

## Lagrangian Photochemical Modeling of Ozone Formation and Aerosol Evolution in Biomass Burning Plumes: Toward a Sub-grid Scale Parameterization

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### 1. INTRODUCTION

Biomass burning is a major source of atmospheric pollution. Rapid, complex photochemistry can lead to significant increases in the concentrations of ozone in some smoke plumes after less than an hour of aging (e.g., Goode et al., 2000; Hobbs et al., 2003; Yokelson et al., 2009), while in other, generally boreal, plumes only small changes are observed on short time scales (e.g., Alvarado et al., 2010). Being able to simulate this rapid chemical evolution is a critical part of forecasting the impact of fires on urban and regional air quality.

The Aerosol Simulation Program (ASP) was developed to simulate the formation of ozone and secondary organic aerosol (SOA) within several African and North American plumes (Alvarado and Prinn, 2009). In this work, we discuss recent updates to the gas-phase chemistry and secondary organic aerosol (SOA) formation modules of ASP, and use this updated version (ASP v2.0) to simulate the chemical evolution of a

young biomass burning smoke plume sampled over California during the 2009 San Luis Obispo Biomass Burning campaign (Akagi et al., 2012). We then present our initial work in using ASP to develop a sub-grid scale parameterization of the near-source chemistry of biomass burning plumes for use in regional and global air quality models.

### 2. UPDATES TO THE AEROSOL SIMULATION PROGRAM (ASP)

#### 2.1 Gas-phase Chemistry Updates

We have extensively updated the gas-phase chemistry within ASP. First, we updated all inorganic gas-phase chemistry within ASP to follow the latest IUPAC recommendations for kinetic rate constants. We also tested the JPL recommendations for these rate constants, but found that the differences between the recommendations generally made little difference to the model simulations, and as the IUPAC values were more in line with previous versions of ASP, these values were used.

Second, all gas-phase chemistry for organic compounds containing 4 carbons or less has been “unlumped,” i.e. the chemistry for each individual

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organic compound is explicitly resolved. This was done following the Leeds Master Chemical Mechanism (MCM) v3.2 (Saunders et al., 2003), available at <http://mcm.leeds.ac.uk/MCM>.

Third, we updated the chemical mechanism of isoprene within ASP to follow the Paulot et al. (2009a,b) isoprene scheme, as implemented in GEOS-Chem and including corrections based on more recent studies (e.g., Crouse et al., 2011, 2012).

Finally, the lumped chemistry for all other organic compounds in ASP has been updated to follow the Regional Atmospheric Chemistry Mechanism (RACM) v2 (Goliff et al., 2013).

## 2.2 SOA Formation Updates

We have updated the SOA formation module to follow the semi-empirical Volatility Basis Set (VBS) model of Robinson et al. (2007). Our implementation of this scheme followed the approach used by Ahmadov et al. (2012) to link the VBS scheme with the RACM chemical mechanism within WRF-Chem, with the exception that we use 9 VBS bins rather than only 4.

## 3. WILLIAMS FIRE

The Williams fire (34°41'45" N, 120°12'23" W) was sampled by the US Forest Service (USFS) Twin Otter aircraft from 10:50-15:20 LT on November 17, 2009. The fire burned approximately 81 hectares of scrub oak woodland understory and coastal sage scrub. Skies were clear all day and RH was low (11-26%) with variable winds (2-5 m/s). Full details on the measurements made are in Akagi et al. (2012). The plume showed significant secondary production of O<sub>3</sub> and peroxy acetyl nitrate (PAN), but the enhancement ratio of organic aerosol (OA) to CO<sub>2</sub> decreased slightly downwind.

## 4. ASP SIMULATION OF WILLIAMS FIRE

### 4.1 ASP Setup

As in Alvarado and Prinn (2009), we simulated the Williams fire smoke plume using ASP within a simple Lagrangian parcel model. The observed changes in CO mixing ratio were used to determine the best-fit model dilution rate, as well as upper and lower limits, as shown in Fig. 1.

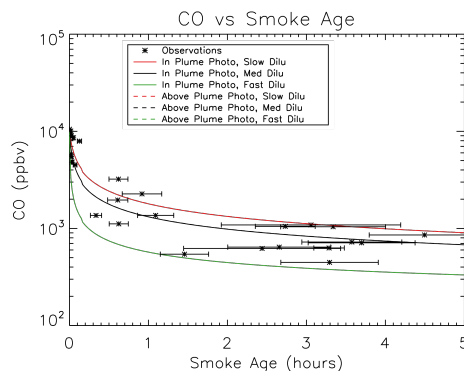


Fig. 1. CO mixing ratio (ppbv) versus smoke age. Red, black, and green are for the slow, best-fit (medium), and fast plume dilution rates. Asterisks are the measured mixing ratios, with the horizontal error bars showing the uncertainty in the estimated age.

Initial and background concentrations of trace gases and aerosols in the smoke were taken from observations of the Williams Fire (Akagi et al., 2012), where available. Emission ratios for other species were calculated using the literature reviews of Akagi et al. (2011) and Andreae and Merlet (2001). The volatility distribution for the primary organic aerosol (POA) was taken from the wood smoke study of Grieshop et al. (2009).

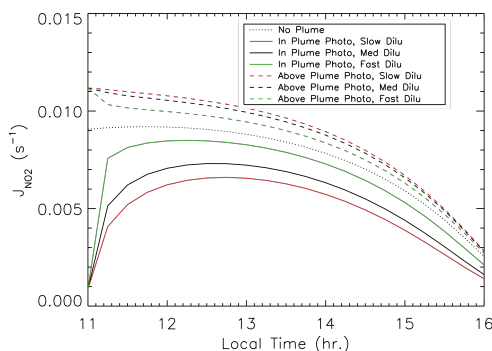


Fig. 2. NO<sub>2</sub> photolysis rates (s<sup>-1</sup>) versus local time. Red, black, and green are for the slow, best-fit (medium), and fast plume dilution rates. Dashed lines are for above-plume photolysis rates, while solid lines are for the in-plume rates, as described in the text. The black dotted line is the clear-sky (no aerosol) photolysis rate.

Photolysis rates were calculated offline using TUV v5.0 (Madronich and Flocke, 1998). The smoke aerosols were assumed to dilute with time, and had an initial AOD at 330 nm of 8.0 and a single scattering albedo of 0.9. Photolysis rates were calculated within the plume (i.e., at 1.8 km within a plume extending from 1-2 km altitude) and just above the plume (i.e., at 2.1 km). This, combined with the three dilution rates, gave 6 estimates of photolysis rates versus time, which

are compared with the clear sky (no aerosol) case in Fig. 2.

#### 4.2 Gas-Phase Results (Without SVOC Chemistry)

We first ran ASP assuming the uncharacterized semi-volatile organic compounds (SVOCs) emitted by the fire (following the volatility distribution of Grieshop et al., 2009) are unreactive. As shown in Figures 3 through 5, with this assumption ASP is able to simulate the change in O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, and peroxy acetyl nitrate (PAN) with time within the smoke plume.

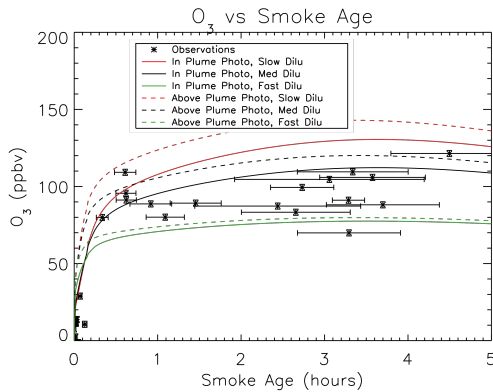


Fig. 3. O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratio (ppbv) versus estimated smoke age.

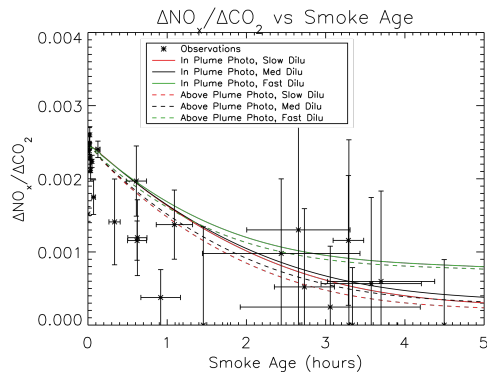


Fig. 4. Enhancement ratio (mol/mol) of NO<sub>x</sub> to CO<sub>2</sub> versus estimated smoke age ( $\Delta\text{NO}_x = \text{NO}_{x,\text{plume}} - \text{NO}_{x,\text{background}}$ ).

ASP also does a good job of simulating the decay of C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> (not shown), suggesting that it is able to simulate the average OH concentration within the smoke plume. However, ASP underestimates the secondary production of aldehydes such as HCHO (see Fig. 6) and glycoaldehyde (HCOCH<sub>2</sub>OH, not shown), as well

as formic and acetic acid (not shown) within the Williams fire.

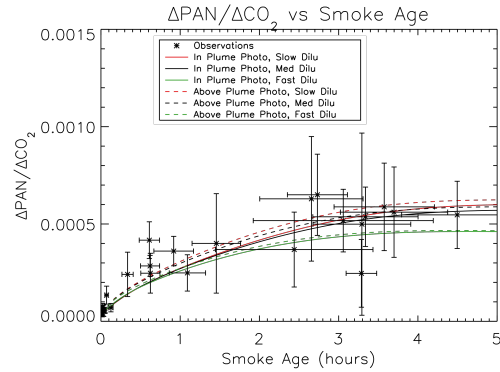


Fig. 5. Enhancement ratio (mol/mol) of PAN to CO<sub>2</sub> versus estimated smoke age.

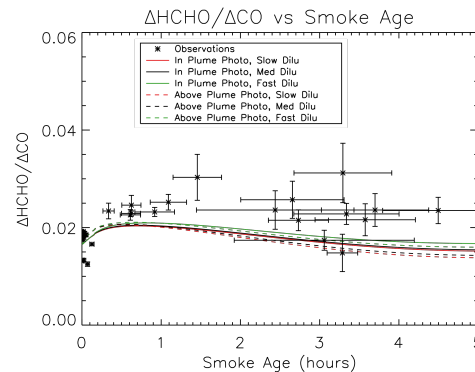
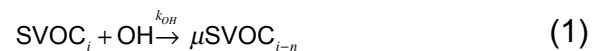


Fig. 6. Enhancement ratio (mol/mol) of HCHO to CO versus estimated smoke age.

#### 4.3 Impact of SVOC Chemistry on SOA and O<sub>3</sub> formation

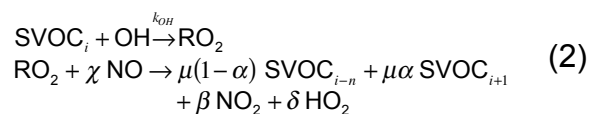
Above, we assumed that the SVOCs emitted by the fire were unreactive. In fact, like most organic compounds, SVOCs will react with OH. Most mechanisms for this chemistry (e.g., Robinson et al., 2007; Grieshop et al., 2009; Ahmadov et al., 2012) assume that the SVOCs react with OH to form a lower volatility SVOC, as in the equation:



where  $\mu$  is the relative mass gain from O addition,  $k_{\text{OH}}$  is the reaction rate with OH, and  $n$  is how many factors of 10 to lower the saturation mass concentration ( $C^*$ , see Robinson et al., 2007) of the product.

However, in reality after reaction with OH SVOCs produce peroxy radicals (RO<sub>2</sub>), which can react with NO to form NO<sub>2</sub> and HO<sub>2</sub>, thereby

regenerating OH and forming O<sub>3</sub>. Equation 2 shows this more general chemical mechanism:



where  $\alpha$  is the fraction of RO<sub>2</sub> radicals that fragment. We can see that  $\chi-\beta$  is the number of NO<sub>x</sub> lost,  $1-\delta$  is the number of HO<sub>x</sub> lost, and  $\beta+\delta$  is the number of O<sub>3</sub> made per reaction. Table 1 shows the values for the parameters in the various SVOC mechanisms evaluated in this study.

Figure 7 shows the modeled OA enhancement ratios using the mechanisms listed in Table 1. We can see that the best match with observations is for  $k_{\text{OH}} = 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}$ , as in Ahmadov et al. (2012). However, even this case overestimates the amount of OA observed, and a fragmentation fraction ( $\alpha$ ) of 0.5 is needed to match the observed decay of the OA enhancement ratio.

Table 1. SVOC chemistry parameters in the mechanisms studied here.

Mechanism	$k_{\text{OH}} \times 10^{11}$ ( $\text{cm}^3/\text{s}$ )	$\mu$	$n$	$\alpha$	$\chi$	$\beta$	$\delta$
Grieshop et al. (2009)	2.0	1.4	2	0	0	0	0
Robinson et al. (2007)	4.0	1.075	1	0	0	0	0
Ahmadov et al. (2012)	1.0	1.075	1	0	0	0	0
Ahmadov half frag.	1.0	1.075	1	.5	0	0	0
Ahmadov + NO <sub>x</sub> half frag.	1.0	1.075	1	.5	1	.65	.6

However, neglecting the chemistry of the peroxy radical, as in Eq. 1, leads to substantial underestimates of O<sub>3</sub>, PAN, and OH. For example, using the Ahmadov et al. (2012) scheme reduces  $\Delta\text{O}_3/\Delta\text{CO}_2$  to  $4.7 \times 10^{-3}$  at 4 to 4.5 hours, much lower than the observed value of  $7.3(\pm 1.6) \times 10^{-3}$  (Akagi et al., 2012). This is because including Eq. 1 in ASP leads to a loss of OH with no corresponding regeneration of HO<sub>2</sub> or conversion of NO to NO<sub>2</sub>, reducing O<sub>3</sub> production.

Including the more realistic chemistry of Eq. 2 allows ASP to simultaneously simulate the observed changes in OA and O<sub>3</sub> by making reasonable assumptions about the chemistry of the SVOC "soup" emitted by the fire. For the Williams Fire, we find that the observed secondary O<sub>3</sub> formation is consistent with 1.25 O<sub>3</sub> formed per molecule of SVOC reacted, and that the best match with the observed decay of C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> is given by assuming that 60% of the OH reacted is

regenerated as HO<sub>2</sub> by the reaction of RO<sub>2</sub> with NO. However, this still underestimates the rate of decay of C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> within the smoke plume, due to an underestimate of the mean OH concentration ( $\sim 3.2 \times 10^6 \text{ molec}/\text{cm}^3$ , versus the observed value of  $5.3(\pm 1.0) \times 10^6 \text{ molec}/\text{cm}^3$ ).

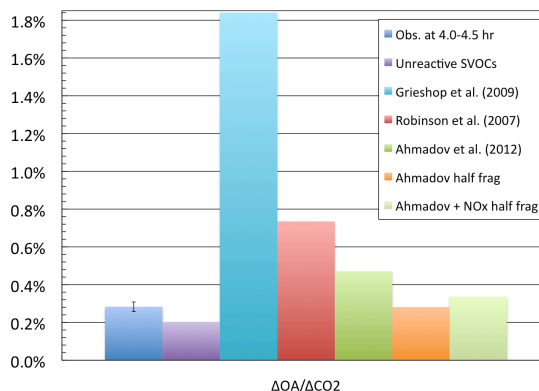


Fig. 7. Enhancement ratio (g/g) of organic aerosol (OA) to CO<sub>2</sub> after 4 to 4.5 hr of smoke aging.

## 5. TOWARD A SUB-GRID PARAMETERIZATION

We have begun to use the gas-phase results from ASP to simulate the sub-grid scale chemistry that takes place in smoke plumes within the GEOS-Chem model. Our initial plan is to use ASP to build a simple lookup table with three input variables: (1) fuel type, (2) temperature, and (3) beginning and ending solar zenith angles (SZA). The outputs will be enhancement ratios relative to CO (e.g.,  $\Delta\text{O}_3/\Delta\text{CO}$ ,  $\Delta\text{NO}_x/\Delta\text{CO}$ ,  $\Delta\text{PAN}/\Delta\text{CO}$ ) after 3 hours (although this timescale could be customized for finer scale models such as CMAQ), so that a simple multiplication by the biomass burning CO emissions within GEOS-Chem will give the "effective" emissions of these species after the sub-grid scale chemical processing has completed.

Tables 2 through 4 show some preliminary, example results from this work. Table 2 shows the enhancement ratios of O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, PAN, and inorganic nitrate (HNO<sub>3(g)</sub>+NO<sub>3(p)</sub>) for four different fuel types (savannah/grasslands, tropical forests, temperate forests, and boreal forests), all after 3 hours of aging with a constant SZA of 30° and constant temperature of 290 K. The base emission factors for each ecoregion are taken from Akagi et al. (2011) where available and from Andreae and Merlet (2001) otherwise. The initial concentrations in the plumes were normalized to give the same total mixing ratio of carbon in each plume – future work will explore the impact of environment and

fuel type on the initial plume concentrations. Tables 3 and 4 show the results for grassland smoke plumes for varying temperature and SZA, respectively.

Table 2. Enhancement ratios (mol/mol) after 3 h of aging at 290 K and SZA = 30°.

	Grassland /Savannah	Trop. Forest	Temp. Forest	Boreal Forest
$\Delta O_3/\Delta CO$	$1.2 \times 10^{-1}$	$1.1 \times 10^{-1}$	$1.5 \times 10^{-1}$	$3.7 \times 10^{-2}$
$\Delta NO_x/\Delta CO$	$3.6 \times 10^{-2}$	$5.6 \times 10^{-3}$	$4.5 \times 10^{-3}$	$3.2 \times 10^{-4}$
$\Delta PAN/\Delta CO$	$7.6 \times 10^{-3}$	$1.0 \times 10^{-2}$	$1.2 \times 10^{-2}$	$5.3 \times 10^{-3}$
$\Delta(\text{Inorg. NO}_3)/\Delta CO$	$1.9 \times 10^{-2}$	$1.2 \times 10^{-2}$	$1.0 \times 10^{-2}$	$3.2 \times 10^{-3}$

Table 3. Enhancement ratios (mol/mol) for grassland smoke after 3 h of aging at SZA of 10°.

	270 K	280 K	290 K	300 K
$\Delta O_3/\Delta CO$	$1.2 \times 10^{-1}$	$1.2 \times 10^{-1}$	$1.4 \times 10^{-1}$	$1.8 \times 10^{-1}$
$\Delta NO_x/\Delta CO$	$3.7 \times 10^{-2}$	$3.4 \times 10^{-2}$	$3.4 \times 10^{-2}$	$3.7 \times 10^{-2}$
$\Delta PAN/\Delta CO$	$8.0 \times 10^{-3}$	$8.6 \times 10^{-3}$	$8.1 \times 10^{-3}$	$5.2 \times 10^{-4}$
$\Delta(\text{Inorg. NO}_3)/\Delta CO$	$2.0 \times 10^{-2}$	$2.5 \times 10^{-2}$	$1.9 \times 10^{-2}$	$1.5 \times 10^{-2}$

Table 4. Enhancement ratios (mol/mol) for grassland smoke after 3 h of aging at 290 K.

	SZA = 0°	= 30°	= 60°	> 100°
$\Delta O_3/\Delta CO$	$1.4 \times 10^{-1}$	$1.2 \times 10^{-1}$	$6.8 \times 10^{-2}$	$-5.1 \times 10^{-2}$
$\Delta NO_x/\Delta CO$	$3.4 \times 10^{-2}$	$3.6 \times 10^{-2}$	$4.3 \times 10^{-2}$	$5.2 \times 10^{-2}$
$\Delta PAN/\Delta CO$	$8.2 \times 10^{-3}$	$7.6 \times 10^{-3}$	$6.1 \times 10^{-3}$	$2.0 \times 10^{-4}$
$\Delta(\text{Inorg. NO}_3)/\Delta CO$	$1.9 \times 10^{-2}$	$1.9 \times 10^{-2}$	$1.8 \times 10^{-2}$	$5.9 \times 10^{-3}$

The preliminary results generally follow expectations. Secondary O<sub>3</sub> production is higher for higher temperatures and lower SZAs, and boreal forests (which have a low NO<sub>x</sub>/VOC emission ratio) have substantially less O<sub>3</sub> production than other fires under similar environmental conditions. However, temperate forests are predicted to have a higher O<sub>3</sub> formation than grasslands, which is inconsistent with field observations, and more work is needed to explain the discrepancy. The secondary production of PAN and inorganic nitrate also increases with decreasing SZA, but tends to peak at moderate temperatures (~280 K). At night (SZA > 100°), the smoke plume becomes a sink of O<sub>3</sub>, as O<sub>3</sub> from the background air reacts with NO<sub>x</sub> and alkenes within the smoke plume.

## 6. CONCLUSIONS

We have used the ASP model to simulate the near-source chemistry within the smoke plume from the Williams fire, as sampled by Akagi et al. (2012). We find that the assumptions made about the chemistry of the unidentified SVOCs emitted by the fire have a large impact on the simulated secondary formation of O<sub>3</sub>, PAN, and OA within the plume. Specifically, neglecting the subsequent reaction of the peroxy radical (RO<sub>2</sub>, formed by reaction of the SVOC with OH) with NO will lead to underestimates in the simulated O<sub>3</sub> and PAN concentrations.

We show that reasonable assumptions about the chemistry of the SVOCs can successfully simulate the observations. For the Williams fire, these assumptions are: (1) a reaction rate constant with OH of  $\sim 10^{-11}$  cm<sup>3</sup>/s; (2) a significant fraction (~50%) of the RO<sub>2</sub> + NO reaction results in fragmentation, rather than functionalization; (3) ~1.25 molecules of O<sub>3</sub> are formed for every molecule of SVOC that reacts; and (4) 60% of the OH that reacts with the SVOC is regenerated as HO<sub>2</sub> by the RO<sub>2</sub> + NO reaction. Similar studies of other young biomass burning plumes would allow us to see how the chemistry of the SVOC “soup” varies with fuel type, combustion efficiency, and other environmental parameters, providing an additional constraint on the reactivities of the unidentified SVOCs.

We have also presented preliminary results from our work to use the ASP model to develop a sub-grid parameterization of the chemistry within young smoke plumes for inclusion in larger chemical transport models. Our current approach focuses on determining how fuel type, temperature, and SZA impact the formation of O<sub>3</sub>, inorganic nitrate, PAN and other organic nitrates within the smoke plume. Future work will evaluate the sensitivity of these formation rates to other environmental parameters (e.g., plume dilution rates) and incorporate these relationships into GEOS-Chem.

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