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Supplemental Report



SOURCES, ABUNDANCE, AND FATE
OF GASEOUS ATMOSPHERIC POLLUTANTS
SUPPLEMENT

Prepared for:

AMERICAN PETROLEUM INSTITUTE
1271 AVENUE OF THE AMERICAS
NEW YORK, N. Y. 10020

Attention: MR. W. A. BURHOUSE
ASSISTANT DIRECTOR

ERRATA SHEETS

Sources, Abundance, and Fate of Gaseous Atmospheric Pollutants
Project PR-6755, Supplemental Report

Replacements for Figure 14, page 62 *replaced*
and Figure 15, page 63 *replaced*
Page 68, lines 5 and 6 should read "...14.6 x 10¹² g/yr NO₂-N."
Page 68, lines 8 and 9 should read "...Figure 15...501 x 10⁸ tons/yr."



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EXH III - 1



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June 1969

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SRI Project PR-6755

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PREFACE

As indicated by the title, this report is a supplement to our February 1968 report, "Sources, Abundance, and Fate of Gaseous Atmospheric Pollutants." For those having copies of the 1968 report, we wish to point out that the sections on carbon dioxide and carbon monoxide in this Supplemental Report are complete and can be substituted for similar sections in the earlier report. The supplemental data on nitrogen compounds are essentially the presentation of a new nitrogen cycle and the necessary supporting information. The information on sulfur compounds extends that included in the earlier report.

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I INTRODUCTION

In 1968 we published a comprehensive report, "Source, Abundance, and Fate of Gaseous Atmospheric Pollutants" (Robinson and Robbins, 1968),* that examined the present state of knowledge of the atmospheric cycles of a number of common gaseous air pollutants. In particular, this prior report covered in detail sulfur compounds, nitrogen compounds, organics, and carbon monoxide. A brief discussion of carbon dioxide was also presented. The pattern followed in the study included an analysis of emissions from the major natural and urban pollution sources, an estimation of the effectiveness of applicable atmospheric reaction processes, and a determination of the nature and effectiveness of the scavenging processes by which the material is finally removed from the atmosphere. The emissions and scavenging processes were considered on a global basis in contrast to a United States-only basis that is used in many discussions of air pollution. This earlier study was in a number of ways a new approach to considering air pollutants, especially in our integration of both natural and urban emissions as sources of the materials found in the atmosphere.

During the preparation of the previous analysis, there were several questions that, because of available time, were not covered in the detail that seemed desirable after the report was prepared. Thus, this supplemental analysis and report have been undertaken. This present report provides a more detailed analysis of the atmospheric buildup of CO₂, a newer analysis of the question of CO concentrations, another look at the atmospheric cycle of nitrogen compounds, and an analysis of the implications

* Subsequently referred to as (1).

of atmospheric trace chemistry differences in the northern and southern hemispheres.

We will point out in the present report, as we did in the previous one, that scavenging mechanisms exist in the natural environment for all of the gaseous pollutants that we are considering. These scavenging mechanisms have a direct bearing on the question of long term accumulations of pollutants in the atmosphere. However, these scavenging mechanisms do not operate fast enough to provide solutions for local urban air pollution situations. In fact, the existence of an air pollution situation is evidence that the available scavenging mechanisms have been overburdened by the local emission rates.

II SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This reevaluation of natural and urban gaseous pollutants has added to the completeness of our previous report, especially in the case of CO₂ emissions.

For CO₂ emissions it is clear that atmospheric CO₂ concentrations are increasing at a rate of about 0.7 ppm per year and that the present concentration of about 320 ppm is about 10% higher than pre-1900 concentrations. The increase in atmospheric CO₂ represents about half the CO₂ produced by combustion sources since 1900. On the basis of current projections of fuel usage, CO₂ emissions in the year 2000 would be almost three times the estimated 1965 rate and would result in a 16% increase in atmospheric concentrations, to a level of 370 ppm.

Estimates of the impact that increased CO₂ might have on the global environment are difficult to make because of the complexity of the global atmospheric system. An increase in mean atmospheric temperature is possible because of the absorption of infrared radiation by CO₂, but the translation of this absorption into an atmospheric effect is difficult. The simple conclusion that an increase in absorbed radiation would provide more heat and melt the ice caps does not seem justified. It might be expected that the effect of additional CO₂ would be to cause some changes in the global atmospheric circulations, but what sort of changes and their results in terms of weather are not evident at this time.

The discussion of CO in the atmosphere has been revised extensively on the basis of newly available experimental data. One factor that seems clearly evident is that there is a natural source of CO in the ocean. The total contribution from this source is still unknown, but it could be a

significant fraction of the pollutant emissions. No new data on possible CO scavenging mechanisms are available and no cycle for CO has been postulated.

More detailed evaluations of SO₂ emissions were made. It is estimated that 93% of the SO₂ pollutants are emitted in the northern hemisphere. On a historical basis, SO₂ emissions doubled between about 1905 and 1940, and again between 1940 and 1965. In the year 2000, SO₂ emissions are estimated to be about 330 x 10⁶ tons per year if significant changes do not occur in the amount of emission control applied to SO₂ sources. On a global basis, pollutant emissions of sulfur, as SO₂, may exceed the natural sources of sulfur compounds about 1990.

We have also reevaluated the atmospheric nitrogen cycle. This new evaluation includes allowances for some increases in the natural emissions of NO and decreases in the deposition rates for NH₄ and NO₃ aerosols. The result of these new calculations is a nitrogen cycle postulation in which there is no need for an atmospheric reaction forming nitrate from NH₃ as was required in the previous evaluation of the nitrogen cycle. No candidate reactions could be found for such a process. Thus the new estimate seems to be a major step ahead.

On the basis of this supplemental study, some changes have been made in our summary tabulation of atmospheric trace gas sources, concentrations, and reactions. A revised summary tabulation is given in Table I.

A critical evaluation of this study of atmospheric trace gases would doubtless point out that most conclusions are based on the barest minima of data. This cannot be helped at this time because the necessary data are not available. New information on atmospheric conditions is needed.

Table 1
SUMMARY OF SOURCES, CONCENTRATIONS AND MAJOR REACTIONS OF ATMOSPHERIC TRACE GASES (June 1969)*

CONTAMINANT	MAJOR POLLUTION SOURCES	NATURAL SOURCES	ESTIMATED EMISSIONS		ATMOSPHERIC BACKGROUND CONCENTRATIONS	CALCULATED ATMOSPHERIC HALF-LIFE TIME	REMOVAL MECHANISMS AND SINKS	PRINCIPAL REFERENCES	REMARKS
			Pollution	Natural					
SO ₂	Combustion of coal and oil	Volcanoes	116 x 10 ⁶ tons	None	0.2 ppb	1 day	Oxidation to sulfate by ozone, or after absorption, by solid and liquid aerosols	Friskisson (1959, 1960, 1963) Junge (1963) Lodge and Pale (1966)	Photochemical oxidation with SO ₂ and H ₂ O may be the process needed to give rapid transformation of SO ₂ to SO ₄
H ₂ S	Chemical processes, sewage treatment	Volcanoes, biological actions in swamp areas	3 x 10 ⁶ tons	100 x 10 ⁶ tons	0.2 ppb	2 days	Oxidation to SO ₂	Junge (1963) Smith et al. (1961)	Only one set of background concentrations available
CO	Auto exhaust and other combustion	Forest fires, volcanic actions, (kennas?)	271 x 10 ⁶ tons	75 x 10 ¹⁰ tons	0.1 ppm	< 3 yr	None known, but large sink necessary	Bates and Witherspoon (1962) Robbins (1968, 1969)	Ocean contributions to natural source probably low
NO ₂	Combustion	Bacterial action in soil (?)	53 x 10 ⁶ tons	430 x 10 ⁶ tons NO ₂ 658 x 10 ⁶ tons	NO ₂ 0.2 - 2 ppb 0.5 - 1 ppb	5 days	Oxidation to nitrate after absorption by aerosols, hydrocarbon photochemical reactions	Junge (1963) Frylighton (1963) Lodge and Pale (1966) Rogers et al. (1968)	Very little work done on natural processes
NO	Waste treatment	Biological decay	1 x 10 ⁶ tons	1160 x 10 tons	6 ppb to 20 ppb	7 days	Reaction with SO ₂ to form (NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ , oxidation to nitrate	Friskisson (1952) Georgii (1963) Junge (1963) Lodge and Pale (1966)	No quantitative rate data on oxidation of NO to NO ₂ , which seems to be dominant process in atmosphere
N ₂ O	None	Biological action in soil	None	590 x 10 ⁶ tons	0.25 ppm	4 yr	None dissociation in stratosphere, biological action in soil	Bates and Huss (1967)	No information on proposed absorption of N ₂ O by vegetation
Hydrocarbons	Combustion emissions, chemical processes	Biological processes	88 x 10 ⁶ tons	80 x 10 ¹¹ tons	CH ₄ 1.5 ppm non CH ₄ < 1 ppb	In yr (CH ₄)	Photochemical reaction with NO/NO ₂ , large sink necessary for CH ₄	Bates and Witherspoon (1962) Pahlit (1967) Koyama (1967) Cavanagh et al. (1969)	"Reactive" hydrocarbon emissions from pollution = 27 x 10 ⁶ tons
CO ₂	Combustion	Biological decay, release from oceans	1.4 x 10 ¹⁰ tons	10 ¹¹ tons	320 ppm	2-4 yr	Biological absorption and photosynthesis, absorption in oceans	Revelle (1965) Keeling and Rasmussen (1959)	Atmospheric concentrations increasing by 0.7 ppm per year

*Printed with modifications from report of February, 1968

III CARBON DIOXIDE IN THE ATMOSPHERE

A. Introduction

Air pollution analyses are typically concerned with compounds that are only present in the atmosphere in low concentrations and that pose well-recognized adverse reactions. This generality does not hold for the most commonly emitted pollutant, carbon dioxide. Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is an integral factor in the life cycle of the earth itself. At present, even though pollutant emissions of CO₂ are very great, the amount of CO₂ that is cycled through the biosphere is much greater, and there are several logical explanations as to why CO₂ is often neglected when pollutant emissions are tabulated.

As far as air pollution control is concerned, CO₂ is so common and such an integral part of all our activities that air pollution regulations typically state that CO₂ emissions are not to be considered as pollutants. This is perhaps fortunate for our present mode of living, centered as it is around carbon combustion. However, this seeming necessity, the CO₂ emission, is the only air pollutant, as we shall see, that has been shown to be of global importance as a factor that could change man's environment on the basis of a long period of scientific investigation. Because of this obvious relation, we believe that any discussion of atmospheric pollutants should also include a discussion of CO₂.

The possibility that changes in atmospheric CO₂ could change world climate is not a new idea. It was first proposed independently in America by Chamberlain in 1899 and in Sweden by S. Arrhenius in 1903. Since then CO₂ and possible geophysical effects have been the source of much discussion and investigation. At present, while we know a great deal more

about the problem, we still cannot quantitatively evaluate the impact of the accumulation of CO₂ in the atmosphere in terms of climatic change. Considerable research is under way in a number of laboratories on this problem, however.

As a basis for our discussion, the essential features of the CO₂ pollution problem can be briefly outlined. First, CO₂ emissions are extremely large and there has been for many years a gradual increase in atmospheric CO₂ concentrations. Second, although there are sinks for CO₂ in both the marine and biospheric environments, none of them is capable of counterbalancing the increasing pollutant emissions. Third, the impact of CO₂ on the environment is through its interaction with the earth's radiation balance. This is a very complex relationship, and the magnitude of possible environmental changes due to CO₂ are not now clearly defined.

B. Atmospheric Carbon Dioxide Emissions

Carbon dioxide is present in the uncontaminated atmosphere at an average concentration of about 320 ppm. The source is the oxidation of carbonaceous materials in processes of respiration by both plants and animals, decay of organic materials, and the combustion of organic fuels. If there were no sinks for CO₂ it would obviously continue to increase; however, at least until recently, there was a balance between the release of CO₂ and the consumption of CO₂--by photosynthesis in plants, and by the formation of calcium carbonate. This balance between environmental sources and sinks has been disturbed by the emission to the atmosphere of additional CO₂ from the increased combustion of carbonaceous fuels.

The amount of CO₂ emitted from pollution sources can be estimated on the basis of the carbon content of the fuel. Table II is an estimate of CO₂ emissions based on estimates of 1965 fuel usage. The total is 14.08×10^9 tons (12.8×10^{15} g). More than half the total CO₂ results

Table II

ESTIMATED GLOBAL CO₂ EMISSIONS BASED ON 1965 FUEL USAGE

Fuel	Usage	CO ₂ Factor	CO ₂ Emission (tons)
Coal, lignite, etc.	$3,074 \times 10^6$ T	4,770 lb/T	7.33×10^9
Petroleum			
Gasoline	379×10^6 T		
Kerosene	100×10^6		
Fuel oil	287×10^6		
Residual oil	507×10^6		
	$1,273 \times 10^6$ T	6,320 lb/T	4.03×10^9
Natural gas	20.56×10^{12} ft ³	0.116 lb/ft ³	1.19×10^9
Waste incineration	500×10^6 T	1,830 lb/T	0.46×10^9
Wood fuel	466×10^6 T	2,930 lb/T	0.68×10^9
Forest fires	324×10^6 T	2,380 lb/T	0.39×10^9
Total			14.08×10^9 T (12.8×10^{15} g)

from coal and other solid fuels; petroleum combustion produces about 30% of the total; and natural gas less than 10%. The remainder is due to miscellaneous forms of combustion; forest fires, incineration of wastes, etc.

On the basis of the fact that the major commercial fossil fuels--coal, petroleum, and gas--account for 89% of the estimated total, it is possible to estimate the change in emission rates over the past 100 years. Figure 1 shows such an estimate based on decade averages for fuel consumption for the period 1860-1960 (Revelle, 1965). These data are lower estimates of

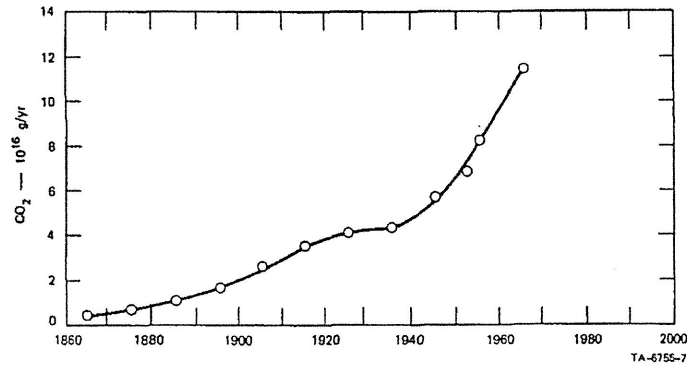


FIGURE 1 AVERAGE CO₂ EMISSIONS TO THE ATMOSPHERE FROM FOSSIL FUEL COMBUSTION. Decade Average Data 1860-1960.

the CO₂ emissions because they do not take into consideration considerable amounts of so-called noncommercial fuels--wood, wood waste, bagasse, etc. In 1952 these fuels accounted for an estimated emission of 1.4×10^{15} g of CO₂ (UN, 1956). In earlier years the per capita consumption of these fuels was undoubtedly greater, but estimates of total usage are not available. However, even if the 19th century data are low because of unaccounted for fuel, there is still no doubt that there has been a significant increase in the atmospheric emissions in the past 100 years. The increase has probably been between 6 and 10 times.

Over the period covered by Figure 1 the total production of CO₂ from fossil fuel combustion has amounted to 32.44×10^{16} g (Revelle, 1965). This is equal to 13.5% of the total CO₂ in the atmosphere, which was estimated from 1957 to 1959 data by Takahashi (1961) to be 2.41×10^{18} g.

C. Atmospheric Carbon Dioxide Concentrations

As previously mentioned, the present estimate of the average CO₂ concentration in the atmosphere is 320 ppm. Fluctuations about this average are quite large, depending on the nature of nearby sources and sinks. For

example, during the growing season, concentrations decrease because plants use up CO₂ during photosynthesis.

One of the initial investigators of the possibility of CO₂ changes in the atmosphere was Callendar (1940). In 1958 he published an analysis of historical CO₂ measurements covering the period from 1870 to 1955 (Callendar, 1958). His results are shown in Figure 2 and indicate a 19th century CO₂ base concentration of about 290 ppm. This value is generally accepted as a reasonable approximation of the CO₂ concentration in the undisturbed atmosphere.

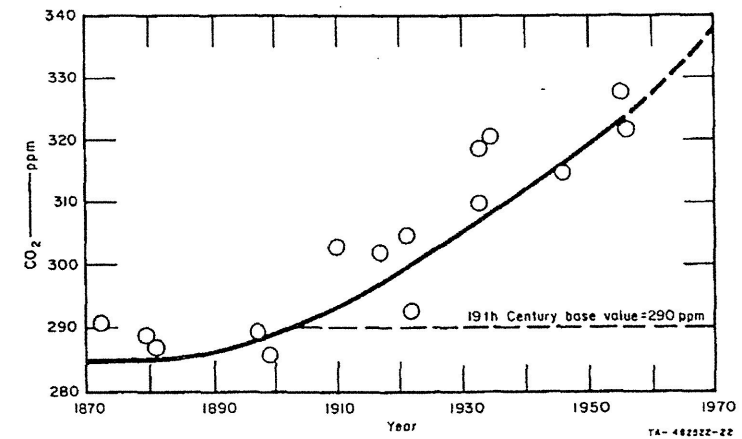


FIGURE 2 AVERAGE CO₂ CONCENTRATION IN NORTH ATLANTIC REGION, 1870-1956. G. S. Callendar, *Tellus* 10, 243 (1958)

Figures 3 and 4 show CO₂ concentration data from Mauna Loa, Hawaii for the 6-year period 1958-1963 (Pales and Keeling, 1965). These data have been screened to eliminate local biasing, and the results should represent average conditions in the northern hemisphere over this time.

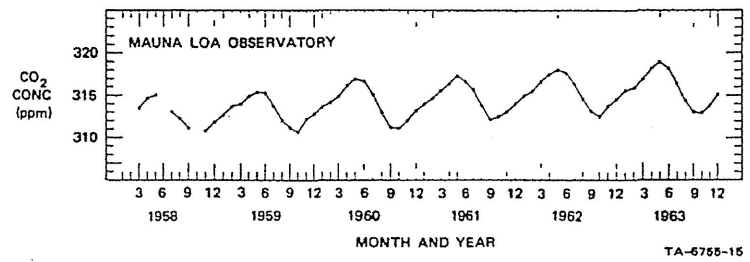


FIGURE 3 MONTHLY AVERAGE CONCENTRATION OF ATMOSPHERIC CO₂ AT MAUNA LOA OBSERVATORY VERSUS TIME. Pales, J. C., and C. D. Keeling, J. Geophys. Res. 70, 6066, 1965.

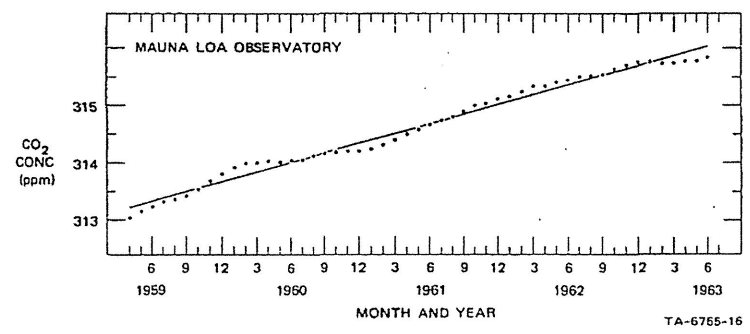


FIGURE 4 TWELVE-MONTH RUNNING MEAN OF THE CONCENTRATION OF ATMOSPHERIC CO₂ AT MAUNA LOA OBSERVATORY. Means are plotted versus the sixth month of the appropriate 12-month interval. The straight line indicates a rate of increase of 0.68 ppm/yr. (Pales, J. C., and C. D. Keeling, J. Geophys. Res. 70, 6066, 1965)

period. Figure 3 shows clearly the annual cycle of CO₂ concentrations, with maximum concentrations occurring in the late spring and minimums in the fall. A gradual trend toward rising concentrations is identifiable in Figure 3, but Figure 4, which is a plot of the 12-month running mean concentration, shows the upward trend much more clearly. As shown by Figure 4, the CO₂ concentration has increased from about 313.3 ppm for the 12 months before June 1959 to a concentration of 315.9 ppm for the 12 months before June 1963. The straight line fitted to the data of Figure 4 indicates an annual rate of increase of 0.68 ppm.

There is an apparent difference of several ppm between these Hawaiian data and the 1955 results reported by Callendar in Figure 2. This difference is probably due to various local effects resulting from land-based sampling in the case of Callendar's data. The Hawaiian data and other similar observations from locations where good exposure to the free atmosphere is attainable probably most nearly represent the present state of the well-mixed troposphere.

The rate of increase shown by the Mauna Loa data seems to be characteristic of global CO₂ concentrations. Bischof and Bolin (1966) show that Scandinavian data fit the postulated 0.7-ppm/yr rate obtained from the Mauna Loa data. Figure 5 shows average monthly data from the Antarctic for the period September 1957–November 1959 (Keeling, 1960). The rate of increase here is about 1 ppm/yr, which, considering the limited span of the data, seems to be comparable to the northern hemisphere data. The average 1959 Little America concentration of about 314 ppm is also comparable to the Mauna Loa average of 313.3 ppm indicated by Figure 4.

Around 1960, CO₂ concentrations were increasing by 0.7 ppm or 0.22% of a 315-ppm average concentration, and in this same period emissions from fossil fuel, as shown in Figure 1, were adding about 10¹⁶ g of CO₂ per year

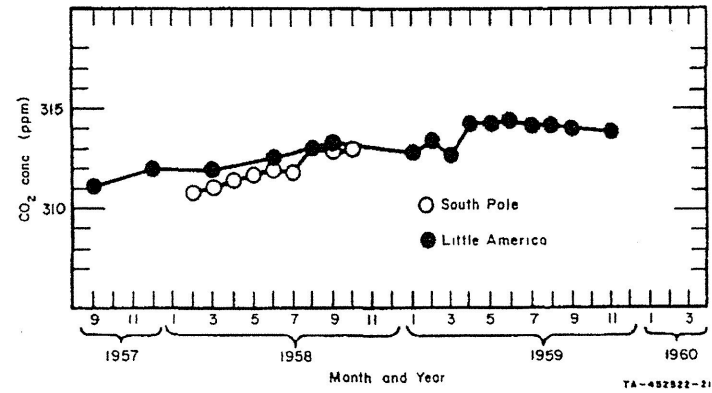


FIGURE 5 VARIATIONS IN CO₂ CONCENTRATIONS IN THE ANTARCTIC
C. D. Keeling, Tellus, 12, 200, 1960

to the atmosphere for a 0.42% rate of addition. Thus, it appears that very nearly half the CO₂ emitted to the atmosphere remains there. Revelle (1965) came to a similar conclusion.

The data on atmospheric CO₂ are quite voluminous and it is not possible to present them in detail in this discussion. However, the data indicate that any differences between the hemispheres are small and that there has been a readily detectable increase of CO₂ in the atmosphere. This increase was originally postulated on the basis of an analysis of 19th century measurements. The increase from a 19th century base of 290 ppm to a late-1960 average of about 320 ppm is 10%.

D. Scavenging Mechanisms for Atmospheric Carbon Dioxide

The previous discussion has mentioned that processes in the biosphere and the oceans act to maintain an equilibrium situation between the atmosphere, the biosphere, and the oceans.

In the biosphere, photosynthesis removes CO₂ from the atmosphere and forms plant carbon. The ultimate fate of most of this carbon is deposition as litter and humus followed by decay and the rerelease of CO₂ to the atmosphere. Thus, the cycle is completed.

Detailed studies of the relationship between atmospheric CO₂ and the biosphere have been made. Lieth (1963) pointed out that the exchange between the atmosphere and the biosphere is very intensive through the two processes of assimilation and respiration. The total amount of carbon uptake by land plants has been estimated for 10° latitude belts by Junge and Czeplak (1968) using data developed by Lieth (1965). These data, in terms of a global distribution of CO₂ uptake, are given in Table III. The total annual rate of CO₂ vegetation uptake is 141 x 10¹⁵ g, with 83 x 10¹⁵ g or 59% occurring in the northern hemisphere. If vegetation uptake were the only scavenging mechanism for the 2.41 x 10¹⁸ g of CO₂ in the atmosphere, the residence or turnover time for CO₂ would be 17 years. This estimate is based on the estimate of the total vegetation production capacity of the world shown in Table III. In many references the CO₂ residence time resulting from vegetation scavenging is often given as being about 30 years and this represents understandable variations in estimates of the total production of the biosphere.

Table III
TOTAL CO₂ UPTAKE BY LAND PLANTS*
(10¹⁵ grams/year)

Latitude(°)	0-10	10-20	20-30	30-40	40-50	50-60	60-70	70-90
Northern hemisphere	23.5	14.3	11.7	9.2	10.3	9.2	4.8	0
Southern hemisphere	26.4	18.0	8.8	4.0	0.7	0	0	0

* References: Junge and Czeplak (1968); Lieth (1965).

It is obvious that there is considerable variation in CO₂ production and uptake rates within various vegetation communities. For example, Lieth (1963) estimates that a tropical forest in Malaya has an annual productivity equivalent to 37.5 metric tons of CO₂, and that this is equivalent to a turnover time for the CO₂ above this tropical forest of 0.8 years. A similar estimate for a forest in Europe resulted in an annual productivity rate equivalent to 15 metric tons of CO₂ and a CO₂ turnover time of two years.

Although the biosphere is important in the CO₂ cycle, the role of the ocean in the CO₂ cycle has long been recognized as the dominant one, and various estimates of the average atmospheric residence time for CO₂ relative to the uptake rate of the oceans have been calculated. Some of the more detailed calculations have been made by Young and Fairhall (1968) using data on bomb-produced C¹⁴. If only the troposphere is considered, their estimate is that the CO₂ uptake rate of the ocean is sufficient to give a mean residence time of CO₂ in the atmosphere of 2.5 years. This average value is made up of two residence times, 3.9 years for the northern hemisphere and 1.9 years for the southern hemisphere.

This mean tropospheric residence time of 2.5 years and the tropospheric CO₂ mass of 202 x 10¹⁶ g, 84% of the atmospheric total, indicates a global oceanic uptake rate of 81 x 10¹⁶ g/year. If this is the only sink for the CO₂ in the stratosphere as well as the troposphere, an average atmospheric CO₂ residence time of three years is indicated. Other calculations for the CO₂ atmospheric residence time have varied from less than two years to about 20 years (Young and Fairhall, 1968).

Within the ocean, CO₂ is consumed in the growth of marine plants and animals just as it is in the biosphere. The production of CO₂ during the decay of this material is a major source of both atmospheric and marine

CO₂. The CO₂ that is used by marine organisms is primarily used to build the organic mass of the organism, but part of the CO₂ is used to generate shells and other calcareous material.

Biological activity including CO₂ takes place for the most part in the upper 50 to 100 m of the ocean. This is the mixed layer. However, obviously as these organisms die there is considerable settling of material out of the mixed layer and into the deep water layer. This settling action is a major sink for carbon and thus for atmospheric CO₂ because the deep water is essentially isolated from the atmosphere. The mixing time for the deep water has been estimated to be upwards of 500 years.

In the late 1950s there was considerable new scientific discussion about the secular increase of CO₂, as a result of published studies of atmospheric levels by a number of researchers, including Revelle and Suess (1957) and Callendar (1958), and predictions of resulting temperature changes in the atmosphere by Kaplan (1960), Plass (1959), and others. Initially in these discussions Callendar's (1949, 1958) estimate of about a 10% secular rise since 1900 in atmospheric CO₂ was discounted (see e.g., Revelle and Suess, 1957; or Slocum, 1955) primarily on the assumption that there would be relatively rapid exchange of CO₂ between the oceans and the atmosphere. Since CO₂ is highly soluble, one argument was that because the oceans are a reservoir of CO₂ that is very large compared with the atmosphere--about 60 times as much CO₂ is stored in the oceans as in the atmosphere--equilibrium between the ocean and the atmosphere would be achieved rapidly enough to minimize any significant atmospheric CO₂ accumulation due to combustion emissions. Initial data on C¹²/C¹⁴ relationships in the atmosphere and the oceans, the so-called "Suess effect," also indicated that combustion-derived CO₂ was not very significant in any change in atmospheric CO₂ levels (Revelle and Suess, 1957).

More information became available in the late 1950s, however, and the subsequent detailed analysis of the atmosphere-ocean system showed several important things relative to CO₂ buildup. First, IGY sampling data showed that Callendar's postulated increase of CO₂ was occurring and at a rate of about 0.7 ppm/year, as we have mentioned. Second, careful analysis of the ocean/atmosphere exchange processes indicated that only the relatively shallow mixed layer was important and that this layer provided very little in the way of storage to moderate any secular increase of atmospheric CO₂.

Bolin and Eriksson (1959) show that this low storage factor is due to a buffering mechanism set up in the sea by dissolved CO₂. It is related to the dissociation equilibrium between CO₂ and H₂CO₃ on the one hand and HCO₃⁻ and CO₃²⁻ ions on the other. The net result is that a 10% change in atmospheric CO₂, such as from 290 to 320 ppm, would be balanced by only a 1% increase in the CO₂ content of sea water. This buffering mechanism was originally pointed out by Revelle and Suess (1957), but it was unimportant in their analysis because in their ocean model it was applied to the whole volume of the ocean. Bolin and Eriksson (1959), using the more realistic two-layer model of the ocean, showed that when this buffering mechanism, acting in the mixed surface layer, was taken in account, there was good agreement between the observed and postulated CO₂ changes in the atmosphere due to fossil fuel combustion. They also showed that when changes in dissociation equilibrium resulting from CO₂ transfer were accounted for, C¹²/C¹⁴ ratios in the atmosphere and the oceans were in agreement with an increase in atmospheric CO₂ of about 10%.

Various authors have from time to time attempted to relate atmospheric CO₂ changes to various changes in the physical properties of the oceans or to changes in the biosphere. Eriksson (1963) made a comprehensive analysis of the possible changes in CO₂ that might result from

changes in oceanic conditions. His conclusion was that if the temperature of the oceans increases by 1°C, the atmospheric CO₂ increases by about 6%. If only the mixed layer of the ocean is considered, data given by Junge and Czeplak (1968) permit calculation of the effect of a limited temperature change of surface water. The result is that if the mixed layer alone increased in temperature by 1°C, the atmospheric CO₂ would increase by about 0.4%. We conclude with regard to recent increases in atmospheric CO₂ that any reasonable changes in oceanic temperatures could only result in local fluctuations in atmospheric CO₂ and not in any changes of global importance.

Other changes such as water volume, seawater chemistry, and variations in the marine biomass may also be discounted as contributors to short term changes in atmospheric CO₂ levels; although these factors may be significant factors in climatic changes over a geologic time scale (Eriksson, 1963).

Changes in the biosphere are also sometimes linked to changes in atmospheric CO₂. It is pointed out that vegetation responds with increased production under increased concentrations of CO₂ and that an increase in the mass of the biosphere could be a moderating influence on any increase in atmospheric CO₂. A rapid increase in the production rate of the biosphere could also cause an increase in atmospheric CO₂, at least until a new stable position was established. Data on the mass of material in the biosphere is relatively crude; however, it seems unlikely that the observed rise in atmospheric CO₂ has been due to changes in the biosphere.

E. Effects of Atmospheric Carbon Dioxide Concentrations

Our discussion has already indicated that atmospheric CO₂ concentrations are of concern because of the effect of atmospheric CO₂ on the radiation balance of the earth. The effect of CO₂ is a result of the interception of long-wave radiation from the earth's surface and its reradiation to the surface. Under the simplest set of assumptions for this situation the earth's surface reaches equilibrium at a higher temperature, and this is recorded as an increase in air temperature.

Under more realistic conditions, it is recognized that this situation is not a simple relationship. One of the major factors is an interaction between the CO₂ and water vapor in the atmosphere. Water vapor is significant because it also absorbs strongly in the infrared. Cloudiness, because it intercepts incoming radiation, is also an important parameter. However, the most important interaction is between the radiation regime and the general atmospheric circulation, since it is the circulation pattern that determines the weather.

One of the most detailed analyses of the temperature effect from CO₂ changes has been carried out by Manabe and Wetherald (1967). This model is based on an atmosphere that is in radiative convective equilibrium, and the model approaches the real situation by estimating temperature effects for the atmosphere itself instead of for the earth's surface as had prior models. In addition, previous models such as that used by Möller (1963) had usually been especially sensitive to some specific sets of conditions and produced very different end results with relatively minor changes in some critical assumptions. Manabe and Wetherald claim that this does not occur in their model, and thus they argue that they have probably come closer to approximating the real situation than have previous writers.

A number of different sets of conditions were used by Manabe and Wetherald (1967), but probably their most representative model is one in which relative humidity is maintained constant and an average amount of cloudiness is included. The result is that for a change in CO₂ from 300 to 600 ppm, an increase in temperature of 2.36°C is estimated. For a CO₂ decrease from 300 to 150 ppm, a temperature decrease of 2.28°C is predicted. These data indicate that an increase to 330 ppm would produce an estimated temperature increase of about 0.3°C. In summarizing their CO₂ modeling experiments, Manabe and Wetherald (1967) point out the following specific factors:

1. The higher the CO₂ concentration, the warmer is the equilibrium temperature of the earth's surface and the troposphere.
2. The higher the CO₂ concentration the colder is the equilibrium temperature of the stratosphere.
3. Relatively speaking, the stratosphere responds much more strongly to a change in CO₂ content than does the troposphere.

The importance of these CO₂ model calculations is that we expect that the CO₂ concentration in the atmosphere will continue to increase as our combustion economy continues to consume increasing amounts of fossil fuel. Various estimates have been made about the possible CO₂ that might be released to the atmosphere. Table IV is an estimate of CO₂ emissions for the period to the year 2000. The base point for this information is our estimate for 1965 in Table II and estimates of global changes in fuel use. The estimated increases for coal (0.2%/yr), petroleum (6.2%/yr), and natural gas (7.2%/yr) are based on recent estimates of growth to 1980, extrapolated to 2000 (SRI, 1969). For the minor sources, the change in incineration is intermediate between the major fuels, and no changes are estimated for the burning of fuel wood or for forest fires. On a relative basis, CO₂ emissions in the year 2000 are almost three times higher than those in 1965. The estimated total CO₂ emission over the period 1965-2000 is

Table IV
PROJECTED CO₂ EMISSIONS: 1965-2000

	1966 Usage	CO ₂ Factor	Emissions, 10 ⁹ T				
			1965	1970	1980	1990	2000
Coal	3,074 x 10 ⁶ T	4,770 lb/T	7.33	7.40	7.55	7.70	7.85
Increase	0.2%/yr						
Petroleum	1,273 x 10 ⁶ T	6,320 lb/T	4.03	5.28	8.57	13.90	22.50
Increase	6.2%/yr						
Natural gas	20.56 x 10 ¹² ft ³	0.116 lb/ft ³	1.19	1.62	2.79	4.80	8.27
Increase	7.2%/yr						
Incineration	500 x 10 ⁶ T	1,830 lb/T	0.46	0.51	0.61	0.73	0.88
Increase	2%/yr						
Wood fuel	466 x 10 ⁶ T	2,930 lb/T	0.68	0.68	0.68	0.68	0.68
No change							
Forest fires	324 x 10 ⁶ T	2,380 lb/T	0.39	0.39	0.39	0.39	0.39
No change							
Total			14.08	15.88	20.59	28.20	40.57
Relative change			100%	113%	146%	200%	288%

845 x 10⁹ tons or 770 x 10¹⁵ g. If half the emitted amount remains in the atmosphere, as we previously calculated, the total CO₂ in the atmosphere would be about 2.8 x 10¹⁸ g or about a 16% increase from 320 ppm in 1960 to about 370 ppm in 2000. On the basis of Manabe and Wetherald's (1967) calculations, a 50-ppm increase would be translated into an average atmospheric temperature increase of 0.5°C.

Revelle (1965) points out that total recoverable fossil fuels as of 1965 are estimated to be about 10¹² tons, with a CO₂ equivalent of 7.9 x 10¹⁸ g or 330% of the 1960 atmospheric CO₂. If, as indicated by the 1958-63 data, half of this stays in the atmosphere, then ultimately

the atmospheric CO₂ concentration could increase from 320 ppm to about 850 ppm, as recoverable fossil fuels are used up.

Most generalized analyses of the CO₂ situation infer that a given increase in atmospheric temperature could cause a gradual melting of the polar ice caps. Revelle (1965), for example, states that if half the energy associated with a 2% increase in radiation energy, as might occur from a 25% increase in CO₂, were available to melt the polar ice caps, the ice would disappear in about 400 years. Melting ice caps, if they occurred, would obviously result in inundation of coastal areas. However, when the details of the total atmospheric system are considered, it is not at all obvious what the result of added CO₂ might be.

Fletcher (1969) is carrying out a long term detailed study of the relationship between the Antarctic ice cap and world climate. Fletcher's research consists of developing models of ocean/atmosphere heat exchange and relationships to global circulation patterns. Observing ice conditions in the Antarctic, he has found apparent global climatic relationships. Increases in ice area in the Antarctic were found to correspond to an intensification of the zonal circulation in the southern hemisphere and, to a lesser extent in the northern hemisphere, accompanied by a warming trend over most of the northern high latitudes. Conversely, decreasing ice in the Antarctic, such as has been postulated as resulting from an increase in atmospheric CO₂, corresponds to a weakening of the zonal circulation in both hemispheres, an increased prevalence of meridional circulation patterns in the northern hemisphere, and a cooling over most of the northern latitudes (Fletcher, 1969).

These correlations by Fletcher are based on what has occurred in the past, and with our present knowledge we are not justified in predicting future effects of CO₂ on the basis of these correlations. There are too many complicating factors in the total ocean/atmosphere system to permit

solution at this time. For example, Möller (1963) points out that a fairly significant 10% increase in CO₂ can be counterbalanced by a 3% change in atmospheric water vapor or a 1% change in total average cloudiness. It is doubtful that we are equipped at present to detect changes of this magnitude in either water vapor or cloudiness.

Although, as we mentioned before, there are other possible sources for the additional CO₂ now being observed in the atmosphere, none seems to fit the presently observed situation as well as the fossil fuel emanation theory does.

F. Summary of Carbon Dioxide in the Atmosphere

Revelle and others have made the point that man is now engaged in a vast geophysical experiment with his environment, the earth. On the basis of our present knowledge, significant temperature changes could be expected to occur by the year 2000 as a result of increased CO₂ in the atmosphere. These could bring about long term climatic changes.

More recently, McCormick and Ludwig (1966) have provided an analysis of the possible worldwide change of atmospheric fine particles. An increase in fine particulate material may have the effect of increasing the reflectivity of the earth's atmosphere and to reduce the amount of radiation received from the sun. Thus this effect would be the opposite of that caused by an increase in CO₂. The argument has been made that the large scale cooling trend observed in the northern hemisphere since about 1955 is due to the disturbance of the radiation balance by fine particles and that this effect has already reversed any warming trend due to CO₂.

Any secular changes due to increases in pollutant aerosols would be limited almost exclusively to the northern hemisphere. This would result from the relatively small amount of pollution in the southern hemisphere

and the slow or negligible transfer of aerosols across the equator. The CO₂ cycle is such that concentrations in the two hemispheres are equal.

It is rather obvious that we are unsure as to what our long lived pollutants are doing to our environment; however, there seems to be no doubt that the potential damage to our environment could be severe. Whether one chooses the CO₂ warming theory as described by Revelle and others, or the newer cooling theory indicated by McCormick and Ludwig, the prospect for the future must be of serious concern.

It seems ironic that, in air pollution technology, we are so seriously concerned with small scale events, such as the photochemical reactions of trace concentrations of hydrocarbons and the effect on vegetation of a fraction of a part per million of SO₂, whereas the abundant pollutants--CO₂ and submicron particles--which we generally ignore because they have little local effect, may be the cause of serious worldwide environmental changes.

IV ATMOSPHERIC CARBON MONOXIDE

A. Introduction

Carbon monoxide has been considered an important atmospheric pollutant for many years because of its prevalence in automobile exhaust and in the effluents from poor combustion. In spite of widespread knowledge about the toxicity of CO, there have been many fatalities resulting from exposure to excessive CO. Because of the hazards it posed, initial air pollution studies of CO in urban atmospheres were carried out mostly to determine whether specific segments of the urban population, e.g., traffic police and tunnel toll takers, were exposed to toxic levels of CO. However, in more recent urban atmospheric studies, such as the USPHS Continuous Air Monitoring Program, CO measurements have been included as an indication of urban air quality.

It has typically been assumed that the only sources of CO were combustion sources, and that CO presented a relatively simple pollutant situation. However, as we will describe later, some natural sources of CO seem to be clearly indicated. This is a new dimension in CO studies, and there are a number of new problems that must be included. Of major importance is the nature of the scavenging mechanisms for CO. We will discuss various possibilities in some detail, but at present no really satisfactory sink or sinks can be described.

B. Atmospheric Carbon Monoxide Concentrations

The presence of CO in urban atmospheres at concentrations as high as 50 to 100 ppm has been recognized for many years, but it was not discovered that CO was present in trace amounts in the ambient atmosphere until Migeotte (1949) detected absorption lines in the solar spectrum around 4.7μ. Later, Migeotte and Neven (1950) confirmed the identification with measurements

in Switzerland, and further spectra were also obtained by Shaw, et al. (1951). Some confusion arose when Adel (1949), using spectra obtained at Flagstaff, Arizona was unable to detect the CO lines found by Migeotte in his Ohio spectra. However, when further studies in United States and Europe continued to show the CO lines in the solar spectra, it became generally assumed that CO was a more or less permanent but perhaps highly variable atmospheric constituent. On the basis of the solar spectra from the early 1950s an average ambient CO concentration of 0.2 ppm was estimated (Junge, 1963).

In 1966, Robbins, Borg, and Robinson (1968) built a new instrument for CO detection that was sufficiently sensitive to measure ambient concentrations down to at least 0.005 ppm. The paper also included some ambient CO data from remote locations. These early data are shown in Table V.*

In the summer and fall of 1967 three studies of CO were made using this CO recorder in the field in contrast to the flask sampling data shown in Table I. The first of these field studies consisted of approximately three weeks of daily sampling on the Greenland ice cap, 400 miles east-northeast of Thule at Inge Lehmann Station; 78 N, 39 W (Robinson and Robbins, 1969a). This sampling was carried out in late July and early August 1967. The results of this sampling are shown in Figure 6, and indicate an average CO concentration of about 0.11 ppm with a low concentration of about 0.09 ppm and a high value of over 0.5 ppm. This latter very high data occurred midway through the test period, around July 29, 1967. Subsequent analysis of air mass trajectories showed that this high concentration period coincided with the passage of an air mass that had previously passed south of the Great Lakes. It was

* Reprinted from (1).

Table V
TYPICAL ATMOSPHERIC CARBON MONOXIDE CONCENTRATIONS
FOUND IN NONURBAN AREAS

Place	Date	Local Time	Wind Direction and Velocity (mph)	CO Concentration (ppm)
Camp Century, Greenland	7/3/65	1245	SE-8	0.90
Camp Century, Greenland	7/3/65	1245	SE-8	0.85
Camp Century, Greenland	7/5/65	0800	SE-15	0.24
Camp Century, Greenland	7/5/65	0805	SE-15	0.32
North Coast, California	6/23/65	1400	W-8	0.85
North Coast, California	6/24/65	1400	W-10	0.80
Coastal Forest, California	6/24/65	1130	Calm	0.80
Crater Lake, Oregon (7000 ft elev)	9/27/65	0905	NE-22	0.30
Crater Lake, Oregon	9/28/65	0835	Lt. & Var.	0.08
Crater Lake, Oregon	9/28/65	1650	W-4	0.06
Crater Lake, Oregon	9/29/65	0910	Lt. & Var.	0.03
Crater Lake, Oregon	9/29/65	1700	Lt. & Var.	0.05
Patrick Point, Calif., Coast	10/02/65	1630	S-5	0.04
Patrick Point, Calif., Coast	10/03/65	1800	W-10	0.04
Patrick Point, Calif., Coast	10/04/65	1145	W-10	0.04
Patrick Point, Calif., Coast	10/05/65	0840	E-2	0.80
Patrick Point, Calif., Coast	10/05/65	1320	W-5	0.06
Patrick Point, Calif., Coast	10/06/65	1320	Lt. & Var.	0.34
Patrick Point, Calif., Coast	10/06/65	1650	W-8	0.06

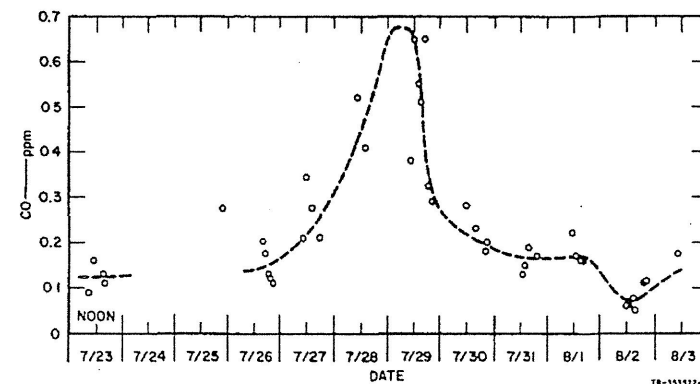


FIGURE 6 ATMOSPHERIC CARBON MONOXIDE CONCENTRATIONS, JULY 23-AUGUST 3, 1967 INGE LEHMANN STATION, GREENLAND—78° N, 39° W

concluded that the high CO concentrations resulted from CO emissions in the northeastern part of the United States.

Shortly after this Greenland program, about three weeks of CO field data were recorded at Point Barrow, Alaska, 71° N, 157° W. At this station, CO concentrations were generally below 0.10 ppm with an average of about 0.09 ppm (Cavanagh, et al., 1969). During the period of sampling there were no large deviations from this average, such as were seen in Greenland.

Since January 1967, CO concentrations have been measured on five voyages in different parts of the Pacific. These CO sampling expeditions included Cruises 27, 29, and 31 of the USNS Eltanin and Cruises 41 A-B and 41 H of USNS Perseus.

On Cruise 27, a series of flask samples taken approximately along 170° E between 65° and 77° S (Robinson and Robbins, 1968). The results, as indicated in Figure 7, showed that CO increased southward from about 0.03 ppm at 65° S to 0.08 ppm at 77° S. On January 13-14 a series of four

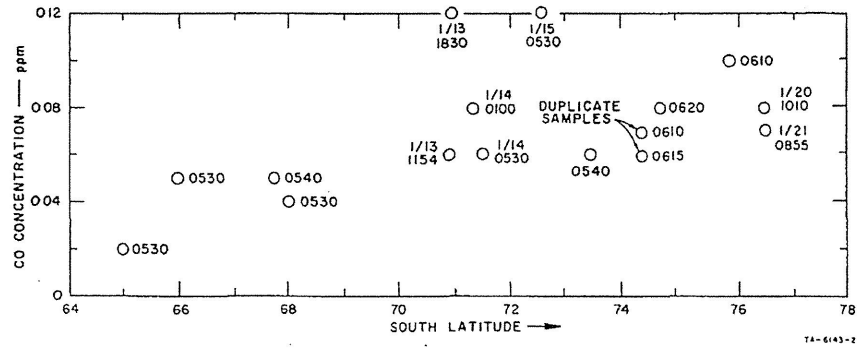


FIGURE 7 CARBON MONOXIDE CONCENTRATIONS, ELTANIN CRUISE 27 BETWEEN 168° AND 177° E LONGITUDE, JANUARY 1967

samples at 1154, 1830, 0100, and 0530 local time showed a strong diurnal cycle, with a high evening concentration of 0.12 ppm compared with 0.06 ppm at 1154 and 0530. Similar diurnal variations have been observed in subsequent samplings.

Flask samples were also taken on the Eltanin Cruise 29 westward along 28°S between Chile and Australia (Robinson and Robbins, 1968). The results shown in Figure 8 indicate a much more irregular pattern than on Cruise 27 and the concentrations are generally higher. It appears that in the eastern Pacific, near Chile, the concentrations are around 0.05 ppm and increase to perhaps 0.10 ppm between 130° and 150°W. Farther west concentrations decrease again.

Cruise 31 of USNS Eltanin was a direct voyage from San Francisco to New Zealand in November and December, 1967. On this trip CO concentrations were measured (Robinson and Robbins, 1969b), using the new continuous CO analyzer.

The CO concentration at approximately local noon is shown in Figure 9 on a scale that is approximately proportional to distance on a straight line course from San Francisco to New Zealand. The only major deviation

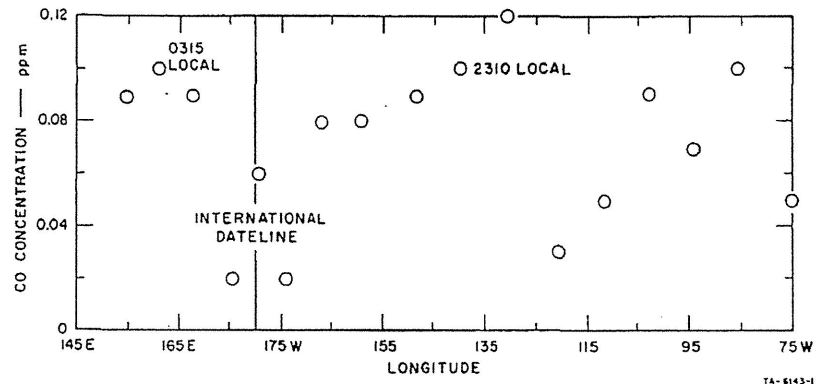


FIGURE 8 CARBON MONOXIDE CONCENTRATIONS, ELTANIN CRUISE 29 ALONG 28°S LATITUDE, JUNE-JULY 1967

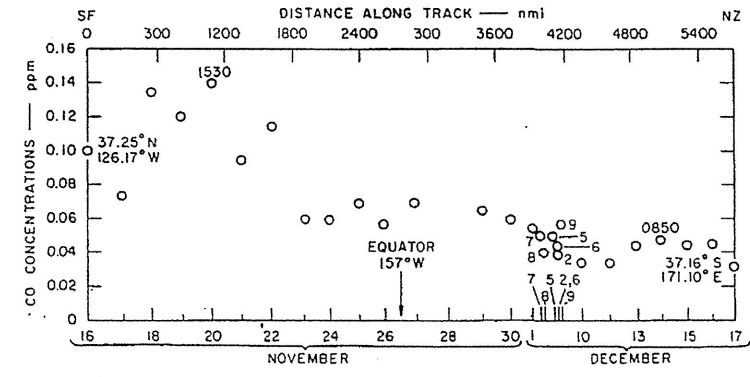


FIGURE 9 CO CONCENTRATIONS AT LOCAL NOON ELTANIN CRUISE 31, SAN FRANCISCO TO NEW ZEALAND, NOVEMBER-DECEMBER 1967

from this straight course was in early December around Pago Pago when a more irregular pattern was sailed. The general pattern shows increased CO concentrations from around 0.09 ppm near California to as high as 0.14 ppm east of Hawaii at 23°N, 140°W on November 20. From this point the decrease is relatively rapid to 0.06 ppm on November 23 at a latitude of 12°N, 149°W. Concentrations remained at about 0.06 to 0.07 ppm until about December 1 at latitude 13°S, 172°W. Between December 1 and 10 there were variations between 0.04 and 0.06 ppm. After December 10 at 19°S, 176°W the average concentration was 0.04 ppm. Cruise 31 crossed the track of Cruise 29 on December 14 at 28°S, 176°E. The recorded noon CO concentration of 0.048 ppm is higher than the 0.020-ppm sample obtained in this general area on the earlier cruise, but both samples indicate relatively low concentrations.

In June 1968 an east-west Pacific crossing was made on the USNS Perseus, Cruise 41 AB in which the CO recorder was again used to provide continuous data. The return voyage of the Perseus, Cruise 41 H, was made in late July and early August, 1968. The average daily CO concentrations observed on these two trips are shown in Figure 10 (Robinson and Robbins, 1969b). There does not seem to be any clear trend in these data, or at

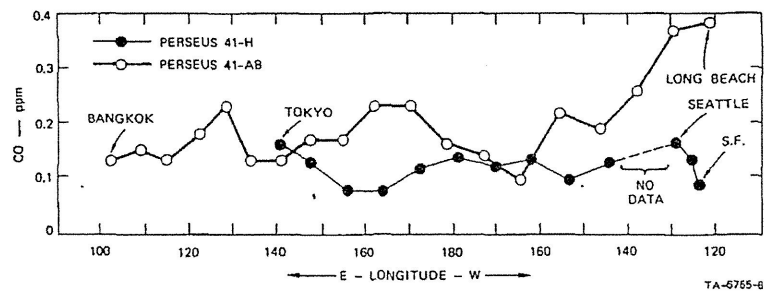


FIGURE 10 AVERAGE DAILY CO CONCENTRATIONS AS A FUNCTION OF LONGITUDE ACROSS THE NORTH PACIFIC, USNS PERSEUS TRIPS 41 A, B, H, JUNE-JULY, 1968

least nothing comparable with that shown for the north-south data in Figure 9.

About the only trend shown is that the data taken in July and August were higher than the June data. The average daily concentration for the westbound trip in June is 0.12 ppm, and for the mid-summer return trip the daily average was 0.18 ppm. In the mid-Pacific generally east of the dateline, the east- and west-bound tracks of the Perseus coincided.

All of these Pacific data have been combined to provide an indication of an average north-south CO concentration pattern over the Pacific. This is shown in Figure 11 (Robinson and Robbins, 1969b). Average daily concentrations or individual flask samples have been grouped into 5° latitude classes. The individual values are shown. The curve was fitted by eye and is an attempt to indicate an average north-south CO profile. On the basis of this curve, Arctic concentrations are about 0.1 ppm. The

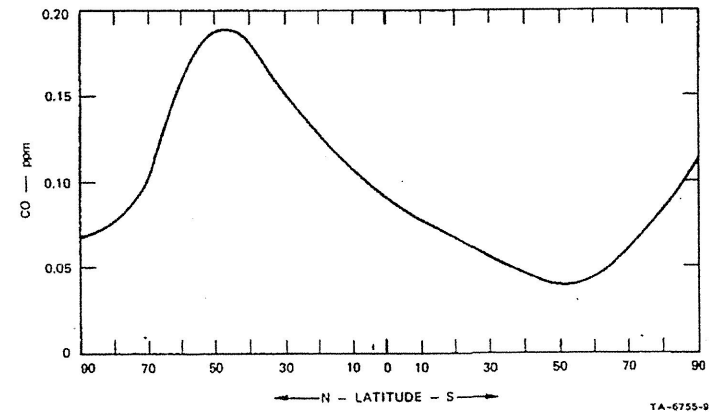


FIGURE 11 AVERAGE LATITUDE DISTRIBUTION OF CARBON MONOXIDE IN THE PACIFIC AREA. Based on Stanford Research Institute data from USNS Eltanin and USNS Perseus voyages 1967-1968.

highest concentrations, about 0.2 ppm, are found between 30° and 50°N. Southward from 30°N, CO concentrations decrease to 0.09 ppm at the equator and then to about 0.04 at about 50°S. Then southward CO concentrations apparently increase to about 0.08 over Antarctica.

If the curve in Figure 11 is considered representative of general tropospheric CO concentrations, average hemispheric CO concentrations can be estimated. Integrating this average curve and correcting for the latitudinal change in atmospheric volume gives an average CO concentration in the northern hemisphere of 0.14 ppm, 0.06 ppm in the southern hemisphere, and a global average of 0.1 ppm.

Recent data on CO background levels in Europe have been reported by Junge (1968), who was using an instrument of the SRI design. He indicates on the basis of preliminary data that during the influx of strong westerly winds over West Germany the CO concentration was never observed to drop below 0.14 ppm. In addition, some exploratory aircraft measurements in the upper troposphere over the European Arctic gave similar concentrations. Junge interprets these results as indicating a CO background level in the range of 0.1 to 0.2 ppm. These data are generally similar to the CO levels found in Greenland by SRI in the summer of 1967 and to the Pacific data in latitudes of about 50°N.

Although our knowledge of ambient CO concentrations is still incomplete, our estimate of a global average concentration of 0.10 ppm, as indicated by the average Pacific data, seems reasonable. Using this average ambient CO concentration and an estimated emission rate permits calculation of the rate at which CO is removed from the atmosphere. At a CO concentration of 0.10 ppm, the mass of CO in the atmosphere is about 5.6×10^{14} g. We have estimated the annual total CO emission rate as 2.5×10^{14} g; thus, the atmosphere contains about 2.2 years' emissions.

This is a surprisingly short time for CO which, as we shall see, has no clearly defined reaction cycle to provide a sink.

It is obvious that a number of assumptions have gone into this estimate and it will be useful to re-examine some of them to see whether this 2.2-year residence time is too short. In this calculation it will be seen that the residence time will be in error on the short side if the emission rate is too high or the average atmospheric concentration is too low. First, the average concentration estimate is most likely high, and it seems obvious that an ambient concentration may be as low as 0.05 ppm. This would halve the residence time. The other portion of the determination, the total emission of CO, is based primarily on the emissions from gasoline engines, and it seems unlikely that this estimate is especially high. In fact, it seems more likely that this estimate is low because we have not included any marine sources, in which case the calculated residence time would be overestimated. Thus it does not seem that variations in these calculations would significantly change our conclusion, namely, that a significant sink for atmospheric CO is required by the conditions presently observed in the ambient atmosphere.

A comparison of the solar spectra data from the 1950s which, as we indicated, averaged about 0.2 ppm is comparable to the mid-latitude SRI chemical data where the observations were made, and does not give us any reason to believe that any major accumulation of CO has taken place in the approximately 15 years between these observations and the recent analyses.

G. Sources of Carbon Monoxide

The pollutant sources of CO have been recognized for many years and the amounts expected to be emitted to the atmosphere can be estimated with reasonable accuracy. This has been done in Table VI.* On a

* Reprinted from (I).

world-wide basis the total annual CO emission from combustion sources is 285×10^6 tons or about 2.6×10^{14} grams.

The data shown in Table VI confirm the fact that automobiles are the major source of CO, accounting as they do for 68% of the total. The magnitude of this source has been estimated, using a standard CO emission value of 2.91 pounds per gallon of gasoline (Mayer, 1965). Annual world-wide gasoline production was 379×10^6 tons in 1966 (U.S. Statistical Abstracts, 1967) which, assuming no net carryover, provides a total CO emission of 193×10^6 tons.

Coal production on a global basis amounted to 3074×10^6 tons in 1966 (U.S. Statistical Abstracts, 1967). The major CO emissions from coal were assigned to power development, industrial operations, including rail and steamship uses, residential and local uses, and coke and gas plants. Tonnages for the various uses of coal were obtained for United States and Great Britain (Clean Air, 1967). In Table VI the tonnage in each class is the sum of the U.S. tonnage plus that for the rest of the world. This latter figure assumes that the relative amounts in the various classes for areas outside the United States were the same as apply in Great Britain. Using this scheme the total annual CO emissions from coal total 12×10^6 tons.

The other major fuel is vegetal, both in the form of wood, bagasse, peat, and other noncommercial fuels, and forests consumed in forest fires. On the basis of 1952 data it was estimated that the annual use of wood fuel was 1260×10^6 tons (UN, 1956) with a CO emission of 70 pounds per ton (Darley, et al., 1966) for a total annual CO emission of 44×10^6 tons. Incineration emissions are estimated at 25×10^6 tons on the basis of the incineration of 500×10^6 tons and an emission factor of 100 lbs CO/ton. The forest fire contribution can only be estimated roughly on the following

Table VI
ESTIMATED ANNUAL CO EMISSIONS

Source	Consumption	CO Factor	CO Emission, tons
Gasoline	379×10^6 T ^a	2.91 lb/gal ^b	193×10^6
Coal ^c (total)	$3,074 \times 10^6$ T ^a		
Power	$1,219 \times 10^6$ T ^{a,d}	0.5 lb/T ^e	
Industry	781×10^6 T ^a	3.0 lb/T ^e	12×10^6
Residential	404×10^6 T ^a	50.0 lb/T ^e	
Coke and Gas Plants, etc.	615×10^6 T	0.11 lb/T	
Wood and Noncommercial Fuel	$1,260 \times 10^6$ T ^f	70 lb/T ^g	44.0×10^6
Incineration	500×10^6 T	100 lb/T	25.0×10^6
Forest Fires	18.0×10^6 acres ^h	70 lb/T ^g	11.0×10^6
			285×10^6 tons (2.57×10^{14} grams)

^a U.S. Stat. Abs. (1967).

^b Mayer (1965).

^c 13,100 Btu/lb (U.S. Stat. Abs., 1967).

^d Nat. Soc. for Clean Air (1962-63).

^e Heller and Walters (1965).

^f U.N. (1963).

^g Darley et al. (1966).

basis. First, in the United States in 1966, forest fire acreage was 4.5×10^6 acres (U.S. Stat. Abs.); we assumed this was 25% of the global forest fire areas, giving a world total of 18×10^6 acres burned annually. Second, average fuel burned per acre was assumed to be 18 tons, which is roughly 90% of the average amount of wood growing on an acre (McElroy, 1960; UN, 1963). Third, average CO emission from bush and green wood was taken as 70 pounds per ton (Darley, et al., 1966). This procedure results in a total CO contribution of 11.3×10^6 tons annually. This amount is clearly not a significant factor in the total annual emissions of CO, and more detailed refinements are not justified because they could hardly make a significant change in the total.

Emissions of CO from fuel oil, natural gas, and diesel are not significant.

As shown above, the total estimated annual CO emissions are 285×10^6 tons or approximately 2.6×10^{14} grams. In 1952 Bates and Witherspoon estimated CO emissions to be 210×10^6 tons annually. Of this, 130×10^6 tons were attributed to automobiles, 40×10^6 tons to coal, and 40×10^6 tons to wood combustion and forest fires. It seems reasonable that coal is less of a source now because of the increase in the proportion of coal that is being used in highly efficient power generation processes.

There is a strong imbalance in CO emissions between the northern and southern hemispheres. On the basis of gasoline consumption, 95% occurs in the northern hemisphere (UN, 1968). Data on the other sources are not readily available, but it seems quite likely that the other combustion sources also show this strong bias toward the northern hemisphere. This is doubtless reflected in the differences in atmospheric concentrations that seem to be apparent in Fig. 11.

Although natural sources, except possibly forest fires, of CO have not received much attention in the literature to date, there is increasing evidence that trace concentrations of CO in the atmosphere could be from natural sources. Although there is no indication of CO being a significant portion of volcanic gases, the reported data are scarce and there are some references to the release of CO from heated basalt rock (Rankama and Sahama, 1949). There is one report, by Wilks (1959), that CO is given off by vegetation and, in particular, as a result of the action of UV radiation on chlorophyll. As part of his experiment Wilks enclosed several growing branches in plastic bags. After several days he measured relatively high CO concentrations in the air surrounding the growing branches, and he cited this as an indication of CO being produced by the plant. It seems quite possible that the CO in this situation resulted from the artificial sealing-off of the growing branches rather than from natural processes within the plant; however, further study is certainly justified. Some bacteria have been found that are capable of producing CO as a result of their metabolism (Rabinowitch, 1945).

More important evidence of a natural CO source in the surface waters of the ocean have recently resulted from separate studies by Stanford Research Institute in the Pacific, and by the Naval Research Laboratory (NRL) in the Atlantic.

Apparently the first indication of a significant natural marine CO source resulted from the study of atmospheric measurements made in the Pacific in the fall of 1967 (Robinson and Robbins, 1968). These measurements, which were made during an oceanographic cruise from San Francisco to New Zealand, showed that CO concentrations had considerable diurnal variation. The only logical explanation for short period changes in CO in the middle of the Pacific seems to be some action of the ocean either as a source or sink. The fact that CO concentrations in the southern

hemisphere, as found in this trip, seem to be one-half to one-third those in the mid-latitudes of the northern hemisphere may indicate the importance of oceanic contributions in the southern hemisphere (Robinson and Robbins, 1968).

In the summer of 1968, round trip crossings were made of both the Pacific and the Atlantic with continuous measurements of CO during the four traverses. The Atlantic data are strongly affected by CO from both North America and Europe and it is hard to show any role of the ocean on the basis of the SRI air samples. The Pacific data are more readily evaluated and again seem to indicate, but not prove, that the ocean could be a CO source. A weak diurnal cycle is indicated by the data, with lower concentrations occurring in early afternoon and higher concentrations at night. A seasonal change is also possible with August concentrations being higher than early June measurements.

More recently, J. W. Swinnerton and his coworkers (1968) at the Naval Research Laboratory in Washington, D.C. made comparative CO measurements in both the atmosphere and the ocean in the Caribbean area. A review of their measurements shows that the surface water in the open ocean was supersaturated relative to atmospheric CO concentrations. On a quantitative basis this supersaturation was as much as 90 times in one area and, in general, the ocean CO concentration was at least 10 times the equilibrium saturation. Atmospheric concentrations over the open ocean ranged from about 75 to 250 ppb, which is in the same range as SRI encountered in the Pacific. These NRL data can best be explained by postulating a source of CO in the surface ocean water.

Although the source of this CO in the ocean has not been identified, a logical explanation is that it is a biological process. The siphonophores may play a major role. For example, E. G. Barham (1963) reports that siphonophores are consistently present in the deep-scattering layer

of the ocean, and that sound is scattered where siphonophores are present in great abundance. Pickwell (1967) investigated siphonophores and found that they repetitively expel bubbles containing nearly 80% carbon monoxide. This deep-scattering layer is known to have a diurnal cycle; it is at the surface at night and descends to depths of 300 to 400 meters in the daytime. Pickwell calculated a possible normal and a maximum CO contribution to the atmosphere. The maximum contribution is 2 cc of CO per square meter of sea surface per day, with a more normal contribution of 0.02 cc of CO per square meter of sea surface per day. This source of CO would emit 362×10^6 tons per year maximum, to 3.62×10^6 tons per year minimum. The maximum contribution figure is based on unusually dense swarms of siphonophores observed only once with the maximum observed rate of bubble production. The minimum figure is probably a more normal figure and is based on typical numbers of siphonophores seen or captured. All production rates calculated by Pickwell assume no biochemical mechanism for removal of siphonophore-produced CO. The diurnal cycle of the siphonophores bears an interesting correlation to the marine CO diurnal cycle observed by SRI on the Eltanin cruise from San Francisco to New Zealand.

Another potential natural source of CO over land areas, proposed by Went (1966), is CO produced by photoreactions of terpenes in the atmosphere. Went estimates that 10^9 tons of volatile organics of plant origin are molecularly dispersed throughout the world each year. Photochemical oxidation of these plant volatiles by ozone or nitrogen oxide could produce 61×10^6 tons of CO annually. This calculation is based on the assumptions that one molecule of CO will be produced per three molecules of organics (Leighton, 1961), and that the average organic molecular weight is 150. This source of atmospheric CO could contribute approximately one-third of the worldwide tonnage of CO from combustion of gasoline.

A basic question that now needs to be answered is whether the background CO in clean atmospheres originates from combustion or if biochemical utilization of CO₂ or carbonates produces CO. The diurnal changes in CO concentration found by SRI in marine air of both the northern and southern hemispheres and the air/water saturation ratios found by NRL could indicate that the ocean, or biological processes within the ocean, could be a source of CO. Data on remote land areas are not available, and thus no direct calculation can be made of the participation of land plants in a natural CO cycle.

One other presently unexplained link between CO and the biosphere exists in the case of Nereocystis, the familiar kelp or seaweed with large floats or bladders. The floats of this kelp have been found to contain CO at concentrations of up to 800 ppm. This is obviously much higher than exists in the atmosphere and probably also in the ocean. The question as to how this occurs, whether it is just the unused residue from material absorbed from the water or whether it was produced by processes within the plant, has not been resolved.

Our current estimates of CO emissions from both urban and natural sources are summarized in Table VII. The total emission is about 350 x 10⁶ tons/year, considering a low value for oceanic emissions. Of this total, 75 x 10⁶ tons should be attributed to natural sources, including forest fires; and the remainder or 79% is attributed to pollutant sources. The authors believe that this value underrepresents the magnitude of the marine source, considering the large differences in air and water concentrations found by Swinnerton (1968).

Table VII

ESTIMATED EMISSIONS OF CO FROM
URBAN AND NATURAL SOURCES

Source	Annual Emission (tons/year)
Gasoline	193 x 10 ⁶
Coal	12 x 10 ⁶
Noncommercial fuel	44 x 10 ⁶
Incineration	25 x 10 ⁶
Forest fires	11 x 10 ⁶
Marine siphonophores	Max 360 x 10 ⁶ "normal" 4 x 10 ⁶
Terpene reactions	60 x 10 ⁶
Total	349 x 10 ⁶
to	705 x 10 ⁶ max

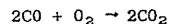
D. Scavenging Processes for Atmospheric Carbon Monoxide

Carbon monoxide at the present time is an important air pollution enigma because, in spite of its ubiquitous presence in combustion gases, we cannot enumerate any known scavenging mechanisms. That there must be one or more fairly effective processes by which CO is removed from the atmosphere is shown by the fact that, as we have mentioned, the present emission rate would double present atmospheric concentrations in about three years. There is no evidence for any general increase of atmospheric CO concentrations, and thus we must conclude that yet-to-be-discovered scavenging processes exist in our environment.

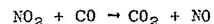
Several possible scavenging mechanisms can be postulated--gaseous reactions, absorption processes, and biological processes. These various possible processes will be evaluated briefly in the following sections.

1. Gaseous Reactions

Bates and Witherspoon (1952) reviewed various likely gaseous reactions whereby CO might be oxidized to CO₂. The reaction with molecular oxygen



is possible, but apparently it is unimportant in the atmosphere. In this regard, Mellor (1924) records an experiment in which CO and O₂ mixtures remain unchanged after 7 years exposure to sunlight. The possibilities of CO reactions with atomic oxygen have been reviewed by Leighton (1961) and he concludes that they are unimportant. Bates and Witherspoon (1952) came to a similar conclusion. Ozone will oxidize CO to CO₂, but according to Leighton (1961), this reaction is extremely slow at atmospheric temperatures and concentrations. A high activation energy of about 20 kcal for the CO oxidation by O₃ was found by Zatsiorskii et al. (1940). Oxidation by NO₂ in the reaction



has an even higher activation energy of about 28 kcal (Brown and Crist, 1947), which essentially rules out this process.

There has also been some consideration given to the possibility that some very fast reactions occur between CO and certain intermediates of photochemical smog reactions. One possible intermediate is the hydroxyl radical. These can be produced, for example, by the photolysis of aldehydes to produce perhydroxyl, which can then be reduced to the hydroxyl radical. According to the studies of Greiner (1967) hydroxyl is a very rapid reactant with CO and there is some indication that perhydroxyl also reacts with CO. These reactions are chain-type, beginning with CO and hydroxyl and resulting in the production of CO₂ and the reformation of hydroxyl. Doyle (1968) calculates that a global average hydroxyl concentration of 10⁻⁹ to 10⁻⁸ ppm would be sufficient to convert all emitted CO to CO₂. The significance of this hydroxyl sink mechanism remains to

be proven. A possibly serious limitation to this mechanism is the potential effect of methane (CH₄), which can also be oxidized by hydroxyl. Since, throughout most of the troposphere, CH₄ is an order of magnitude higher in concentration than CO, 1.5 ppm versus 0.1 ppm, the major reaction for available hydroxyl may be primarily with CH₄. Only detailed and careful research will provide an answer.

Although future research with hydroxyl class radicals may be rewarding, at present we must conclude that there are no proven significant gaseous oxidation reactions for CO in the ambient atmosphere.

2. Absorption Processes

Absorption of CO on surfaces exposed to the atmosphere does not represent a sink unless some reaction can be postulated that would promote the oxidation of CO on the surface. No such reaction has been discovered.

Oceans are a recognized sink for atmospheric CO₂, and it is natural to ask whether they are also a sink for CO. Although CO solubility in seawater is about 20 ml per liter (Douglas, 1967), at present there is no reason to believe that the oceans are a CO sink because there is no recognized process or reaction that would remove CO from solution. This is in contrast to the various physical and biological processes that CO₂ can undergo. The solubility of CO is not sufficient without some reaction, because if the concentration of CO in the ocean follows Henry's law and is proportional to the partial pressure of CO in the atmosphere, a typical remote area, ambient concentration of 0.10 ppm results in a possible total of only 3.4 x 10¹² g of CO in solution in the oceans of the world (volume = 1.37 x 10²¹ liters) even assuming uniform mixing. This is only about 2% of the estimated yearly production of CO. This clearly eliminates the ocean as a CO sink unless there are reactions occurring to remove CO from solution. An apparent diurnal cycle for CO concentrations

over ocean areas has been reported by Robinson and Robbins (1968). This seems to indicate some participation of the ocean in the CO cycle. The high CO concentrations, up to 93%, in some marine plants (Douglas, 1967) also indicate some complex, probably biological, system involving CO in the ocean. Because of low CO solubility and no available reaction mechanism, rain washout cannot be a significant CO removal mechanism.

3. Biological Processes

Even though no sink mechanism for atmospheric CO has been identified in atmospheric and surface reactions or absorption, the present atmospheric concentrations and the total emissions clearly indicate that some mechanism is removing large quantities of CO from the atmosphere. One other possible sink mechanism for atmospheric gases such as CO is in both the terrestrial and the marine biospheres.

At least two types of CO scavenging processes can be postulated for the terrestrial and marine biological populations. One is related to the presence in significant numbers of specific species of plants or animals that could metabolize CO. A second mechanism is a biochemical one in which CO would be bound to widely distributed organic compounds in much the same way it is bound by hemoglobin in blood.

One obvious biological sink of the metabolizing type could be bacteria promoted reactions that use CO as a source of carbon, e.g., Bacillus oligo-carbophilus (Rabinowitch, 1945). Jaffe (1968) has summarized other possible scavenging mechanisms involving microorganisms, including some of the methane-producing soil bacteria. No estimate can be made at this time as to the distribution of bacteria of this type either on land or in the oceans, and therefore the practicality of regarding them as a significant CO sink is unknown. However, the possibility should be recognized.

A potential biochemical scavenging process for CO is the binding of CO to the porphyrin type compounds that are universally distributed in living materials. In particular, the heme compounds, which contain cross-linked iron, could conceivably bind CO, at least on a temporary basis and at a rate that is a function of atmospheric concentration. Since porphyrin compounds are so widely distributed, this type of process could perhaps have great potential for scavenging CO. Permanent removal from the environment would depend on whether CO subsequently reacted to form CO₂ when the porphyrin compound is broken down. Plant systems could provide a site for such reactions.

Within the biosphere, the process of plant respiration seems to provide more potential for CO pickup than does the action of bacteria, because it is known that plants are effective scavengers for a wide variety of atmospheric material, including CO₂, SO₂, O₃, H₂S, and fluorides.

A number of effects have been noted in plants after exposure to various concentrations of CO. One specific reaction is that between CO and cytochrome-oxidase. A number of different effects resulting from CO exposures are mentioned by Ducet and Rosenberg (1962), but the most frequent effect due to CO seems to be the inhibiting of plant respiration processes. Burris (1966) describes the inhibiting effect that CO has on nitrogen fixation. Exposure to relatively high concentrations, i.e., 0.01 to 1.0%, has been reported by Carr (1961) to cause a variety of visible effects.

With these various effects of CO on plants having been noted, it is perhaps logical to conclude that CO entering the plant during respiration can participate in reactions within the plant. Perhaps retention by porphyrin compounds would form one step in this process. These plant processes would provide a means for the removal of CO from the atmosphere.

If CO were absorbed by plants during the respiration cycle proportionally to the plant's use of CO₂, then a likely rate of CO absorption can be estimated. For example, by various means investigators have estimated that the atmospheric residence time for CO₂ is about four years (Junge, 1963). We also know that the concentration of CO₂ in the atmosphere is approximately 300 ppm, which provides a total mass of CO₂ in the atmosphere of 2.4×10^{18} g. If CO₂ production and absorption can be assumed to be generally in balance and if the major mechanism for removal of CO₂ is through the terrestrial and marine biosphere, the annual CO₂ exchange between the atmosphere and the biosphere will be 25% of 2.4×10^{18} g, or 6×10^{17} g. The concentration ratio of CO₂ to CO in the atmosphere is now about 300/0.10 or 3×10^3 . Thus, if we assume that CO is absorbed in the biosphere in proportion to the rate of CO₂ absorption, the CO absorption rate is 2×10^{14} g annually. It is interesting that this is approximately equal to our estimate of current annual CO emissions, 2.5×10^{14} g. We might conclude from this that given no change in our present rate of emission the atmospheric CO concentration would remain more or less stable. However, in this postulated cycle the oceans play a major role and we do not have any evidence that the biological processes in the biosphere are scavenging processes. In fact, the only evidence we have to date indicates just the opposite, that the oceans are a source of CO from some as yet unknown natural processes.

At present there is no published evidence of a biological scavenging mechanism. We can only speculate that, since CO does enter the stomata during the plant's respiration cycle and since CO in high concentrations does cause some observable effects, it would seem to be logical to assume that CO in lower concentrations is also picked up from the respired air. The possibility that CO is produced rather than scavenged by vegetation must also be recognized and, as with the marine system, the only evidence

to date indicates that CO is produced by vegetation. This is based on the fact that a limited number of tests by Wilks (1959) seemed to show CO production when he completely enclosed some growing branches for several days.

4. Summary of Scavenging Processes

In the above discussion we have described only tropospheric reactions and have ignored the photochemical reactions in which CO can participate in the high stratosphere or mesosphere. If these processes were an important CO sink, the atmospheric residence time for CO would have to be 50 to 100 years because of the slow vertical transport. We know now that the residence time of CO is about three years and thus the active scavenging mechanisms must be present at the earth's surface or within the troposphere.

Of the various scavenging processes presented in this discussion, none has been proven to be the major process responsible for the scavenging of CO from the atmosphere. However, considerable research is being done on this question and more definitive analyses can be expected in the near future.

V EMISSIONS OF SULFUR COMPOUNDS

Our previous discussion of atmospheric sulfur compounds (I) was based on a single estimate of the total global SO₂ emissions without any consideration of the details of the sources. For the mid-1960s the estimated total SO₂ pollutant emissions were 146 x 10⁶ tons. Of this, 70% resulted from coal combustion, 20% from petroleum combustion and refining, and the remainder from nonferrous smelting. In this present discussion we will examine the estimated SO₂ emissions in more detail with regard to hemispheric emission patterns. We will also present some estimates of past changes in SO₂ emissions and some estimates for the period to the year 2000.

A. Hemispheric Sulfur Dioxide Emissions

Table VIII shows the total SO₂ emissions as estimated previously (I) divided according to sources into northern and southern hemispheres. On a total basis, 93% of the SO₂ emitted by pollutant sources is emitted in the northern hemisphere. The total is estimated at 136 x 10⁶ tons from northern hemispheric sources out of a total 146 x 10⁶ tons.

Table IX shows our estimate of the total hemispheric emissions of sulfur in its various emission forms--SO₂, H₂S, and sulfate. In this estimate H₂S emissions have been prorated over the warmer land and ocean, those areas between 0 and 65° in both hemispheres, while sea spray sulfates have been prorated according to total ocean areas. This tabulation shows that the atmosphere of the northern hemisphere receives over twice as much sulfur as does the southern hemisphere. The ratio is 149 x 10⁶ tons or 69% of the global total in the northern hemisphere compared with 66 x 10⁶ tons or 31% in the southern hemisphere.

Table VIII

HEMISPHERIC SO₂ POLLUTANT EMISSIONS
(10⁶ tons)

Source	Total SO ₂	No. Hemisphere	So. Hemisphere
Coal ^a	102	98 (96%)	4 (4%)
Petroleum ^a Comb. & Refin.	28.5	27.1 (95%)	1.4 (5%)
Smelting ^b			
Copper	12.9	8.6 (67%)	4.3 (33%)
Lead	1.5	1.2 (80%)	.3 (20%)
Zinc	1.3	1.2 (90%)	.1 (10%)
Total	146	136 (93%)	10 (7%)

^a United Nations Statistical Papers - World Energy Supplies 1963-1966, Series J, No. 11 Tables 2 and 9.

^b U.S. Bureau of Mines, Mineral Trade Notes Vol. 64, No. 9 and 12 (1967).

Table IX

TOTAL HEMISPHERIC SULFUR EMISSIONS
(10⁶ tons S)

Source	Total	No. Hemisphere	So. Hemisphere
Pollutant SO ₂ Sources	73	68	5
Biological H ₂ S (Land)	68	49 ^a	19 ^a
Biological H ₂ S (Marine)	30	13 ^b	17 ^b
Sea spray	44	19 ^c	25 ^c
Total	215	149 (69%)	66 (31%)

^a Based on ratio of land area between 0 and 65° N and S.

^b Based on ratio of ocean areas between 0 and 65° N and S.

^c Based on ratio of ocean areas in both hemispheres.

The hemispheric imbalance in SO₂ emissions points up the opportunity that exists to check the effects, if any, that SO₂ pollutant emissions may exert on atmospheric parameters. Parallel experiments in the northern and southern hemispheres should provide a situation where most factors except pollutant backgrounds could be generally equated and thus the impact of the pollutants on the atmosphere could be evaluated.

B. Past and Future Sulfur Dioxide Emissions

Sulfur dioxide has been a major pollutant throughout the history of industrial processes, at least since the first smelting of copper sulfide ore and the beginning of the widespread burning of soft coal.

On the basis of available fuel and smelting data, we have estimated the SO₂ pollutant emissions for the period 1860-1965. These are shown in Table X. Figure 12 shows the total SO₂ estimate as a function of time over this 100-year period. In making this estimate, the SO₂ emission factors used in our previous study (1) were used for calculating all the data for the past. For the emissions from petroleum combustion the factor includes SO₂ released both in refining and in combustion, expressed as a function of total consumption.

Figure 12 clearly shows that there has been a major increase of about 65 x 10⁶ tons in SO₂ emissions between 1950 and 1965. As shown in Table X, 36 x 10⁶ tons or 55% of this increase is related to increased coal combustion and 20 x 10⁶ tons or 31% is due to increased petroleum usage. The effects of the depression in the 1930s and World War II in the 1940s are evident in these data, although the 10-year spacing of data points does not emphasize these factors. The lack of readily available production data for lead and zinc before 1900 is not a serious factor in judging the trend in SO₂ emissions, because of the small contribution from these sources.

Table X

ESTIMATED HISTORICAL SO₂ EMISSIONS*
(10⁶ tons)

	Coal	Petroleum	Copper	Lead	Zinc	Total
1860	5.0	0.0	0.22			5.22
1870	7.8	0.01	0.24			8.05
1880	12.2	0.07	0.26			12.53
1890	18.7	0.17	0.68			19.55
1900	28.1	0.33	1.60	0.47	0.15	30.65
1910	42.1	0.70	2.84	0.61	0.26	46.51
1920	49.5	1.79	3.26	0.54	0.22	55.31
1930	51.3	3.12	3.52	0.93	0.46	59.33
1940	61.0	4.62	5.46	0.97	0.53	72.58
1950	66.0	8.30	5.92	0.86	0.60	81.68
1960	95.7	19.9	10.0	1.28	1.0	127.88
1965	102.0	28.5	12.9	1.5	1.3	146.20

* Based on the following production data references:

Coal: Peaceful Uses of Nuclear Energy, UN, 1956, Table XXIII.

Petroleum: Peaceful Uses of Nuclear Energy, UN, 1956, Table XXIII.

Copper: McMahon, A. D., Copper--a materials survey, U.S. Bureau of Mines I.C. 8225 (1965), Table 26; and Herfindahl, O. C., Copper Costs and Prices: 1870-1957, John Hopkins Press, 1959, Tables 2 and A-1.

Lead: U.S. Bureau of Mines, Materials Survey: Lead (1951); and U.N. International Lead and Zinc Study Group, Factors Affecting Consumption, Appendix 1 (1966).

Zinc: U.S. Bureau of Mines, Materials Survey: Zinc (1951); and U.N. International Lead and Zinc Study Group, Factors Affecting Consumption, Appendix 1 (1966).

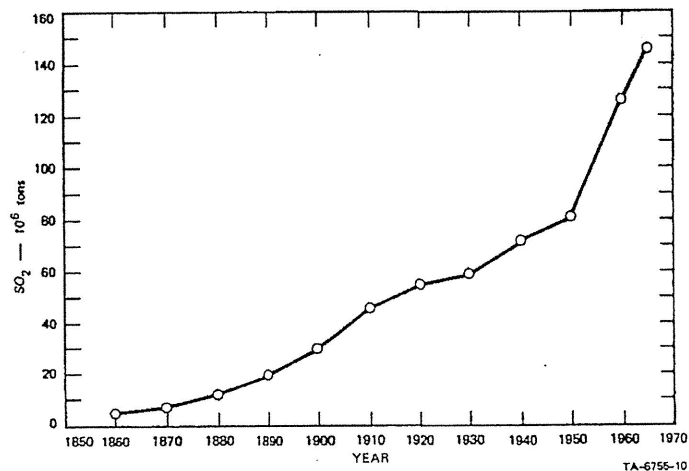


FIGURE 12 ESTIMATED HISTORICAL SO₂ EMISSIONS

In the 25 years between 1940 and 1965, SO₂ emissions have essentially doubled. Before 1940 it had taken 35 years, since 1905, for SO₂ emissions to double. Other estimates have been made of global SO₂ emissions; Katz (1956) for example estimated 1940 SO₂ emissions at 78 x 10⁶ tons as compared with our 72 x 10⁶ tons. Such agreement within 10% is certainly satisfactory when the approximations entering into these estimates are considered.

The emissions of SO₂ have changed rapidly in the past 10 years and further increases can be expected, although limits on sulfur content in fuels may be significant factors in any future projections. Table XI presents our estimate of global SO₂ emissions for the period to 2000 if no allowances are made for the introduction of additional emission controls. Figure 13 shows the total estimated global SO₂ emissions for the period 1940 to 2000.

Table XI
 PROJECTED SO₂ EMISSIONS 1965-2000
 BASED ON 1965 EMISSION FACTORS
 (10⁶ tons per year)

		1965	1970	1980	1990	2000
Coal						
Production increase	0.2% yr ⁻¹					
SO ₂ increase	0.2% yr ⁻¹	102	103	105	107	109
Petroleum						
Production increase	6.2% yr ⁻¹					
SO ₂ increase	6.2%	29	38	62	100	162
Smelting copper						
Production increase	4.3% yr ⁻¹					
SO ₂ increase	4.3%	13	16	23	33	47
Lead						
Production increase	6.3% yr ⁻¹					
SO ₂ increase	6.3%	1.5	2.0	3.3	5.4	8.8
Zinc						
Production increase	6.1% yr ⁻¹					
SO ₂ increase	6.1%	1.3	1.7	2.7	4.3	6.9
Total SO ₂ (1965 control rate)		147	161	196	250	333
Percent relative to 1965		100%	109%	133%	170%	226%

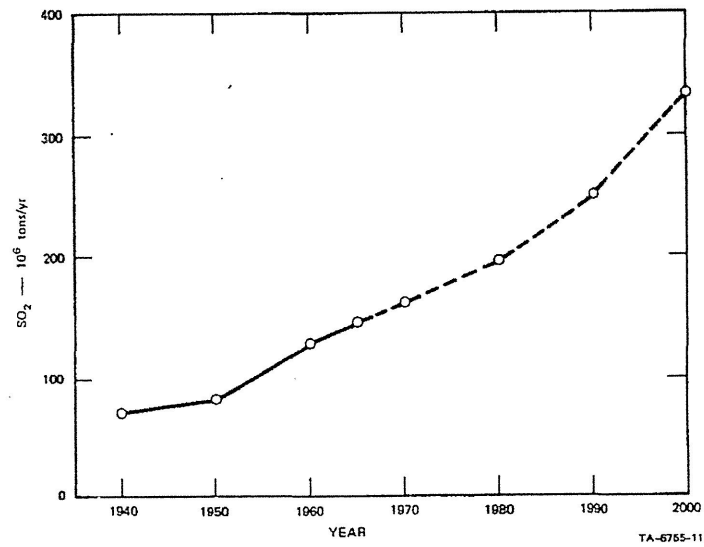


FIGURE 13 PROJECTED GLOBAL SO₂ EMISSIONS BASED ON 1965 EMISSION FACTORS

As indicated in Table XI, coal consumption is expected to increase least over the period, at a rate of 0.2% per year (SRI, 1969). The rest of the possible SO₂ sources are expected to increase at appreciably faster rates, petroleum at 6.2% per year (SRI, 1969), copper smelting at 4.3% per year (UN, 1966), lead smelting at 6.3% per year (UN, 1966), and zinc smelting at 6.1% per year (UN, 1966). If SO₂ emissions also increase at these same rates, by the year 2000, estimated SO₂ emissions would be 333 x 10⁶ tons annually. In this projection it will be after 1990 before coal ceases to be the largest single source of SO₂.

These projected emissions can also be related to our estimate of natural emissions. Table IX indicates that natural sources annually account for about 142 x 10⁶ tons of sulfur on a global basis and about

81 x 10⁶ tons in the northern hemisphere. According to our SO₂ emission projections in Table XI and Figure 13, global pollutant emissions will begin to exceed natural sources of sulfur about 1995. In the northern hemisphere, if 90% of the SO₂ is attributed to northern hemispheric sources, pollutant sources of sulfur will exceed the natural sources about 1975. New control measures on major sulfur emissions can be expected to affect these estimates, however.

VI NITROGEN COMPOUNDS

The cycle of nitrogen compounds through the environment is complex because there are at least four gaseous compounds and two solid nitrogenous compounds. These materials-- N_2O , NO, NO_2 , NH_3 , ammonium compounds, and nitrates--are for the most part interrelated and the environmental cycle is complex.

The major pollutant emissions in the nitrogen group are NO and NO_2 . These are usually not differentiated and are expressed as NO_x or NO_x . The annual global pollutant emissions were estimated to be 50×10^6 tons as NO_2 (I).

In this supplemental study we have taken another look at the nitrogen cycle and believe that certain changes are warranted in estimates of those portions of the cycle involving the natural emissions of NO and NO_2 and the formation of nitrate aerosols.

A. Atmospheric Concentrations of Nitric Oxide and Nitrogen Dioxide

We previously estimated that the average background concentration of NO_2 was about 1 ppb. Essentially, this estimate was based on data from four sources--Panama (Lodge and Pate, 1966); Florida and Hawaii (Junge, 1956); the mid-Pacific (Lodge, et al., 1960); and Ireland (O'Connor, 1962). To these data should be added data from the North Carolina Appalachians (Ripperton, et al., 1968), and from Pike's Peak, Colorado (Hamilton, et al., 1968). Some data are also available for the Antarctic (Fischer, et al., 1968). The results of these various sampling studies are summarized in Table XII.

Table XII

SUMMARY OF NITROGEN OXIDE CONCENTRATIONS

Location	Results	Reference
Panama (Marine)	NO_2 : 0.5-5 ppb	Lodge and Pate, 1966
(Forest)	NO_2 : 0.5-4 ppb NO: 0 -6 ppb	
Mid-Pacific	NO_2 : 94% of samples < 1 ppb	Lodge, et al., 1960
Florida	NO_2 : 0.9 ppb	Junge, 1956
Hawaii	NO_2 : 1.3 ppb	Junge, 1956
Ireland	NO_2 : 0.34 ppb (Spring) NO_2 : 0.2 ppb (Fall)	O'Connor, 1962
North Carolina	NO_2 : 4.0 ppb NO: 2.6 ppb	Ripperton, et al., 1968
Pike's Peak	NO_2 : 4.1 ppb NO: 2.7 ppb	Hamilton, et al., 1968
Antarctic	NO_2 : Avg < 0.6 ppb	Fischer, et al., 1968

On the basis of these data we have assumed the following mean conditions for our atmospheric cycle estimates for nitrogen compounds:

Land areas between 65°N and 65°S: NO = 2 ppb
 NO₂ = 4 ppb
 Land areas north and south of 65° and all ocean areas: NO = 0.2 ppb
 NO₂ = 0.5 ppb

Applying these values to the various global sectors results in an estimated total atmospheric mass for NO of 4.7 x 10⁶ tons (4.2 x 10¹² g) and for NO₂, 13 x 10⁶ tons (11.8 x 10¹² g). On a nitrogen basis the totals are 2.2 x 10⁶ tons (2 x 10¹² g) of NO-N and 4.0 x 10⁶ tons (3.6 x 10¹² g) of NO₂-N.

B. The Environmental Nitrogen Cycle

We have reanalyzed the cycle of nitrogen and nitrogen compounds through the atmospheric environment. The revised estimate of the annual nitrogen cycle is shown in Figure 14 in terms of total nitrogen in the various fractions of the cycle. The cycle expressed in terms of nitrogen component tonnages is shown in Figure 15. The cycle for nitrogen is made up essentially of three separate cycles--the N₂O cycle, the NH₃ cycle, and the NO_x cycle. There is a major difference between the estimated cycle and our previous one (1) in that we have not found it necessary to include an association between NO_x and NH₃ phases of the cycle. In the following discussion, we will describe the revised estimate, which is based on the circulation of nitrogen as shown in Figure 14.

1. The Nitrous Oxide Cycle

The understanding of N₂O in our environment has improved in recent years. Now the measurements of the ambient concentration seem to be fairly consistent and indicate a level of about 0.25 ppm (Bates and Hays, 1967; Junge, 1968). Measurements have also shown that there is N₂O present in the ocean and that some mechanism in the ocean is providing

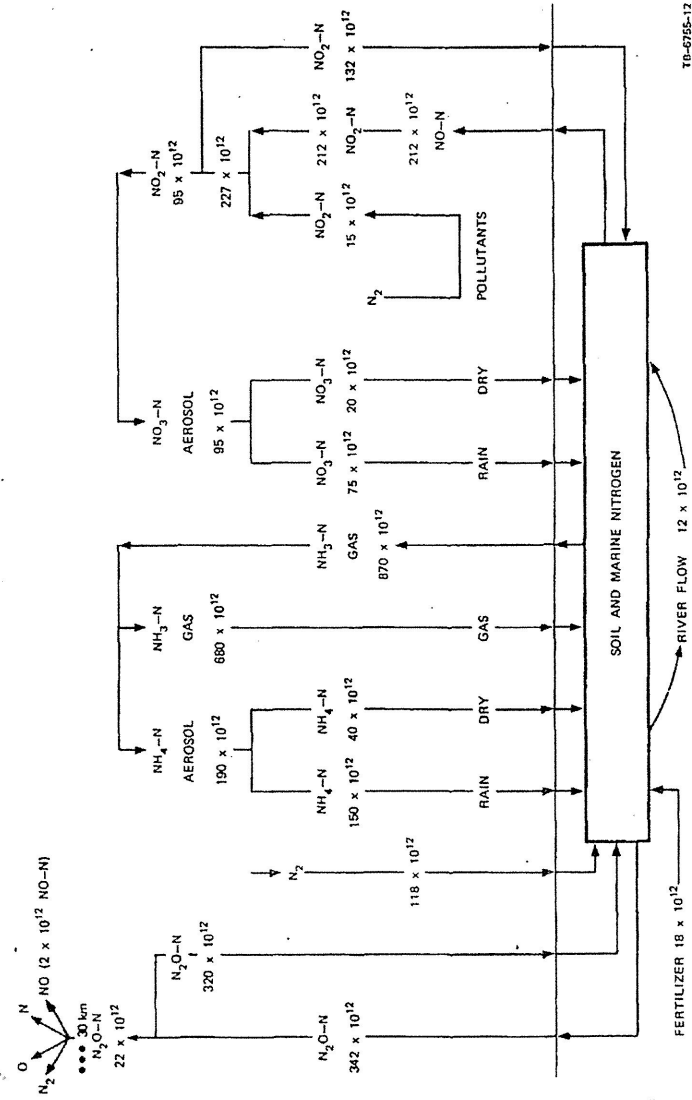


FIGURE 14 ENVIRONMENTAL NITROGEN CIRCULATION IN TERMS OF NITROGEN QUANTITIES PRESENT IN NITROGEN COMPOUNDS, GRAMS PER YEAR

approximate and a factor of 2 is probably not too large a difference.

We thus have the following estimate for N₂O in terms of N₂O-N.

Total N ₂ O-N in atmosphere	1.3 x 10 ¹⁵ g
Total N ₂ O-N in oceans (Craig and Gordon, 1963)	0.25 x 10 ¹⁵ g
Estimated photodissociation (Bates and Hays, 1967)	2.2 x 10 ¹³ g
Estimated biosphere loss	3.2 x 10 ¹⁴ g
Total production (to balance)	3.4 x 10 ¹⁴ g
Residence time = $\frac{1.55 \times 10^{15}}{3.4 \times 10^{14}}$	= 4.5 years

This conclusion as to the residence time is about the same as that estimated by Junge (1963). If we used an annual CO₂ cycle of 10¹⁸ g, as estimated from Rabinowich (1945), we would have to postulate a greater N₂O loss to the biosphere and a shorter, 2.9 years, residence time for N₂O.

Basically, the N₂O cycle is a balanced system of biological production and a biological sink with an additional stratospheric sink that accounts for less than 10% of the total loss of N₂O.

2. Nitrogen Fixation

Nitrogen is estimated as entering the soil at a rate of 118 x 10¹² g/yr. This is a bacterial fixation process and the estimated rate is based on calculations by Hutchinson (1954). This portion of the cycle does not relate to other portions except that soil nitrogen is a source of NH₃, NO_x, and N₂O.

3. The Ammonia Cycle

The ammonia and ammonium aerosols that are present in the atmosphere are due primarily to ammonia production in the soil. The sea surface has

not been clearly identified either as a source or a sink; however, data of Lodge and Pate (1966) may be interpreted as indicating an NH₃ source in the Caribbean area. The magnitude of the biospheric NH₃ source has not been measured; however, following our previous techniques we can estimate the probable emission from concentration data. It was estimated (1) that 6 ppb is a reasonable average for NH₃ in the ambient atmosphere. At this concentration, the total amount of NH₃-N in the atmosphere at any one time would be about 17 x 10¹² g. Because of its high solubility, and its origin at the surface, NH₃ can probably be assumed to have a rather rapid turnover, perhaps about 1 week, or even less, similar to that of SO₂. Georgii and Weber (1960) indicate on the basis of chemical sampling and rain analysis in Frankfurt, Germany, that NH₃ concentrations in the atmosphere were reduced by about 50% by rain, while the reduction in SO₂ concentrations was 36%, and NO₂ was reduced 24%. Thus the assumption of similar residence times for NH₃ and SO₂ is probably not unreasonable. If the residence time for NH₃ were about one week, this would indicate an annual production of about 50 times the atmospheric mass or 850 x 10¹² g.

In Figure 14 the production of NH₃-N is set at 870 x 10¹² g in order to balance the calculated scavenging mechanisms, namely, gaseous deposition and aerosol formation processes.

Gaseous deposition for NH₃ is calculated from a set of fairly simple assumptions--a deposition velocity of 1 cm/sec and a global average concentration of 6 ppb. The deposition velocity assumes that NH₃ is as reactive with vegetation, land, and water surfaces as is SO₂. This seems to be generally reasonable considering comparative data on NH₃ and SO₂ in rainwater reported by Georgii and Weber (1960). The average NH₃ concentration is an approximate median of scattered remote measurements as presented in the earlier report (1). If there were more data to draw on, it

would be desirable to try to differentiate between land and ocean areas, because indications are that land areas are the major source of natural NH_3 production.

Aerosol deposition of ammonium compounds represents the second scavenging mechanism for atmospheric NH_3 . Ammonia reactions can occur readily in cloud and fog droplets, and reactions between NH_3 and SO_2 in solution to form $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ are estimated to be a major scavenging process for SO_2 . The $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ mass that is estimated as being included in this phase of the cycle is 190×10^{12} g $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$. This amount is 125% of the estimated amount of $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ present in precipitation, if the 25% is added to account for dry aerosol deposition. The amount of $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ deposited on a global basis in rain is estimated on the basis of Eriksson's (1952) tabulation of $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ and $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ in precipitation. These data indicate that there is a latitudinal distribution of $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ and $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$, with peak depositions occurring in the northern hemisphere. Figure 16 is our interpretation of the data presented by Eriksson (see Figures 4 and 5 of Eriksson, 1952). As indicated by Figure 16 the same latitude distribution is applied to both $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ and $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$. The total deposition rate for $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ was determined from Figure 16 by multiplying the deposition rate by the global area in 10-degree-latitude belts. The zero level of deposition in the polar regions is in general agreement with measurements of polar snow, especially in the Antarctic (Wilson and House, 1965). The total $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ estimated to be brought to earth by precipitation is 150×10^{12} g/yr. This is a global rate and no differentiation is made between land and ocean areas.

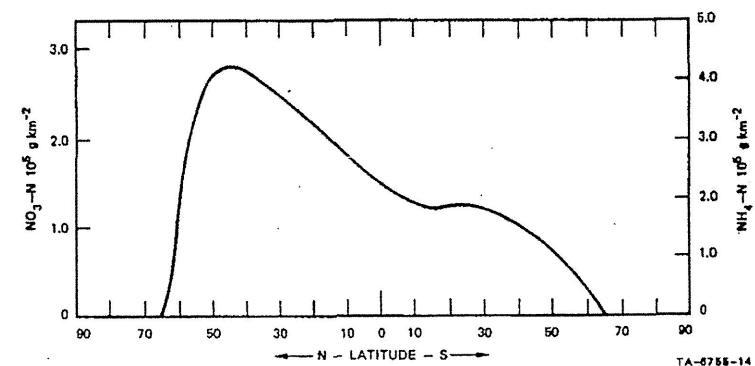


FIGURE 16 $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ AND $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ DEPOSITED BY PRECIPITATION ANNUALLY AS A FUNCTION OF LATITUDE—From Eriksson, 1952, Figs. 3 and 4.

4. The Cycle of Nitric Oxide and Nitrogen Dioxide

The third major phase of the nitrogen cycle is that entailing emissions of NO and NO_2 and the scavenging processes for both these gases and the nitrate aerosol resulting from reactions of NO_2 in the atmosphere.

The most readily recognized sources of atmospheric NO_x compounds are pollutant emissions. We have estimated these emissions to be 46×10^{12} g/yr $\text{NO}_2\text{-N}$. Table XIII shows the distribution of NO_2 pollution sources as we estimated them in our previous report (I).

As indicated by Figure 14, the major natural NO_x emission is estimated to be NO at a rate of 501×10^6 tons/yr. On the basis of our previously estimated average NO concentrations, this is equivalent to an NO residence time in the atmosphere of four days. This NO is scavenged readily by oxidation in the atmosphere, probably mainly through processes including ozone (Ripperton, et al., 1967). Gaseous deposition of NO is considered to be negligible because of its low solubility and low rate of reaction with surfaces. This natural NO_2 and the industrial NO_2 are scavenged both by gaseous deposition at a rate of 132×10^{12} g/yr $\text{NO}_2\text{-N}$ and through

(See corr. inside front cover)

Table XIII
WORLDWIDE URBAN EMISSIONS OF NITROGEN OXIDES
(AS NO₂)

Fuel	Source Type	Fuel Usage	Emission Factor	NO ₂ Emission
Coal	Power Generation	1,219 x 10 ⁶ tons ^a	20 lb/ton ^d	12.2 x 10 ⁶ tons
	Industrial	1,369 x 10 ⁶ tons ^a	20 lb/ton ^d	13.7 x 10 ⁶
	Domestic/Commercial	404 x 10 ⁶ tons ^a	5 lb/ton ^d	1.0 x 10 ⁶
Petroleum	Refinery Production	11,317 x 10 ⁶ bbl ^b	6 ton/10 ⁵ bbl ^c	0.7 x 10 ⁶ tons
	Gasoline	379 x 10 ⁶ tons ^a	0.113 lb/gal ^d	7.5 x 10 ⁶
	Kerosene	100 x 10 ⁶ tons ^a	0.072 lb/gal ^d	1.3 x 10 ⁶
	Fuel Oil	287 x 10 ⁶ tons ^a	0.072 lb/gal ^d	3.6 x 10 ⁶
	Residual Oil	507 x 10 ⁶ tons ^a	0.104 lb/gal ^d	9.2 x 10 ⁶
Natural Gas	Power Generation	2.98 x 10 ¹² ft ^{3b}	380 lb/10 ⁶ ft ^{3d}	0.6 x 10 ⁶ tons
	Industrial	10.72 x 10 ¹² ft ^{3b}	214 lb/10 ⁶ ft ^{3d}	1.1 x 10 ⁶
Others	Domestic/Commercial	6.86 x 10 ¹² ft ^{3b}	116 lb/10 ⁶ ft ^{3d}	0.4 x 10 ⁶
	Incineration	500 x 10 ⁶ tons	2 lb/ton ^d	0.5 x 10 ⁶ tons
Others	Wood Fuel	466 x 10 ⁶ tons ^c	1.5 lb/ton ^d	0.3 x 10 ⁶
	Forest Fire	324 x 10 ⁶ tons ^c	5 lb/ton ^d	0.8 x 10 ⁶
				Total 52.9 x 10 ⁶ tons

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- Figure is 1.28 x U.S. usage as per 1967 U.S. Statistical Abstracts.
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oxidation to nitrate aerosol at a rate of 95×10^{12} g/yr NO₃-N. Gaseous deposition for NO₂ is based on our previously determined mean concentrations and a deposition velocity of 1 cm/sec. This deposition velocity is an approximation of experimental data obtained over alfalfa and oats by Tingey (1968). Estimation of the precipitation of NO₃-N, 75×10^{12} g/yr, is based on Figure 16 and Eriksson's (1952) data, as was our estimate of NH₄-N deposition. Dry deposition of NO₃-N particulate material is estimated at 25% of the precipitation deposition.

5. Other Factors of the Nitrogen Cycle

The nitrogen cycle estimate is completed by our indication of the amount of fertilizer added to the soil, 18×10^{12} g/yr as N, and the N transported from land to ocean by the rivers, 12×10^{12} g/yr.

C. Discussion of the Nitrogen Cycle

This method for estimating the cycle for nitrogen is superior to the prior method (I) in that it does not require reactions of NH₃ to form nitrate to achieve a balance. This has been done mainly by reducing the amount of deposition of NH₄-N and NO₃-N needed in the circulation model. This is apparently supported by Eriksson's (1952) data. Relatively low deposition rates in the southern hemisphere of approximately $1 \text{ kg}/10^4 \text{ m}^2$ for NO₃-N and NH₄-N are supported by data from central Australia, reported by Wetselaar and Hutton (1963). These changes in the circulation model seem to be reasonable and in line with available data. Since no satisfactory reactions are known for converting NH₃ to a nitrate compound, the fact that such a reaction is no longer needed in the calculations is a very significant development.

The recognition of a significant natural emission in the form of NO is also an important phase of this model. The total mass of the natural NO-N emission is about 80% larger than was estimated for natural NO₂-N emissions in our previous model (I).

The weak point in the nitrogen circulation model is primarily the small amount of available data that is applicable to the task. Differential data for land and ocean areas would be especially valuable in making more realistic estimates of the masses of material that enter into various portions of the cycle.

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