

New insight into the atmospheric chloromethane budget gained using gained using

F. Keppler, D. B. Harper, T. Röckmann, R. M. Moore, J. T. G. Hamilton

▶ To cite this version:

F. Keppler, D. B. Harper, T. Röckmann, R. M. Moore, J. T. G. Hamilton. New insight into the atmospheric chloromethane budget gained using gained using. Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics Discussions, 2005, 5 (3), pp.3899-3919. hal-00301583

HAL Id: hal-00301583 https://hal.science/hal-00301583v1

Submitted on 18 Jun 2008

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Atmos. Chem. Phys. Discuss., 5, 3899-3919, 2005

www.atmos-chem-phys.org/acpd/5/3899/ SRef-ID: 1680-7375/acpd/2005-5-3899

European Geosciences Union



New insight into the atmospheric chloromethane budget gained using stable carbon isotope ratios

F. Keppler^{1,2}, D. B. Harper¹, T. Röckmann², R. M. Moore³, and J. T. G. Hamilton^{1,4}

Received: 17 March 2005 - Accepted: 11 April 2005 - Published: 13 June 2005

Correspondence to: F. Keppler (frank.keppler@mpi-hd.mpg.de)

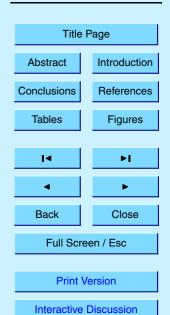
© 2005 Author(s). This work is licensed under a Creative Commons License.

ACPD

5, 3899-3919, 2005

Atmospheric chloromethane budget

F. Keppler et al.



¹School of Agriculture and Food Science, Queen's University Belfast, Newforge Lane, Belfast BT9 5PX, UK

²Max-Planck-Institut für Kernphysik, Saupfercheckweg 1, 69117 Heidelberg, Germany

³Department of Oceanography, Dalhousie University, Halifax, Novia Scotia, B3H 4J1, Canada

⁴Department of Agriculture and Rural Development for Northern Ireland, Newforge Lane, Belfast BT9 5PX, UK

Abstract

Atmospheric chloromethane (CH₃Cl) plays an important role in stratospheric ozone destruction, but many uncertainties still exist regarding strengths of both sources and sinks and the processes leading to formation of this naturally occurring gas. Recent work has identified a novel chemical origin for CH₃Cl, which can explain its production in a variety of terrestrial environments: The widespread structural component of plants, pectin, reacts readily with chloride ion to form CH₃Cl at both ambient and elevated temperatures (Hamilton et al., 2003). It has been proposed that this abiotic chloride methylation process in terrestrial environments could be responsible for formation of a large proportion of atmospheric CH₃Cl. However, more information is required to determine the global importance of this new source and its contribution to the atmospheric CH₃Cl budget.

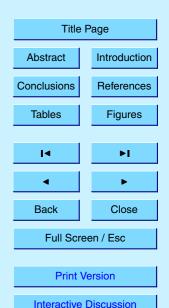
A potentially powerful tool in studying the atmospheric CH_3CI budget is the use of stable carbon isotope ratios. In an accompanying paper it is reported that the reaction of CH_3CI with OH radical, the dominant sink for atmospheric CH_3CI , is accompanied by an unexpectedly large fractionation factor (Gola et al., 2005). Another recently published study shows that CH_3CI formed by the abiotic methylation process at ambient temperatures has a unique stable carbon isotope signature, extremely depleted in ^{13}C , unequivocally distinguishing it from all other known sources (Keppler et al., 2004). Using these findings together with data existing in the literature, we here present three scenarios for an isotopic mass balance for atmospheric CH_3CI . Our calculations provide strong support for the proposal that the bulk fraction of atmospheric CH_3CI (1.8 to $2.5\,\mathrm{Tg}\,\mathrm{yr}^{-1}$) is produced by an abiotic chloride methylation process in terrestrial ecosystems, primarily located in tropical and subtropical areas, where turnover of biomass is highest. Furthermore our calculations also indicate that the microbial soil sink for CH_3CI is likely to be much larger (>1 $Tg\,\mathrm{yr}^{-1}$) than that previously assumed.

ACPD

5, 3899–3919, 2005

Atmospheric chloromethane budget

F. Keppler et al.



1. Introduction

Chloromethane (CH₃Cl) is the most abundant halocarbon in the atmosphere with a reported average mixing ratio in the range of 530 to 560 pptv (Montzka and Fraser, 2003; Simmonds et al., 2004; Trudinger et al., 2004; Aydin et al., 2004; Yoshida et al., 2004), corresponding to a total atmospheric burden of around 4 to 5 Tg (tera gram = 10¹² gram). Although largely of natural origin CH₃Cl is responsible for around 16% of chlorine-catalysed ozone destruction in the stratosphere (Montzka and Fraser, 2003). With large reductions in anthropogenic emissions of many ozone-depleting gases mandated under the Montreal Protocol, halogenated gases with natural sources will become relatively more important as a source of chlorine in the stratosphere in the future. A better understanding of the atmospheric budget of chloromethane is therefore required for reliable prediction of future ozone depletion.

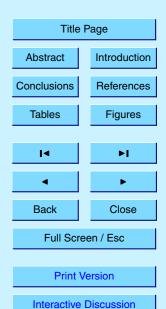
Until 1996 most of the CH₃Cl input to the atmosphere was considered to originate from the oceans, but investigations in recent years have clearly demonstrated that terrestrial sources dominate the atmospheric budget (Moore et al., 1996; Harper and Hamilton, 2003; Montzka and Fraser, 2003). The latest consensus assessment by the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) (Montzka and Fraser, 2003) considered the major terrestrial sources of CH₃Cl to be biomass burning (Lobert et al., 1999; Andreae and Merlet, 2001), wood-rotting fungi (Watling and Harper, 1998), coastal salt marshes (Rhew et al., 2000), and tropical vegetation (Yokouchi et al., 2002). In addition decomposition of soil organic matter can act as a source for atmospheric CH₃Cl (Keppler et al., 2000), but the importance of this source remains uncertain. Despite the progress in identifying new sources, the best estimate in the latest WMO Report (Montzka and Fraser, 2003) still revealed a significant shortfall of >1 Tg yr⁻¹ between known sources and the modelled sinks. However, very recently Hamilton et al. (2003) made the interesting discovery that the widespread plant structural component, pectin, reacts readily with chloride ion to form chloromethane. Furthermore it was established that the reaction occurs abiotically at ambient temperatures in senescent and weath-

ACPD

5, 3899–3919, 2005

Atmospheric chloromethane budget

F. Keppler et al.



ering plant material. They calculated that this process acting on senescent leaves and leaf litter could be responsible for formation of a large proportion of atmospheric chloromethane (up to 2.5 Tg yr⁻¹ from tropical and sub-tropical regions) and may also provide the mechanism for release of chloromethane during biomass burning, possibly for emissions from living tropical vegetation and importantly also the abiotic soil emissions reported by Keppler et al. (2000). Including this new emission source allows global CH₃Cl sources to balance and even possibly outweigh the best estimates of total sinks. Table 1 summarises existing information on estimated emission fluxes from known sources. The estimates of the strengths of many sources have large uncertainties. For example the possible CH₃Cl flux from tropical ferns and trees ranges from 0.8 to 8.2 Tg yr⁻¹ (Yokouchi et al., 2002) whilst CH₃Cl emissions in the tropics and subtropics by senescent leaves and leaf litter ranging from 0.03 to 2.5 Tg yr⁻¹ have been suggested (Hamilton et al., 2003).

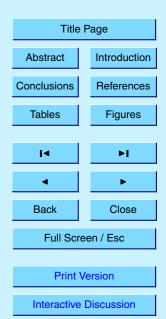
As regards sinks for atmospheric CH₃CI, the dominant loss process for atmospheric CH₃Cl is via reaction with photochemically produced OH radicals (Table 2) and is considered responsible for some 3.2 Tg yr⁻¹ (Montzka and Fraser, 2003). The reaction of CH₃Cl with chlorine radicals in the marine boundary layer constitutes another significant sink that has been estimated at 370 Gg yr⁻¹ (giga gram = 10⁹ gram). Small proportions of tropospheric CH₃Cl are lost to the stratosphere (200 Gg yr⁻¹) and to midand high-latitude waters (75 Gg yr⁻¹). Another sink for atmospheric CH₃Cl, is degradation by soil microorganisms for which Montzka and Fraser (2003) gave a best estimate of 0.18 Tg yr⁻¹. However we believe that compelling evidence is now emerging from microbial studies for a much larger soil sink for CH₃Cl. The ubiquitous occurrence in soil from pristine environments of microbial species capable of utilizing CH₃Cl as sole carbon and energy source implies a widespread and substantial soil sink for CH₃Cl (Harper, 2000; McAnulla et al., 2001; Harper and Hamilton, 2003; Miller et al., 2004). If the microbial sink for CH₃Cl in soil is assumed to account for a similar proportion of the atmospheric burden as with CH₃Br, the magnitude of the soil sink would be of the order 1.6 Tg yr⁻¹ (Harper and Hamilton, 2003). Since the atmospheric concentration

ACPD

5, 3899-3919, 2005

Atmospheric chloromethane budget

F. Keppler et al.



of CH₃Cl is around 60 fold higher than that of CH₃Br it may well act as a far better substrate for microorganisms than atmospheric CH₃Br. Hence even a soil sink of 1.6 Tg yr⁻¹ for CH₃Cl may be a considerable underestimate. For the purpose of this paper the values of the oceanic source and sink quoted by Montzka and Fraser (2003) will be used. These numbers do in fact represent a net source in warm waters and a net sink in colder waters (the temperature threshold between these waters being around 12°C). A rigorous isotopic budget would take into account the fact that the gross sources and sinks are larger, the loss processes, for example, not being restricted to cold waters.

A potentially powerful tool in the investigation of the atmospheric CH_3CI budget is the use of stable carbon isotope ratios ($^{13}C/^{12}C$). For example, this technique has been applied with some success to investigate sources and sinks of atmospheric methane (Miller et al., 2002; Quay et al., 1999) carbon monoxide (Röckmann et al., 1998, 2002) and nitrous oxide (Kim and Craig, 1993; Röckmann et al., 2003) (see Gros et al., 2004 for further references). Furthermore $^{13}C/^{12}C$ ratio measurements are useful in studying non-methane volatile organic compounds (VOCs) in atmospheric samples (Rudolph et al., 1997; Tsunogai et al., 1999). Measurements of the $^{13}C/^{12}C$ isotopic ratio of VOCs including CH_3CI are usually reported with respect to a standard in "delta" notation where $\delta^{13}C$ is defined as:

$$\delta^{13}C(\%) = (R_{sample}/R_{standard} - 1) \times 1000 \%$$
 (1)

with $R=^{13}C/^{12}C$, where $R_{standard}$ is the $^{13}C/^{12}C$ ratio of an international standard, usually Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (V-PDB), with a value of $R_{standard}=0.0112372$.

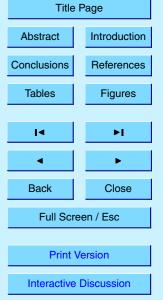
In this paper using an isotopic mass balance approach we attempt to shed light on the question of which CH_3CI source in the terrestrial environment provides the bulk fraction to the atmosphere. We have utilised recently published information on the $\delta^{13}C$ values of CH_3CI sources and the latest measurements for the kinetic isotope effects (KIEs) associated with sink processes to determine which source/sink distribution pattern provides the best fit with the observed carbon isotope ratio of atmospheric CH_3CI .

ACPD

5, 3899-3919, 2005

Atmospheric chloromethane budget

F. Keppler et al.



2. Stable isotope composition of known sources of tropospheric CH₃CI

The isotope signatures of several CH₃Cl sources have been measured. Values of δ^{13} C for CH₃Cl released during biomass burning were first measured by Rudolph et al. (1997) and subsequently by Czapiewski et al. (2001). Both studies showed that ₅ CH₃Cl emitted is relatively depleted in 13 C with δ^{13} C values ranging from -38% to -68%. For instance, burning of wood of manuka (Leptospermum scoparium) resulted in a δ^{13} C for CH₃Cl released of -45.1±0.6% (Rudolph et al., 1997) which is considerably depleted compared with the unburnt fuel ($\Delta=-17\%$; in this paper we define the isotope difference between two pools as $\Delta = \delta^{13}C_{pool1} - \delta^{13}C_{pool2}$). Combustion of wood of *Eucalyptus* spp. yielded δ^{13} C values for CH₃Cl emissions of -51.7% (Czapiewski et al., 2001) which was also highly depleted in comparison with unburnt fuel $(\Delta = -24.8\%)$. Globally the bulk of biomass burning involves C_3 plant material but approximately one-third is associated with tropical and sub-tropical grasslands which are dominated by C₄ plants (Harper et al., 2001). Thompson et al. (2002) assumed that the isotopic fractionation of CH₃Cl relative to the parent fuel is similar for the combustion of material from both C_3 and C_4 plants (Δ =-25±12%) and suggested an average δ ¹³C for CH₃CI emissions during biomass burning of -47±12‰ although this has not been confirmed empirically.

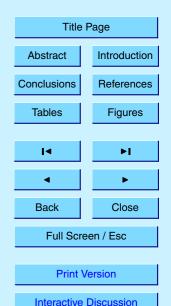
It has been argued that CH $_3$ CI release by tropical ferns and trees such as dipterocarps could represent the single largest global source of atmospheric CH $_3$ CI (Yokouchi et al. 2002) although no mechanism has been suggested. Values for δ^{13} C for CH $_3$ CI released from two species of glasshouse-grown tropical ferns (*Cyathea smithii* and *Angiopteris evecta*) of $-72.7\pm1.4\%$ and $-69.3\pm0.9\%$ reported by Harper et al. (2003) showed considerable depletion (Δ =42.3 and 43.4%) relative to bulk biomass. This is consistent with the average value obtained for three families of tropical ferns reported by Komatsu et al. (2004). An even greater ¹³C fractionation has been observed in CH $_3$ CI emissions by leaves of a glasshouse-grown dipterocarp (*Shorea guiso*) for which a δ^{13} C value of $-75.2\pm1.7\%$ was determined by Hamilton, Yokouchi, Yukawa

ACPD

5, 3899–3919, 2005

Atmospheric chloromethane budget

F. Keppler et al.



and Harper (unpublished results). Harper et al. (2001) measured the δ^{13} C of CH₃Cl released by different batches of tubers of the potato (*Solanum tuberosum*). The overall mean δ^{13} C for CH₃Cl emissions was $-62.2\pm4.6\%$, again showing a substantial depletion (Δ =34.5%) relative to the bulk biomass of the tubers. The same group also reported δ^{13} C values of CH₃Cl released by glasshouse-grown material of the halophyte *Batis maritima* of $-65.7\pm3.4\%$, with significant depletion (Δ =36.8%) observed relative to biomass. Later in situ studies on CH₃Cl emissions by *Batis maritima* in Californian salt marsh largely confirmed these observations with weighted daily mean δ^{13} C values of $-62\pm3\%$ recorded (Bill et al., 2002).

Wood rotting fungi are another significant terrestrial source of atmospheric CH_3CI (Watling and Harper, 1998). Laboratory studies on the fungus *Phellinus pomaceus* cultured on wood showed ¹³C depletion in CH_3CI released relative to the wood substrate. The $\delta^{13}C$ measured for this source was $-43.3\pm0.2\%$, a fractionation of 17.9‰ relative to the substrate (Harper et al., 2001).

 δ^{13} C values for industrially produced CH₃Cl from various sources have been variously reported as $-41.9\pm0.3\%$ (Rudolph et al., 1997), $-58.4\pm0.3\%$ (Holt et al., 1997) and for two different batches $-46.9\pm0.8\%$ and $-61.9\pm0.5\%$ (Harper et al., 2001). The isotopic composition of CH₃Cl emissions from coal combustion and incineration has not yet been measured. However as coals have a 12 C/ 13 C distribution similar to land plants (Hoefs, 1980) we assume that the CH₃Cl fractionation from both sources is the same as that calculated for biomass burning. Any uncertainty regarding this value will not have a significant effect on the atmospheric CH₃Cl 13 C signature as both sources combined contribute only about 3% to the total CH₃Cl budget.

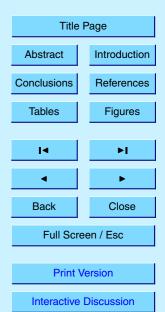
The most abundant C_1 units of terrestrial plants, the methoxyl groups (OCH $_3$) of pectin and lignin, which are responsible for CH $_3$ Cl emissions from senescent leaves and leaf litter referred to earlier in this paper, have a unique carbon isotope signature exceptionally depleted in 13 C (Keppler et al., 2004). The carbon isotope signatures of pectin and lignin methoxyl groups of leaf tissue from trees, grasses and halophytes including plants from C_3 , C_4 and CAM plant categories were found to be in the range

ACPD

5, 3899-3919, 2005

Atmospheric chloromethane budget

F. Keppler et al.



of -33 to -77% and the depletion of the plant methoxyl pool relative to bulk plant biomass ranged from -11 to -46% with the pectin C₁ pool generally more depleted than the lignin C₁ pool. Keppler et al. (2004) reported that CH₃Cl released during low temperature heating of plant leaf tissue was even more depleted in ¹³C than either of the C_1 plant methoxyl pools. They found $\delta^{13}C$ values of -147, -139 and -119‰ for CH₃Cl emitted at 40°C from dried leaf tissue of two tree species, European ash (Fraxinus excelsior) and wych elm (Ulmus glabra), and the grass species, cocksfoot (*Dactylis glomerata*), respectively. These δ^{13} C values are the lowest ever observed in a terrestrial carbon compound produced by natural processes and represent a striking depletion of 119, 108 and 89.9% relative to the respective biomass. A large kinetic isotope effect (KIE) is obviously involved in the process leading to CH₃CI release during heating of such plant material. At the higher temperature of 225°C these researchers also reported very low δ^{13} C values for CH₃Cl emissions from a variety of C_3 plants (-89.7±10.3%, Δ =60.2% relative to biomass), a C_4 plant, maize (Zea mays, -91.3%, Δ=80.3% relative to biomass) and for two CAM plants, saltwort (Batis maritima, -78.3%, Δ=52.7% relative to biomass) and scarlet paintbrush (Crassula falcata, -81.4% $\Delta = 63.5$ % relative to biomass). Clearly therefore, the depletion of ¹³C in CH₃Cl released during heating of leaf tissue is widespread amongst all plant categories, although this depletion was found to decrease as the heating temperature increased.

The only δ^{13} C values for CH₃Cl from an oceanic source are those reported by Komatsu et al. (2004). On the basis of measurements made in the NW Pacific Ocean and Tokyo Bay a mean value of $-38\pm4\%$ was recorded which would appear to indicate approximate equilibrium between seawater and the troposphere.

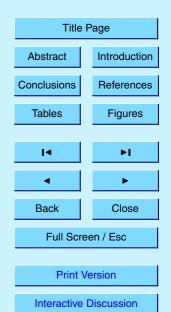
Table 1 summarises existing information on the mean δ^{13} C value and range reported for each source.

ACPD

5, 3899-3919, 2005

Atmospheric chloromethane budget

F. Keppler et al.



3. Kinetic isotope effects associated with known sinks for tropospheric CH₃CI

The isotopic composition of atmospheric CH₃Cl can be significantly altered by the kinetic isotope effects of loss processes. Kinetic fractionations occur due to differences in reaction rates of different isotopologues in irreversible physical, chemical, or biological processes. The resulting kinetic isotope effect (KIE) associated with a loss process is defined as:

$$KIE = \frac{k_{12}}{k_{13}}$$
 (2)

where k_{12} and k_{13} are the rate constants for loss of the lighter $^{12}CH_3CI$ isotopologue and the heavier $^{13}CH_3CI$ isotopologue, respectively. The KIE is typically expressed as a fractionation constant (ε) in per mil (‰):

$$\varepsilon = (KIE - 1) \times 1000 \% \tag{3}$$

where a positive ε indicates that loss causes the remaining sample to be enriched in the heavier isotope.

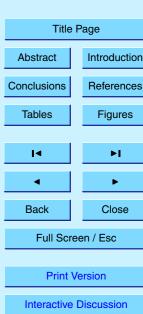
The dominant loss process for atmospheric CH $_3$ Cl is via reaction with the photochemically produced OH radical in the atmosphere (Montzka and Fraser, 2003). Previously it has been assumed (Harper et al., 2001, 2003; Thompson et al., 2002) that the KIE for this reaction would be small and similar to that observed for the reaction of methane (CH $_4$) with OH radical. The carbon KIE for reaction of CH $_4$ had been measured in the laboratory by Cantrell et al. (1990) (k12/k13=1.0054, ε =5.4) and more recently by Saueressig et al. (2001) (k12/k13=1.0039, ε =3.9). However the first measurement of the KIE for reaction of CH $_3$ Cl with OH has recently been reported by Gola et al. (2005) and reveals an unexpectedly large fractionation factor of ε =59%±8%. The reaction of CH $_3$ Cl with chlorine radicals in the marine boundary layer constitutes another significant loss process. The KIE for this reaction is reported as 70%±10% (Gola et al., 2005).

ACPD

5, 3899–3919, 2005

Atmospheric chloromethane budget

F. Keppler et al.



As explained by Thompson et al. (2002), loss of tropospheric CH₃Cl to the stratosphere is caused by turbulent mixing and the transport process itself is not considered to result in an isotope fractionation. Isotope fractionation during exchange of CH₃Cl between the oceans and the atmosphere has not yet been quantified, so the treatment of marine fluxes has to be approximate.

As discussed in the introduction, the microbial degradation of CH_3CI in the soil is potentially a large sink for atmospheric CH_3CI , possibly second in importance to the reaction with OH radical. Recent work by Miller et al. (2001, 2004) has shown a KIE of 1.045 and 1.049, respectively, for degradation of CH_3CI by soil bacteria. Thus a microbial sink accounting for around 20–30% of atmospheric CH_3CI significantly affects the $\delta^{13}C$ value of atmospheric CH_3CI .

The known CH₃Cl sinks in the environment and their associated fractionation factors as well as the uncertainties are presented in Table 2. Figure 1 summarises diagrammatically the atmospheric CH₃Cl budget showing the carbon isotope signatures of sources and fractionation constants associated with sinks.

4. Budget modelling of atmospheric CH₃Cl using stable carbon isotope signatures of sources and sinks

The isotopic composition of atmospheric CH₃Cl reflects the weighted average isotopic signature of all the sources, and the weighted average kinetic isotope effect of all the loss mechanisms:

$$\delta^{13}\mathbf{C}^{atm} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \Phi_{j}^{source} \times \delta^{13}\mathbf{C}_{j}^{source} + \sum_{j=1}^{n} \Phi_{j}^{\sin k} \times \varepsilon_{j}^{\sin k}$$
(4)

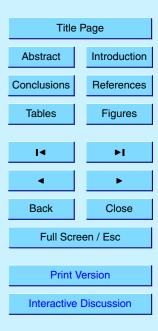
where $\delta^{13} C^{atm}$ and $\delta^{13} C^{source}_{j}$ are the carbon isotope composition of CH₃CI in the atmosphere and of the different sources i in per mil. Φ_{i} and Φ_{j} are the CH₃CI flux fraction for each source and sink. ε_{j} is the fractionation constant of each sink j in per mil.

ACPD

5, 3899–3919, 2005

Atmospheric chloromethane budget

F. Keppler et al.



To date measurements of δ^{13} C for atmospheric CH₃Cl including marine, urban, rural, and remote sites have been reported by Rudolph et al. (1997), Tsunogai et al. (1999), and Thompson et al. (2002) with values ranging between -30 and -47%. Thompson et al. (2002) reported δ^{13} C measurements for CH₃Cl from both Northern and Southern hemisphere. Although the number of data points from the Southern hemisphere was rather limited Thompson et al. (2002) reported a global average value δ^{13} C of CH₃Cl of $-36.2\pm0.3\%$ and this value is employed in the calculations below.

Several attempts at modelling the atmospheric CH₃Cl budget using carbon isotope ratios have been made (Harper et al., 2001, 2003; Thompson et al., 2002; Komatsu et al., 2004) but all have been hampered by the lack of data concerning isotopic fractionation of some important sources and the KIE associated with the major sinks. The recent discoveries made by Gola et al. (2005), Hamilton et al. (2003) and Keppler et al. (2004) are critically important in the development of a much refined isotopic mass balance for atmospheric CH₃Cl.

As mentioned above, the largest uncertainty in sinks is that due to microbial degradation of atmospheric CH₃Cl. In this paper we present three scenarios based on different strengths for the microbial sink and different emissions for the missing source. Data for each scenario are listed in Table 3. The values for the missing sources are calculated by subtracting total known sources from total sinks. Scenario A uses the Montzka and Fraser (2003) values for the microbial sink (180 Gg yr⁻¹) and the total sink (4005 Gg yr⁻¹) of atmospheric CH₃Cl. In scenario B a microbial sink of 890 Gg yr⁻¹ (mean of estimates from Montzka and Fraser, 2003, and Harper and Hamilton, 2003) and a total sink of 4715 Gg yr⁻¹ are used for the calculations. Finally, for scenario C we consider 1600 Gg yr⁻¹ for the microbial sink and a total sink strength of 5425 Gg yr⁻¹.

First we determine the global average CH₃Cl composition of the sources from the atmospheric average (δ^{13} C^{atm}=-36.2±0.3‰) and the weighted mean for all sinks based on scenario A, B and C ($\sum_{j=l}^{n} \Phi_{j}^{\sin k} \times \varepsilon_{j}^{\sin k}$ =55.4±6.4‰, 54.2±5.5‰ and 53.2±4.8‰).

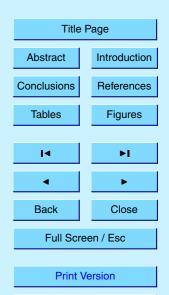
The resulting average δ^{13} C composition for all sources (δ^{13} C_{total}) is calculated to be 3909

ACPD

5, 3899-3919, 2005

Atmospheric chloromethane budget

F. Keppler et al.



EGU

 $-91.6\pm6.4\%$, $-90.4\pm5.5\%$ and $-89.4\pm4.8\%$ for Scenario A, B and C, respectively. Thus in all scenarios, the weighted mean of δ^{13} C values of total sources is in the range of -92 to -89%.

In the second step we determine the isotope composition of the missing source $(\delta^{13}C_{mis})$. Using the weighted average of emissions from all known sources for which best estimates are available including biomass burning, fungi, salt marshes, tropical plants, coal combustion and incineration $(\delta^{13}C_{known\ sources} = -52,5\pm3.6\%)$ we can calculate the $\delta^{13}C_{mis}$ for each scenario as follows:

$$\delta^{13}C_{mis} = \frac{\left[\delta^{13}C_{total} - \delta^{13}C_{known\,sources} \times (1 - \Phi_{mis})\right]}{\Phi_{mis}}$$
 (5)

For scenario A values of Φ_{mis} =0.262, $\delta^{13}C_{total}$ =-91.6±6.4‰ and $\delta^{13}C_{known\ sources}$ =-52.5±3.6‰ are used for calculations. Thus the isotope signature estimated for $\delta^{13}C_{mis}$ in scenario A is -201.8±26.5‰. Using a similar approach for scenario B (Φ_{mis} =0.373, $\delta^{13}C_{total}$ =-90.4±5.5‰ and $\delta^{13}C_{known\ sources}$ =-52.5±3.6‰) the estimated value for $\delta^{13}C_{mis}$ would be -154±15.9‰. In scenario C (Φ_{mis} =0.455, $\delta^{13}C_{total}$ =-89.4±4.8‰ and $\delta^{13}C_{known\ sources}$ =-52.5±3.6‰) the respective value for $\delta^{13}C_{mis}$ is -133.6±11.4‰.

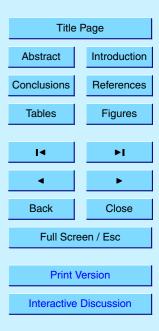
It is evident from those budget calculations that the missing global CH₃Cl source must have an highly depleted stable carbon isotope signature. Scenario A requires the missing source to have an isotopic composition which is much more depleted than any source reported to date. Based on our current knowledge it is most improbable that there is an as yet unidentified global CH₃Cl source of 1049 Gg yr⁻¹ with a δ^{13} C signature of -201.8±26.5‰. However, in scenarios B and C sources of 1759 or 2469 Gg yr⁻¹ with respective signatures of -154±15.9‰and -133.6±11.4‰ fit well with both the range of CH₃Cl emissions by senescent plants and leaf litter in the tropics and sub-tropics (Hamilton et al., 2003) and the δ^{13} C signature of these emissions (δ^{13} C=-135±12‰; Keppler et al., 2004). Furthermore the source strengths of CH₃Cl 3910

ACPD

5, 3899-3919, 2005

Atmospheric chloromethane budget

F. Keppler et al.



used in for scenario C are in general agreement with a three-dimensional global model study of atmospheric CH₃Cl published recently by Yoshida et al. (2004). Based on model studies they have hypothesized that a missing terrestrial source of 2900 Gg yr⁻¹ is located at 30° N–30° S. Our calculations also lend credence to the proposal that CH₃Cl degradation by soil microorganisms is a much bigger sink for atmospheric CH₃Cl (>1 Tg yr⁻¹) than that postulated by Montzka and Fraser (2003). While it was acknowledged above that the gross source and sink fluxes for the ocean are underestimated in these isotopic budgets because only the net exchange is considered, our calculations indicate that inclusion of substantially larger marine source and sink in the budget does not significantly influence the conclusions of this work. This remains true even if liquid/gas phase fractionations in the oceanic sources and sinks of up to 5‰ are envisaged. Only extreme fractionations would materially affect our conclusions and there is no evidence that such large isotope effects are likely.

The isotope mass balance presented here represents an important step in reducing the large uncertainties that have hitherto surrounded the atmospheric budget of CH₃Cl. It provides strong support for the contention that abiotic methylation of chloride in plants and soil organic matter provides the bulk of CH₃Cl released to the atmosphere. Further refinement of this budget will require accurate measurement of source strengths in the field and their respective isotopic signatures.

Acknowledgements. We thank the European Commission for a Marie Curie-Research Training Grant (MCFI-2002-00022) awarded to F. Keppler and the research group of C. Nielsen for providing the exciting data of the KIE measurements. The ISOSTRAT project in Heidelberg was funded by the BMBF within the AFO2000 project (grant 07ATC01).

References

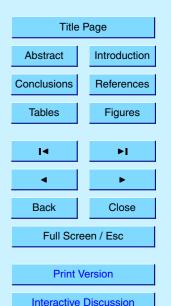
Andreae, M. O. and Merlet, P.: Emissions of trace gases and aerosols from biomass burning, Global Biogeochem. Cycles, 15, 955–966, 2001.

ACPD

5, 3899–3919, 2005

Atmospheric chloromethane budget

F. Keppler et al.



- Aydin, M., Saltzman, E. S., De Bruyn, W. J., et al.: Atmospheric variability of methyl chloride during the last 300 years from an Antarctic ice core and firn air, Geophys. Res. Lett., 31, L02109, doi:10.1029/2003GL018750, 2004.
- Bill, M., Rhew, R. C., Weiss, R. F., and Goldstein, A. H.: Carbon isotope ratios of methyl bromide and methyl chloride emitted from a coastal salt marsh, Geophys. Res. Lett., 29(3), doi:10.1029/2001GL012946, 2002.
- Cantrell, C. A., Shetter, R. E., McDaniel, A. H., et al.: Carbon kinetic isotope effect in the oxidation of methane by the hydroxyl radical, J. Geophys. Res., 95, 22455–22462, 1990.
- Czapiewski, K. V., Czuba, E., Huang, L., Ernst, D., Norman, A. L., Koppman, R., and Rudolph, J.: Isotopic composition of non methane hydrocarbons in emissions from biomass burning, Atmos. Chem., 43, 45–59, 2002.
- Dimmer, C. H., Simmonds, P. G., Nickless, G., and Bassford, M. R.: Biogenic fluxes of halomethanes from Irish peatland ecosystems, Atmos. Environ., 35, 321–330, 2001.
- Gola, A. A., D'Anna, B., Feilberg, K. L., Sellevåg, S. R., Bache-Andreassen, L., and Nielsen, C. J.: Kinetic isotope effects in the gas phase reactions of OH and Cl with CH₃Cl, CD₃Cl, and ¹³CH₃Cl, Atmos. Chem. Phys. Discuss., 5, 3873–3898, 2005.
- Goldstein, A. H. and Shaw, S. L.: Isotopes of volatile organic compounds: an emerging approach for studying atmospheric budgets and chemistry, Chem. Rev., 103, 5025–5048, 2003.
- Gros, V., Brenninkmeijer, C. A. M., Jöckel, P., Kaiser, J., Lowry, D., Nisbet, E. G., O'Brian, P., Röckmann, T., and Warwick, N.: Isotope signatures of trace gas sources, in: Emissions Of Atmospheric Trace Compounds, edited by: Granier, C., Artaxo, P., and Reeves, C. E., Kluwer Academic Pub., Paris, 2004.
 - Hamilton, J. T. G., McRoberts, W. C., Keppler, F., Kalin, R. M., and Harper, D. B.: Chloride methylation by plant pectin: an efficient environmentally significant process, Science, 301, 206–209, 2003.

25

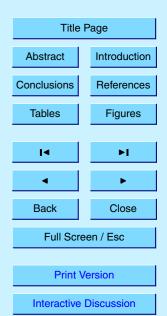
- Harper, D. B.: The global chloromethane cycle: biosynthesis, biodegradation and metabolic role, Nat. Prod. Rep., 17, 1–12, 2000.
- Harper, D. B., Kalin, R. M., Hamilton, J. T. G., and Lamb, C.: Carbon isotope ratios for chloromethane of biological origin: potential tool in determining biological emissions, Environ. Sci. Technol., 35, 3616–3619, 2001.
- Harper, D. B., Hamilton, J. T. G., Ducrocq, V., et al.: The distinctive isotopic signature of plant-derived chloromethane: possible application in constraining the atmospheric chloromethane

ACPD

5, 3899–3919, 2005

Atmospheric chloromethane budget

F. Keppler et al.



- budget, Chemosphere, 52, 433-436, 2003.
- Harper, D. B. and Hamilton, J. T. G.: The global cycles of the naturally-occurring monohalomethanes, in: The Handbook of Environmental Chemistry Vol. 3/P, Natural production of organohalogen compounds, edited by: Gribble, G. W., 17–41, 2003.
- Holt, B. D., Sturchio, N. C., Abrajano, T. A., and Heraty, L. J.: Conversion of chlorinated volatile organic compounds to carbon dioxide and methyl chloride for isotopic analysis of carbon and chlorine, Anal. Chem., 69, 2727–2733, 1997.
 - Hoefs, J.: Stable Isotope Geochemistry, Springer-Verlag, Berlin, 1980.
 - Kalin, R. M., Hamilton, J. T. G., Harper, D. B., et al.: Continuous flow stable isotope methods for sudy of δ^{13} C fractionation during halomethane production and degradation, Rapid Commun Mass Spectrom, 15, 357–363, 2001.
 - Keppler, F., Eiden, R., Niedan, V., Pracht, J., and Schöler, H. F.: Halocarbons produced by natural oxidation processes during degradation of organic matter, Nature, 403, 298–301, 2000.
- Keppler, F., Kalin, R. M., Harper, D. B, McRoberts, W. C., and Hamilton, J. T. G.: Carbon isotope anomaly in the major plant C₁ pool and its global biogeochemical implications, Biogeosciences, 1, 123–131, 2004, SRef-ID: 1726-4189/bg/2004-1-123.
 - Kim, K.-R. and Craig, H.: Nitrogen- 15 and oxygen- 18 characteristics of nitrous oxide: A global perspective, Science, 262, 1855–1858, 1993.
 - Komatsu, D. D., Tsunogai, U., Yamaguchi, J., Nakagawa, F., Yokouchi, Y., and Nojiri, Y.: The budget of atmospheric methyl chloride using stable carbon isotopic mass-balance, Poster A51C-0784, AGU Fall Meeting, San Francisco, 2004.
 - Lobert, J. M., Keene, W. C., Logan, J. A., and Yevich, R.: Global chlorine emissions from biomass burning: Reactive Chlorine Emissions Inventory, J. Geophys. Res., 104, 8373–8389, 1999.
 - Miller, L. G., Kalin, R. M., McCauley, S. E., et al.: Large carbon isotope fractionation associated with oxidation of methyl halides by methylotrophic bacteria, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci., 98, 5833–5837, 2001.
- Miller, L. G., Warner, K. L., Baesman, S. M., et al.: Degradation of methyl bromide and methyl chloride in soil microcosms: Use of stable C isotope fractionation and stable isotope probing to identify reactions and the responsible microorganisms, Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta, 68, 3271–3283, 2004.

5, 3899-3919, 2005

Atmospheric chloromethane budget

F. Keppler et al.



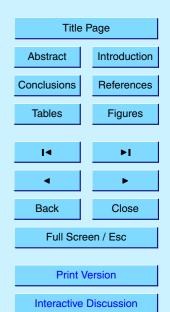
EGU

- Miller, J. B., Mack, K. A., Dissly, R., White, J. W. C., Dlugokencky, E. J., and Tans, P. P.: Development of analytical methods and measurements of ¹³C/¹²C in atmospheric CH₄ from the NOAA/CMDL global air sampling network, J. Geophys. Res., 107, doi:10.1029/2001JD000630, 2002.
- Moore, R. M., Groszko, W., and Niven, S. J.: Ocean-atmosphere exchange of methyl chloride: Results from NW Atlantic and Pacific Ocean studies, J. Geophys. Res., 101, 28529–28538, 1996.
 - McAnulla, C., McDonald, I. R., and Murrell, J. C.: Methyl chloride utilising bacteria are ubiquitous in the natural environment, FEMS Microbiol. Lett., 201, 151–155, 2001.
- Montzka, S. A. and Fraser, P. J.: Controlled Substances and Other Source Gases, in: WMO Scientific Assessment of Ozone Depletion, Global Ozone Research and Monitoring Project, Report No.47, World Meterological Organization, Geneva, (http://www.wmo.ch/web/arep/reports/ozone_2002/06_chapter1.pdf), 2003.
 - Quay, P., Stutsman, J., Wilbur, D., Snover, A., Dlugokencky, E., and Brown, T.: The isotopic composition of atmospheric methane, Glob. Biogeochem. Cycles, 13, 445–461, 1999.
 - Rhew, R. C., Miller, B. R., and Weiss, R. F.: Natural methyl bromide and methyl chloride emissions from coastal salt marshes, Nature, 403, 292–295, 2000.
 - Röckmann, T., Brenninkmeijer, C. A. M., Saueressig, G., Bergamaschi, P., Crowley, J., Fischer, H., and Crutzen, P. J.: Mass independent fractionation of oxygen isotopes in atmospheric CO due to the reaction CO + OH, Science, 281, 544–546, 1998.
 - Röckmann, T., Jöckel, P., Gros, V., Bräunlich, M., Possnert, G., and Brenninkmeijer, C. A. M.: Using ¹⁴C, ¹⁸O and ¹⁷O isotopic variations to provide insights into the high northern latitude surface CO inventory, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 2, 147–159, 2002, SRef-ID: 1680-7324/acp/2002-2-147.
- Röckmann, T., Kaiser, J., and Brenninkmeijer, C. A. M.: The isotopic fingerprint of the pre-industrial and the anthropogenic N₂O source, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 3, 315–323, 2003, SRef-ID: 1680-7324/acp/2003-3-315.
 - Rudolph, J., Lowe, D. C., Martin, J., and Clarkson, T. S.: A novel method for compound specific determination of d13C in volatile organic compounds at ppt levels in ambient air, Geophys. Res. Lett., 24, 659–662, 1997.
 - Saueressig, G., Crowley, J. N., Bergamaschi, P., Brühl, C., Brenninkmeijer, C. A. M., and Fischer, H.: Carbon 13 and D kinetic isotope effects in the reactions of CH₄ with O(¹D) and OH: New laboratory measurements and their implications for the isotopic composition of

5, 3899-3919, 2005

Atmospheric chloromethane budget

F. Keppler et al.



- stratospheric methane, J. Geophys. Res., 106, 23127–23138, 2001.
- Thompson, A. E., Anderson, R. S., Rudolph, J., and Huang, L.: Stable carbon isotopes signatures of background tropospheric chloromethane and CFC113, Biogeochemistry, 60, 191–211, 2002.
- Trudinger, C. M., Etheridge, D. M., Sturrock, G. A., et al.: Carbon isotopic compositions of C₂-C₅ hydrocarbons and methyl chloride in urban, coastal, and maritime atmospheres over the western North Pacific, J. Geophys. Res.-A, 109, doi:10.1029/2004JD004932, 2004.
 - Tsunogai, U., Yoshida, N., and Gamo, T.: Carbon isotopic compositions of C₂-C₅ hydrocarbons and methyl chloride in urban, coastal, and maritime atmospheres over the western North Pacific, J. Geophys. Res., 104, 16 033–16 039, 1999.
 - Watling, R. and Harper, D. B.: Chloromethane production by wood-rotting fungi and an estimate of the global flux to the atmosphere, Mycol. Res., 102, 769–787, 1998.
 - Yokouchi, Y., Ikeda, M., Inuzuka, Y., and Yukawa, T.: Strong emission of methyl chloride from tropical plants, Nature, 416, 163–165, 2002.
- Yoshida, Y., Wang, Y. H., Zeng, T., and Yantosca, R.: A three-dimensional global model study of atmospheric methyl chloride budget and distributions, J. Geophys. Res.-A, 109, D24309, doi:10.1029/2004JD004951, 2004.

5, 3899-3919, 2005

Atmospheric chloromethane budget

F. Keppler et al.

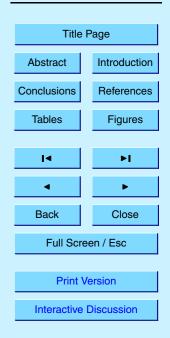


Table 1. Known sources of tropospheric CH₃Cl and corresponding carbon isotope signatures.

Sources	Source (best estimate) ^a (Gg yr ⁻¹)	Source (full range) ^a (Gg yr ⁻¹)	Carbon isotope signature (‰)	Range in δ^{13} C (‰)
Terrestrial				
Biomass burning	911 ^b	655 to 1125	-47 ^c	12
Tropical plants	910	820 to 8200	–71 ^d	2
Fungi	160	43 to 470	-43 ^e	2
Salt marshes	170	65 to 440	-62 ^{d,f}	3
Wetlands	40	6 to 270	?	
Coal combustion	105	5 to 205	-47 ⁹	12
Incineration	45	15 to 75	-47 ⁹	12
Industrial	10		–51 ^h	
Rice	5		?	
Decay of organic matter in topsoil	?	?	?	
Senescent and leaf litter	?	30 to 2500	–135 ⁱ	12
Marine				
Oceans	600	325 to 1300	–38 ^j	4
Total sources	2956 + ?	1964 to 14 585		

^a Values for source (best estimate) and source (full range) were taken from Montzka and Fraser (2003), except for emissions associated with senescent and leaf litter which are from Hamilton et al. (2003).

5, 3899–3919, 2005

Atmospheric chloromethane budget

F. Keppler et al.

Title Page

Abstract Introduction

Conclusions References

Tables Figures

I ◆ ▶I

Back Close

Full Screen / Esc

Print Version

Interactive Discussion

^b Although lower estimates for CH₃Cl emissions from biomass burning have been reported by Andreae and Merlet (2001) and Yoshida et al. (2004) the value in the Table is used in our model.

^c Thompson et al. (2002)

^d Harper et al. (2003) and unpublished results (Hamilton, Yokouchi, Yukawa and Harper)

e Harper et al. (2001)

f Bill et al. (2002)

g based on the assumptions made in the text

h mean of values reported by Rudolph et al. (1997), Holt et al. (1997) and Harper et al. (2001)

Keppler et al. (2004)

^j Komatsu et al. (2004)

[?] denotes that no value has been provided

Table 2. Known sinks of tropospheric CH₃Cl and the mean fractionation factors reported for each.

Sinks	Sink (best estimate) ^a (Gg yr ⁻¹)	Sink (full range) ^a (Gg yr ⁻¹)	Kinetic isotope effect (KIE) ε (‰)	Error in ε (%)
Reaction with OH in troposphere	-3180	-2380 to -3970	59 ^b	8
Loss to stratosphere	-200	-100 to -300	0°	5
Reaction with CI in marine boundary layer	-370	-180 to -550	70 ^b	10
Microbial degradation in soil	-180 (-1600)	-100 to -1600	47 ^d	3
Loss to polar cold ocean waters	-75	-37 to -113	?	?
Total sinks	-4005 (-5425)	-2797 to -6533		

^a Values for sink strength (best estimate and full range) were taken from Montzka and Fraser (2003), except for the value shown in brackets for the sink (best estimate) for microbial degradation in soil which is from that suggested by Harper and Hamilton (2003) and discussion in the text of this manuscript.

5, 3899-3919, 2005

Atmospheric chloromethane budget

F. Keppler et al.

Title Page					
Abstract	Introduction				
Conclusions	References				
Tables	Figures				
I<	▶I				
4	•				
Back	Close				
Full Screen / Esc					
Print Version					

EGU

^b Gola et al. (2005)

^c Thompson et al. (2002) and discussion in this manuscript

^d mean of Miller et al. (2001) and Miller et al. (2004)

[?] denotes that no value has been provided

Table 3. Source and sink strengths of CH₃Cl^a used for three scenarios.

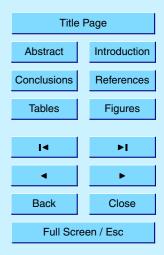
Scenario	1	2	3
Total sources	4005	4715	5425
Biomass burning	911	911	911
Tropical plants	910	910	910
Fungi	160	160	160
Salt marshes	170	170	170
Wetlands	40	40	40
Coal combustion	105	105	105
Incineration	45	45	45
Industrial	10	10	10
Rice	5	5	5
Oceans	600	600	600
Total known sources	2956	2956	2956
Missing source	1049	1759	2469
Total sinks	-4005	-4715	-5425
Reaction with OH in troposphere	-3180	-3180	-3180
Loss to stratosphere	-200	-200	-200
Reaction with CI in marine boundary layer	-370	-370	-370
Loss to cold ocean waters	-75	-75	-75
Microbial degradation in soil	-180	-890	-1600

^a Units are in Gg yr⁻¹

5, 3899-3919, 2005

Atmospheric chloromethane budget

F. Keppler et al.



EGU

Print Version

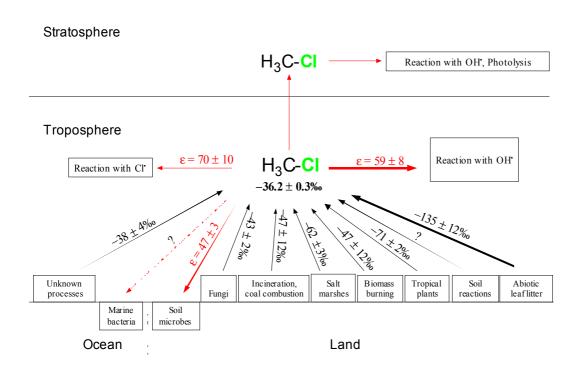
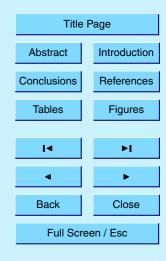


Fig. 1. Scheme of major sources and sinks involved in the global CH₃Cl cycle and the corresponding carbon isotope signatures and fractionation factors. Black arrows show sources and red arrows indicate sinks of CH₃Cl in the environment.

5, 3899-3919, 2005

Atmospheric chloromethane budget

F. Keppler et al.



EGU

Print Version