

Resetting Tropospheric OH and CH₄ Lifetime with UV H₂O Absorption

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Abstract

The decay of methyl chloroform, a banned ozone-depleting substance, has provided a clear observational metric of mean tropospheric OH abundance. Almost all current global chemistry models calculate about 15% too much OH, and thus too rapid methane loss. Methane is a short-lived climate forcer, critical to achieving global warming targets, and this error impacts our model projections of climate change. New observations of water vapor absorption in the ultraviolet region (290-350 nm) imply reductions in sunlight with key photolysis rates decreasing by 8-12% in the near-surface tropical atmosphere. Incorporation of this new mechanism in a chemistry-transport model reduces OH and methane loss by only 4%, but combined with other proposed mechanisms, such as tropospheric halogen chemistry (7%), we may be able to resolve this conundrum.

Projecting the efficacy of climate change mitigation efforts involving short-lived climate forcers such as the greenhouse gas methane (CH₄) (1) requires accurate modeling of its atmospheric loss, which is a function of its lifetime, i.e., the total atmospheric burden divided by the loss rate. A long-standing problem with most current global chemistry models (2-3) is that the lifetime of methane (CH₄) with respect to loss by tropospheric OH, which constitutes about 82% of the total loss, is systematically lower than that scaled from the observed OH-driven decay of methyl chloroform (CH₃CCl₃) (4). Here, we identify a missing component in current chemistry models, viz. ultraviolet absorption by water vapor (H₂O) (5), and show that its inclusion in a photochemistry model will reduce OH levels, increasing the CH₄ lifetime, thus partly resolving the discrepancy found in most models (2).

A combination of recent laboratory studies, field measurements, and satellite observations presents a convincing case for significant absorption of radiation by water vapor at ultraviolet wavelengths (5-6). Previously, only negligibly small ultraviolet H₂O absorption was found (7-8). Both sides of that disagreement present plausible cases and the difference remains unresolved. Here, we take the recently measured H₂O cross sections, implement them in a photolysis code, and examine the first-order impacts on tropospheric chemistry.

Water vapor absorbs ultraviolet sunlight (290- to 350-nm) in the troposphere but does not photodissociate, and thus it reduces the overall photochemical activity. This tropospheric ultraviolet window coincides with that where photolysis of ozone (O₃) produces the metastable excited state of atomic oxygen, O(¹D) (R1). Some of this O(¹D) reacts with H₂O (R2) becoming the primary source of atmospheric hydroxyl radicals (OH). These OH radicals are responsible for the photochemical destruction of many pollutants, including CH₄ (R3).





45 Here we adopt the measured ultraviolet spectrum for H₂O absorption from (5) as shown by the
 46 thin black line in Figure 1a. This high-resolution (1-nm) absorption is mapped onto the broader
 47 wavelength bins used in the photolysis calculations of the Cloud-J module (9) and shown as blue
 48 bars. These average H₂O cross sections are weighted by the variations in solar flux across each
 49 bin. Even these 'large' H₂O cross sections are relatively small, only about eight times larger than
 50 the Rayleigh scattering cross section for air, shown as black bars. The cross section for R1,
 51 scaled down by 10⁶, is shown as red bars. R1 occurs only for wavelengths less than 340 nm, i.e.,
 52 the five leftmost bars in the figure, which have mid-point wavelengths of 295, 303, 310, 316, and
 53 333 nm.

54 **Photolysis Results**

55 The photolysis rate for R1, J_{O1D} (s⁻¹), is calculated here using Cloud-J 7.6 (10) updated to version
 56 8.0 to include H₂O absorption in the ultraviolet region (Fig. 1a). Calculations in Fig. 1 are for
 57 overhead sun, clear sky, and a tropical atmosphere, see caption. The contribution to J_{O1D} from
 58 the five ultraviolet wavelength bins are shown in Fig. 1b. The 295-nm bin has the largest cross
 59 section for R1, but 99.5 % of the photons in this bin are absorbed in the stratosphere and so it
 60 contributes little to J_{O1D} (<5%). The 333-nm bin has very low cross sections for R1 and also
 61 contributes less than 5% to J_{O1D}. The dominant production of O(¹D) comes from the 303-, 310-,
 62 and 316-nm bins.

63 The total J_{O1D} tropospheric profile is shown in Fig. 1c with H₂O absorption (blue line) and without
 64 (red line). The decrease in J_{O1D} from previous models (without H₂O) is substantial, 11% near the
 65 surface falling to 5 % at 3 km altitude and 2 % by 10 km. Many other key tropospheric photolysis
 66 rates also decrease at the surface, see Table 1. For example, J_{H2CO} is driven by ultraviolet
 67 wavelengths, and the two channels decrease by 8-10 % (surface) to 4-5% (3 km) to 2% (10 km).
 68 In contrast, J_{NO2} with dominant cross sections at blue wavelengths decreases by only 1 %
 69 throughout the troposphere. An obvious atmospheric test of UV H₂O absorption would be
 70 through profiles of measured and modeled actinic fluxes in the UV region as in (11), but absolute
 71 fluxes vary with nearby clouds and are difficult to model at the 10% level.

72 The ultraviolet-visible heating rates calculated in Cloud-J 7.6c consider only O₃ absorption and
 73 not H₂O absorption, and thus these rates are small, < 0.02 K day⁻¹ throughout most of the
 74 troposphere, see Fig. 1d. With the H₂O ultraviolet absorption adopted here, these rates jump to
 75 0.05 K day⁻¹ near the surface but this rate is inconsequential compared to solar heating by clouds
 76 (12, Fig. 3), infrared absorption by H₂O, or other sources of available potential energy (13). In
 77 terms of the overall radiative balance in this case, the atmospheric absorption increases by 1.5 W
 78 m⁻² (0.1%), reducing surface ocean absorption by 1.25 W m⁻² and reflected sunlight by 0.25 W m⁻².
 79

80 The photolysis code and underlying cross sections for other chemical species are described in (9)
 81 for Cloud-J version 7.3c, in (10) for Cloud-J and Solar-J version 7.6. The new photolysis module
 82 including absorption by H₂O (Cloud-J version 8.0 including its code, figures and tables) is
 83 published in (14).

84 **Chemistry Results**

85
 86 The updated Cloud-J (v8.0) was incorporated into the current UC Irvine chemistry-transport
 87 model (CTM). The UCI CTM, including Cloud-J, has been used for a variety of global chemistry
 88 studies (11, 15-16), and in direct comparisons with many global models, the O₃ and OH chemistry
 89 results are consistent with the other top models (16-18). A five-year simulation was made using
 90 the integrated forecast system (OpenIFS, cycle 38r1) meteorological data for years 2000-2004
 91 but with annually repeating emissions for year 2000 from scenario RCP-6.0. The annual

chemical budgets averaged over the last four years for O₃, CO, and CH₄ are given in Table 2. We did not activate the extra diagnostics for stratosphere-troposphere exchange of O₃ in these CTM simulations, and so it is derived from mass balance.

The budgets in T-moles provide for some interesting comparisons. About 60% of the CO source is from in situ chemical production (64 Tm y⁻¹), about half of which is from CH₄ oxidation (34 Tm y⁻¹) and the rest from short-lived non-methane hydrocarbons. The primary OH production (101 Tm y⁻¹) matches the OH oxidation of CO (99 Tm y⁻¹), and thus the extra OH to oxidize CH₄ and other hydrocarbons must be part of OH amplification involving reactions of OH, HO₂, NO, NO₂, and hydrocarbons.

A parallel perturbation simulation was run with the H₂O absorption cross sections zeroed out and the % changes are given in Table 2. Because the H₂O absorption results in 8-12% boundary-layer reductions in photolysis rates for so many species (e.g., H₂CO, HOOH, CH₃OOH, acetaldehyde, acetone, see Table 1), we expect complex changes across the major tropospheric species. The largest perturbation caused by the H₂O absorption is still what we expected from the photolysis-only example above: primary OH production is reduced by 4.4% and the OH-driven loss of CH₄ decreases by 4.1%. This decrease results in a reduced CH₄-source of CO, but the CO sink is also reduced by 3.8%, so that overall CO increases by 2.1%. The OH reduction has a larger impact on CH₄ compared with CO (4.1% vs. 3.8%) because the CH₄ loss is highly temperature dependent, occurring more rapidly in the lowermost tropical troposphere where the H₂O absorption has the largest reduction in J_{O₁D} (Fig. 1).

Tropospheric O₃ increases by 2.0%, and it is hard to explain simply with the budget terms we have available. The obvious explanation is that O₃ loss was reduced by 2-4% because the major terms are O(¹D)+H₂O, O₃+OH, and O₃+HO₂. The first two terms dropped 4% and HO₂ dropped only 1%. Production of O₃ is assigned to the rates of HO₂+NO and other peroxy radicals with NO. The HO₂ mass dropped only 1% while NO and NO₂ were unchanged. Thus, the photolysis changes reduced O₃ loss more than production and the abundance increased.

The lower tropical troposphere dominates both the CH₄ budget and the impact of H₂O absorption. The tropospheric loss of CH₄ to reaction with OH is weighted toward the lower troposphere with 40% of the total occurring in the 800-1000 hPa range, 84% in the 500-1000 hPa range, and about 8% at pressures < 400 hPa. The relative reduction in CH₄ loss from H₂O absorption is about 2.5% at pressures < 500 hPa, increasing linearly in pressure to 6.5% at 1000 hPa. Half (50%) of CH₄ loss occurs in the core tropics (±20° latitude), where the impact of H₂O absorption is largest (>5%); and most loss (90%) occurs within ±45° latitude, where the H₂O impact drops to about 3%. The longitudinal impact of H₂O varies about 4.3% with a standard deviation of 0.6%. Thus, the largest relative impact of UV absorption by H₂O occurs where the absolute loss of CH₄ is greatest.

Discussion

This process – UV absorption by H₂O – can only partially resolve one of the more enduring conundrums in modeling CH₄: use of the OH calculated in current models produces a much more rapid decay of atmospheric CH₃CCl₃ than is observed, 0.18 y⁻¹ (±1%) over 1998-2008 (15, 19). From Table 1 of (2), the mean modeled CH₄ lifetime across 16 global chemistry models is biased 15% low (i.e., biased high in OH). Work by (3) examined 10 next-generation models and found their CH₄ lifetime for the 2000 period ranged from 6.6 to 8.5 y, with most having lifetimes below 8 y, which also falls well below an observationally based range of 9.1±0.9 yr (14-15). Reference (3) also identified the tropospheric O₃ abundances and J_{O₁D} as the primary factors controlling model differences. Unfortunately, we can get only 4% of the 15% OH reduction by including H₂O absorption, and thus must continue to look elsewhere.

A number of chemistry models have added tropospheric halogen chemistry (20-23) and found that the ensuing chemical changes caused, typically, an 8% reduction in the OH+CH₄ rate, which was attributed to a 20% reduction in present day tropospheric O₃, e.g., from 30 to 24 DU. Calculations using the NASA Atmospheric Tomography mission (ATom) parcel data (24) show that O₃ controls CH₄ loss with a sensitivity factor of 0.46 over the Atlantic and Pacific Ocean basins, and combining this with a 20% reduction in tropospheric O₃ gives a 9% reduction in OH+CH₄. One challenge for the halogen model is that the major shift in tropospheric O₃ down to 24 DU may be incompatible with observations giving values closer to 30 DU (25, Table 1)

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Table 1. Reduction in key tropospheric photolysis rates (J-values) at the surface when UV absorption by H ₂ O (5) is included.		
J-value	reduction @ surface	notes
O ₃ (1D)	11%	O ₃ photolysis yielding O(¹ D)
H ₂ CO _a	10%	H ₂ CO channel–a yields H + HCO;
H ₂ CO _b	8%	channel-b yields H ₂ + CO.
H ₂ O ₂	9%	
CH ₃ OOH	8%	
N ₂ O ₅	8%	
HNO ₃	11%	
OCS	9%	
PAN	10%	
CH ₃ NO ₃	11%	
ActAld	12%	Acetaldehyde
MeVK	8%	Methylvinyl ketone
MeAcr	5%	Methacrolein
GlyAld	11%	Glycol aldehyde
MEKeto	11%	Methylethyl ketone
PrAld	11%	Propionaldehyde, C ₂ H ₅ CHO→ C ₂ H ₅ +HCO
Glyxlb	9%	Glyoxal, (CHO) ₂ , channels–b and –c are equally affected;
Glyxlc	9%	channel–a (HCO+HCO, 61% of total) is much less affected (3%).

Acet-a	11%	Acetone, both channel-a ($\text{CH}_3\text{CO}+\text{CH}_3$) and channel-b
Acet-b	12%	($\text{CH}_3+\text{CH}_3+\text{CO}$) are affected almost equally.
Table notes: Calculated for tropical atmosphere, overhead sun; lower sun angles increase the % reduction. For all J-values, reduction % drops by $\frac{1}{2}$ at ~ 3 km altitude, and by $\frac{1}{4}$ at ~ 7 km. Long-lived (stratospheric) trace gases not affected. Halogen species are not included. Other J-values are reduced by $<5\%$.		

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Table 2. Reference case tropospheric chemical budgets (T-mole, T-mole y^{-1} , y) and change (%)				
	tropospheric $\text{O}_3 + \text{O}$	global CO	global CH_4	OH via $\text{O}(^1\text{D})+\text{H}_2\text{O}$
mass (Tm)	7.2	11.9	306.4	
emission (Tm y^{-1})	none	+45.54	l.b.c.	
chemical production (Tm y^{-1})	+507.34	+64.05	none	100.6
chemical loss (Tm y^{-1})	-501.64	-99.42	-33.73	
surface deposition (Tm y^{-1})	-13.24	-4.77	-1.88	
stratosphere-troposphere flux (Tm y^{-1})	+7.54	-5.38	-1.99	
net sum (Tm y^{-1})	0.00	0.02	37.60	
lifetime vs. OH (y)		0.120	9.08	
Relative change (%) in magnitude caused by UV H_2O absorption.				
mass	+2.05%	+2.09%	+0.02%	
chemical production	+0.90%	-2.48%	none	-4.42%
chemical loss	+0.85%	-1.77%	-4.09%	
Chemical production and loss refer to tropospheric chemistry only; stratospheric chemistry is counted as stratosphere-troposphere flux (units = T-moles per year). Results are the average of the last 4 years (2001-2004) of a UCI CTM simulation using constant year 2000 emissions from RCP6.0 scenario. The terms are taken from the budget tendencies except for the O_3 s-t flux, which is derived from mass balance. The O_3 production and loss terms assume that ground state atomic oxygen $\text{O}(^3\text{P})$ and O_3 are equivalent and thus rates like $\text{O}+\text{O}_2+\text{M}\rightarrow\text{O}_3$ are not included, but the rate $\text{NO}_2+h\nu\rightarrow\text{NO}+\text{O}$ counts as the dominant O_3+O production ($>99\%$) in these budgets. The rates $\text{O}(^1\text{D})+\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (50 Tm y^{-1}) and $\text{O}(^1\text{D})+\text{CH}_4$ (0.02 Tm y^{-1}) count as O_3+O loss, while $\text{O}_2+h\nu$ counts as production of two O_3+O (0.6 Tm y^{-1}). CH_4 and CO chemical loss in these simulations is 99.9% due to tropospheric OH. Changes in radicals other than OH were smaller: NO and NO_2 tropospheric mass changed by $<0.1\%$; HO_2 decreased by 0.9%. The lifetime versus OH is a simple burden:loss ratio, no chemical feedbacks are included.				

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262 **Figure 1. Ultraviolet (UV) absorption by H_2O and its impact on photolysis and heating**
263 **rates. (a)** UV cross sections for H_2O absorption from laboratory measurements (5) (thin black
264 line), H_2O absorption as used by the wavelength bins in the Cloud-J (thick blue bars), Rayleigh
265 scattering by air (thick black bars), and O_3 absorption times quantum yield producing of $\text{O}(^1\text{D})$
266 (scaled by 10^{-6} , red bars). **(b)** Altitude profiles of $J_{\text{O}1\text{D}}$ (s^{-1}) from each of the 5 UV wavelength bins
267 in Cloud-J, centered on 295, 303, 310, 316, and 333 nm. Calculations are made with a tropical,
268 cloud-free, overhead-sun, oceanic atmosphere, and total ozone column of 274 DU. Plotted are
269 tropospheric values from surface (0 km, 1013 hPa, 299.5 K) to tropopause (16 km 110 hPa, 191
270 K). The H_2O profile has a scale height of about 2.2 km and a column density of 14×10^{22}
271 molecules. cm^{-2} , falling within the range of tropical atmospheres, $10\text{-}18 \times 10^{22}$ molecules cm^{-2}
272 (26). **(c)** Altitude profiles of total $J_{\text{O}1\text{D}}$ (s^{-1}) calculated with (blue) and without (red) H_2O UV

273 absorption. **(d)** Altitude profiles of heating rates (K d^{-1}) calculated using only UV plus visible O_3
274 absorption (red) and then including UV H_2O absorption (blue).
275