

# Validation of a 2D model using observed profiles of SF<sub>6</sub> with main focus on the tropics

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## Abstract

Sulfur hexafluoride (SF<sub>6</sub>) is a useful tracer to test the transport behavior of atmospheric models. There have been few measurements of the vertical distribution of SF<sub>6</sub> especially in the tropics, which have restricted the validation of vertical transport in two-dimensional (2D) global models. In an attempt to fill this void, we have used a 2D model in a transient mode to compare the calculated vertical distributions of SF<sub>6</sub> with observations. The gross feature of the simulated vertical profiles compares well with the observations particularly in the tropics. Comparisons with UARS/HALOE CH<sub>4</sub>-data show that the sharp vertical gradient above the tropopause and the extremely weak gradient above 25 km in the observations in India are due to the quasi biannual oscillation (QBO). The QBO is not taken into account in the model dynamics but in average between its west and east phase vertical profiles are represented well by the model. We also confirm that global SF<sub>6</sub> source emissions should be distributed on the model grid proportional to electrical power usage.

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**Keywords:** Sulfur hexafluoride; 2D model; Vertical profile; Tropics

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## 1. Introduction

Sulfur hexafluoride (SF<sub>6</sub>) is an extremely stable atmospheric trace gas and is produced entirely due to anthropogenic activities. Most of the SF<sub>6</sub> produced worldwide (~80%) comes from electrical equipment like gas-insulated high-voltage circuit breakers, substations, transformers and transmission lines (Niemeyer and Chu, 1992).

Historical release estimates of SF<sub>6</sub> are available, but these are very rough estimates because the amount of gas that is banked inside electrical equipment is highly uncertain. The global increase of SF<sub>6</sub> in the atmosphere

provides a reliable accumulation record from which release rates can be calculated. Such an estimate has been provided by Maiss et al. (1996). For an analytical long-term representation of their tropospheric data, they took an emission rate of SF<sub>6</sub> as  $E(t) = 0.2(t - 1965.9)$  (Kiloton yr<sup>-1</sup>).

There is almost no photochemical loss of SF<sub>6</sub> in the troposphere and stratosphere. Its major loss is considered to be the photodissociation by energetic Lyman  $\alpha$  radiation in the mesosphere.

The steady increase in the atmospheric concentrations of SF<sub>6</sub> over the past few decades, unaffected by chemical and biological processes, and distinct for both hemispheres is a powerful tool for model investigations of transport processes in the atmosphere. Here we use a two-dimensional (2D) chemical transport model for

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such a study. The model has been developed and used for the past 15 years at the Max Planck Institute for Chemistry (MPIC) at Mainz, Germany. We have appropriately modified the MPIC model to include SF<sub>6</sub> in order to study the distribution of the tracer. We call the modified model as PRL-MPIC model and henceforth use this name throughout the text.

## 2. Model description

The model grid has a horizontal resolution of 10° with 18 latitude points (85°S–85°N) and 34 pressure levels from the ground up to 0.18 hPa (~61 km altitude), with about 2 km spacing in the stratosphere and mesosphere and finer spacing (~0.6 km) in the lower troposphere (up to about 2.5 km).

The chemistry module of the model consists of 73 chemical species, 128 chemical gas-phase reactions, 52 photolysis reactions and the most important heterogeneous reactions on stratospheric sulfate aerosol and polar stratospheric clouds. Short-lived species are grouped in families and solved analytically from the chemical equations. This concept allows an integration time step of 2 h (Gidel et al., 1983; Grob et al., 1998). Either the flux of a species through the boundary level can be specified or the mixing ratio of the species can be assigned to a fix value.

The photolysis rates are calculated online using a radiative transfer algorithm, based on a modified two-stream method (Zdunkowski et al., 1980). It includes multiple scattering by air molecules, aerosol particles and a climatology for clouds (Brühl and Crutzen, 1988, 1989).

The transport between the model grid boxes is described by the continuity equation. In a 2D model, the large-scale non-zonal fluxes between the model grid points are calculated from mean motions and their variability using an eddy diffusion parameterization (Reed and German, 1965). The diabatic circulation in the stratosphere is calculated in advance (Rosenfield et al., 1987), based on the radiation scheme described by Brühl and Crutzen (1988) and monthly climatological observations of the temperature and ozone. The tropospheric mean winds are taken from observations.

Further details of the model can be found in Gidel et al. (1983) and Brühl and Crutzen (1993) and in the appendix.

## 3. Simulation of SF<sub>6</sub>

We have simulated the transport and concentration of SF<sub>6</sub> for a 20 year period. The model was initialized in 1979 with a globally uniform SF<sub>6</sub> mixing ratio of 0.7327 pptv in the troposphere and 0.366 pptv in the

stratosphere. Global SF<sub>6</sub> emission rates have been taken from the estimates of Maiss et al. (1996) based on a linear trend as discussed above. These yearly rates have been listed in Table 1. The simulation for SF<sub>6</sub> was performed with a set of eddy diffusion coefficients, which are purely empirically based, as used in the MPIC 2D model in Ko et al. (1995). The reaction rates of SF<sub>6</sub> with O(<sup>1</sup>D) and OH, used in this study are taken from Ravishankara et al. (1993).

Earlier, in the 2D MPIC model, the geographical distribution of emissions of industrial source gases was

Table 1  
Global emission rates used in the simulation of SF<sub>6</sub>

Year	Kiloton/year	Year	Kiloton/year
1969	0.62	1985	3.82
1970	0.82	1986	4.02
1971	1.02	1987	4.22
1972	1.22	1988	4.42
1973	1.42	1989	4.62
1974	1.62	1990	4.82
1975	1.82	1991	5.02
1976	2.02	1992	5.22
1977	2.22	1993	5.42
1978	2.42	1994	5.62
1979	2.62	1995	5.82
1980	2.82	1996	6.02
1981	3.02	1997	6.22
1982	3.22	1998	6.42
1983	3.42	1999	6.62
1984	3.62		

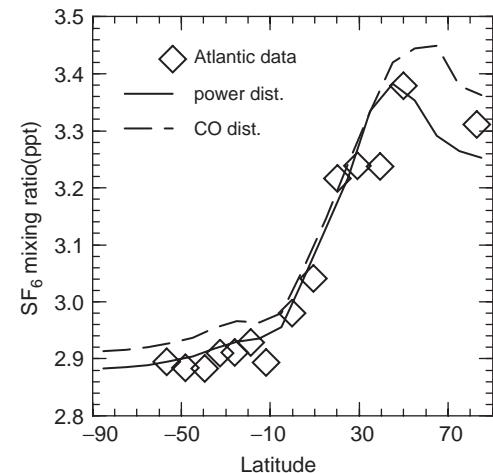


Fig. 1. The mean surface concentration of SF<sub>6</sub> for November 1993 as a function of latitude. The model simulations based on CO distribution (dashed line) and electric power distribution (solid line) are compared with observations from 12 Atlantic transects (triangle) taken from Maiss et al. (1996).

similar to the distribution of carbon monoxide (CO). In the present study we have distributed the global SF<sub>6</sub> emission according to electrical power usage by various countries, since electrical equipment are the major sources. For the other halocarbons, emissions are still distributed according to CO.

As seen in Fig. 1, the model simulation with the latter distribution generated a meridional gradient closer to the observed one than the simulation with SF<sub>6</sub> sources distributed according to CO (Sheel and Lal, 2000).

#### 4. Vertical profiles

Fig. 2 shows the comparison of our model results with the observations. The vertical profile observations have been taken from four balloon flights over Hyderabad, India (17°N) on 26 March 1987, 16 April 1994 and 18 April 1998 (some are published in Patra, 1997; Patra et al., 1997). Also discussed are profiles from Aire sur l'Adour, France (44°N), (30 September 1993) and Kiruna, Sweden (68°N), (20 March 1992 and 18 January 1995), which are published in Harnisch et al. (1996).

The general shape of the vertical profiles (Fig. 2) is that mixing ratio decreases slowly in the troposphere and then decreases faster in the lower stratosphere. This is due to the long lifetime and rapid growth rate of SF<sub>6</sub>, which allows it to be used as a tracer for estimation of the mean age of a stratospheric air sample (Patra et al., 1997; Hall and Waugh, 1998). Let us discuss this for Hyderabad (17°N). On 16 April 1994 (see Fig. 2) the observed SF<sub>6</sub> concentration decreases from 3.19 pptv at around 8 km to 3.05 pptv at 17.2 km (near the tropopause). A much faster decrease of 0.06 pptv/km is observed in the lower stratosphere up to about 27 km. The decrease slows down further to about 0.01 pptv/km beyond 27 km. The gradients for 1998 (see Fig. 2) as simulated by the model for Hyderabad are 0.01 pptv/km in the troposphere and 0.08 pptv/km in the lower

stratosphere, while the observed gradients are 0.0083 pptv/km in the troposphere and 0.15 pptv/km in the lower stratosphere. The bias between model and observations also seen in 1997 is discussed in the later paragraphs.

A striking feature is seen from the observations. SF<sub>6</sub> concentration decreases very slowly in the troposphere up to about 17 km for Hyderabad and 13 km for Sweden. The decrease is very rapid in the stratosphere up to about 25 km for Hyderabad and 20 km for Sweden and then slows down again above this altitude. In fact the SF<sub>6</sub> concentration above 25 km was almost constant for Hyderabad in 1994. This last feature indicates unusually strong mixing in the region above 25 km and is not reproduced by the model.

The relatively poor agreement in Fig. 2 for 1987 at Hyderabad is due to disturbances by the quasi biannual oscillation (QBO). Measurements on 16 April 1994 represent almost the same QBO phase. The kinks in the SF<sub>6</sub> profiles in the stratosphere correspond to the transition from westerlies to easterlies in the Singapore winds (Marquardt and Naujokat, Free University of Berlin, pers. comm.) at about 24 km and from easterlies to westerlies near 33 km. CH<sub>4</sub> profiles obtained by the Halogen occultation experiment on the Upper Atmosphere Research Satellite (Russell et al., 1993; Park et al., 1996) near 17°N at the same time show a very similar behavior. However, CH<sub>4</sub>, in contrast to SF<sub>6</sub>, decreases quickly with altitude (Fig. 3) because of chemical sinks in the stratosphere. The region with easterlies promotes vertical mixing, while in the regions with westerlies vertical gradients are built up. The situation is almost similar for the measurements of 1998. In the years 1995 and 1997, which are in the other QBO phase, the vertical transport barriers are vertically shifted, following the zonal wind patterns (Fig. 3). The QBO effect has also been observed in other long-lived tracers like N<sub>2</sub>O measured simultaneously during the balloon flights (Patra et al., 2000; Lal and Sheel, 2000).

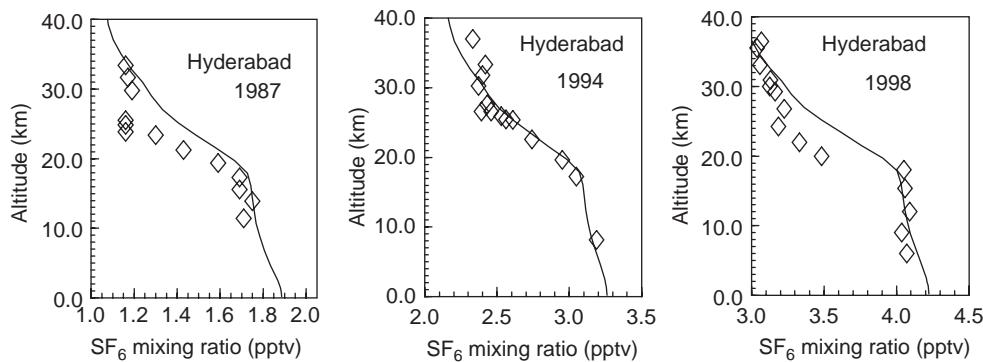


Fig. 2. Vertical distribution of SF<sub>6</sub> obtained from the balloon flight conducted in 1987 (a), 1994 (b) and 1998 (c) from Hyderabad (17°N) (open symbols) compared with the 2D model simulations (solid line).

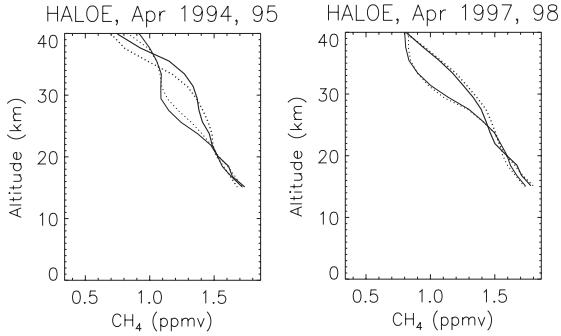


Fig. 3. Profiles of  $\text{CH}_4$  obtained by UARS-HALOE for the same dates as in Fig. 2b and c and for the opposite QBO phases (1995, 1997). Solid lines, late April, dotted lines, early April. The thick lines correspond to the years of the  $\text{SF}_6$  measurements while thin lines correspond to years 1995 and 1997 (opposite QBO phases).

and from observations of trace constituents by HALOE (Dunkerton, 2001). It can also be clearly seen in the vertical propagation of the seasonal signal in tropical stratospheric water vapor (Mote et al., 1996; Niwano and Masato Shiotani, 2001). The profiles calculated by the 2D model represent approximately the average of the two cases of Fig. 3 since the QBO is not included in the model dynamics. However, the model is able to reproduce the increase of  $\text{SF}_6$  between 1987 and 1998, indicating that the average upward transport in the tropics to the sink region in the mesosphere is approximately right.

In the midlatitude regions (Fig. 4) the model tends to be high in the lower stratosphere indicating that the subtropical barrier is not strong enough in the model. The model is however in the range of variability with longitude as obtained from HALOE  $\text{CH}_4$  data.

In high latitudes (Fig. 5) there is the effect of the polar vortex displaced from the pole containing ‘old’ air with low  $\text{SF}_6$ , which cannot be treated in a 2D model. Using the profiles of 75°N as proxy for ‘equivalent latitude’ relative to the vortex center gives better agreement than using the closest geographical latitude for the observations in the lower stratosphere obviously representing vortex air.

The loss mechanisms of  $\text{SF}_6$  in the stratosphere are uncertain (Hall and Waugh, 1998). Vertical profiles have been modeled assuming a loss rate identical to that of CFC-11 in the stratosphere (Ko et al., 1993). However, comparison of vertical profiles of CFC-11 and  $\text{SF}_6$  from simultaneous measurements at Hyderabad do not support this result (Patra et al., 1997). We have therefore taken kinetic data for  $\text{SF}_6$  from the latest measured estimate as of today by Ravishankara et al. (1993). They report a reaction rate of  $1.8 \times 10^{-14} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  for  $\text{SF}_6$  with  $\text{O}^1\text{D}$  and an upper limit of

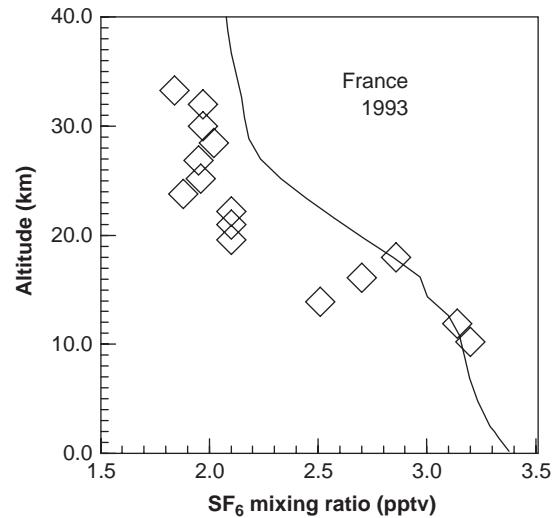


Fig. 4. Vertical distribution of  $\text{SF}_6$  measured in 1993 at a midlatitude station in France (44°N) by Harnisch et al. (1996) (open symbols) compared with the 2D model simulations (solid line).

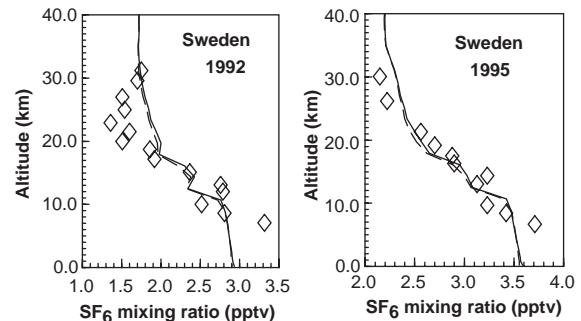


Fig. 5. Vertical distribution of  $\text{SF}_6$  measured in 1992 (a) and 1995 (b) at a high-latitude station in Sweden (68°N) by Harnisch et al. (1996) (open symbols) compared with the 2D model simulations for 65°N (solid line) and 75°N (dashed line).

$5 \times 10^{-19} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  for the reaction with OH. This loss process is effective in the mesosphere.

Vertical profiles simulated by the NASA/GSFC 2D model have been earlier compared with 1994 observations over Hyderabad (Patra et al., 1997). The simulation with no photochemical loss of  $\text{SF}_6$  shows a better agreement compared to the simulation with  $\text{SF}_6$  loss rates assumed identical to CFC-114 and CFC-115. The loss rate coefficients for CFC-114 and CFC-115 by  $\text{O}^1\text{D}$  as reported by Ravishankara et al. (1993) are  $1.32 \times 10^{-10}$  and  $5.0 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , respectively. This justifies the loss rates that we have taken.

The  $\text{SF}_6$  vertical profile at 68°N for 1998 also compares well with the profile simulated by Hall and Waugh (1998) using a GCM and assuming no mesospheric loss.

## 5. Conclusion

In this study we make use of SF<sub>6</sub> measurements, which can provide a valuable constraint on the transport of models, particularly below the middle stratosphere (Hall and Waugh, 1998).

There are differences between model results and observations over Hyderabad in the altitude regions with prevailing westerlies (20–22 km) with the largest differences seen near the transition altitude. In 1994, the vertical extent of easterlies is largest and thus the agreement with model results is better. Comparison with HALOE data of different QBO phases shows that the 2D-model almost simulates the average profiles.

We must emphasize that the vertical comparisons discussed here are with a zonally averaged 2D model. To get better agreement with observation it might help to include a parameterization of QBO effects as in Gray and Pyle (1989). If one has to accurately account for the departures from observations, one must also take into account the longitudinal gradient as discussed in Denning et al. (1999). This would require comparisons with a 3D model.

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## Appendix A. Further details of the model

### A.1. Chemistry

The chemistry module uses an integration algorithm based on the family concept with a 2 h time step. The chemical families of the 2D model are: odd oxygen (O<sub>x</sub>), odd hydrogen (HO<sub>x</sub>), reactive chlorine (ClO<sub>x</sub>), total inorganic bromine (Br<sub>x</sub>), odd nitrogen (NO<sub>y</sub>).

### A.2. Radiation

The temperatures in the 2D model are based on a climatology by Barnett and Corney (1985) as a

function of latitude and pressure for every month of the year.

The cloud cover and distribution are estimated from Warren et al. (1986). The zonal average surface albedo is also taken from climatological data (Robock, 1980). Both cloud cover and surface albedo are given as a function of latitude and season.

The ultraviolet and visible wavelength regions are split into 176 spectral intervals with a higher resolution of 1 nm between 300 and 320 nm (to get the correct photolytical production of O<sub>D</sub><sup>1</sup>, which determines OH, HO<sub>2</sub> concentrations) (Madronich and Weller, 1990). In the Schumann–Runge bands of O<sub>2</sub> between 180 and 200 nm the attenuation and absorption of the sunlight is calculated by the parameterization of Allen and Frederick (1982). The calculation of the photolysis rates is performed for a symmetrical diurnal cycle with 2 h time intervals, updated every 15 days of the model integration.

### A.3. Transport

The chemical species combined in a family are transported together, similar to the other species whose concentrations only vary slowly. These include H<sub>2</sub>O, CH<sub>4</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O, O<sub>x</sub>, HCl, ClO<sub>x</sub>, HF, Br<sub>x</sub>, CO and the different CFC species. The transport of NO<sub>y</sub> species is divided into two groups, HNO<sub>3</sub> and the remaining odd nitrogen species (NO<sub>y</sub>–HNO<sub>3</sub>). Similarly, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is not counted in the HO<sub>x</sub> family and is transported separately. Since the lifetime of HO<sub>x</sub> is much shorter than the timescales of transport, the HO<sub>x</sub> concentrations are calculated from photochemical steady-state assumptions only.

The eddy diffusion coefficients that refer to transport in meridional direction (K<sub>yy</sub>), vertical direction (K<sub>zz</sub>) and slanted direction (K<sub>yz</sub>) are derived empirically for each season. Typical values are K<sub>yy</sub> = 5 × 10<sup>9</sup> cm<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, K<sub>yz</sub> = ±5 × 10<sup>5</sup> cm<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and K<sub>yy</sub> = 4 × 10<sup>3</sup> cm<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> at the 50 hPa pressure level.

The diabatic circulation in the stratosphere is calculated in advance, based on the radiation scheme described by Brühl and Crutzen (1988). The heating rates for this calculation are derived from the infrared absorption calculation of CO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O, CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O and the CFCs by a modified broadband model (Ramanathan, 1976; Kiehl and Ramanathan, 1983) using climatological mixing ratios of these constituents and the radiation scheme described above. From the heating rates, the stream function  $\Psi$  is derived by an iterative solution method of the zonally averaged residual Eulerian thermodynamic equation (Solomon et al., 1986) using climatological zonal mean temperatures (Barnett and Corney, 1985). The tropospheric mean winds are taken from observations and the two schemes are connected with stream function and global vertical

mass flux. The wind fields are calculated by differentiating the given stream function  $\Psi$ . This method guarantees the conservation of mass, because the continuity equation is fulfilled automatically. The calculated wind fields are updated every month of the model integration.

#### A.4. Boundary conditions

There are two possibilities for treating transport at the upper and lower boundary of the model. Either the flux of a species through the boundary level can be specified or the mixing ratio of the species can be assigned to a fix value. The first method is better, for e.g., when the emissions on the Earth's surface are well known, while the second method is preferred when observed concentrations at the boundary are available. The model uses a mixture of both methods, but mainly the flux boundary condition (Gidel et al., 1983).

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