

1                    **Acid Deposition from Stratospheric Geoengineering**  
2                    **with Sulfate Aerosols**

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**Abstract**

48           We used a general circulation model of Earth's climate to conduct geoengineering  
49 experiments involving stratospheric injection of sulfur dioxide and analyzed the resulting  
50 deposition of sulfate. When sulfur is injected into the tropical or Arctic stratosphere, the main  
51 additional surface deposition occurs in midlatitude bands, because of strong cross-tropopause  
52 flux in the jet stream regions. We used critical load studies to determine the effects of this  
53 increase in acid deposition on terrestrial ecosystems. For annual injection of 3 Tg of SO<sub>2</sub> into the  
54 Arctic stratosphere or 5 Tg of SO<sub>2</sub> into the tropical stratosphere, the maximum total local surface  
55 acid deposition of approximately 1.5 mEq m<sup>-2</sup> a<sup>-1</sup>, and the maximum anomaly of approximately  
56 0.05 mEq m<sup>-2</sup> a<sup>-1</sup>, are not enough to negatively impact most ecosystems.

57

57 **1. Introduction**

58 Faced with the problem of climate change due to increasing global temperatures, some  
59 scientists and policy makers have suggested the deliberate modification of Earth's climate, an  
60 activity that has been termed geoengineering. There have been many different suggestions for  
61 geoengineering, both recently [e.g., *Angel*, 2006; *Bower et al.*, 2006] as well as historically  
62 [*Fleming*, 2007]. However, one method that has received a great deal of recent attention is the  
63 suggestion of *Budyko* [1974, 1977], *Dickinson* [1996], and *Crutzen* [2006] to inject aerosols into  
64 the stratosphere. Injecting precursors of highly reflective sulfate aerosols into the lower  
65 stratosphere would increase the planetary albedo, resulting in cooling [*Rasch et al.*, 2008a].  
66 *Rasch et al.* [2008b] and *Robock et al.* [2008] calculated climate responses using general  
67 circulation models.

68 ,Geoengineering, however, will invariably have certain undesirable consequences.  
69 *Tilmes et al.* [2008] and *Robock* [2008a] discuss the negative impact these sulfate aerosols will  
70 have on polar stratospheric ozone. *Robock* [2008b] lists 20 potential side effects that could result  
71 from this method. Our purpose here is to evaluate one of *Robock's* suggestions, by calculating  
72 the amount of acid deposition that would result from geoengineering.

73 Acid rain has been studied extensively in terms of damage to ecosystems. Excess acid  
74 can decrease or even eliminate freshwater fish populations [*Leivestad and Muniz*, 1976], cause  
75 foliar leaching [*Wood and Bormann*, 1975], affect plant-parasite interaction [*Shriner*, 1977],  
76 significantly reduce lake bacteria populations [*Rao and Dutka*, 1983], and, through forest  
77 dieback and reduced food supply, can affect forest bird communities [*Graveland*, 1998]. These,  
78 among other potential problems, could present significant ecological concerns, and serve as  
79 motivation for the study of acid deposition due to geoengineering.

80 Whether acid deposition (both dry and wet) is harmful depends on both the amount of  
81 acid and the sensitivity of the ecosystem. Here we calculate how much additional sulfuric acid  
82 would reach the surface from proposed geoengineering, and compare this to critical load  
83 thresholds for different regions.

## 84 2. Experiment

85 We studied geoengineering with stratospheric sulfate aerosols using ModelE, a general  
86 circulation model developed by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration Goddard  
87 Institute for Space Studies. We used the stratospheric version with 4° latitude by 5° longitude  
88 horizontal resolution and 23 vertical levels up to 80 km [Schmidt *et al.*, 2006]. It is fully coupled  
89 to a 4° latitude by 5° longitude dynamic ocean with 13 vertical levels [Russell *et al.*, 1995]. The  
90 aerosol module [Koch *et al.*, 2006] accounts for SO<sub>2</sub> conversion to sulfate aerosols, as well as  
91 transport and removal of the aerosols. Radiative forcing from the aerosols is fully interactive  
92 with the atmospheric circulation. We defined the dry aerosol effective radius as 0.25 μm, which  
93 creates hydrated sulfate aerosols with an effective radius of approximately 0.30-0.35 μm.

94 *Koch et al.* [2006] thoroughly analyzed the performance of ModelE concerning sulfate  
95 deposition from tropospheric sources. The model has some biases in that it produces 50-67% of  
96 the observed sulfate deposition in Europe and the East coast of the United States. In the Western  
97 United States, the model overpredicts the actual amount by 50-100%, but that region has little  
98 acid deposition anyway. There are also some other local differences between model output and  
99 observed values, but none of these biases is in a location that will affect our conclusions.

100 *Robock et al.* [2008] performed a three-member ensemble of 20-year climate simulations  
101 under the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change A1B scenario [IPCC, 2007]. In addition,  
102 for geoengineering simulations, *Robock et al.* performed two ensembles, each with three

103 members of 20-year climate simulations, which were compared to the A1B scenario ensemble.  
104 One involved daily injections of SO<sub>2</sub> into the Arctic lower stratosphere (latitude 68°N) for a total  
105 of 3 Tg per year in addition to the A1B forcing, and one involved daily injections into the  
106 tropical lower stratosphere (latitude 0°N) for a total of 5 Tg per year in addition to the A1B  
107 forcing.

### 108 **3. Results**

109 Figure 1 shows the annual percent increase in total deposition, averaged over the second  
110 decade of geoengineering, over much of the globe, with the exception of the tropics (due to  
111 poleward stratospheric transport before mixing into the troposphere). The increases are broad in  
112 spatial scope, often reaching 135% of the A1B values. As expected, in the Arctic injection, the  
113 increase in deposition is mostly confined to the Northern Hemisphere, whereas both hemispheres  
114 are affected in a tropical injection. The majority of the increase is in the form of wet deposition  
115 (not shown). In the polluted midlatitudes of the Northern Hemisphere, the increases of acid  
116 deposition are not noticeable, but in pristine areas, such as Antarctica, they are. However, as  
117 there was little acid deposition in pristine areas in the A1B case, additional deposition of tens of  
118 percent may not be consequential, so we must evaluate the actual amount of deposition. Figure 2  
119 shows that the increases in actual deposition are strongest in midlatitude bands, frequently as  
120 high as  $5\text{-}10 \times 10^{-4} \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{ a}^{-1}$ , due to strong cross-tropopause flux in the jet stream region. There  
121 are small regions of larger deposition for certain seasons, but the annual average is sufficient for  
122 this analysis.

### 123 **4. Impacts of Additional Acid Deposition**

124 The significance of the acid deposition increases depends on their potential effects on  
125 terrestrial ecosystems. *Kuylenstierna et al.* [2001] used a modeling approach to perform a

126 critical load study on a global scale in which they rank areas by sensitivity to increased acid  
 127 deposition, a value they determine by evaluating the buffering capacity of each region's soil.  
 128 Our units of sulfate deposition,  $\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{ a}^{-1}$ , must be converted to the units found in *Kuylenstierna*  
 129 *et al.* of  $\text{mEq m}^{-2} \text{ a}^{-1}$ . We use the definitions

$$130 \quad \text{mEq} = \frac{\text{mass (grams)}}{\text{mEq mass (grams)}} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{mEq mass (grams)} = \frac{\text{atomic weight (g/mol)}}{\text{valence} \times 1000}$$

131 The  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  ion has atomic weight 96 g/mole and a valence of 2, giving us mEq mass (grams) of  
 132 0.048. So

$$133 \quad \frac{1 \text{ kg}}{\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{a}} \cdot \frac{1000 \text{ g}}{1 \text{ kg}} \cdot \frac{1 \text{ mEq} \times 0.048}{1 \text{ g}} = 48 \frac{\text{mEq}}{\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{a}}$$

134 Figure 3 shows total annual deposition (taken as an ensemble average over the second 10  
 135 years) and the anomaly of total deposition when compared to the A1B scenario, both in terms of  
 136 these new units. This scenario (5 Tg  $\text{a}^{-1}$  injection) was chosen because it has the largest point  
 137 values of sulfate deposition of all scenarios. The maximum total deposition in a given year is  
 138 approximately  $1.5 \text{ mEq m}^{-2} \text{ a}^{-1}$  and the maximum anomaly is approximately  $0.05 \text{ mEq m}^{-2} \text{ a}^{-1}$ .  
 139 According to the critical loading studies of *Kuylenstierna et al.*, the most sensitive areas of the  
 140 globe can receive 25-50  $\text{mEq m}^{-2} \text{ a}^{-1}$  of sulfate deposition before potentially being negatively  
 141 impacted.

142 In another study, *Skeffington* [2006] takes a very conservative approach to critical load  
 143 studies by accounting for many means by which a region can be impacted by pollutant  
 144 deposition, where sulfate is defined as only one pollutant that is considered. He uses models for  
 145 much of his results, but also uses experimental and field evidence when available. In addition,  
 146 his purpose is to estimate uncertainty in measurements of critical loading, so the low ends of his  
 147 ranges for which a load is considered critical can be seen as conservative estimates.

148 *Skeffington's* results are given in terms of  $\text{kEq ha}^{-1} \text{a}^{-1}$ , so we must again perform a  
 149 conversion,

$$150 \quad \frac{1 \text{ kEq}}{\text{ha} \cdot \text{a}} \cdot \frac{10^6 \text{ mEq}}{1 \text{ kEq}} \cdot \frac{1 \text{ ha}}{10^4 \text{ m}^2} = 100 \frac{\text{mEq}}{\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{a}}.$$

151 *Skeffington's* results, with our conversion factor taken into account, show that our values for acid  
 152 deposition over a year, with the possible exception of waterways, are well under critical loading  
 153 levels (Table 1). In addition, the area in which our results exceed  $1 \text{ mEq m}^{-2} \text{a}^{-1}$  of sulfate  
 154 deposition is very small. However, due to our grid size, which is especially large when  
 155 compared to the size of most waterways, there may be localized areas of enhanced deposition  
 156 from individual precipitation events that we cannot assess.

## 157 **5. Conclusions**

158 Analysis of our results and comparison to the results of *Kuylenstierna et al.* [2001] and  
 159 *Skeffington* [2006] leads to the conclusion that the additional acid deposition that would result  
 160 from geoengineering will not be sufficient to negatively impact most ecosystems. With the  
 161 exception of waterways, every region has a critical loading value a full order of magnitude above  
 162 the total amount of acid deposition that would occur under the geoengineering scenario. Even  
 163 waterways would receive at most  $0.05 \text{ mEq m}^{-2} \text{a}^{-1}$  in additional sulfate deposition, meaning only  
 164 those waterways which are most sensitive to small amounts of additional deposition would be  
 165 negatively impacted.

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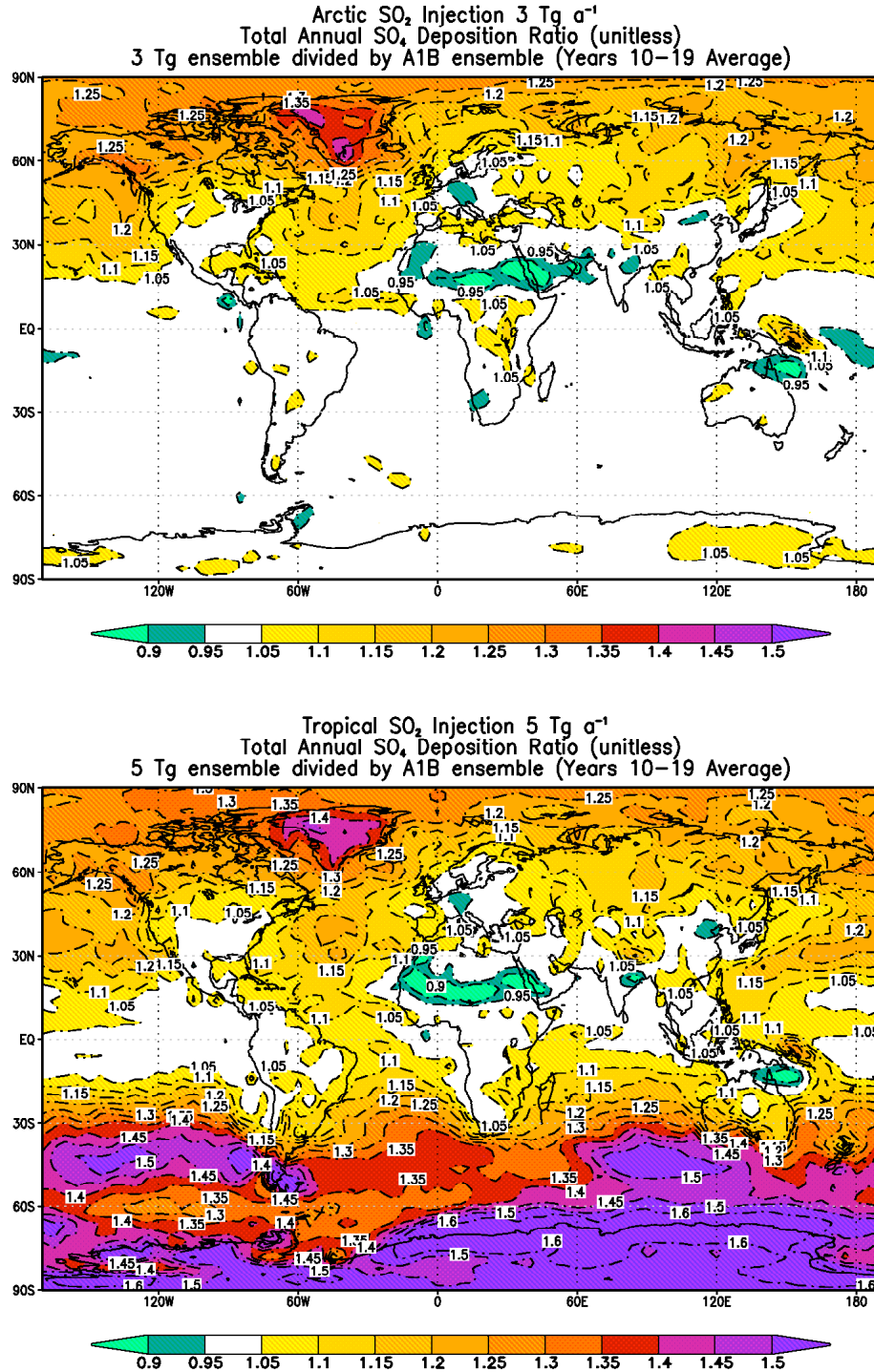
225 **Table 1.** Ranges of critical loading of pollutant deposition (including sulfur) for various sites in  
 226 Europe as reported by *Skeffington* [2006].

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<b>Region</b>	<b>Critical Load [mEq m<sup>-2</sup> a<sup>-1</sup>]</b>
Coniferous forests in Southern Sweden	13-61
Deciduous forests in Southern Sweden	15-72
Varied sites in the UK	24-182
Aber in North Wales	32-134
Uhlirska in the Czech Republic	260-358
Fårahall in Sweden	29-134
Several varied sites in China (sulfur only)	63-880
Waterways in Sweden	1-44

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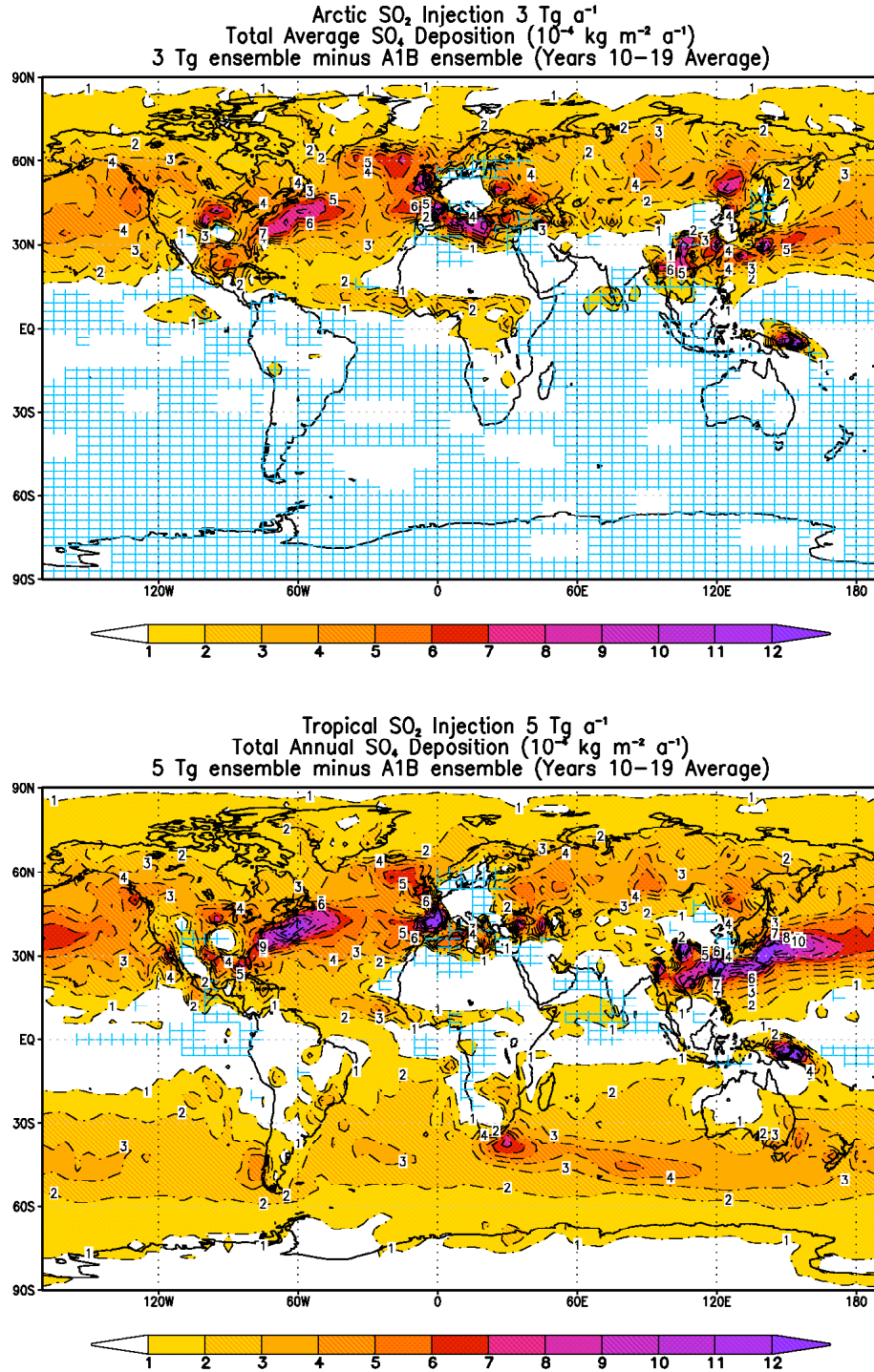
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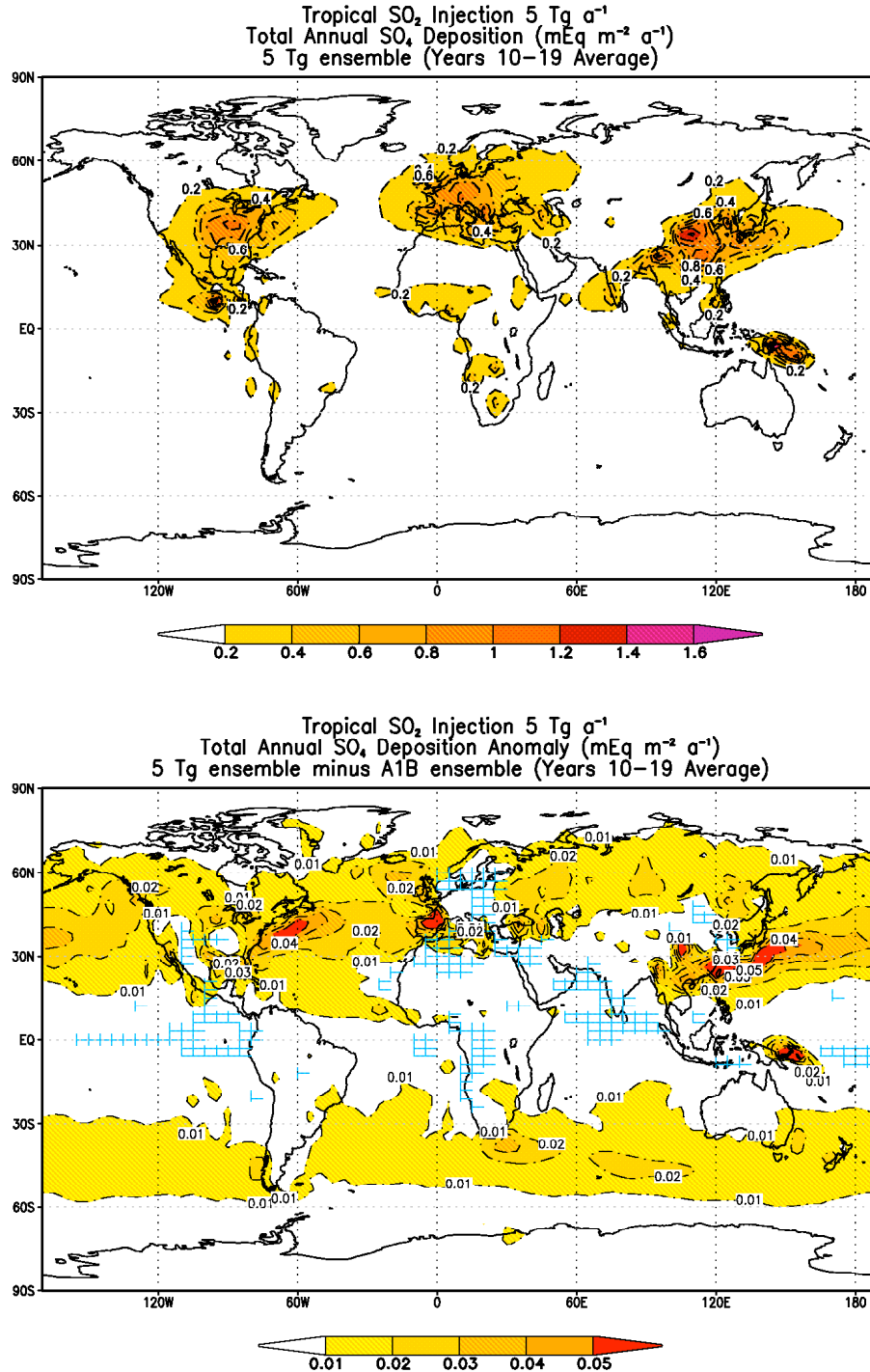
230 **Figure 1.** Ratios of the geoengineering ensembles (Arctic 3 Tg SO<sub>2</sub> a<sup>-1</sup> injection and tropical 5  
 231 Tg SO<sub>2</sub> a<sup>-1</sup> injection) to the A1B ensemble. Both figures show annually averaged total sulfate  
 232 deposition averaged over years 10-19 for each experiment. These plots are made from the model  
 233 output of the climate simulations performed by *Robock et al.* [2008]. All shaded values on this  
 234 figure are statistically significant at a 95% confidence level.

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236 **Figure 2.** Annually averaged total sulfate deposition anomalies for the geoengineering scenarios  
 237 of Arctic 3 Tg SO<sub>2</sub> a<sup>-1</sup> and tropical 5 Tg SO<sub>2</sub> a<sup>-1</sup> injection into the lower stratosphere. The results  
 238 are averaged over three ensemble members and for years 10-19 of each experiment. These plots  
 239 are made from the model output of the climate simulations performed by *Robock et al.* [2008].  
 240 Values not statistically significant at a 95% confidence level are denoted by blue hatching.  
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**Figure 3.** Total sulfate deposition and total deposition anomaly for a tropical 5 Tg a<sup>-1</sup> injection. The largest total sulfate deposition value is approximately 1.5 mEq m<sup>-2</sup> a<sup>-1</sup>, and the largest anomaly value is approximately 0.05 mEq m<sup>-2</sup> a<sup>-1</sup>. These plots are made from the model output of the climate simulations performed by *Robock et al.* [2008], averaged over three ensemble members and years 10-19 for each experiment. Values not statistically significant at a 95% confidence level are denoted by blue hatching.