



2256-25

Workshop on Aerosol Impact in the Environment: from Air Pollution to Climate Change

8 - 12 August 2011

Aerosol processing in the atmosphere: emissions, dynamics and deposition

E. Vignatti Inst. for Environment & Sustainability Ispra Italy Aerosol processes in the atmosphere: emissions, dynamics and deposition

Elisabetta Vignati

Joint Research Centre Institute for Environment and Sustainability Ispra, Italy

Trieste, 8-12 August 2011

Aerosols

definition

Volume of air that contains particles in suspension, in liquid or solid phase

Aerosol dynamics

Nucleation
Condensation/Evaporation
Coagulation







Nucleation



Nucleation

- Phase transformation of substances from the gaseous to the liquid or solid phase
 In 1897 first evidences of particle formation in the atmosphere, but only around 2000 instrumentation to quantitatively measure it appeared
 Two important phases in the new particle formation: the nucleation itself, and the growth in dimention to a size that can be
 - observed

Where were new particles observed?



Particle formation takes place:

 During daytime, suggesting that photochemistry plays an important role

 In presence of only a few pre-existent particles



 In presence of a large source of precursor vapour, photochemical or of biogenic origin



 Sometimes at low temperatures

What is the formation rate of new particles in the atmosphere? At regional scale tipically: 0.01-10 $cm^{-3}s^{-1}$ ■ Up to 100 cm⁻³s⁻¹ in urban areas ■ Up to 10⁴-10⁵ cm⁻³s⁻¹ in coastal zones and industrial plumes

Nucleation types

- Nucleation of a single species (homogeneous-homomolecular)
- Nucleation of two or more species (homogeneous-heteromolecular)

 Nucleation of a single species onto another substance (heterogeneoushomomolecular)

 Nucleation of two or more species onto another substance (heterogeneousheteromolecular)

Nucleation mechanism

Vapour A at <u>saturation</u>

molecule= monomers cluster

mean cluster concentration is stable presence of larger clusters is rare

Nucleation mechanism Vapour A at <u>supersaturation</u> there is an excess of monomers compared to saturation a larger number of larger clusters is produced some may then grow beyond a certain critical dimension to give rise to a new phase

The suspected couple: H₂SO₄-H₂O

Sulphuric acid and water constitute the cluster

Other compounds stabilise them and make them grow





pure sulfuric acid

k_{map} ≈ 10²...10⁶ s⁻¹



water

small stabilization

Kerminen et al., 2010

Measured characteristics of the couple Binary nucleation taking place most of all in free troposphere and in industrial plumes,...)

Measured formation rate vs sulphuric acid (Brus et al. 2010)

Dipendence on relative humidity









Why we do not understand the mechanism yet

- Critical clusters are too small and cannot be measured
- We cannot measure directly the nucleation rate, but only a "formation" rate of particles with larger diameters
- Theoretically we derive a relation between nucleation rate of cluster and the "formation" rate of measurable particles

nucleation



increase of dimension

Observable particle

formation

Cluster, not observable



Formulation of candidate mechanisms for particle formation:

$J_2 = A[H_2SO_4],$	(4)
$J_2 = K \left[\mathrm{H}_2 \mathrm{SO}_4 \right]^2,$	(5)
$J_2 = A_{\rm org} [{\rm NucOrg}],$	(6)
$J_2 = K_{\rm org} [{\rm NucOrg}]^2$,	(7)
$J_2 = A_{s1} [H_2 SO_4] + A_{s2} [NucOrg],$	(8)
$J_2 = K_{\text{het}} [H_2 SO_4] \times [NucOrg],$	(9)
$J_2 = K_{\text{SA1}} \left[\text{H}_2 \text{SO}_4 \right]^2 + K_{\text{SA2}} \left[\text{H}_2 \text{SO}_4 \right] \times \left[\text{NucOrg} \right],$	(10)
$J_2 = K_{s1} \left[\text{H}_2 \text{SO}_4 \right]^2 + K_{s2} \left[\text{H}_2 \text{SO}_4 \right] \times \left[\text{NucOrg} \right]$	
$+K_{s3}$ [NucOrg] ² ,	(11)

None works in	
all tested environm	ents!

Mechanisms different depending on the conditions!

Large uncertainties in observations

Coagulation



Coagulation

It is the process by which particles collide among them due to their relative motion and adhere to form a larger particle

Thermal coagulation – brownian motion

 Cinematic coagulation – external actions: gravity, electric forces, aerodynamical effects



Brownian motion = irregular motion of a particle in the steady air, caused by random variations in the continuous bombing of the gas molecules against particle





 $n(r_1), n(r_2) =$ number concentration of particles with radius r_1 and r_2 $K_{1,2} =$ coagulation coefficient



Symmetric matrix

- Minimum values along the diagonal line
- Maximum values for coagulation of a very small particle with a very large one



How does coagulation affect particle number?



... and effects on number size distribution?



Condensation



Condensation regimes

r < mean molecular path Particle grow is determined by the rate of random collisions with the gas molecules (cinetic regime)



 \bigcirc

r > mean molecular path
 Particle grow is determined by the rate
 of gas molecule diffusione to the particle
 surface
 (continuous regime)

If the particle is not in equilibrium with the surrounding gas, a mass flux between the particle and the gas starts How do we model condensation (evaporation) to a particle?

The flux of a gas that condenses on a particle of radius r (for both kinetic and continuous regimes):



- **D**_m = molecular diffusion coefficient
- v = molecular thermal velocity
- Δ = can be the molecular mean path
- r = particle radius
- α = accomodation coefficient (0 $\leq \alpha \leq 1$)
- C_{∞} = gas concentration
- C_s = gas concentration at particle surface

Nucleation and condensation are competing guys





Nucleation without pre-existing particles

Nucleation in presence of pre-existing particles

Nucleation is less efficient!!! Condensation subtracts gas

Emissions of primary particles

Black carbon Organic Carbon Sea salt Dust

Black carbon

 Large scale biomass burming: × 3 TgC yr-1

 Anthropogenic sources (fossil and biofuels):
 Sources (fossil)

- ≈ 5.4 TgC yr-1
- A) Domestic use
- B) Road transport
- c) Industry



Uncertainty of a factor of 2

Organic Carbon Large scale biomass burning: ≈ 34.7 Tg yr-1 Anthropogenic sources (fossil and biofuels): ≈ 19.1 Tg yr-1 Domestic use A) Road transport B) Industry C)



Uncertainty of a factor of 2

Sea Salt

Mechanism of production

Air entrainment



Film droplet injection Jet droplet injection

Bubble bursting



(Schwarz and Lewis, 2004)



Dust

Tegen et al., 2002

Mechanism of production: soil deflation from bare surface when wind exceeds a certain threshold

 from dust potential sources (using vegetation maps, dust grain types, low surface roughness,...)







Types of removals

<u>Dry deposition</u>: Transport of particles from the atmosphere onto surfaces when precipitation is not present

<u>Wet deposition</u>: Process by which particles are removed by cloud (and fog) droplets, rain and snow and transported on Earth's surface;

divided in:

- In-cloud scavenging
- Below-cloud scavenging



Dry removal

 Not practical to implement a formulation of all microphysical processes that lead particles from the atmosphere to the surface
 Most used formulation

$$F = -v_d C$$

F = dry deposition flux; v_d deposition velocity; C concentration

Dry removal

$$F = -v_d C$$

 $F = dry deposition flux; v_d deposition velocity; C concentration$

F = material deposited per unit of surface and time

C is given a certain height and v_d as well

Advantages! All processes are represented with v_d

Disadvantages! It is difficult to correctly represent all processes with V_d

Dry deposition: 3 step process

Aerodynamic transport through the surface layer

Dry deposition: 3 step process

Brownian transport through stagnant quasi-laminar sublayer

Dry deposition: 3 step process

Uptake at the surface

Resistant model for dry dep.

In analogy with electrical resistance:

$$v_d^{-1} = r_t = r_a + r_b + r_c$$

$$v_d = \frac{1}{r_a + r_b + r_c} + v_s$$

 v_s = particle settling velocity







Wet removal

One of the most complex process to model; for aerosols is the most uncertain:

- various phases (aerosol, aqueous, cloudwater, rain, snow, ice cristal,...)
- aerosol particles, cloud droplets, rain droplets, with their size distributions
- clouds are a sub-grid scale phenomena
- processes are reversible: cloud droplets may evaporate and release the particle

In-cloud scavenging
 Particles can be incorporated into cloud droplets (and rain droplets) inside a cloud by
 Homogeneous nucleation

collection

Cloud Condensation Nuclei (CCN)

Cloud droplet

Removal of particles in models:

Scavenging parameter R:

$$\frac{\Delta C}{\Delta t} \propto R, f_{cl}, C, \dots$$

C = aerosol concentration; f_{cl} = cloud fraction

Stier et al.: The Aerosol-Climate Model ECHAM5-HAM

Mode	Stratiform	Stratiform	Stratiform	Convective
	Liquid Clouds	Mixed Clouds	Ice clouds	Mixed Clouds
Nucleation Soluble	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.20
Aitken Soluble	0.25	0.40	0.10	0.60
Accumulation Soluble	0.85	0.75	0.10	0.99
Coarse Soluble	0.99	0.75	0.10	0.99
Aitken Insoluble	0.20	0.10	0.10	0.20
Accumulation Insoluble	0.40	0.40	0.10	0.40
Coarse Insoluble	0.40	0.40	0.10	0.40

Table 3. Scavenging parameter R for the modes of HAM

6

Below cloud scavenging

Removal by precipitation of particles below cloud base by impaction, diffusion,

How do we model it?

$$\frac{\Delta C}{\Delta t} \propto R_r, R_s, f_{precipitation}, C, \dots$$

C = aerosol concentration; $f_{precipitation}$ = fraction of gridbox affected by precipitation; R = scavenging efficiency for rain and snow

Rain droplet size distribution

Aerosol size distribution

For rainfall intensity of 1 mm h⁻¹



Seinfeld and Pandis, 1998

Thank you!!!

elisabetta.vignati@jrc.ec.europa.eu