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Key Points:
- Heterogeneous nitryl chloride chemistry is implemented into a hemispheric model
- The largest enhancements of nitryl chloride occur over China and Western Europe
- Nitryl chloride subsequently affects tropospheric chemistry

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Importance of tropospheric $ClNO_2$ chemistry across the Northern Hemisphere

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Abstract Laboratory and field experiments have revealed that uptake of dinitrogen pentoxide (N_2O_5) on aerosols containing chloride produces nitryl chloride ($ClNO_2$) and nitric acid. We incorporate heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ formation into the hemispheric Community Multiscale Air Quality model. This heterogeneous chemistry substantially enhances $ClNO_2$ levels in several areas of the Northern Hemisphere and alters the composition of airborne reactive nitrogen, comprising more than 15% of monthly mean values in some areas. Model results suggest that this heterogeneous chemistry reduces monthly mean total nitrate by up to 25% and enhances monthly mean daily maximum 8 h ozone by up to 7.0 ppbv. The pathway also enhances hydroxyl radical by more than 20% in some locations which in turn increases sulfate and other secondary pollutants. The largest $ClNO_2$ concentrations and impacts occur over China and Western Europe, two areas in which few relevant field measurements have been made.

1. Introduction

Nitryl chloride ($ClNO_2$) builds up in the boundary layer at night and subsequently undergoes photolysis in the morning to produce chlorine radicals ($Cl^{\cdot}$) and nitrogen dioxide (NO_2). Consequently, $ClNO_2$ has been shown to be both an important radical source [*Osthoff et al*., 2008; *Thornton et al*., 2010; *Phillips et al*., 2012; *Riedel et al*., 2012; *Young et al*., 2012] and an important component of total reactive nitrogen (NO_y) [*Osthoff et al*., 2008; *Thornton et al*., 2010; *Mielke et al*., 2011, 2013; *Sarwar et al*., 2012]. One study found that under certain ambient early morning conditions, more chlorine radicals are formed from $ClNO_2$ photolysis than the hydroxyl radicals (HO) formed from ozone (O_3) photolysis [*Phillips et al*., 2012]. Another study suggests that $ClNO_2$ photolysis may produce more radicals than nighttime nitrous acid formation and its subsequent photolysis in the morning [*Young et al*., 2012]. Chlorine radicals react with organic compounds leading to O_3 production. NO_2 cycled through $ClNO_2$ also leads to O_3 production. Thus, elevated atmospheric $ClNO_2$ enhances O_3 production in the atmosphere as shown in by *Simon et al*. [2009] and *Sarwar et al*. [2012].

Laboratory studies suggest that $ClNO_2$ forms from the uptake of dinitrogen pentoxide (N_2O_5) on aerosols containing chloride [*Bertram and Thornton*, 2009; *Roberts et al*., 2009]. Traditionally, the uptake of N_2O_5 on aerosols was believed to primarily produce nitric acid (HNO_3). Consequently, the $ClNO_2$ chemical pathway can affect total nitrate ($TNO_3 = HNO_3 +$ particulate nitrate) as shown by *Sarwar et al*. [2012].

Osthoff et al. [2008] first measured atmospheric $ClNO_2$ in 2006 and reported a peak value of about 1.2 ppbv near Houston, Texas. *Riedel et al*. [2012] also reported elevated levels of $ClNO_2$ in Los Angeles, California. Other investigators have found substantial ambient concentrations of $ClNO_2$ in areas distant from marine influence [*Thornton et al*., 2010; *Mielke et al*., 2011; *Phillips et al*., 2012; *Riedel et al*., 2013].

While there are a growing number of studies which have measured ambient $ClNO_2$ concentrations and studied both its formation and its impact on tropospheric chemistry, most have been conducted in locations throughout North America including Houston [*Osthoff et al*., 2008], Los Angeles [*Riedel et al*., 2012; *Mielke et al*., 2013], Colorado [*Thornton et al*., 2010; *Riedel et al*., 2013], Long Island Sound [*Kercher et al*., 2009], and Calgary [*Mielke et al*., 2011]. A limited number of photochemical modeling studies have also focused on North America [*Simon et al*., 2009, 2010; *Sarwar et al*., 2012]. Only two measurement studies and no modeling studies have examined effects of tropospheric $ClNO_2$ chemistry outside of North America: one study in the North Atlantic [*Kercher et al*., 2009] and one in Frankfurt, Germany [*Phillips et al*., 2012]. Photochemical models provide a means to examine chemistry over much larger

spatial extents than is feasible with specialized measurement studies and can identify times and locations where $ClNO_2$ is most likely to play an important role in radical chemistry and nitrogen oxides (NO_x) cycling. In this work, for the first time, we assess the importance of the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ production on tropospheric chemistry across the Northern Hemisphere (NH).

2. Method

2.1. Model Description and Application

The study uses the Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) model (version 5.0.2) to assess the impacts of $ClNO_2$ on air quality. The details of CMAQ have been described elsewhere [*Foley et al*., 2010; *Byun and Schere*, 2006; *Binkowski and Roselle*, 2003]. Many studies have demonstrated the skill of the CMAQ model in simulating air quality [*Eder and Yu*, 2006; *Appel et al*., 2007, 2008, 2012; *Sarwar et al*., 2008, 2013, 2014; *Foley et al*., 2010]. The horizontal extent of the modeling domain covered the entire NH and was discretized using a grid of 108 km resolution using a polar stereographic coordinate system, while the vertical extent of the model extended from surface to 5 kPa and contained 44 layers [*Mathur et al*., 2011, 2014]. Meteorological fields for the study were prepared using the Weather Research and Forecasting (version 3.3) model [*Skamarock et al*., 2008]. Model simulations were conducted for 2 months in winter (December 2005 to January 2006) and 2 months in summer (May–June 2006). The first month in each season was used as spin-up period; results for the subsequent months in winter and summer are presented. Each simulation used the 2005 version of the Carbon Bond (CB05) chemical mechanism with updated toluene chemistry [*Whitten et al*., 2010]. The reaction mechanism also included gas-phase chlorine chemistry as well as the uptake of N_2O_5 on aerosols [*Sarwar et al*., 2012]. The chlorine chemistry includes 25 gas-phase chemical reactions of $Cl^{\cdot}$ with organic and inorganic species including the formation of the ClONO isomer from the reaction of NO_2 and $Cl^{\cdot}$ [*Leu*, 1984] as well as the photolysis of $ClNO_2$. We expect ClONO and $ClNO_2$ to behave similarly, so we use $ClNO_2$ to represent both in the model. Two different simulations were performed for each time period as follows. In the first simulation, the uptake of N_2O_5 on aerosols only produced HNO_3. In the second simulation, the heterogeneous formation of $ClNO_2$ was turned on; thus, the uptake of N_2O_5 on aerosols containing chloride produced both HNO_3 and $ClNO_2$. The difference in the model results were attributed to the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ formation chemistry.

The study uses anthropogenic emissions from the Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research (http://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/index.php) and biogenic emissions from Global Emissions InitiAtive (http://www.geiacenter.org). The model includes two major sources of particulate chloride: sea salts and biomass burning. The CMAQ model uses the parameterization of *Gong* [2003] for calculating sea-salt emissions [*Kelly et al*., 2010]. Emissions of particulate chloride from biomass burning activity were based on *Lobert et al*. [1999]. These biomass burning emissions include the following source categories: savanna fires, wood and charcoal burning, deforestation, agro-industrial and dung burning, forest wildfires, slash and burn/shifting cultivation, burning in the fields, shrubland, heath, tundra fires, and grassland fires [*Lobert et al*., 1999]. These estimates likely represent the upper limit of the biomass burning emissions. However, many other sources including those of power generation emit particulate chloride [*Reff et al*., 2009]. Global emissions estimates of these other sources are not currently available and consequently are not included in this study. Thus, the results presented herein do not reflect the full impact of the $ClNO_2$ chemistry since particulate chloride emissions from industrial sources are not included. The CMAQ model uses three modes to describe the aerosol size distribution: Aitken mode, accumulation mode, and coarse mode. Sea-salt emissions are apportioned into accumulation mode and coarse mode particles, while biomass burning emissions are apportioned only into accumulation mode particles. Calculated sea-salt-derived accumulation mode particulate chloride emissions for the NH are 1.6 Tg in January and 0.77 Tg in June, while sea-salt-derived coarse mode particulate chloride emissions are 102 Tg in January and 46.6 Tg in June. Accumulation mode particulate chloride emissions from biomass burning are 0.4 Tg in January and 0.4 Tg in June. Sea salt contributes substantially more to the total particulate chloride emissions than biomass burning activity in coastal and marine environments.

2.2. Heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ Formation Chemistry

The standard CMAQv5.0.2 model includes the uptake of N_2O_5 on aerosols to produce HNO_3 as the only reaction product (R1). It uses the *Davis et al*. [2008] parameterization for the heterogeneous uptake

coefficient of N_2O_5 (γ_{N2O5}) and accounts for the heterogeneous conversion of N_2O_5 on Aitken mode and accumulation mode aerosols.

$$N_2O_5(g) + H_2O(aq) \rightarrow 2\ HNO_3(g) \quad \text{(R1)}$$

Finlayson-Pitts et al. [1989], *Bertram and Thornton* [2009], and *Roberts et al.* [2009] suggest that when particles contain chloride, the uptake of N_2O_5 also produces $ClNO_2$ as a reaction product (R2).

$$N_2O_5(g) + H_2O\ (aq) + Y\ Cl^-(aq) \rightarrow Y\ (HNO_3(g) + ClNO_2(g)) + 2(1\text{–}Y)\ HNO_3(g) \quad \text{(R2)}$$

The yield of $ClNO_2$ (Y) depends on particulate chloride concentration [Cl^-] and particle liquid water content [$H_2O(l)$] and has been parameterized *by Bertram and Thornton* [2009] and *Roberts et al.* [2009] (equation (1)). *Bertram and Thornton* [2009] measured a constant of 483, while *Roberts et al.* [2009] measured a constant of 485 for use in equation (1):

$$Y = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{[H_2O(l)]}{483[Cl^-]}} \quad (1)$$

Bertram and Thornton [2009] also suggested that the presence of particulate chloride alters γ_{N2O5} and developed the following parameterization (equation (2)):

$$\gamma_{N_{2O_5}} = 3.2x10^{-8}k\left(1 - \frac{1}{\left(\frac{0.06[H_2O(l)]}{[NO_3^-]}\right) + 1 + \left(\frac{29[Cl^-]}{[NO_3^-]}\right)}\right) \quad (2)$$

where [$H_2O(l)$] = particle liquid water (mol/L), [NO_3^-] = particulate nitrate (mol/L), [Cl^-] = particulate chloride (mol/L), and k represents the rate coefficient for the disassociation of N_2O_5 (aq) and is calculated as follows:

$$k = 1.15x10^6 - 1.15x10^6 e^{\lfloor -0.13x[H_2O(l)] \rfloor} \quad (3)$$

Bertram et al. [2009] compared the γ_{N2O5} parameterization from equation (2) to measurements made on ambient aerosols and found that when organic content was low, relative humidity was a primary controller of γ_{N2O5} while nitrate concentration was a secondary controller. Since the *Bertram and Thornton* [2009] parameterization does not explicitly account for the effects of organics, the heterogeneous uptake coefficient may be overestimated when organic aerosol concentrations are high. The effect of not accounting for organic inhibition of N_2O_5 uptake should be most pronounced in summer and less pronounced in winter. In this study, we replace (R1) with (R2) in the CMAQ model and replace the *Davis et al.* [2008] parameterization with the *Bertram and Thornton* [2009] formulation for γ_{N2O5}. The yields and heterogeneous uptake coefficients are calculated separately on Aitken, accumulation, and coarse particles using equations (1) and (2), respectively.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Predicted $ClNO_2$ Levels and the Composition of Total Reactive Nitrogen

$ClNO_2$ forms at night and tends to peak before the sunrise. Predicted levels decrease rapidly after sunrise and reach a minimum value during the day. Monthly mean of nightly 1 h maximum $ClNO_2$ levels without and with the heterogeneous production are shown in Figure 1. Predicted $ClNO_2$ levels formed via the gas-phase reaction of NO_2 + Cl are small (<1 parts per trillion by volume (pptv)) as shown in Figures 1a and 1b. The inclusion of the heterogeneous formation reaction enhances predicted $ClNO_2$ levels in many areas by more than 3 orders of magnitude. Collocation of anthropogenic NO_x sources and particulate chloride from sea salt triggers the heterogeneous production of $ClNO_2$ in coastal areas, while NO_x and particulate chloride from biomass burning activity activates the heterogeneous production of $ClNO_2$ over inland areas.

Predicted surface-level winter $ClNO_2$ values are greater than those in summer due to higher N_2O_5 levels, higher $ClNO_2$ yields, and lower mixing height. The colder winter temperature shifts the N_2O_5-NO_3 equilibrium toward N_2O_5, and the longer winter nights lead to more N_2O_5 accumulation in dark conditions. The monthly mean $ClNO_2$ yields range between 0.5 and 1.0 across most of the NH in winter, with values greater than 0.75

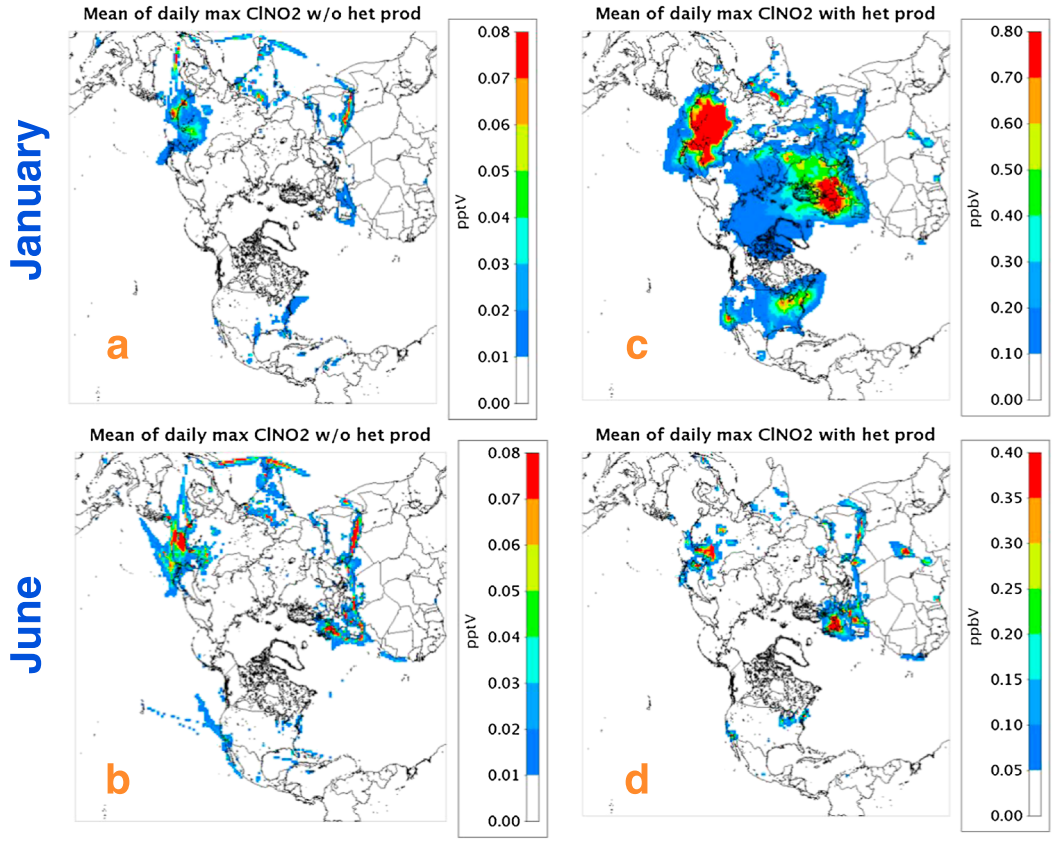

Figure 1. (a) Mean of nightly 1 h maximum $ClNO_2$ in January without the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ production (pptv), (b) mean of nightly 1 h maximum $ClNO_2$ in June without the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ production (pptv), (c) mean of nightly 1 h maximum $ClNO_2$ in January with the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ production (ppbv), and (d) mean of nightly 1 h maximum $ClNO_2$ in June with the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ production (ppbv). Note that scales for Figures 1a and 1b are given in units of parts per trillion by volume, while scales in Figures 1c and 1d are given in unites of parts per billion by volume.

over the Oceans, China, parts of Africa, and the southwestern United States. These high winter $ClNO_2$ yields and N_2O_5 concentrations lead to monthly mean nightly maximum winter $ClNO_2$ levels of more than 0.7 ppbv over large areas of China and Western Europe. The heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ formation pathway also produces more than 0.4 ppbv of winter $ClNO_2$ over parts of India, Western Europe, the eastern United States, and Southern California. In contrast, N_2O_5, $ClNO_2$ yields, and resulting $ClNO_2$ concentrations are lower in the summer. Monthly mean $ClNO_2$ yields range between 0 and 1.0 in the summer with values of 0.1–0.6 over Europe and the United States and 0.5–1.0 over China. This results in summer $ClNO_2$ concentrations of up to 0.4 ppbv only over small areas of China and Western Europe. Predicted summer levels elsewhere in the NH are small compared to those obtained in winter. However, values greater than 200 pptv are predicted in some areas.

Predicted peak $ClNO_2$ levels from the current study are compared to the measured peak values from field studies in Table 1. While predicted winter levels tend to be closer to the observed data, summer levels are lower than the observations. Similar model calculations using the same chemistry but at a finer grid resolution (12 km) over the United States [*Sarwar et al.*, 2012] predicted higher $ClNO_2$ concentrations (especially in the summer) which matched reasonably well with measurements in the United States suggesting that local peaks are likely smoothed out by the coarser grid resolution (108 km) used in this study. In addition, the coarse grid resolution may dampen localized O_3 titration due to artificial dilution of urban NO_x emissions and thus could cause an underestimate of nighttime NO_3 and consequently N_2O_5 formation. Therefore, the modeling results presented here may not capture the largest $ClNO_2$ effects.

The heterogeneous production of $ClNO_2$ sequesters NO_x which would otherwise form HNO_3 and be lost quickly from the atmosphere via deposition. Upon sunrise, $ClNO_2$ undergoes photolysis liberating NO_x and

Table 1. A Comparison of Predicted $ClNO_2$ Concentrations to Observed Data[a]

Location	Date	Peak Observation (pptv)	Peak Predictions (pptv)		References
			January, 2006	June, 2006	
Houston, TX, USA	Aug–Sep 2008	1200	1100	150	*Osthoff et al.* [2008]
Boulder, CO, USA	Feb 2009	450	400	70	*Thornton et al.* [2010]
Boulder, CO, USA	Feb–Mar 2011	1300	400	70	*Riedel et al.* [2013]
Los Angeles, CA, USA (marine)	May–Jun 2010	2100	2300	600	*Riedel et al.* [2012]
Pasadena, CA, USA (inland)	May–Jun 2010	3600	1600	700	*Mielke et al.* [2013]
Long Island Sound	Mar 2008	200	1300	1400	*Kercher et al.* [2009]
North Atlantic	Mar 2008	100	2100	600	*Kercher et al.* [2009]
Calgary, Alberta, Canada	Apr 2010	250	300	30	*Mielke et al.* [2011]
Frankfurt, Germany	Aug–Sep 2011	800	1300	800	*Phillips* et al. [2012]

[a]Note that observed and model values are not paired in time and space. Model predictions are taken from the general geographic areas of observed data.

$Cl^{\cdot}$, both of which affect atmospheric chemistry. The production of $ClNO_2$ alters the relative composition of NO_y. TNO_3 is the largest contributor to the NO_y budget in the model's surface layer and accounts for 54% and 51% of the total NO_y in winter and summer, respectively. NO_x is the second largest contributor to the NO_y budget and accounts for 23% of the total NO_y in winter as well as in summer. In winter, nitrous acid accounts for 0.2%, peroxyacetyl nitrate for 8.7%, higher peroxyacetyl nitrate for 5.8%, and peroxynitric acid for 0.5% of NO_y averaged over the entire NH. In contrast, $ClNO_2$ accounts for 2.9% of NO_y; thus, its contribution to NO_y is more than that of nitrous acid or peroxynitric acid and is half of the higher peroxyacetyl nitrate. In summer, nitrous acid accounts for 0.2%, peroxyacetyl nitrate for 12.3%, higher peroxyacetyl nitrate for 7.8%,

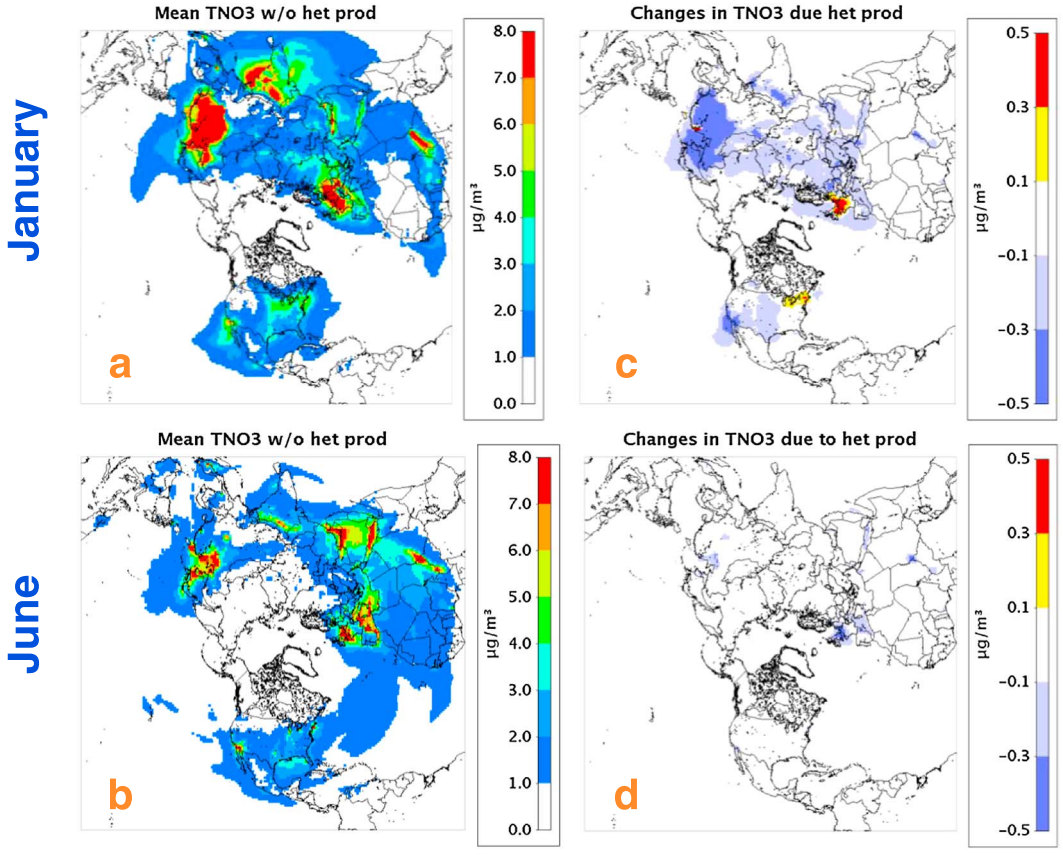

Figure 2. (a) Mean TNO_3 in January without the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ production, (b) mean TNO_3 in June without the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ production, (c) changes in mean TNO_3 in January due to the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ production, and (c) changes in mean TNO_3 in June due to the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ production.

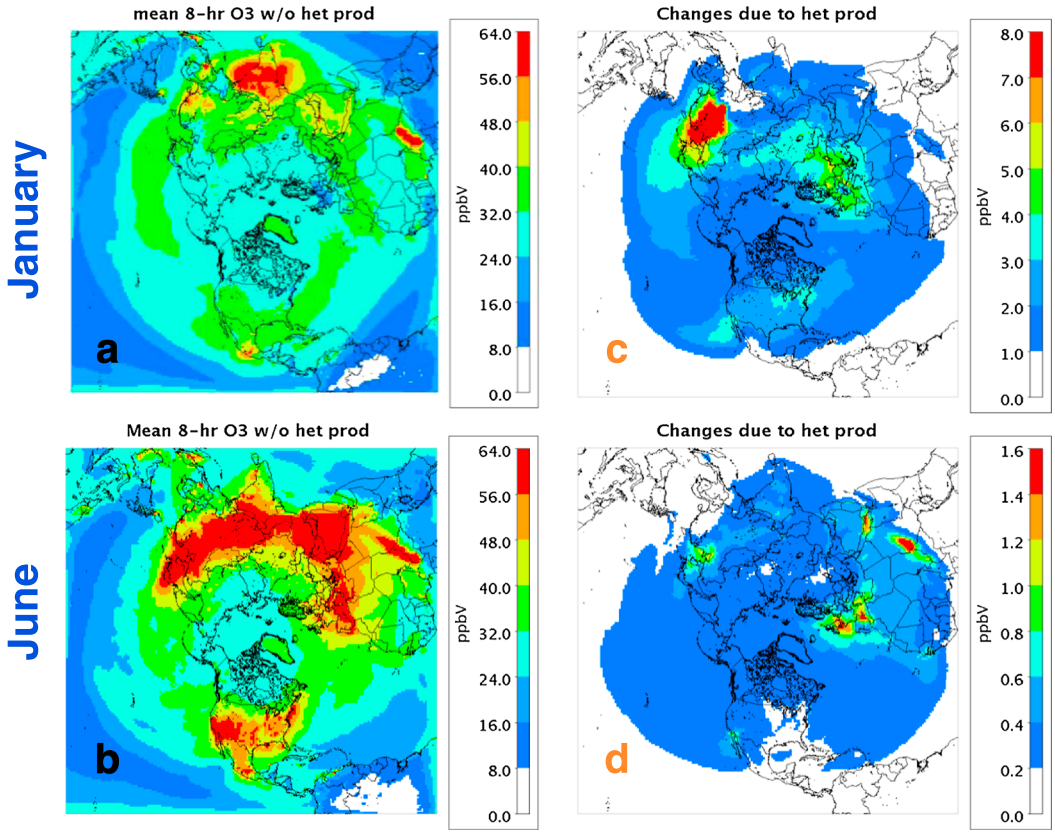

Figure 3. (a) Mean of daily maximum 8 h O_3 in January without the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ production, (b) mean of daily maximum 8 h O_3 in June without the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ production, (c) changes in mean daily maximum 8 h O_3 in January due to the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ production, and (d) changes in mean daily maximum 8 h O_3 in June due to the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ production.

peroxynitric acid for 0.1%, and $ClNO_2$ for 0.1% of NO_y averaged over the entire NH. Hence, summer $ClNO_2$ levels are similar to those of peroxynitric acid. Thus, $ClNO_2$ accounts for a moderate fraction of the NO_y budget even when averaged over the entire NH. It, however, can comprise a larger fraction of NO_y in localized areas. For example, $ClNO_2$ accounts for more than 6% of winter NO_y over large areas of China and more than 15% of winter NO_y in Scandinavia and northern Russia. These seasonal and regional differences in the NO_y composition then impact NO_x recycling in the troposphere affecting both oxidant and particle formation as discussed next.

3.2. Impact of the $ClNO_2$ Production on Total Nitrate

Figure 2 displays the monthly mean TNO_3 levels without the heterogeneous production of $ClNO_2$ and changes due to the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ formation chemistry. Winter TNO_3 levels without the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ formation chemistry exceed 7.0 $\mu g\ m^{-3}$ over a large area in China, India, Western Europe, and Africa. More than 3.0 $\mu g\ m^{-3}$ of TNO_3 is predicted over areas of eastern and western United States. In most areas, summer TNO_3 levels are lower than the corresponding winter values. The heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ production decreases winter TNO_3 by 0.3–0.5 $\mu g\ m^{-3}$ over much of China, India, Western Europe, and western U.S. Although not visible in the figure, the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ production decreases winter TNO_3 by as much as 2.0–3.0 $\mu g\ m^{-3}$ at some locations in China. $ClNO_2$ formation can also increase winter TNO_3 due to recycled NO_x from $ClNO_2$ photolysis as well as enhanced HO levels which, in turn, enhance daytime production of HNO_3 via the homogeneous reaction of $NO_2 + HO$. In most locations, the reductions in nighttime heterogeneous production of HNO_3 outweigh the increases in the daytime homogeneous HNO_3 production, and thus, $ClNO_2$ chemistry reduces winter TNO_3 levels. However, in some isolated locations, $ClNO_2$ increases winter TNO_3 levels. The impact of $ClNO_2$ chemistry on summer

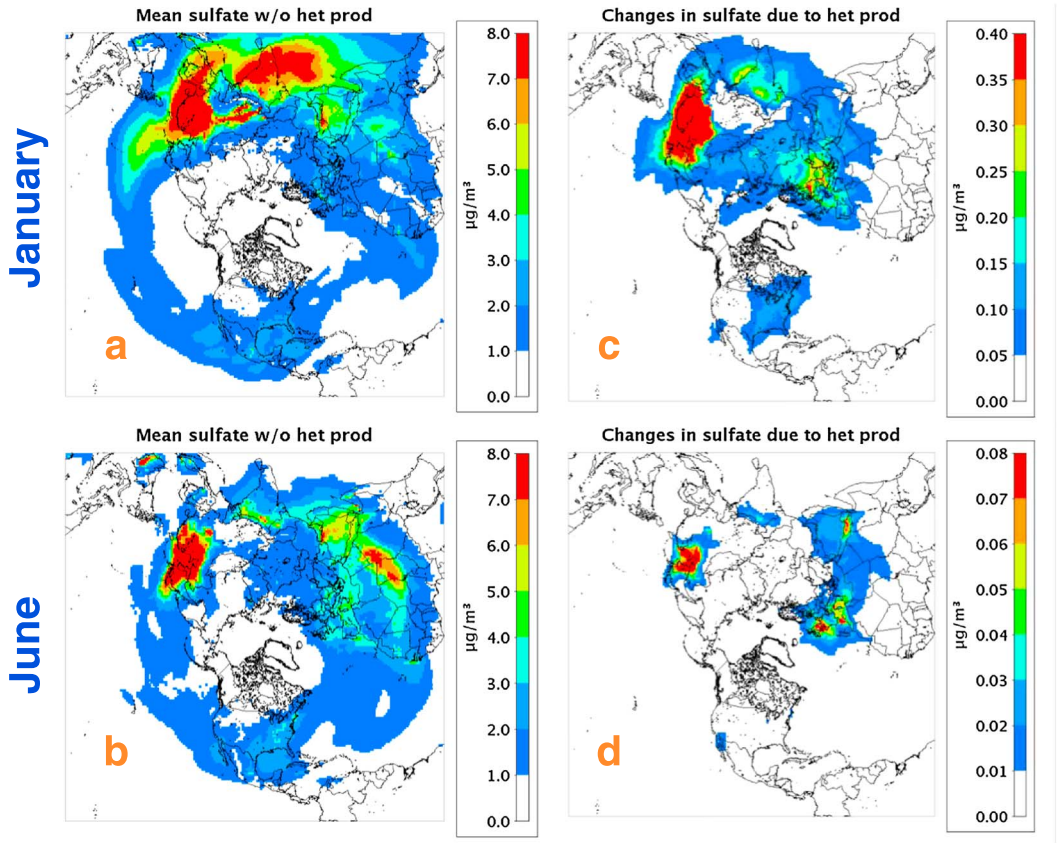

Figure 4. (a) Mean sulfate in January without the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ production, (b) mean sulfate in June without the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ production, (c) changes in mean sulfate in January due to the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ production, and (d) changes in mean sulfate in June due to the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ production.

TNO_3 is limited to much more localized areas in Europe, Africa, and China. $ClNO_2$ production decreases winter TNO_3 by 3.3% and summer TNO_3 by 0.3% averaged over the entire NH but by up to 25% and 7% in some locations.

3.3. Impact of the $ClNO_2$ Production on Ozone

The monthly mean of daily maximum 8 h O_3 levels without the heterogeneous production of $ClNO_2$ and changes due to the $ClNO_2$ chemistry are shown in Figure 3. Ozone concentrations are highest in the summer near high population areas and are lower during winter over remote areas. Heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ formation chemistry enhances both the winter and summer O_3; however, the enhancements are greater in winter (>7.0 ppbv increase in monthly mean of 8 h daily maximum over a large area in China and 1.0–6.0 ppbv in the rest of the NH). $ClNO_2$ formation enhances summer O_3 by only 0.2–1.6 ppbv.

3.4. Impact on Hydroxyl Radical and Subsequent Impact on Other Chemical Species

Heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ formation chemistry enhances both winter and summer HO levels. This chemistry increases winter HO by 3.5% and summer HO by 0.3% averaged over the entire NH. The increased HO can occur through several chemical pathways. First, as described in section 3.3, $ClNO_2$ enhances O_3 which in turn produces more singlet oxygen atom (O^1D) via photolysis. Additional O^1D leads to enhanced HO via its reaction with water vapor. Second, photolysis of $ClNO_2$ produces $Cl^{\cdot}$ which subsequently oxidizes volatile organic compounds and, in turn, also leads to more HO. While on average, winter HO is enhanced by 3.5%, larger increases occur in isolated areas. For example, winter HO over localized areas of China, Europe, United States, and Canada increases by more than 20% compared to the simulation without heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ formation chemistry. These findings are consistent with box model results constrained by measurements made in Los Angeles, CA, which show $ClNO_2$ increasing morning HO levels by 25% [*Riedel et al.*, 2013].

Enhanced HO leads to increased secondary pollutants such as sulfate through the oxidation of sulfur dioxide. The monthly mean sulfate without the heterogeneous production of $ClNO_2$ and changes due to the $ClNO_2$ chemistry are shown in Figure 4. The inclusion of heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ formation chemistry enhances winter monthly sulfate by $>0.35\mu g\ m^{-3}$ over China, $>0.20\ \mu g\ m^{-3}$ over India and Western Europe, and $>0.05\ \mu g\ m^{-3}$ over United States. This chemistry also enhances summer sulfate though its impact is smaller and more localized than in winter.

4. Discussion

To our knowledge, this is the first study that examines the impact of the heterogeneous $ClNO_2$ production on air quality across the Northern Hemisphere. Predicted $ClNO_2$ can reach high levels (in the range of 1 ppb) in several areas across the NH, especially during winter, and can account for a sizeable fraction of the NO_y budget. Due to the large grid size used for hemispheric modeling, we may not fully capture peak $ClNO_2$ concentrations and its effects on tropospheric chemistry; thus, these modeling results may be considered a lower bound. Similar to previous modeling studies [*Simon et al*., 2009; *Sarwar et al*., 2012], this analysis shows that the resulting $ClNO_2$ alters air quality by decreasing total nitrate and enhancing O_3. Sizable $ClNO_2$ concentrations also increase HO which subsequently enhances the atmospheric oxidation capacity and secondary air pollutant formation. This work expands on previous studies by characterizing $ClNO_2$ concentrations and effects across many portions of the NH which have not previously been evaluated. We identify winter in China and Western Europe as the season and locations in which $ClNO_2$ chemistry is likely to have the largest impact. Much of the $ClNO_2$ predicted to span large inland areas of China forms as a result of chloride present in biomass burning plumes. While this is an intriguing finding, no field or lab studies have measured $ClNO_2$ formation on this type of particle. Previous studies focused on locations where chloride from sea salt and other sources was present in aqueous particles, while at least some of the chlorine in biomass burning particles may be in other forms (e.g. covalently bonded in organic chlorine compounds). These results highlight the need for further measurement studies to verify whether $ClNO_2$ forms on the surface of biomass burning particles and to quantify its impacts at the times and locations where the model predicts it is most important. It also underscores the need for developing a more accurate global emissions inventory for particulate chloride.

Acknowledgments

The Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) model (CMAQv5.0.2) was used for generating the model results. The CMAQ model can be downloaded from http://www.cmascenter.org Although this paper has been reviewed by EPA and approved for publication, it does not necessarily reflect EPA's policies or views.

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