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The role of HO_x in super- and subsonic aircraft exhaust plumes

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Abstract. The generation of sulfuric acid aerosols in aircraft exhaust has emerged as a critical issue in determining the impact of supersonic aircraft on stratospheric ozone. It has long been held that the first step in the mechanism of aerosol formation is the oxidation of SO₂ emitted from the engine by OH in the exhaust plume. We report in situ measurements of OH and HO₂ in the exhaust plumes of a supersonic (Air France Concorde) and a subsonic (NASA ER-2) aircraft in the lower stratosphere. These measurements imply that reactions with OH are responsible for oxidizing only a small fraction of SO₂ (2%), and thus cannot explain the large number of particles observed in the exhaust wake of the Concorde.

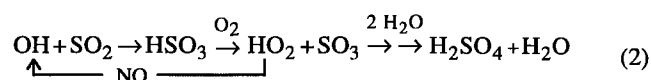
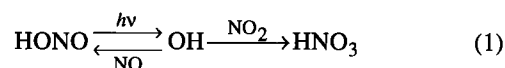
Introduction

Emissions from a proposed fleet of commercial high speed civil transports (HSCT's) flying in the lower stratosphere may alter stratospheric ozone concentrations. Concerns that reactive nitrogen emissions (NO_x = NO + NO₂) could substantially deplete ozone helped deter the development of HSCT's in the U.S. during the early 1970's and continue to influence HSCT engine design today [Stolarski *et al.*, 1995]. In the mid- to upper-stratosphere, direct removal of ozone by NO_x is thought to account for most of the catalytic destruction of ozone; thus increased NO_x could increase ozone loss rates. However, in the lower stratosphere, NO_x suppresses the concentrations of HO₂ and ClO that together can dominate the ozone loss rate [Wennberg *et al.*, 1994a]. Thus, in the lower stratosphere, increased NO_x can lead to decreased ozone loss rates. The current assessment of the potential effects of HSCT emissions reflects this picture: NO_x emissions are predicted to enhance ozone loss rates in the middle stratosphere and decrease ozone loss rates in the lower stratosphere. This cancellation results in a small net change in the ozone column at most latitudes.

Recent observations of the exhaust emitted from an Air France Concorde during supersonic flight in the lower stratosphere show that the measured NO_x emission index agrees well with predictions based on ground-based tests performed in the early 70's [Fahey *et al.*, 1995a]. However, the number of volatile particles measured, assumed to consist largely of sulfuric acid generated from fuel sulfur, is much higher than expected. Thus, HSCT emissions could significantly increase aerosol surface area in the lower stratosphere. This is a critical

issue because in the lower stratosphere reactions occurring on these aerosols suppress the concentration of NO_x. Ironically, HSCT particle emissions could increase ozone loss rates by *reducing* the concentration of NO_x in the lower stratosphere.

Though the mechanism for aerosol formation in aircraft exhaust is not known in detail, the initial step in sulfate aerosol formation has long been assumed to be the oxidation of emitted SO₂ by OH in the aircraft exhaust wake [Stolarski *et al.*, 1995]. In the absence of oxidation within the engine, the production rate of nitric and sulfuric acid is controlled by the following reaction sequences occurring in the exhaust plume:



In this high NO_x environment, the reactions in (1) dominate the photochemistry that controls the concentration of OH. As the exhaust leaves the engine, OH is sequestered into nitrous acid (HONO) which serves as a temporary reservoir for emitted OH [Arnold *et al.*, 1992]. During daylight OH is produced from the photolysis of HONO and is either converted back to HONO by NO or to HNO₃ by NO₂. The oxidation of SO₂ and the subsequent production of H₂SO₄ occurs while HONO is photolyzed: in darkness no oxidation will occur and in the absence of NO₂ the oxidation of SO₂ could occur indefinitely because it is catalytic with respect to HO_x (= OH + HO₂).

Measurements

The measurements presented here were obtained aboard the NASA ER-2 on October 8, 1994 during the Airborne Southern Hemisphere Ozone Experiment/Measurements for Assessing the Effects of Stratospheric Aircraft (ASHOE/MAESA) campaign in Christchurch, New Zealand. The payload included instruments measuring most of the species necessary to empirically test the chemistry of HO_x in the plume: NO, NO₂, NO_y (= NO_x + HONO + HNO₃ + ClONO₂ + 2N₂O₅ ...), H₂O, O₃, OH and HO₂. Measurements of CH₄ and CO show these species do not play a significant role in HO_x plume chemistry.

Figure 1 shows the OH and HO₂ mixing ratios measured during three crossings of the Concorde exhaust plume (a-c) and an encounter with the ER-2 plume (d). As the plume ages, [OH] (the square brackets denote concentrations) falls markedly. In the early encounters [OH] is above ambient because the production of OH from the photolysis of HONO is large. In the later encounters (e.g. Fig. 1c) [OH] decreases because [HONO] is diminished, weakening the photochemical source of OH, while the loss rate of OH due to reaction with NO₂ remains high. The small [HO₂] in the plume results from a change in the partitioning of HO_x: the high [NO] shifts the

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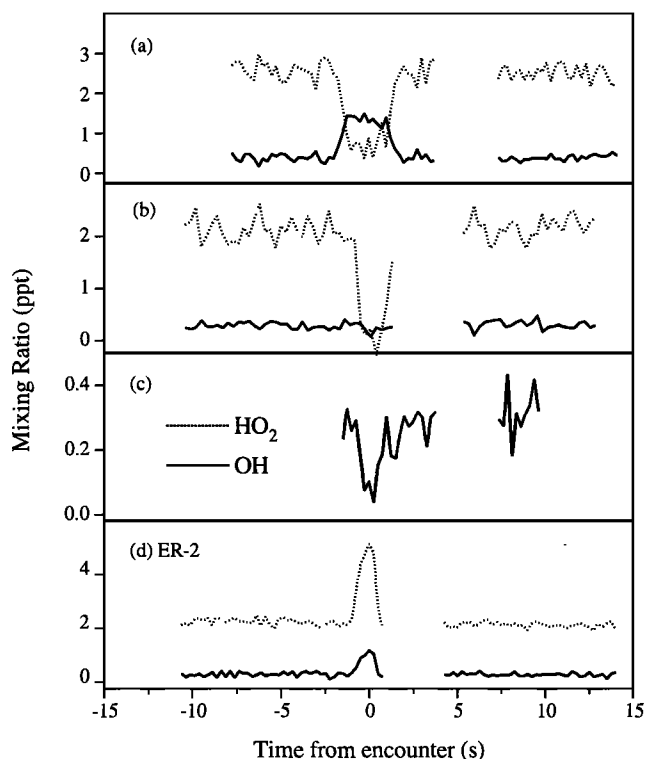


Figure 1. OH (solid line) and HO₂ (broken line) mixing ratios measured during three crossings of the Concorde exhaust plume (a-c) and the single encounter with the ER-2 plume (d). The gaps in the data occur during background calibration of the OH fluorescence signal and (in panel c) during a calibration of the chemical titration of HO₂ [Wennberg *et al.*, 1994b]. The plume ages are a) 16, b) 60, and c) 66 minutes for the Concorde exhaust and d) 10 minutes for the ER-2 exhaust. Meteorological conditions are: altitude 16.2 km, temperature 222 K, and pressure 100 mb. The Concorde plumes correspond to encounters 3, 9, and 11 observed by the NO_y instrument [Fahey *et al.*, 1995a].

partitioning of HO_x towards OH because the species that convert OH to HO₂ (O₃ and CO) do not increase above background levels inside the plume.

The Hydrogen Radical Emission Index

We can infer the [HONO] in the plume by comparing the effective production and loss rates of OH calculated with a steady state photochemical model. The model uses measurements obtained on the ER-2, rate constants from DeMore *et al.*, 1994, and photolysis rates calculated with a radiative transfer model [Salawitch *et al.*, 1994]. Since the lifetime of OH is short (< 1 minute), the steady state solution is representative of conditions in sampled air parcels inside and outside of the plume. The results for encounter #3 (Fig. 1a) are listed in Table 1. Outside the plume the agreement between production and loss rates is excellent. Inside the plume, loss rates increase by two orders of magnitude due to the large increases in [NO] and [NO₂], but the increase in production rates due to background species (H₂O, HNO₄, H₂CO) is small. In the absence of added HONO in the plume, the calculated [OH] is a factor of 40 lower than measured.

Since the production rate of OH from HONO photolysis is the only significant undetermined source of OH in the plume, this rate must be equal to the difference between production

and loss rates within the plume (1.48×10^6 molecules/cm³s). The [HONO] inferred from this rate and the photolysis rate of HONO (2.73×10^{-3} s⁻¹) is 5.4×10^8 molecules/cm³, or 165 ± 65 ppt (1 σ). Since the loss rate of OH in the plume is dominated by reactions in (1), the uncertainty of this estimate of HONO is determined by uncertainties in the OH, NO, and NO₂ measurements, rate constants, and the photolysis rate of HONO. The contribution of other sources of OH formed in the exhaust are neglected in this estimate, but will be addressed below.

The [HONO] in the plume 981 s prior to this measurement can be estimated using the lifetime of HONO in the plume. Because of the high [NO] and [NO₂] in the plume, the lifetime of HONO is determined by the time constant for removal of OH. The net loss rate for HONO in the plume is the fraction of photolyzed HONO that forms HNO₃ multiplied by the photolysis rate. The lifetime of HONO in the plume is:

$$\tau = \left[\frac{k_2[\text{OH}][\text{NO}_2]}{k_1[\text{OH}][\text{NO}] + k_2[\text{OH}][\text{NO}_2]} \times J_{\text{HONO}} \right]^{-1} \quad (3)$$

For the rates in the plume listed in Table 1, $\tau = 586$ s. Eq. 3 is independent of dilution, so we reference to a conserved tracer, NO_y, to account for the effects of dilution and integrate the loss of HONO over the age of the plume. [HONO] referenced to [NO_y] at the time of emission ($t = 0$) is:

$$\frac{[\text{HONO}]_0}{[\text{NO}_y]_0} = \frac{[\text{HONO}]_t e^{\frac{t}{\tau}}}{[\text{NO}_y]_t}, \quad (4)$$

where the concentrations refer to values above ambient levels. For encounter #3, Eq. 4 yields $[\text{HONO}]_0/[\text{NO}_y]_0 = 0.045$, ($[\text{NO}_y]_t = 19$ ppb). This [HONO]₀ corresponds to the sum of emitted HO_x that forms HONO after emission and any HONO that might be directly emitted from the engine. In the absence of other loss processes for HO_x and HONO the total [HO_x]₀ emitted from the engine is given by Eq. 4.

An important uncertainty in [HO_x]₀ calculated from Eq. 4 is the fraction of emitted OH that forms HONO. The small

Table 1. Calculated production and loss rates of OH for encounter #3 (Fig. 1a). Only the most important rates are shown. Rates are in 10³ molecules/cm³s. Values in parentheses are the percent contribution to the total rate.

	Background Rate		Plume Rate	
	OH Production			
HNO ₃ + hv	3.5	(26)	4.6	(0)
H ₂ CO + hv	3.5	(26)	9.9	(2)
O(¹ D) + H ₂ O	2.9	(22)	3.3	(1)
HONO + hv	1.3	(10)	$J_{\text{HONO}}[\text{HONO}]$	(95)
HNO ₄ + hv	1.1	(8)	9.6	(2)
total	14.0		1500	
	OH Loss			
OH + HO ₂	3.2	(21)	5	(0)
OH + NO ₂	2.9	(19)	852	(57)
OH + HNO ₃	2.8	(19)	14	(1)
HO ₂ + NO ₂	2.2	(14)	39	(3)
OH + NO	1.3	(9)	512	(34)
OH + HNO ₄	1.2	(8)	32	(2)
total	15.0		1500	

[H₂O], [OH], and [NO] are measured. [NO₂] is the mean of the measured and calculated steady-state concentrations. [HNO₃] is inferred from the NO_y measurement. [H₂CO], [HNO₄], [O(¹D)], and background [HONO] are calculated from steady-state relations. [HONO] in the plume is calculated as described in the text.

$[\text{HO}_x]_0/[\text{NO}_x]_0$ results in little loss of HO_x through self reactions, but the reaction of OH with NO₂ converts some of the emitted OH into HNO₃ before HO_x is sequestered into HONO. Ground based tests of the Concorde Olympus engine indicate that NO₂ is 4% of emitted NO_x at the engine exit plane [Williams, 1973]. Based on the relative rates of OH + NO and OH + NO₂, Eq. 4 underestimates $[\text{HO}_x]_0$ by ~10%. On the other hand, Eq. 4 overestimates $[\text{HO}_x]_0$ (~6%) by assuming steady state values for NO₂/NO for the duration of the plume. These uncertainties, combined with that of the steady-state model result in a net uncertainty of ±50% (1σ) for known processes. If other loss processes for emitted OH occur, the estimate from Eq. 4 will be a lower limit.

The removal of HONO via non-photolytic processes would also result in an underestimation of OH at the exit plane. HONO is known to react in H₂SO₄/H₂O solutions [Zhang *et al.*, 1996; Fenter and Rossi, 1996]. Model calculations estimate that up to 25% of HONO could be removed by uptake onto H₂SO₄/H₂O aerosols that might be generated early in the plume (B. Kärcher, personal communication, 1996). However, there is substantial uncertainty in this estimate because the surface area and composition of aerosols at the exit plane are not known. It is also not known whether the aerosol reac-

Table 2. Relative HO_x emission indices:

Encounter	$\frac{[\text{HO}_x]_0}{[\text{NO}_y]_0}$	EI NO _y [†] (gNO ₂ /kg fuel)	EI HO _x (gOH/kg fuel)
Concorde #3	0.045	23	0.35 ± 0.17
Concorde #4-5	0.051	<12	0.2 ± 0.1
ER-2	0.035	4	0.06 ± 0.02

[†] NO_y emission indices are from Fahey, *et al.*, 1995a; 1995b.

tivity would saturate due to uptake of HONO (there are *at least* three HONO molecules for every sulfur atom in the fuel). Finally, the measured NO₂/NO_y (0.9) is inconsistent with the conversion of large amounts of HO_x into HNO₃.

Given the estimate of HONO at the time of emission, the time evolution of OH in the plume can be calculated using an integrating photochemical model. The model solves the coupled differential equations that control OH concentrations (see Table 1) using measured concentrations and temperatures, calculated photolysis rates, and $[\text{HONO}]_0$ calculated from Eq. 4. The results using the conditions for encounter #3 as model inputs are compared to the measurements of OH in Figure 2.

The agreement of this model with the measured OH for encounter #3 shows that the assumptions in the calculation of HONO discussed above are justified. In fact, the more extensive photochemical model and Eq. 4 give nearly identical results until the plume is more than 15 min. old. This agreement occurs because HONO is the primary source of OH in the early encounters and the lifetime of HONO is completely described by Eq. 3. The curvature after 30 minutes occurs because other processes, mostly the photolysis of HNO₄, contribute to the production of OH. However, the rates of these processes are small compared to the loss rates due to NO_x and $[\text{OH}]$ drops below background levels (see Fig. 1c).

Estimates of the oxidation of NO_x and SO₂ by OH in the plume via reactions in (1) and (2) are shown in Figure 2. Approximately 5% of NO_x and 1–2% of SO₂ are oxidized, mostly within the first 15 minutes. The amount of NO_x oxidized by OH is largely determined by the fraction of $[\text{OH}]_0/[\text{NO}_x]_0$ in the exhaust. The fraction of SO₂ that is oxidized depends on the relative rates of sequences 1 and 2. For lower stratospheric daytime conditions in general, 5% of NO_x and ~2% of SO₂ will be oxidized by OH before the plume disperses. Similar fractions are reported in modeling studies when the same $[\text{HO}_x]_0/[\text{NO}_x]_0$ value as determined here is used [e.g., Danilin *et al.*, 1994; Kärcher *et al.*, 1996; Brown *et al.*, 1996].

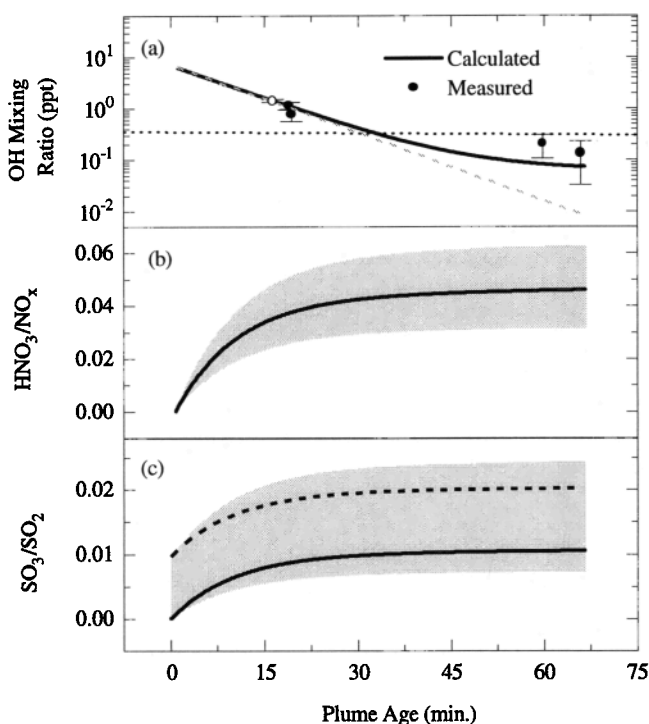


Figure 2. (a) Time evolution of OH produced from HONO photolysis in the Concorde plume. The five measurements (circles) are scaled to $[\text{NO}_x]$ in each encounter. The error bars are the 2-σ uncertainties of the measurements. The open circle represents encounter #3. The solid line is the result of the integrating model and the dashed line is the result of Eq. 4, each using $[\text{HONO}]_0/[\text{NO}_x]_0 = 0.045$. The dotted line corresponds to the 0.3 ppt background level of OH. Oxidation of (b) NO₂ → HNO₃ and (c) SO₂ → SO₃ in the plume is shown versus plume age. The oxidation ratio is the ratio of emitted NO_x or SO₂ that is oxidized by emitted OH to the total NO_x or SO₂ emitted from the engine. The shaded region includes the 1-σ uncertainty of the calculation. The dashed line in (c) represents the oxidation ratio of SO₂ assuming all HO_x is emitted as OH, the solid line represents the ratio if OH is converted to HONO prior to emission.

Summary and Conclusions

Based on the ratio of $[\text{HONO}]_0/[\text{NO}_y]_0$, we estimate the emission index (EI) of HO_x to be 0.35 ± 0.17 gOH/kg fuel for encounter #3. Table 2 summarizes the measurements of the Concorde and ER-2 exhaust plume encounters for which accurate estimates can be made. The Concorde encounters include measurements of exhaust emitted at Mach 2 (#3) and Mach 1.7 (#4 and #5). The ER-2 emission indices represent an average of 7 plume encounters. Both the EI's of HO_x and NO_y are substantially smaller for the ER-2 and Mach 1.7 cases than for the Mach 2 case. This trend is consistent with the strong temperature dependence of OH and NO emission indices [Neely and Davidson, 1972; McGregor *et al.*, 1972].

Measurements of the number of volatile particles, thought to be composed largely of sulfuric acid, imply that at least 12–

45% of fuel sulfur is oxidized to H₂SO₄ [Fahey *et al.*, 1995a]. However, measurements of HO_x suggest that only ~2% of SO₂ is oxidized by OH via gas-phase reactions in the plume. The discrepancy could be resolved if the particles are not primarily H₂SO₄ or if the sulfur is oxidized to SO₃ in the engine or in the plume by some unknown mechanism. Whether sulfur is emitted as SO₃, which quickly forms H₂SO₄, or as SO₂ determines whether sulfate aerosols form in the plume or long after the plume disperses. This formation rate directly affects the size distribution of sulfate aerosols, and will determine the impact of future HSCT emissions on aerosol surface areas throughout the stratosphere [Weisenstein *et al.*, 1996].

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