because stratospheric removal rates are somewhat uncertain as discussed above, and to illustrate the effects of differing ℓ values. In addition to these cases where the atmospheric residence time due to stratospheric removal, $1/\ell$, is set at 100, 125, 150, and 180 years and $\ell_N = \ell_S$, I have also modeled the case of these same four values of $1/\ell$ but with $\ell_N = 1.6 \ \ell_S$. In principle, there could be faster loss of N₂O from the NH troposphere to the NH stratosphere (followed by destruction) than occurs in the SH because NH topography leads to stronger planetary wave activity and because of a stronger polar vortex in the SH. Stated differently, subsidence from the NH stratosphere delivers more N2O-poor air on an annual basis than in the SH. Three-dimensional model results from Mahlman et al. [1986] can be interpreted to show that the relationship $\ell_N = 1.8 \ \ell_S$ deduced from Mahlman et al. [1980] is too large, although it seems clear that $\ell_N \geq \ell_S$. It will be seen below that the relationship $\ell_N = 1.6 \ \ell_S$ illustrates a point clearly. Similarly, each of three values is employed for τ_e : 0.8, 1.0, and 1.5 years. A value of $\tau_e = 1.1$ years was found to be optimum for three-dimensional transport modeling of CCl₂F₂, CCl₃F, and ⁸⁵Kr [Prather et al., 1987; Jacob et al., 1987].

For the soil sink rates, D_N and D_S in (1) and (2), I have adopted three values each. The first pair is $D_N =$ $0 = D_S$; uptake of atmospheric N₂O by soils is commonly neglected in the construction of budgets. There have been far more observations of soil emissions of N₂O than of soil uptake [Keller et al., 1986; Matson and Vitousek, 1987; Parton et al., 1988], and the fluxes of N₂O into soils measured to date are smaller than the fluxes leaving the soil. Accordingly, I assume in one case that soil uptake is completely negligible.

But there is some evidence for nonzero soil sinks in some regions and under certain conditions. Ryden [1981] observed a significant rate of N₂O uptake by an English grassland, especially when soils were wet, nitrate-poor and relatively warm. Ryden observed weekly averaged fluxes into the soil of order 4×10^9 molecules of N_2O/cm^2 s for most of a 3-month period. Keller et al. [986] measured N₂O fluxes at the soil-air interface at several sites in Central and South America during the dry season. The great majority of their observations were of N_2O emissions, but some sites displayed N_2O uptake. The wettest site took up N_2O on 70% of the trials; uptake rates of order 10^9 molecules/cm² s were common although averaged fluxes were from the soil to the atmosphere. Matson and Vitousek [1987] have observed mostly emissions in several studies, but smaller fluxes to the soil of order $10^9/\text{cm}^2$ s were observed 10%to 20% of the time in Costa Rica. Fluxes less than 10⁹/cm² s present some difficulties in field studies; see discussion below. Elkins et al. [1978] also reported some activity of aquatic sinks of atmospheric N₂O. In all these cases, microbial reduction of N2O to N2 is suspected to occur. Thus while the net contribution of soils to the hemispherically, annually averaged N₂O sources, Φ_N and Φ_S , is positive I include soil sinks, D_N and D_S , to account for hemispheric differences.

I have included nonzero soil sinks in the present calculations because sinks have been observed occasionally in field measurements but also to illustrate how relatively small surface sinks could affect the atmospheric residence time of N₂O, given that the only other N₂O sinks are in the stratosphere. Two pairs of nonzero D_N and D_S values are used $D_N = (1/780 \text{ years}), D_S = D_N/2.1$, and $D_N = (1/390 \text{ years}), D_S = D_N/2.1$. These rather odd and particular numbers were selected as follows. The land area in the northern hemisphere is 2.1 times as large as that in the southern hemisphere (exclusion of ice-covered land

would increase this ratio to about 2.5). Here I assume for simplicity that soil sink activity is the same for all land area. With $D_N = 2.1 D_S$ and $D_N = (1/780 \text{ years})$, the total global sink is 1.5×10^{12} g N/year or 5.4×10^{10} mol N₂O per year. For the case $D_N = (1/390 \text{ years})$, the total global sink is 3×10^{12} g N/year or 1.07×10^{11} mol N_2O /year. Note that an N_2O consumption rate of 5 $\times 10^8$ molecules/cm² s by all land surfaces at all times would give a 500-year atmospheric residence time. This uniform consumption rate for N_2O is used here only to illustrate magnitudes; it is clear from field experiments that the world's soils are a net source of N_2O . The case above, $D_N = (1/780 \text{ years}) = 2.1 D_S$, would give $\tau_R =$ 1170 years; the corresponding averaged uptake rate by all land surfaces would be 2.1×10^8 molecules N₂O/cm² Oceanic surface waters are generally oversaturated s. with respect to N₂O, but limited areas can be slightly undersaturated, at least seasonally [Butler et al., 1989]. I do not account for this potential surface sink specifically here, but the present formalism can include it.

3. RESULTS and DISCUSSION

Equations (1) and (2) were solved for 96 distinct cases. With 1 ppb more N₂O in the northern hemisphere than in the southern hemisphere, N/S = 305/304, four values of ℓ , three values of τ_e , and three values for D_N were used, for a total of 36 combinations. Because $D_S = D_N/2.1$ it was necessary only to specify D_N . Also, for the case of 0.75 ppb more N₂O in the northern hemisphere than the southern hemisphere, the corresponding 36 combinations of ℓ , τ_e and D_i were treated. For these first 72 cases, $\ell_N = \ell_S$, and as always, $\ell = (\ell_N + \ell_S)/2$.

Results for the larger of the north-south gradients are shown in Table 1. The upper third of Table 1 is for $\tau_e = 0.8$ years, the middle third for $\tau_e = 1.0$ years, and the lowest third for $\tau_e = 1.5$ years. Focusing on the middle third, $\tau_e = 1.0$ years, we find that for $1/\ell =$ 180 years, Φ_N and Φ_S are 3.12 and 1.29 (units of 10^{11} mol/year), respectively, and their ratio R is 2.41, for the case $D_N = D_S = 0$. R values for these three values of τ_e and with zero soil sinks are also graphed in Figure 1. The next column to the right in Table 1 is for $D_N =$ $(1/780 \text{ years}) = 2.1 D_S$, for which Φ_N and Φ_S are 3.47 and 1.46 (both times 10^{11} mol/year) and R = 2.38. The right-hand column under each value of $1/\ell$ is for D_N and D_S twice as large as the previous case.

Several patterns are seen in the results of Table 1. First, in all cases, R is greater than 1.4. It is only for the case of slow interhemispheric exchange, $\tau_e = 1.5$ years, that R is less than 1.7. For $\tau_e = 1.0$ year and 0.8 year, 1.7 < R < 3.1. For slow interhemispheric exchange the effect of increasing the hypothesized soil sink is to increase the ratio Φ_N/Φ_S . But for $\tau_e = 0.8$ years, R actually decreases from 2.66 for $D_i = 0$ to 2.55 for the largest D_N and D_S when $1/\ell = 150$ years, and R decreases from 3.14 to 2.89 for $1/\ell = 180$ years. This is due to two factors: fast interhemispheric exchange decreases the time of exposure of northern hemispheric N₂O to the soil sink in the northern hemisphere, and slow stratospheric removal $(1/\ell = 150 \text{ or } 180 \text{ years})$ causes Φ_i to depend more strongly on D_i , i.e. Φ_N/Φ_S regresses toward the ratio of D_N/D_S , which is 2.1, as each D_i increases.

. Hemisphere (Φ_S) , Concentration of 304 ppb.	$\ell^{-1} = 180$ Years
femisphere (Φ_N) and the Southern 5 ppb and Southern Hemispheric	$\ell^{-1} = 150$ Years
of Atmospheric N ₂ O for the Northern E n Hemispheric N ₂ O Concentration of 30	$\ell^{-1} = 125$ Years
TABLE 1. Total Annual Source (d the Ratio $R = \Phi_N/\Phi_S$ for Norther	$\ell^{-1} = 100 \text{ Years}$

		$\ell^{-1}=10$	0 Years		$\ell^{-1} = 125$	Years		$\ell^{-1} = 150$	Years	£	$^{-1} = 180$	Years
	D = 0	$D_N = (1/780)$ Years)	$D_N = (1/390$ Years)	D = 0	$D_N = (1/780)$ Years)	$D_N = (1/390)$ Years)	D = 0	$D_N = (1/780)$ Years)	$D_N = (1/390$ Years)	D = 0	$D_N = (1/780)$ Years)	$D_N = D_N = (1/390)$ Years)
		,				$\tau_{\rm e} = 0.8 \ \rm Ye$	cars					
Φ_N	4.58	4.94	5.30	4.02	4.38	4.74	3.65	4.01	4.37	3.34	3.70	4.06
Φ_S	2.30	2.47	2.64	1.74	1.91	2.08	1.37	1.54	1.71	1.06	1.23	1.40
ж	1.99	2.00	2.01	2.31	2.29	2.28	2.66	2.60	2.55	3.14	3.00	2.89
						$\tau_e = 1.0 \ Ye$	cars					
•* ₽	4.36	4.71	5.07	3.80	4.15	4.51	3.42	3.78	4.14	3.12	3.47	3.83
•Ф	2.53	2.70	2.86	1.97	2.14	2.31	1.60	1.77	1.94	1.29	1.46	1.63
Ж	1.72	1.75	1.77	1.93	1.94	1.95	2.14	2.14	2.14	2.41	2.38	2.35
						$\tau_e = 1.5 \ Ye$	ars					
* ₽	4.05	4.41	4.77	3.49	3.85	4.21	3.12	3.48	3.84	2.81	3.17	3.53
₽s •	2.83	3.00	3.17	2.27	2.44	2.61	1.90	2.07	2.24	1.59	1.76	1.93
R	1.43	1.47	1.50	1.54	1.58	1.61	1.64	1.68	1.71	1.76	1.80	1.83



Fig. 1. Calculated values of R, i.e. the ratio of the N₂O sources Φ_N/Φ_S , as a function of $1/\ell$, the inverse of the rate of stratospheric destruction of N₂O. Solid curves are for $\ell_N =$ ℓ_S . All results here are for a 1 ppb excess of N₂O in the NH over the SH and for the case of no soil sinks. The upper curve, graphed as crosses, is for $\ell_N = 1.6\ell_S$. It illustrates the effect of faster loss to the stratosphere in the NH.

Table 2 presents the results for 36 cases where the northern hemisphere concentration of N₂O is only 0.75 ppb greater than that in the southern hemisphere. The source ratio R that is required to maintain this smaller gradient is less for each combination in Table 2 than for the corresponding case in Table 1. In Figure 2, graphs of these results appear for the case $D_N = D_S = 0$. In Table 2, 1.31 < R < 2.29, although for a central case $(\tau_e = 1.0 \text{ year}, 1/\ell = 125 \text{ years}) R$ is about 1.6. Clearly, other north-south gradients would lead to different results; differences less than 0.75 ppb would imply a more uniform distribution of N_2O sources with latitude, i.e., R closer to unity.

The variable Φ_{N-S} , the annual transfer rate (mol/year) of N₂O from northern hemisphere to southern hemisphere, is a diagnostic variable in this calculation: Φ_{N-S} = $(N - -S)/\tau_e$. For the cases of Table 1, $\Phi_{N-S} = (1.14, 0.91, \text{ and } 0.61) \times 10^{11} \text{ mol/year for } \tau_e = 0.8, 1.0, \text{ and } 1.5$ years, respectively. For Table 2, where N/S = 305/304.25, $\Phi_{N-S} = (0.86, 0.69, \text{ and } 0.46) \times 10^{11} \text{ mol/year for } \tau_e =$ 0.8, 1.0, and 1.5 years, respectively.

Even though the two nonzero soil sinks that are assumed here appear to be relatively small, their inclusion does affect the atmospheric residence time of N₂O. With

	<i>€</i> -	$^{1} = 100 \text{ y}$	ears	<i>f</i> 7	¹ = 125 ye	ars	ℓ^{-1}	¹ = 150 ye	ars	£.	$^{-1} = 180$	years
	D = 0	$D_N = (1/780)$ Years)	$D_N = (1/390)$ Years)	D = 0	$\begin{array}{c} D_N = \\ (1/790 \\ \text{Years} \end{array}$	$D_N = 1/390$ Years)	D = 0	$D_N = (1/790$ Years)	$\frac{D_N}{(1/390)}$	D = 0	$D_N = (1/790)$ Years)	$D_N = D_N = (1/390)$ Years)
						$\tau_e = 0.8$	Years					
Φ_N	4.31	4.66	5.02	3.75	4.11	4.46	3.38	3.74	4.09	3.07	3.42	3.78
Φ_{S}	2.58	2.75	2.92	2.02	2.19	2.36	1.65	1.82	1.99	1.34	1.51	1.68
'ж	1.67	1.70	1.72	1.86	1.88	1.89	2.05	2.05	2.06	2.29	2.27	2.25
Φ_N	4.14	4.49	4.85	3.58	3.93	$\tau_e \stackrel{=}{=} \stackrel{0.8}{0.8}$	Years 3.20	3.56	3.92	2.90	3.25	3.61
Φ_{S}	2.75	2.92	3.09	2.19	2.36	2.53	1.82	1.99	2.16	1.51	1.68	1.85
Ж	1.50	1.54	1.57	1.63	1.67	1.70	1.76	1.79	1.81	1.92	1.93	1.95
Φ_N	3.91	4.26	4.62	3.35	3.70	$\tau_e \stackrel{=}{=} \stackrel{0.8}{0.6}$	Years 2.98	3.33	3.69	2.66	3.02	3.38
Φ_S	2.98	3.15	3.32	2.42	2.59	2.76	2.05	2.22	2.39	1.74	1.91	2.08
Я	1.31	1.35	1.39	1.38	1.43	1.47	1.45	1.50	1.54	1.53	1.58	1.62



Fig. 2. Same as Figure 1 except for 0.75 ppb more $\rm N_2O$ in the NH than the SH.

 $D_N = (1/782 \text{ years}) \tau_R = 91 \text{ years} (100), 112 \text{ years} (125), 131 \text{ years} (150), and 155 \text{ years} (180); numbers in parentheses are corresponding values of <math>1/\ell$ (years) that would determine τ_R if $D_N = 0 = D_S$. For the doubled soil sink rates, $D_N = (1/390 \text{ years}), \tau_R = 84 \text{ years} (100), 101 \text{ years} (125), 117 \text{ years} (150), and 135 (180) \text{ years}.$ These reduced τ_R values were deduced by adding Φ_N and Φ_S for each ℓ value, then subtracting the measured annual N₂O increase $(1.33 \times 10^{11} \text{ mol})$ and dividing the result into the total N₂O burden of the atmosphere (5.57 $\times 10^{13} \text{ mol}).$

If soil sinks are actually consuming atmospheric N₂O as hypothesized here and τ_R is thus, say, 117 years instead of 150 years; then we must identify steady state sources for N₂O that are proportionally larger, for instance, 4.8 $\times 10^{11}$ mol/year instead of 3.7 $\times 10^{11}$ mol/year.

In the remaining 24 cases (of the total 96) for which (1) and (2) were solved, the stratospheric loss of N₂O was assumed to be more rapid for N₂O in the NH relative to the SH. In particular ℓ_N was taken as $\ell_N = 1.6\ell_S$, where as before $\ell = (\ell_N + \ell_S)/2$ and four values of ℓ were investigated: $(1/\ell) = 100, 125, 150, \text{ and } 180$ years. There is evidence for greater vertical exchange between the troposphere and stratosphere in the northern hemisphere [Mahlman et al., 1980; Levy et al., 1982] but the relative amounts are probably not as high as 1.8 as inferred from Mahlman et al. [1980] according to J. D. Mahlman (private communication, 1989). To illustrate the effect of this, I selected $\ell_N = 1.6 \ell_S$. Figures 1 and 2 display (as curves defined by crosses) the source ratios R for values of $1/\ell = 100, 125, 150$, and 180 years, where $\ell_N = 1.6\ell_S$ and $\ell = (\ell_N + \ell_S)/2$. Figure 1 is for the case of a 1 ppb north-south difference in N₂O mixing ratio and Figure 2 applies for a 0.75 ppb difference. For clarity of presentation, only the cases $\tau_e =$ 1.0 year are shown in these figures. Compared to the respective solid curves for $\tau_e = 1.0$ year in Figures 1 and 2 which are for $\ell_N = \ell_S$, the R values for $\ell_N = 1.6\ell_S$ are more than 50% higher. This should not be surprising; to maintain the same concentration gradient across the equator requires a higher ratio of northern hemispheric to southern hemispheric sources when there are larger sinks in the NH than the SH.

4. CONCLUSION

I have solved simplified equations for mass conservation of atmospheric N₂O subject to the constraints of measured temporal increases and cross-equator differences, for a range of other related parameters including the time required for interhemispheric exchange, stratospheric destruction rates, the rates of consumption of atmospheric N_2O by soils, and possible north-south differences in N_2O loss rates. A two-box model was used; the total N2O sources for each hemisphere, northern and southern were computed. For all choices of parameters, NH sources dominate: Φ_N/Φ_S lies between 1.4 and 5.2 for an N₂O concentration that is 1 ppb higher in the NH than in the SH (see Table 1), and between 1.3 and 3.5 for an N_2O concentration that is 0.75 ppb higher in the NH than in the SH (see Table 2). The most likely values are about 2.0 and 1.6 for the 1 ppb difference and the 0.75 ppb difference, respectively; these R values obtain when $\tau_e = 1$ year, $1/\ell = 130$ years, $\ell_N = \ell_S$ and when no soil sinks are hypothesized. These values rise to 3.0 and 2.4, respectively, for the same two cases but with ℓ_N = 1.6 ℓ_S . Butler et al. [1989] have calculated that SH sources contribute 33% to 38% of the total global source if the north-south concentration difference d is 1.1 ppb for τ_R values of 150 and 100 years, respectively, and 42% to 44% if -d = 0.5 ppb. They adopted a single value for τ_e , 1.1 years, no differences between hemispheres for stratospheric removal, and zero soil sinks.

When an hypothesized soil sink is introduced, Φ_N/Φ_S ratios increase somewhat, and atmospheric residence times for N₂O become shorter. Soil sinks of the type assumed here could reduce τ_R by as much as 20% from the value with only stratospheric destruction.

The present approach illustrates how the conclusions depend on several parameters, and how two processes, faster N₂O loss to the NH stratosphere and assumed soil sink activity, each increase calculated R values, but it cannot resolve spatial differences within hemispheres without adding more boxes or temporal variations on seasonal (or shorter) time scales. More sophisticated analyses are needed with larger data sets. For example, Prinn and colleagues are introducing a multibox approach that deduces large tropical sources of N₂O [Prinn et al., Atmospheric trends and emissions of nitrous oxide deduced from ten years of ALE-GAGE data, submitted to Journal of Geophysical Research, 1989], which if correct is an important finding. To reach such conclusions will require accurate differences between N₂O concentrations at different latitudes; the present calculations are sensitive only to hemispheric differences. In deducing concentration gradients with latitude, seasonal cycles may have to be recognized [Khalil and Rasmussen, 1983]. Vertical gradients also contain information, even though they are known to be very small in the troposphere. Threedimensional transport models such as those by Mahlman et al. [1986] will be increasingly valuable as the data base grows. As they studies progress, it may become clear that there was as much or more N₂O in the SH than the NH before there were significant anthropogenic sources, as Weiss [1981] suggested.

Stable isotopes of nitrogen (^{15}N) and oxygen $(^{17}O$ and $^{18}O)$, when measured in ratio to the major isotopes (^{14}N) and $^{16}O)$, could provide good indicators of which N₂O sources are dominant, as well as evidence of soil uptake. Such studies should be undertaken.

Field studies to quantify the sizes of soil sinks for atmospheric N₂O are certainly needed, but they are difficult. First, small concentration changes must be measured. For a typical closed chamber (volume = 7 ℓ , height = 9 cm), a flux to the soil of $3 \times 10^8/\text{cm}^2$ s will decrease the N₂O concentration by only 3 ppb after 30 min. Another particular problem is that leaks can mask N₂O losses to soils in closed-chamber experiments. When ambient air (with N₂O present at 305 to 310 ppb) enters a typical closed chamber at a rate of 3 cm³/s an N₂O loss of the order of $3 \times 10^8/\text{cm}^2$ s can be masked. The removal of, say, 50 cm³ of air from such chambers in syringe sampling also forces external air into the chamber but is less of a problem. It is possible that in some field experiments to date, when N₂O sources near zero were reported, small sinks may have been operating in reality.

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