

Atmospheric Pollution

Lecture 12

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Vertical Pollutant Transport

Pressure systems affect vertical air motions and, therefore, pollutant dispersion by forced and free convection .

In a semipermanent low-pressure system, for example, near-surface winds converge and rise, dispersing near-surface pollutants upward.

In a semipermanent high-pressure system, winds aloft converge and sink, confining near-surface pollutants. **Both cases illustrate forced convection.**

In thermal low-pressure systems, surface warming causes near-surface air to become buoyant and rise.

Thermodynamics of Dry Air

Dry Air

The First Law of Thermodynamics states that a small amount of heat, dQ , added to unit mass of a system (which here is a small parcel of air) can be used to change the internal energy, dU , and to do work, dW , against the surroundings.

$$dQ = dU + dW$$

Where the work done by the viscous forces can be neglected, the work is communicated only by the pressure force $p d\alpha_{\text{parcel}}$.

we can write $dW = p d\alpha$, which is the work done by expansion, and α is the specific volume. For dry air $dU = C_v dT$. Thus, the first law can be written:

$$dQ = C_v dT + p d\alpha \quad [\text{dry air(1)}]$$

Hence, heat added to the system may cause a change in volume of the gas, or it may result in a change in temperature of the gas, or both.

Air behaves nearly like a perfect gas, so we may use the perfect gas equation

$$p\alpha = RT \quad R = C_p - C_v$$

and write the first law in the form

$$dQ = C_p dT - (1/\rho) dp \quad [\text{dry air (2)}]$$

An adiabatic process is one in which no heat enters or leaves the system, thus

$$dQ=0$$

$$C_v dT = -p d\alpha$$

$$C_p dT = \alpha dp$$

Hence, an expansion ($d\alpha > 0$) will cause a reduction in the internal energy of the gas and therefore a decrease in temperature ($dT < 0$).

Alternatively we see that an decrease in temperature results in a decrease in pressure ($dp < 0$).

Dry Adiabatic Lapse Rate (DALR)

In atmospheric flow, we have a significant built-in vertical variation in the pressure, the air density, and the temperature.

A baseline for this variation is the adiabatic change with respect to height. Density changes over short height differences are small.

Thus using a constant density approximation, we can calculate the vertical adiabatic temperature change as a function of the pressure change.

This temperature profile is called the dry adiabatic lapse rate.

$$C_p dT = \alpha dp$$

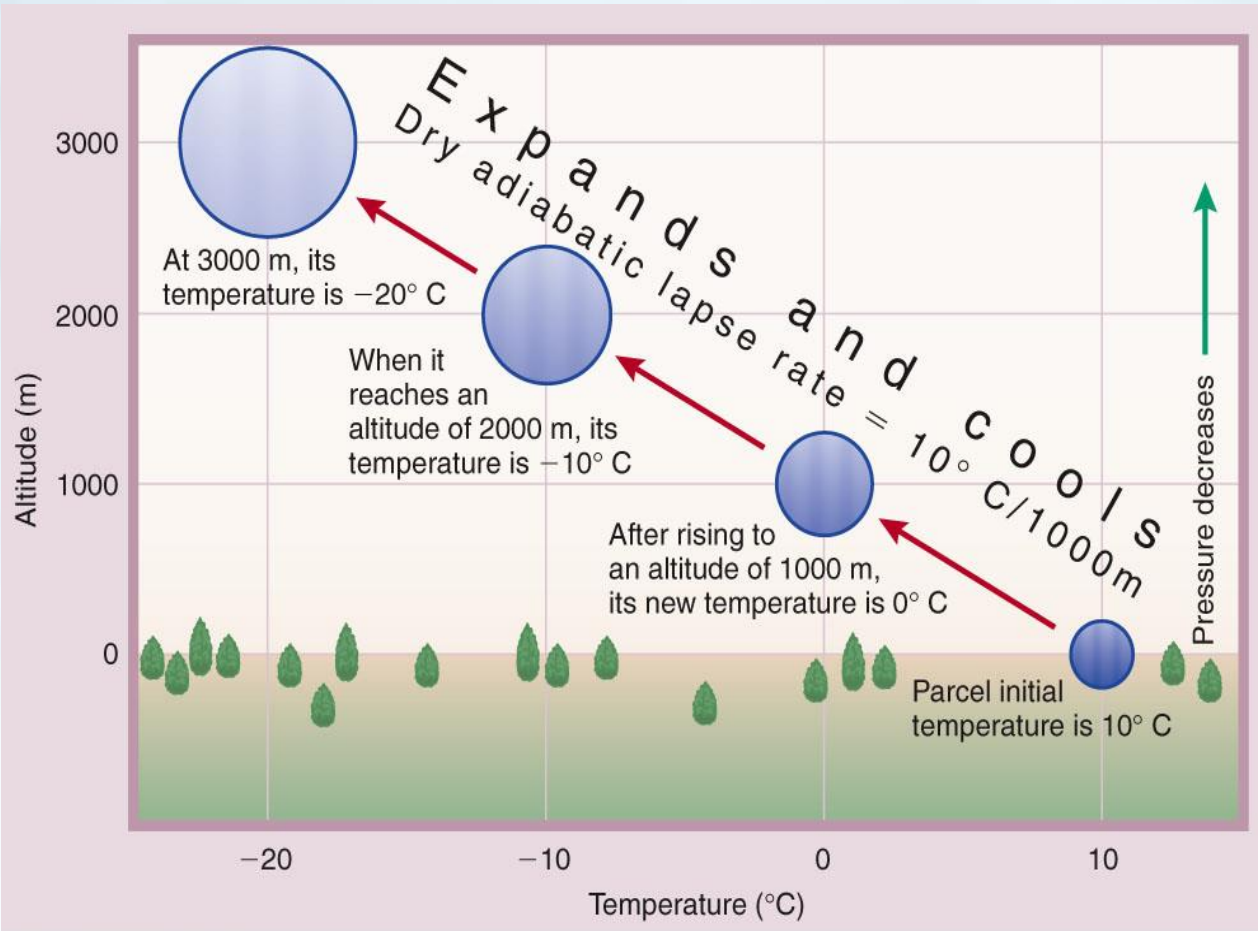
$$\alpha \frac{dp}{dz} = -g$$

Assuming $\rho = \text{const}$, we obtain

$$-\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial z}\right)_{DALR} = \frac{g}{C_p}$$

We denote $(\partial T/\partial z)_{DALR}$ by γ_d and call it the dry adiabatic lapse rate (DALR):

$$-\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial z}\right)_{DALR} \equiv \Gamma_d$$



Adiabatic and Environmental Lapse Rates

Whether air rises or sinks buoyantly in a thermal pressure system depends on atmospheric stability, which depends on adiabatic and environmental lapse rates

Stability in Unsaturated Air

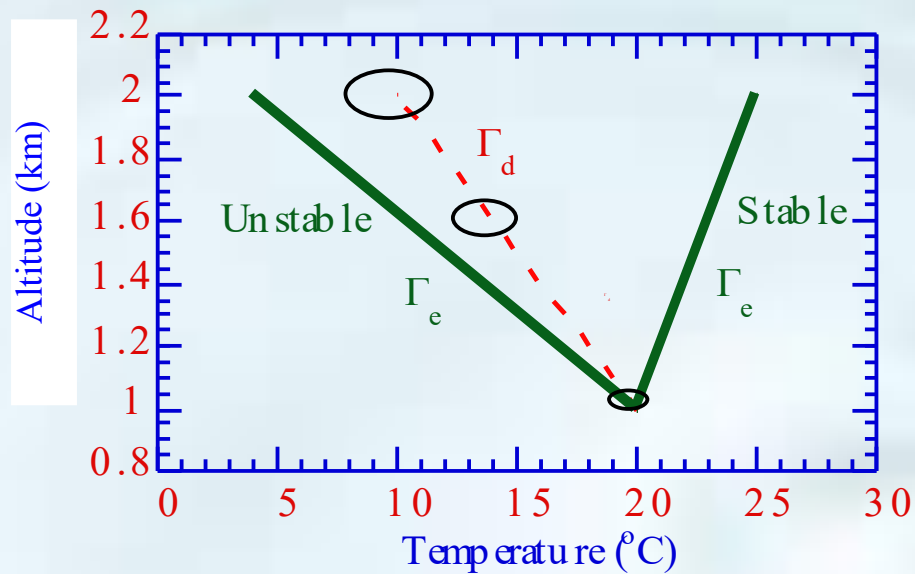


Figure 6.8

Stability in Saturated Air

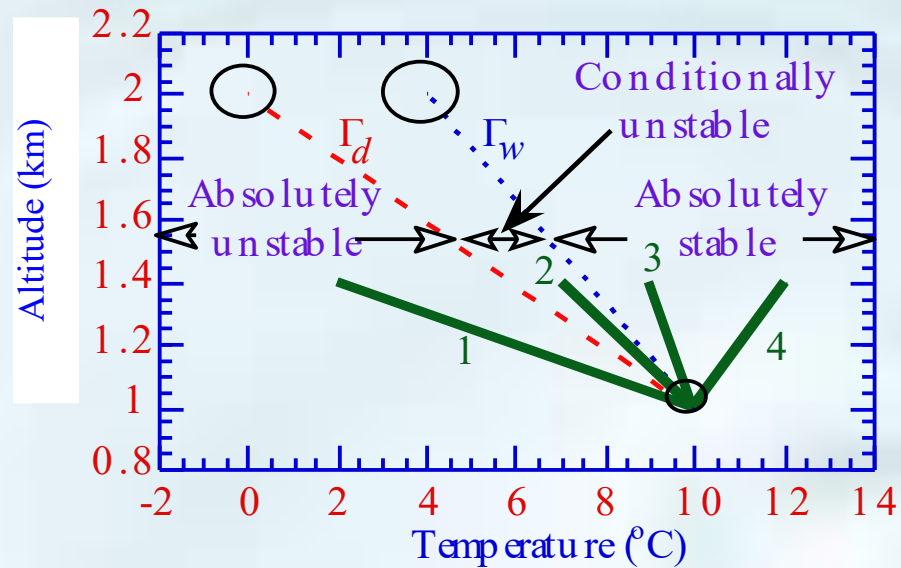


Figure 6.9

Temperature Inversion

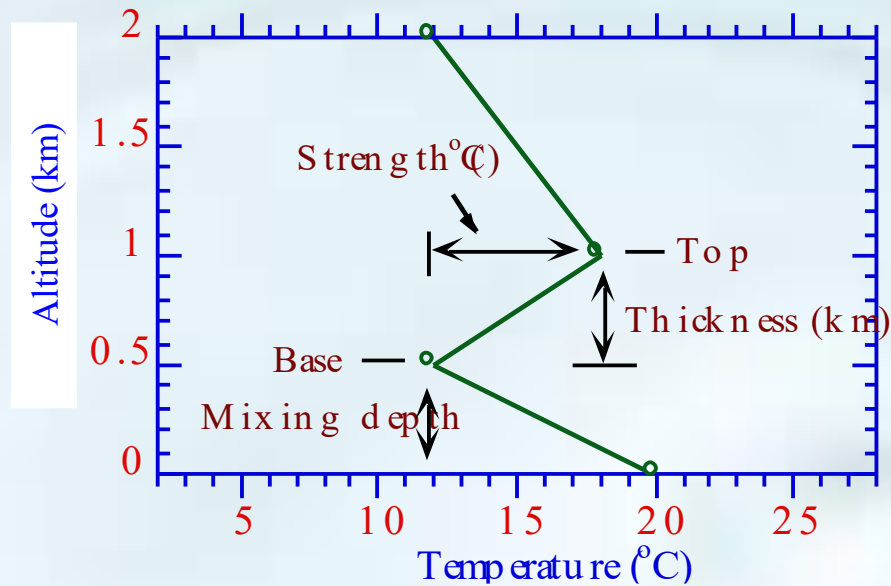


Figure 6.10

Trapping Pollutants Under an Inversion

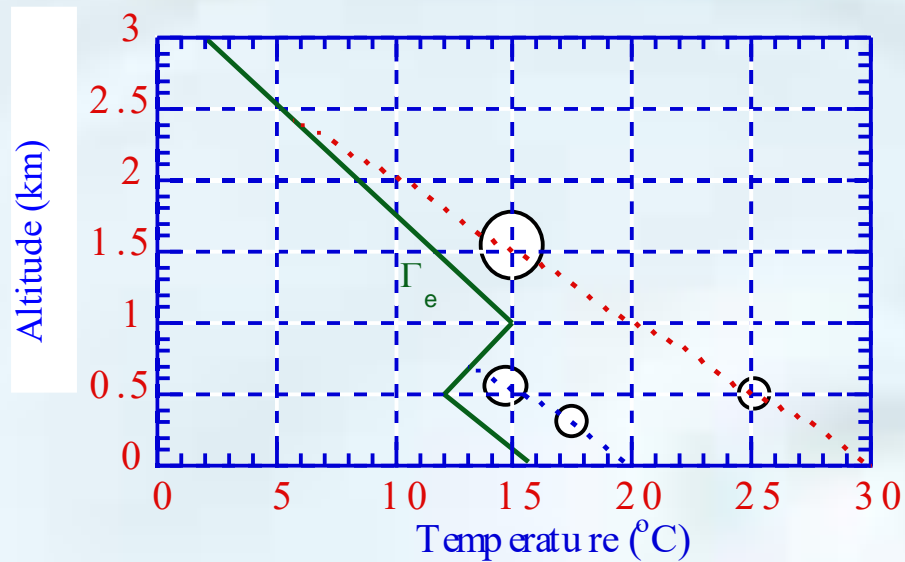


Figure 6.11

Morning and Afternoon Temperature Profiles

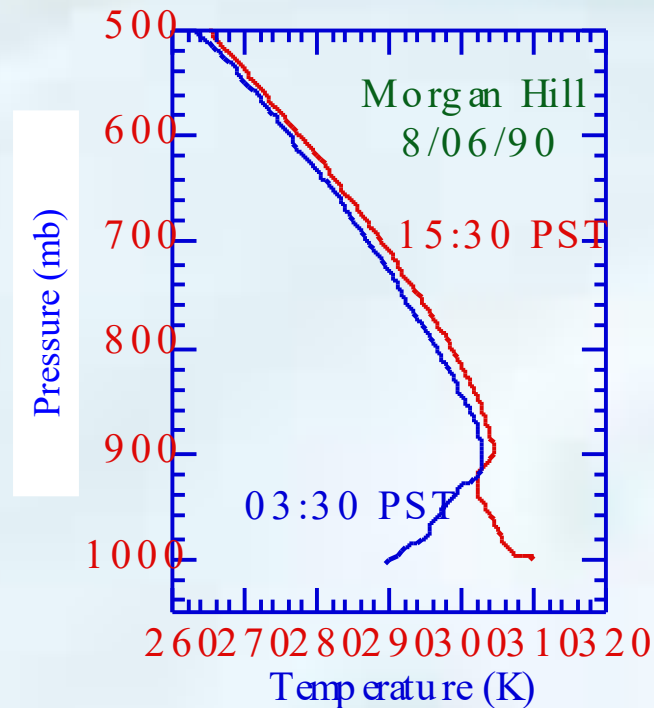


Figure 6.12

Formation of a Subsidence Inversion

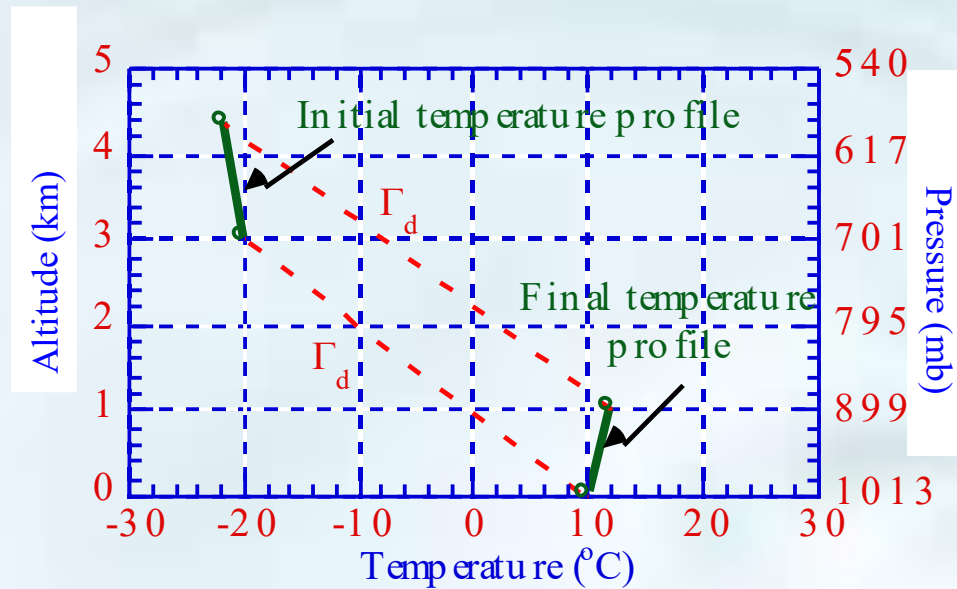


Figure 6.13

Change of Inversion Base Height During Day

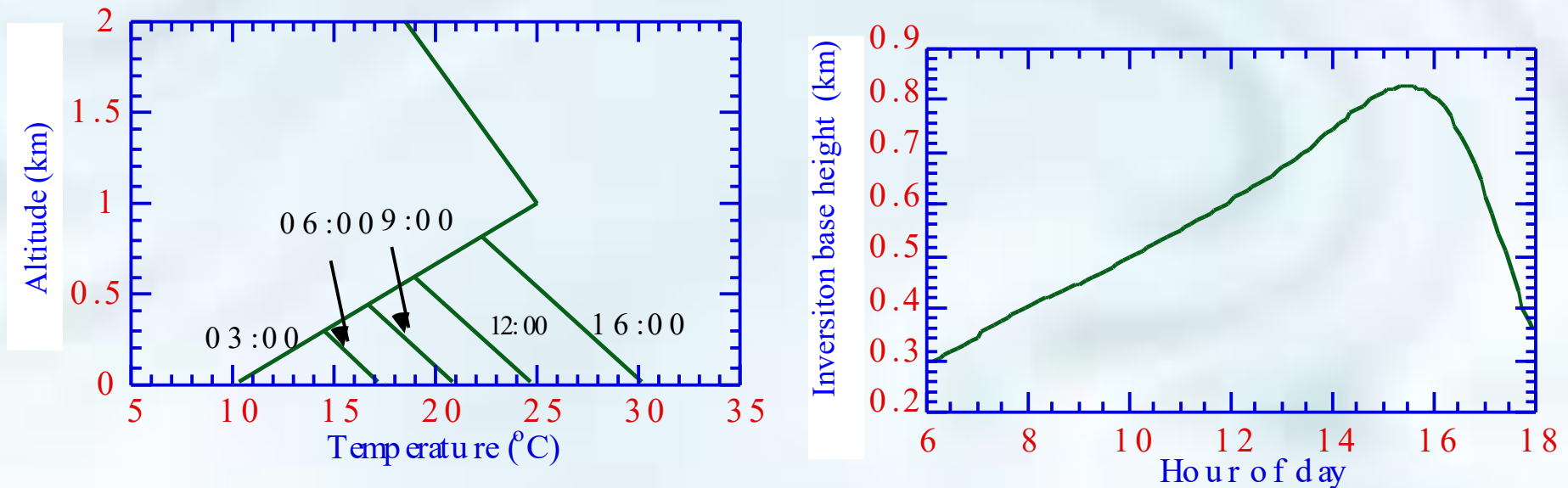


Figure 6.14

Change in Mixing Depth, Los Angeles, July 23, 2000



Noon



Late afternoon

Seasonal Variation of Inversions

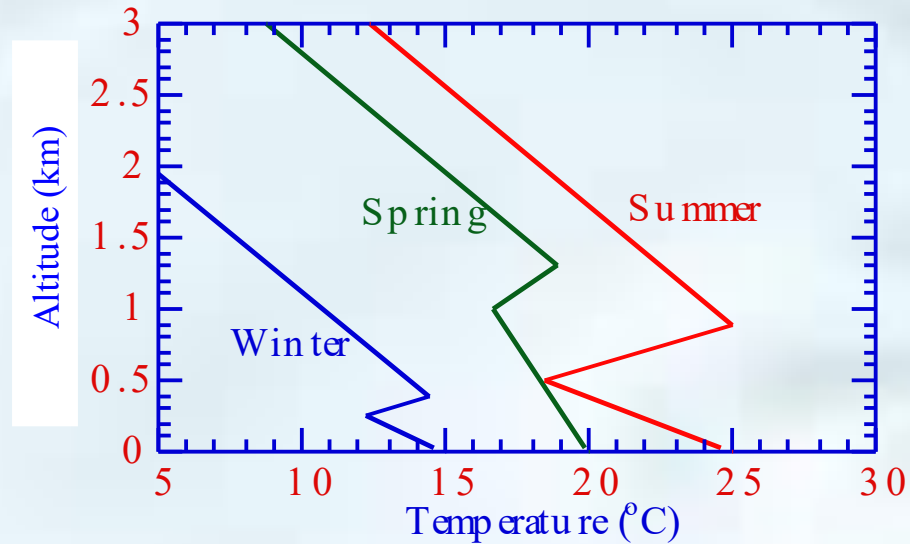


Figure 6.15

B. Chemical Composition

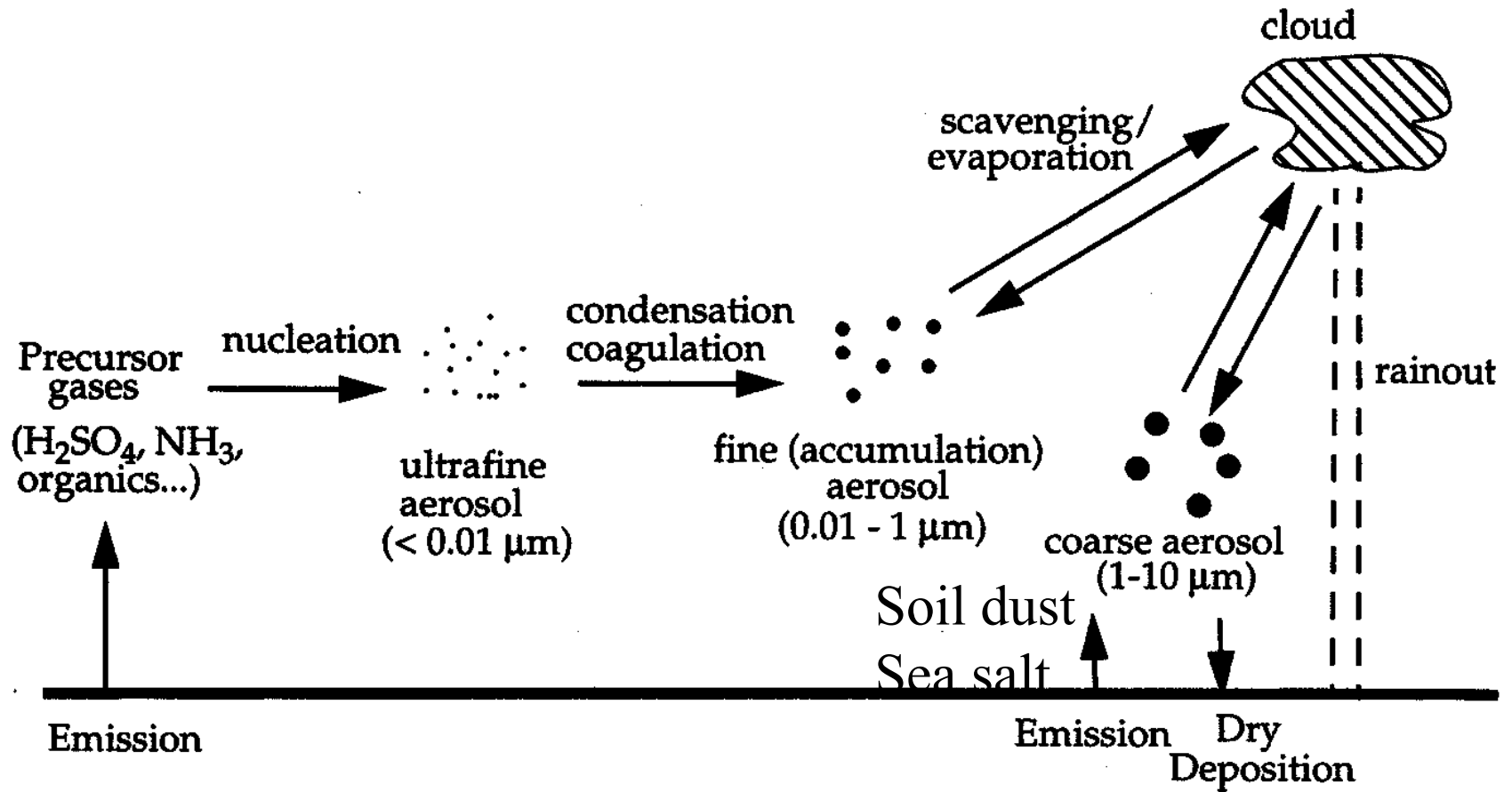
The bimodal nature of the size-number distribution of atmospheric particles suggests at least two distinct mechanisms of formation, and the chemical composition of the particles reflects their origins.

Fine particles have a diameter smaller than about $2.5\ \mu\text{m}$, and are produced by the condensation of vapors, accumulation, and coagulation. They have a chemical composition that reflects the condensable trace gases in the atmosphere: SO_2 , NH_3 , HNO_3 , VOC's, and H_2O . The chemical composition is water with SO_4^{-2} , NO_3^- , NH_4^+ , Pb, Cl^- , Br^- , C(soot), and organic matter; where biomass burning is prevalent, K^+ .

Coarse Particles have a diameter greater than about $2.5\ \mu\text{m}$, are produced by mechanical weathering of surface materials. Their lifetimes, controlled by fallout and washout, are generally short. The composition of particles in this size range reflects that of the earth's surface - silicate (SiO_2), iron and aluminum oxides, CaCO_3 and MgCO_3 ; over the oceans, NaCl .

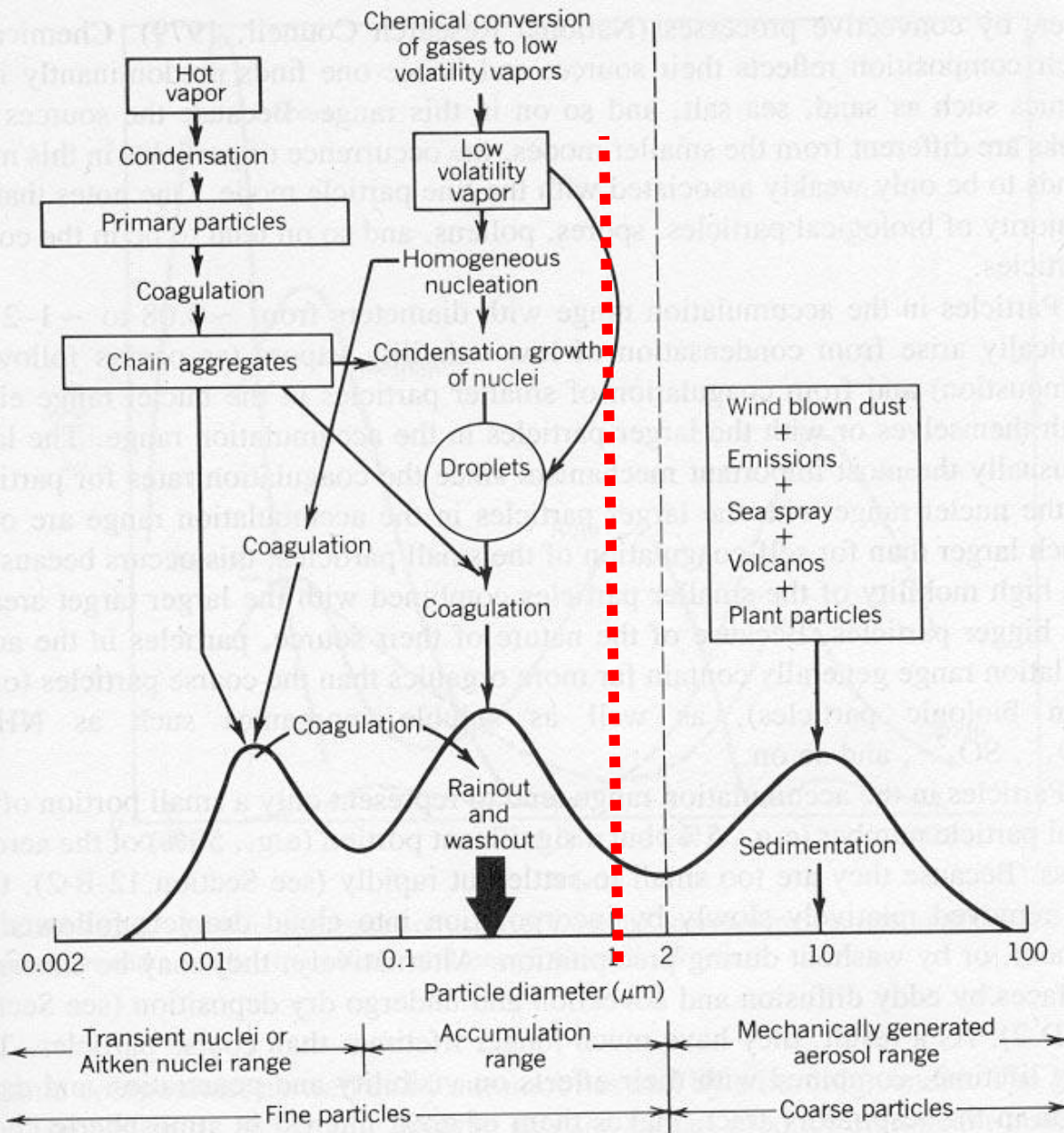
ORIGIN OF THE ATMOSPHERIC AEROSOL

Aerosol: dispersed condensed matter suspended in a gas
Size range: 0.001 μm (molecular cluster) to 100 μm (small raindrop)



Environmental importance: health (respiration), visibility, radiative balance, cloud formation, heterogeneous reactions, delivery of nutrients...

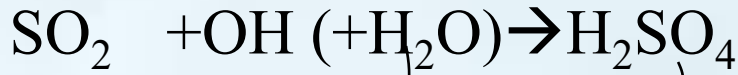
Atmospheric Aerosols



Some Sources of Aerosol Particles



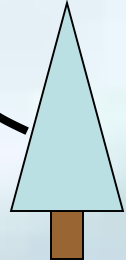
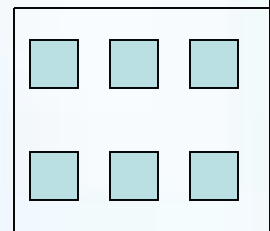
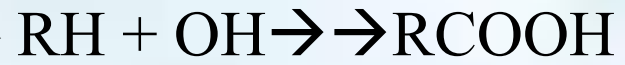
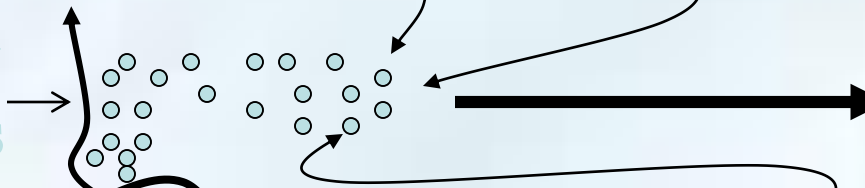
Secondary Particles



Secondary Mass Growth



Primary particles



Atmospheric Aerosol

□ Chemical Composition

- Fine particles: acidic; sulfate, ammonium compounds, elemental carbon
- Coarse particles: basic; crustal materials and their oxides



1. What are the three major components of fine aerosols?
2. What are the four major components of coarse aerosols?

TABLE 3. Average composition of fine and coarse particles in $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at an urban and a rural site

	Urban		Rural	
	Fine	Coarse	Fine	Coarse
Total Mass	42	27	24	5.6
SO₄⁻	17	1.1	12	—
NO₃⁻	0.25	1.8	0.3	—
NH₄⁺	4.3	<0.19	2.3	—
H⁺	0.067	<0.01	0.114	—
C	7.6	3.3	3.3	1.3
Al	0.095	1.4	0.02	0.2
Si	0.2	3.8	0.038	0.58
S	—	—	3.7	0.2
Ca	0.15	3.1	0.016	0.32
Fe	0.17	0.73	0.028	0.12
Pb	0.48	0.13	0.097	0.014

Data from Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts, Atmospheric Chemistry: Fundamentals and Experimental Techniques, Wiley, New York, 1986.

(2) TSP = total suspended particles.

(3) The level of the annual standard is defined to one decimal place (i.e., $15.0 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) as determined by rounding. For example, a 3-year average annual mean of $15.04 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ would round to $15.0 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and, thus, meet the annual standard and a 3-year average of $15.05 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ would round to $15.1 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and, hence, violate the annual standard (40 CFR part 50 Appendix N).

(4) The level of the standard was to be compared to measurements made at sites that represent “community-wide air quality” recording the highest level, or, if specific requirements were satisfied, to average measurements from multiple community-wide air quality monitoring sites (“spatial averaging”).

(5) See 69 FR 45592, July 30, 2004.

(6) The level of the 24-hour standard is defined as an integer (zero decimal places) as determined by rounding. For example, a 3-year average 98th percentile concentration of $35.49 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ would round to $35 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and thus meet the 24-hour standard and a 3-year average of $35.50 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ would round to 36 and, hence, violate the 24-hour standard (40 CFR part 50 Appendix N).

(7) The EPA tightened the constraints on the spatial averaging criteria by further limiting the conditions under which some areas may average measurements from multiple community-oriented monitors to determine compliance (see 71 FR 61165–61167).

(8) The EPA revoked the annual PM_{10} NAAQS in 2006.

Ambient Size Distribution

Mode	Diameter Range (μm)
Nucleation	< 0.1
Accumulation	$0.1 - 2$
sub mode 1	~ 0.2
sub mode 2	$\sim 0.5 - 0.7$
Coarse	> 2

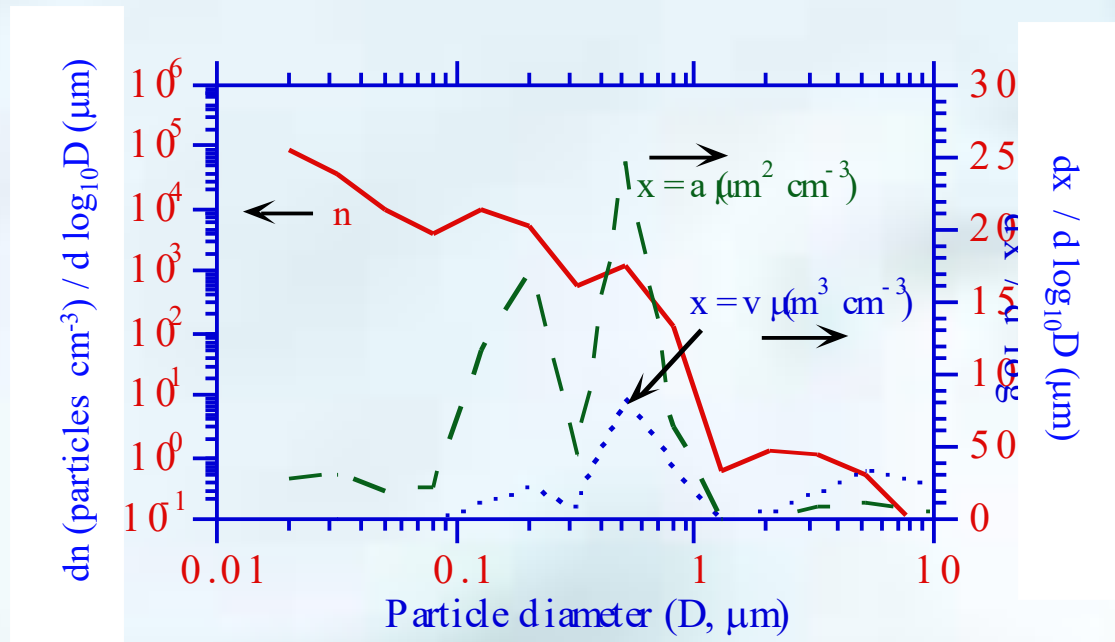


Figure 5.2, Distribution at Claremont, California, August, 1987

Aerosol Particle Composition vs. Size

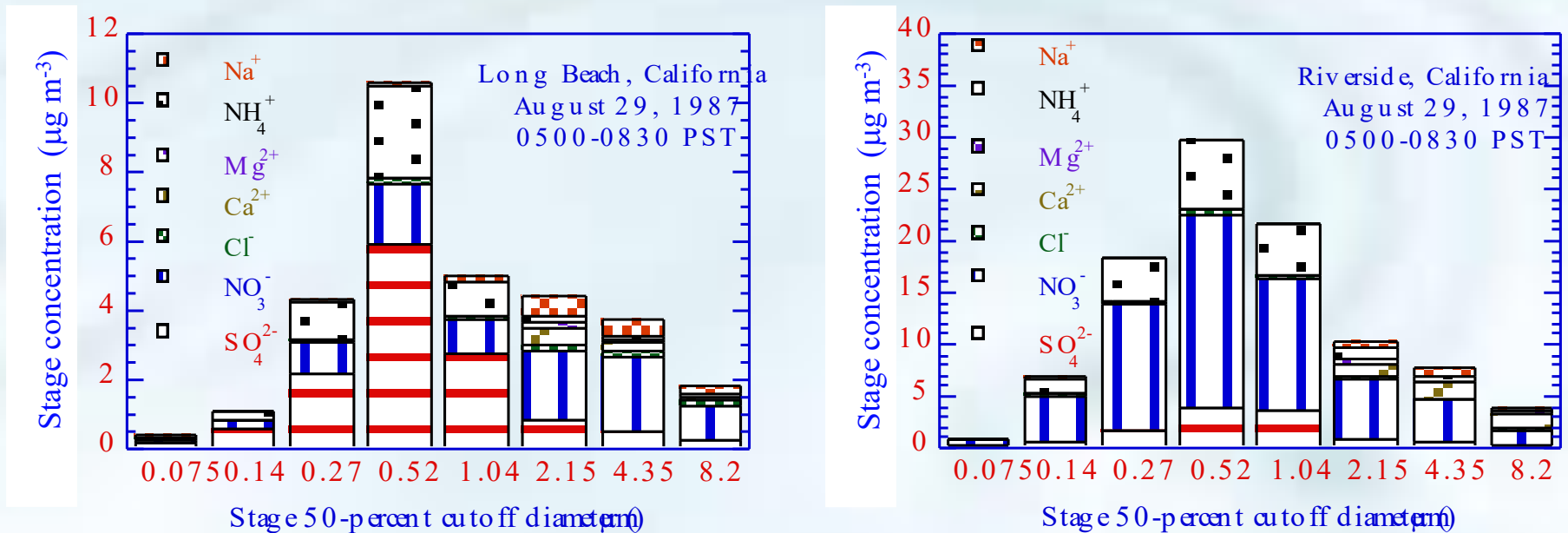


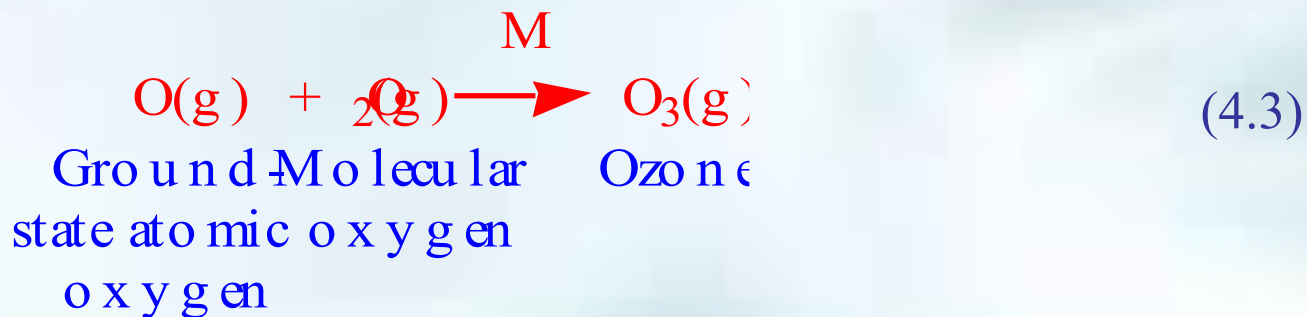
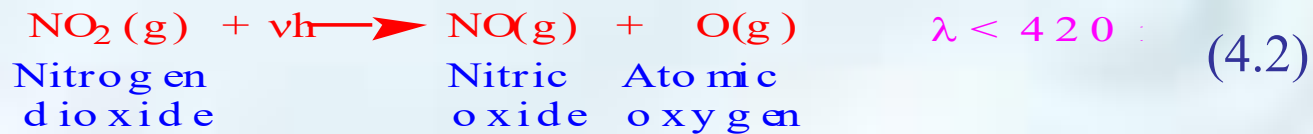
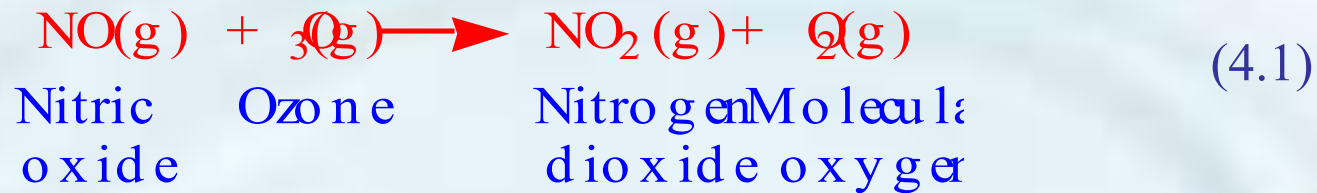
Figure 5.14

Composition and Sources of Particles

Nucleation Mode	Accumulation Mode	Coarse Mode
<p>Nucleation $\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{aq})$, SO_4^{2-}, NH_4^+</p>	<p>Fossil-fuel emissions BC, OM, SO_4^{2-}, Fe, Zn</p>	<p>Sea-spray emissions H_2O, Na^+, Ca^{2+}, Mg^{2+}, K^+, Cl^-, SO_4^{2-}, Br^-, OM</p>
<p>Fossil-fuel emissions BC, OM, SO_4^{2-}, Fe, Zn</p>	<p>Biomass-burning emissions BC, OM, SO_4^{2-}, Cl^-, Fe, Mn, Zn, Pb, V, Cd, Cu, Co, Sb, As, Ni, Cr</p>	<p>Soil-dust emissions Si, Al, Fe, Ti, P, Mn, Co, Ni, Cr, Na^+, Ca^{2+}, Mg^{2+}, K^+, SO_4^{2-}, Cl^-, CO_3^{2-}, OM</p>
<p>Biomass-burning emissions BC, OM, SO_4^{2-}, Cl^-, Fe, Mn, Zn, Pb, V, Cd, Cu, Co, Sb, As, Ni, Cr</p>	<p>Industrial emission BC, OM, Fe, Al, S, P, Mn, Zn, Pb, Ba, Sr, V, Cd, Cu, Co, Hg, Sb, As, Sn, Ni, Cr, H_2O, NH_4^+, Na^+, Ca^{2+}, K^+, SO_4^{2-}, NO_3^-, Cl^-, CO_3^{2-}</p>	<p>Biomass-burning ash, industrial fly-ash, tire- particle emissions</p>
<p>Condensation/ dissolution $\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{aq})$, SO_4^{2-}, NH_4^+, OM</p>	<p>Condensation/ dissolution $\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{aq})$, SO_4^{2-}, NH_4^+, OM</p>	<p>Condensation/ dissolution $\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{aq})$, NO_3^-</p>
	<p>Coagulation of all components from nucleation mode</p>	<p>Coagulation of all components from smaller modes</p>

Table 5.6

Photostationary State Ozone



Photostationary State Ozone

$$\chi_{\text{O}_3} = (J/N_d k_1) (\chi_{\text{NO}_2(\text{g})} / \chi_{\text{NO}(\text{g})}) \quad (4.4)$$

Example 4.1.

Estimate ozone mixing ratio when

$$p_d = 1013 \text{ mb}$$

$$\chi_{\text{NO}(\text{g})} = 5 \text{ pptv}$$

$$k_1 = 1.8 \times 10^{-14} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec.}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

$$T = 298 \text{ K}$$

$$\chi_{\text{NO}_2(\text{g})} = 10 \text{ pptv}$$

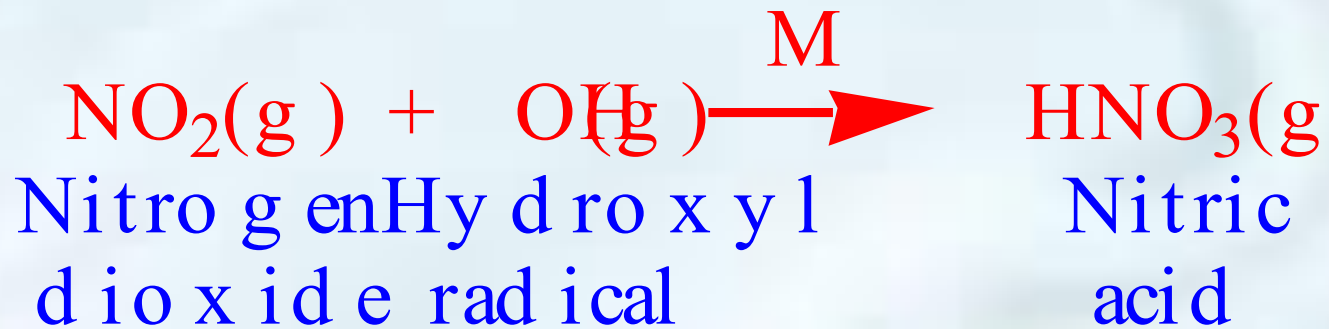
$$J = 0.01 \text{ s}^{-1}$$

$$\text{----> } N_{\text{O}_3(\text{g})} = 1.1 \times 10^{12} \text{ molec. cm}^{-3}$$

$$\text{----> } N_d = 2.46 \times 10^{19} \text{ molec. cm}^{-3}$$

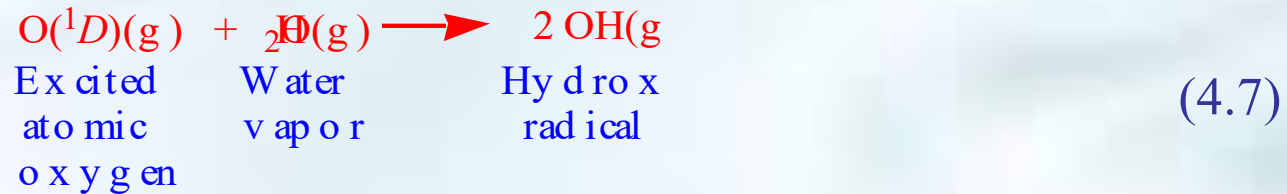
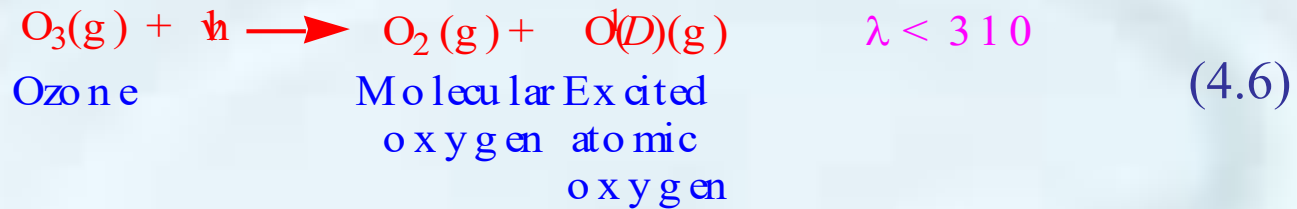
$$\text{----> } \chi_{\text{O}_3(\text{g})} = 44.7 \text{ ppbv}$$

Daytime Nitrogen Oxide Removal

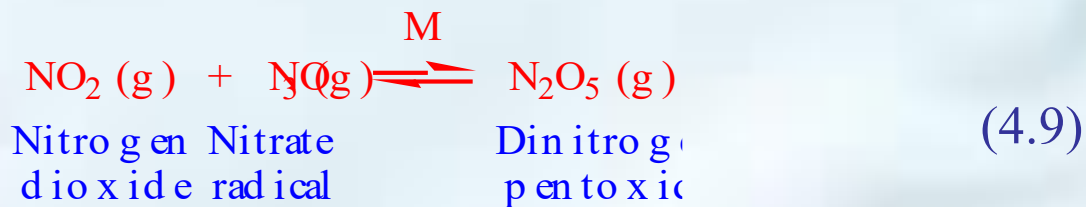
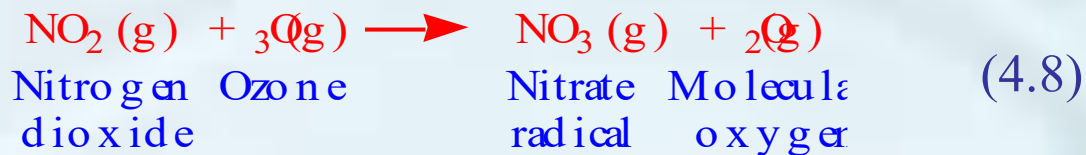


(4.5)

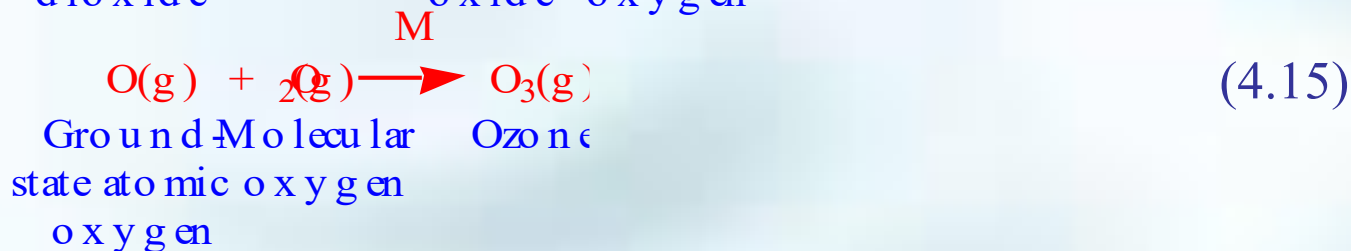
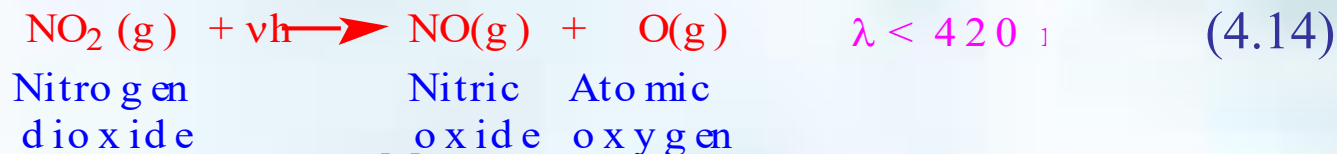
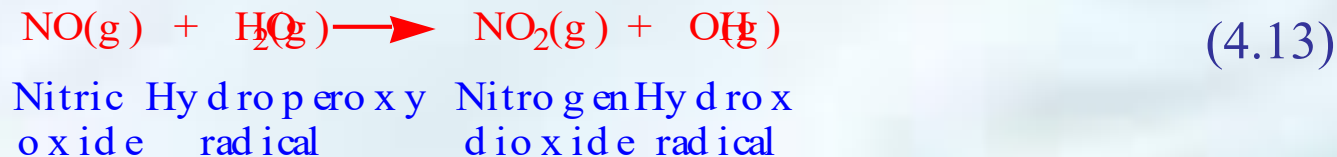
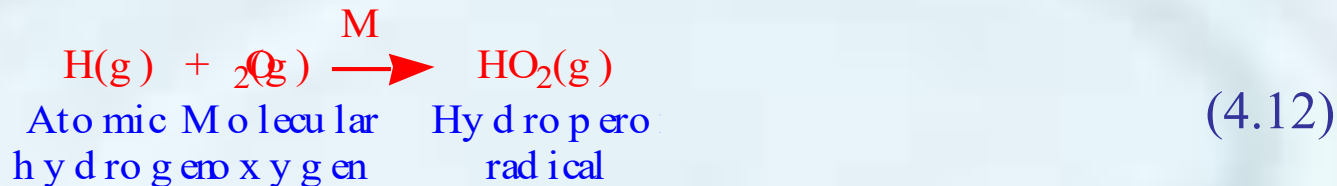
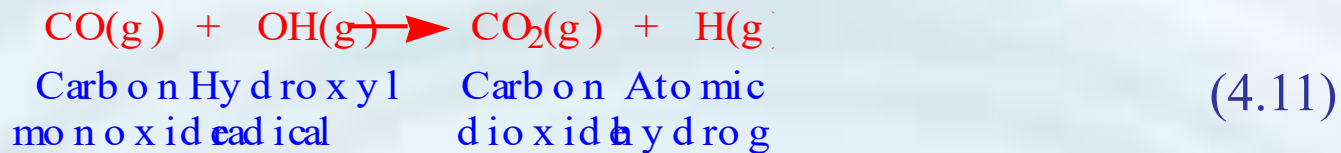
Hydroxyl Radical Production



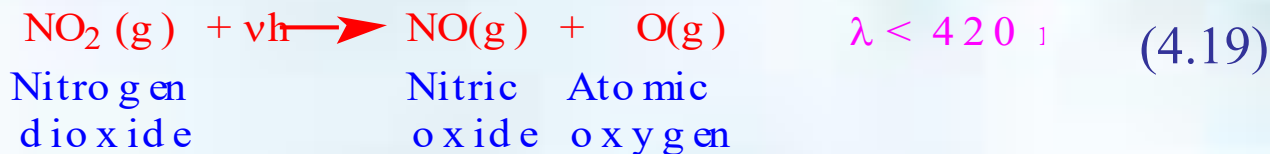
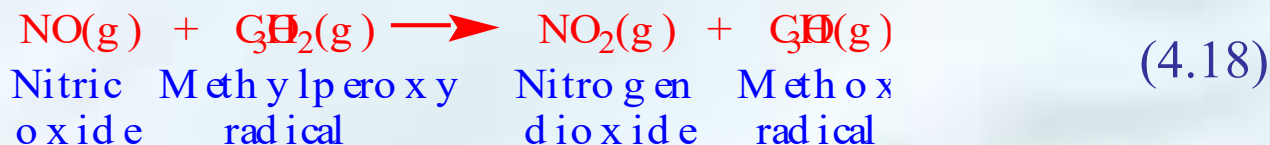
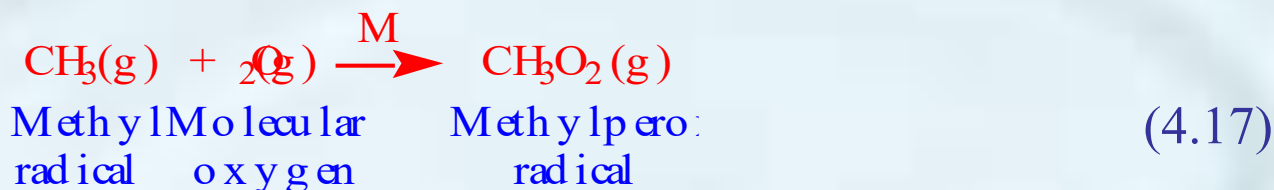
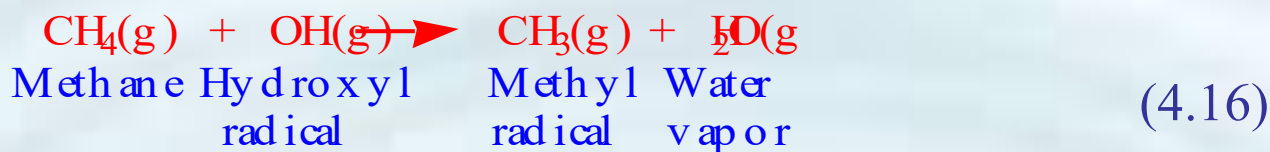
Nighttime Nitrogen Chemistry



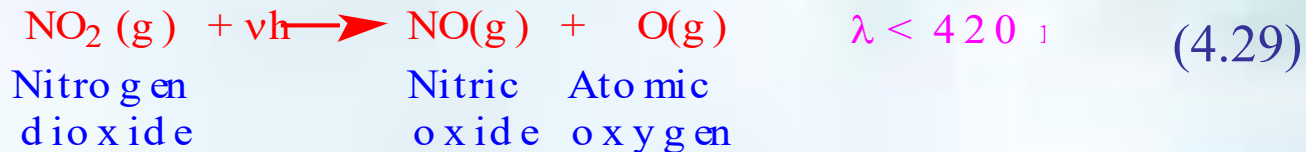
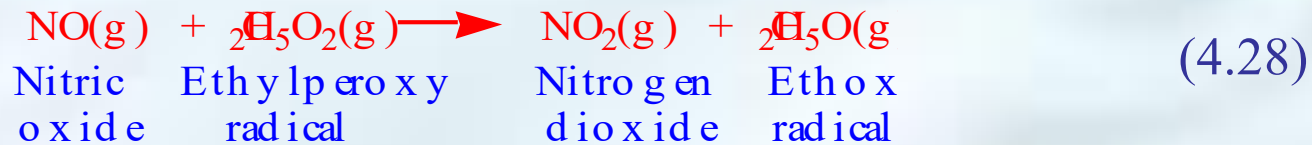
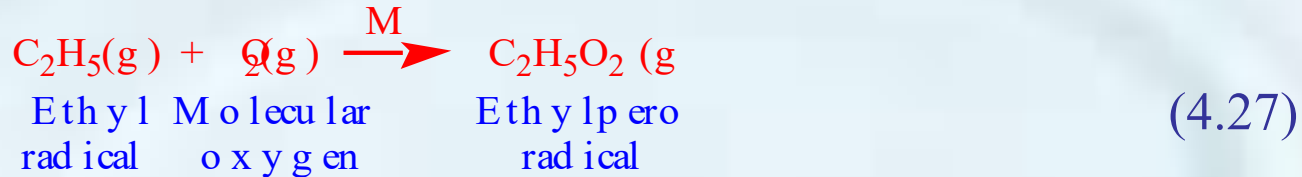
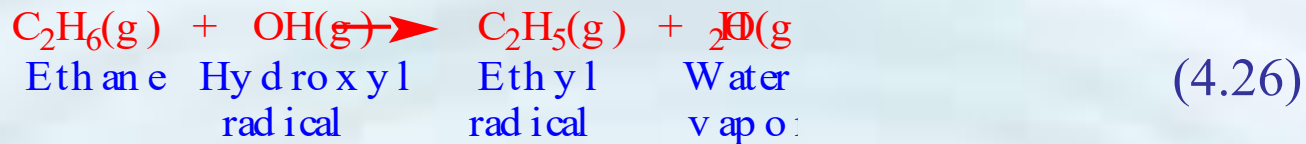
Ozone Production From Carbon Monoxide



Ozone Production From Methane



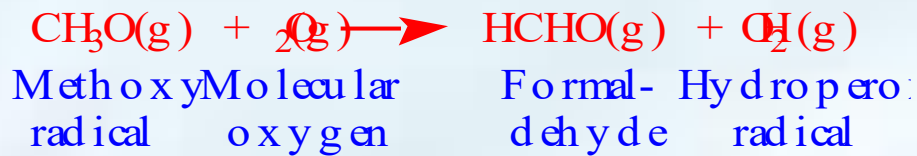
Ozone Production From Ethane



Production of Formaldehyde and Acetaldehyde

Formaldehyde

(4.21)

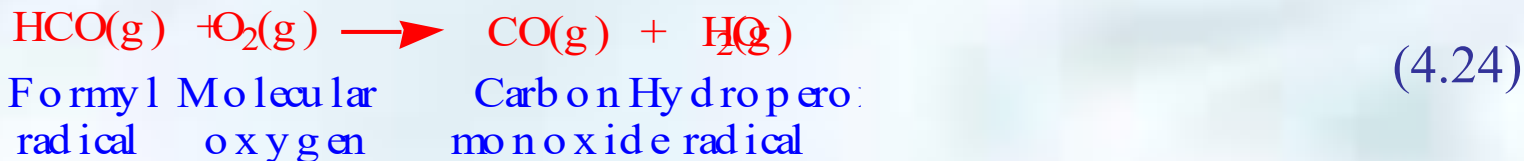
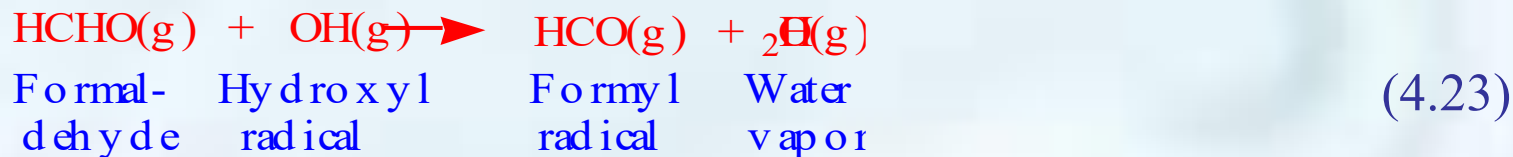
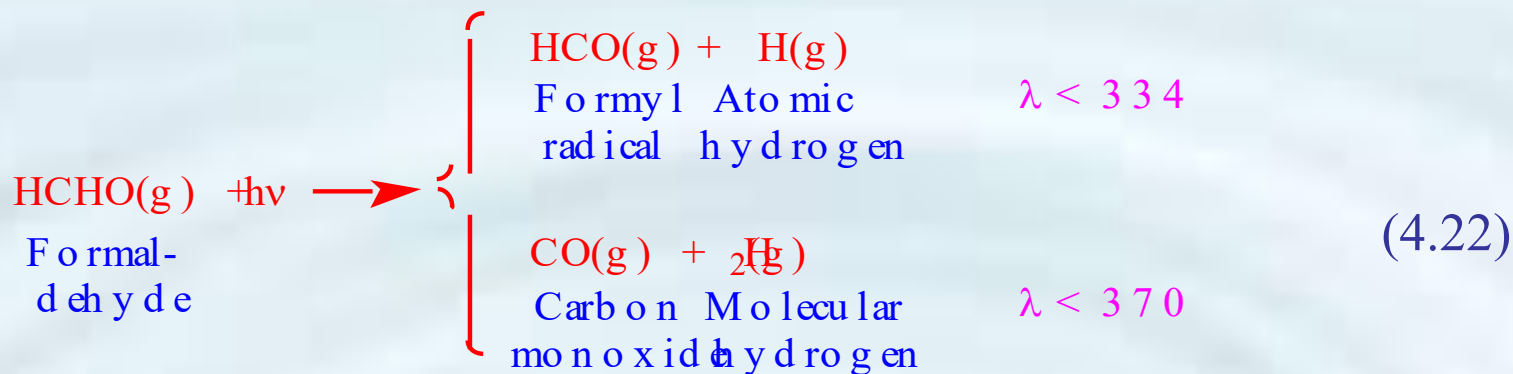


Acetaldehyde

(4.22)

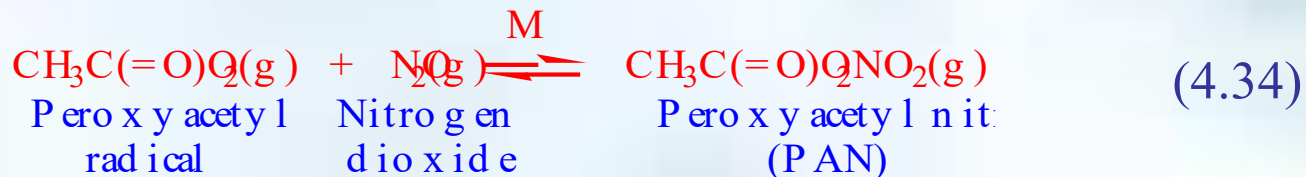
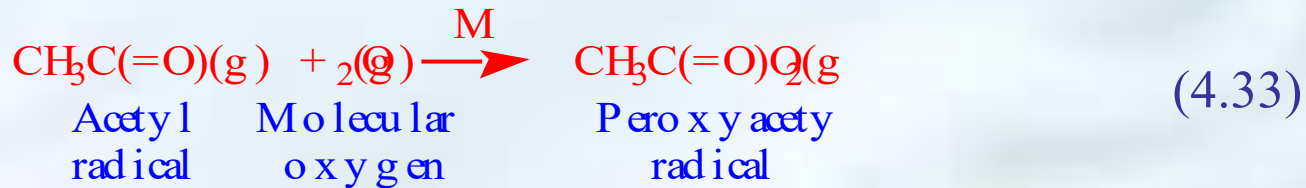
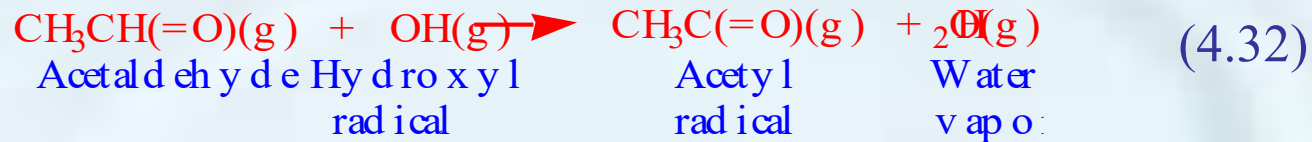


Ozone From Formaldehyde

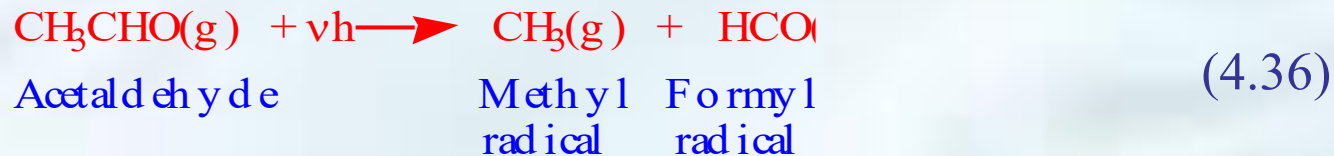
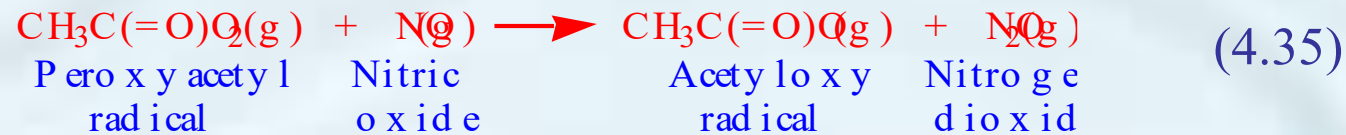


--> Form O₃ from both CO and HO₂

PAN Production From Acetaldehyde



Ozone Production From Acetaldehyde



--> Form O₃ from NO₂, CH₃, and HCO

Source/Receptor Regions in Los Angeles

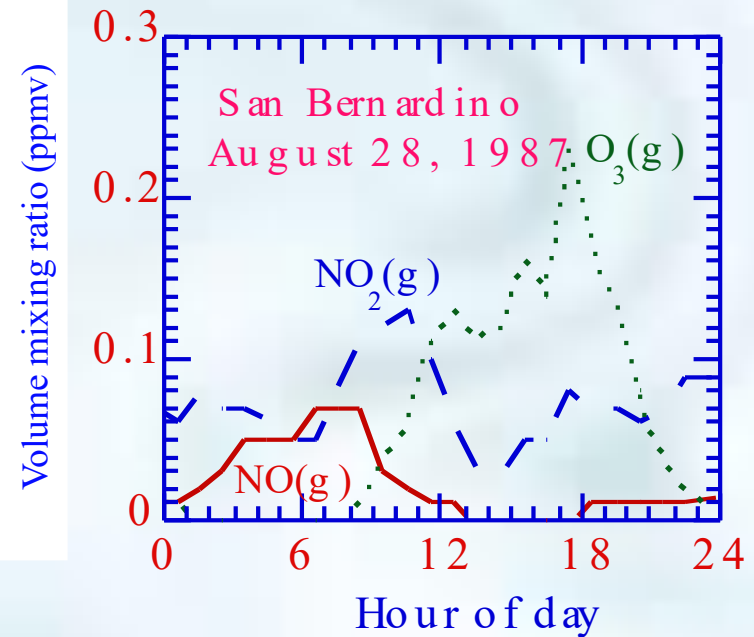
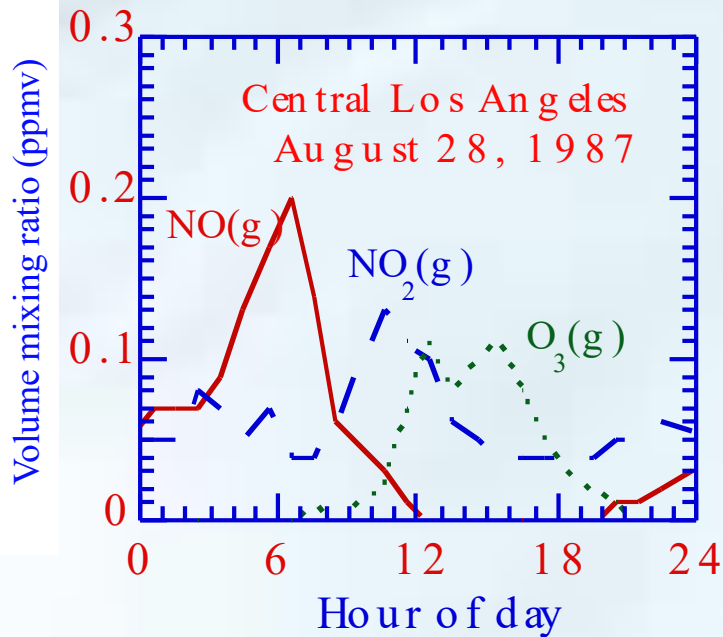


Figure 4.10

Daily Emissions in Los Angeles (1987)

Substance	Emissions (tons day ⁻¹)	Percent of total
Carbon monoxide [CO(g)]	9796	69.3
Nitric oxide [NO(g)]	754	
Nitrogen dioxide [NO ₂ (g)]	129	
Nitrous acid [HONO(g)]	6.5	
Total NO_x(g) + HONO(g)	889.5	6.3
Sulfur dioxide [SO ₂ (g)]	109	
Sulfur trioxide [SO ₃ (g)]	4.5	
Total SO_x(g)	113.5	0.8
Alkanes	1399	
Alkenes	313	
Aldehydes	108	
Ketones	29	
Alcohols	33	
Aromatics	500	
Hemi terpenes	47	
Total IROGs	2429	17.2
Methane [CH ₄ (g)]	904	6.4
Total Emissions	14 132	100

Table 4.1, Allen and Wagner, 1992

Percent Emission by Source

Source Category	CO(g)	NO _x (g)	SO _x (g)	ROG
Stationary	2	24	38	50
Mobile	98	76	62	50
Total	100	100	100	100

Table 4.2, Chang et al., 1991

Lifetimes of Organic Gases in Urban Air

[OH(g)]

5 ×

×

×

×

×

ROG Species Photolysis

<i>trans</i> -2-Butene	---	52 m	4 y	6.3 d	4 m	17 m
Acetylene	---	3.0 d	---	2.5 y	---	200 d
Formaldehyde	7 h	6.0 h	1.8 h	2.5 y	2.0 d	3200 y
Acetone	23 d	9.6 d	---	---	---	---
Ethanol	---	19 h	---	---	---	---
Toluene	---	9.0 h	---	6 y	33 d	200 d
Isoprene	---	34 m	---	4 d	5 m	4.6 h

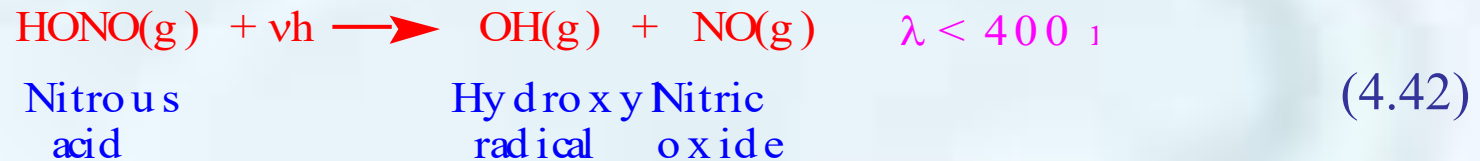
Table 4.3

Most Abundant Species in Terms of Abundance and Reactivity

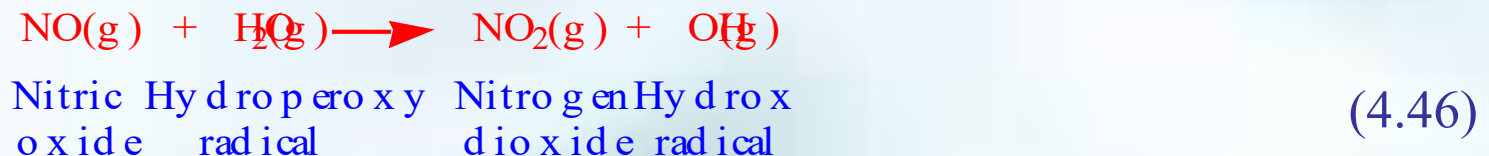
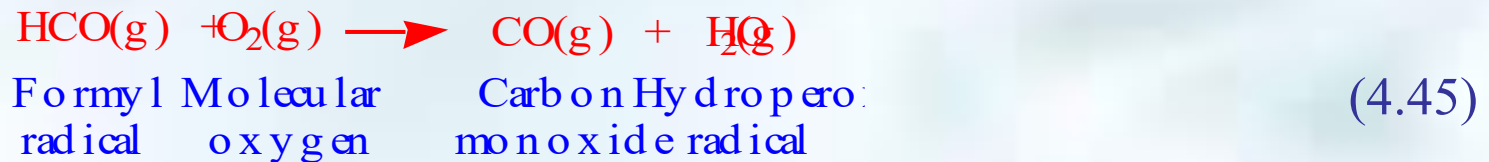
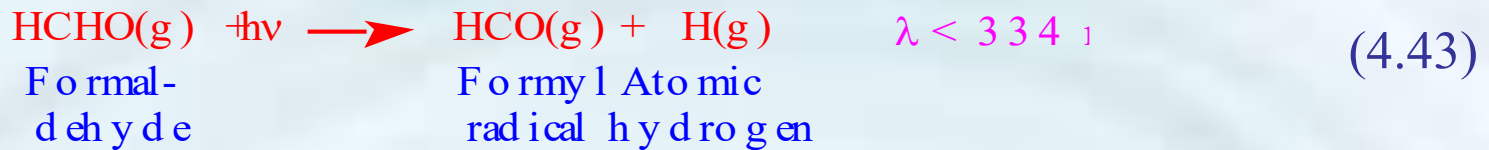
1. <i>m</i> - and <i>p</i> -Xylene	6. <i>i</i> -Pentane
2. Ethene	7. Propene
3. Acetaldehyde	8. <i>o</i> -Xylene
4. Toluene	9. Butane
5. Formaldehyde	10. Methylcyclopentane

Table 4.4, Lurmann et al., 1992

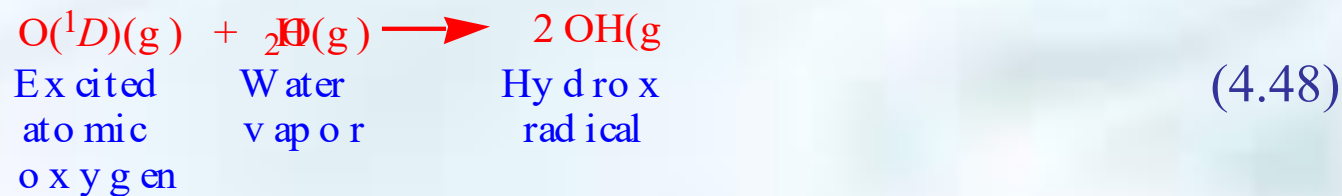
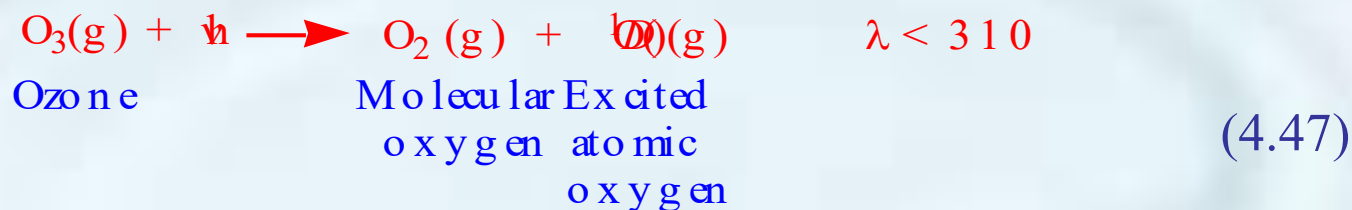
Early Morning Source of OH in Polluted Air



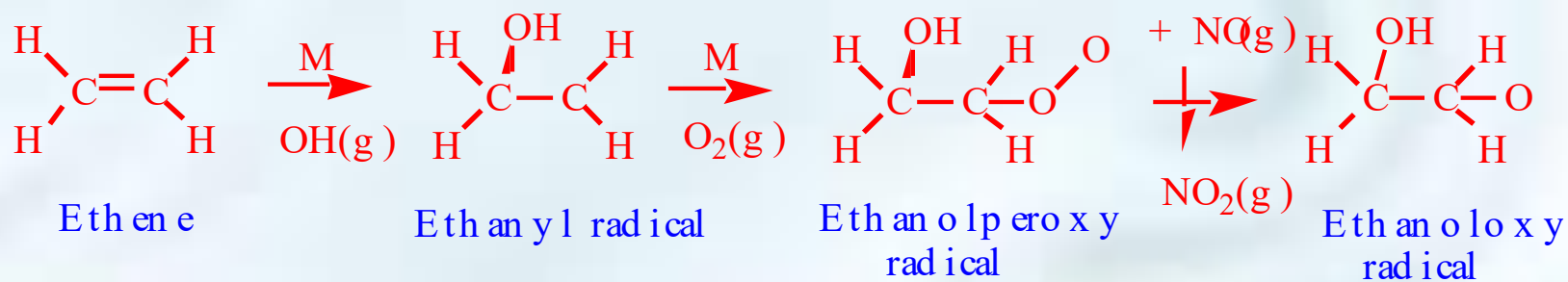
Mid-Morning Source of OH in Polluted Air



Afternoon Source of OH in Polluted Air

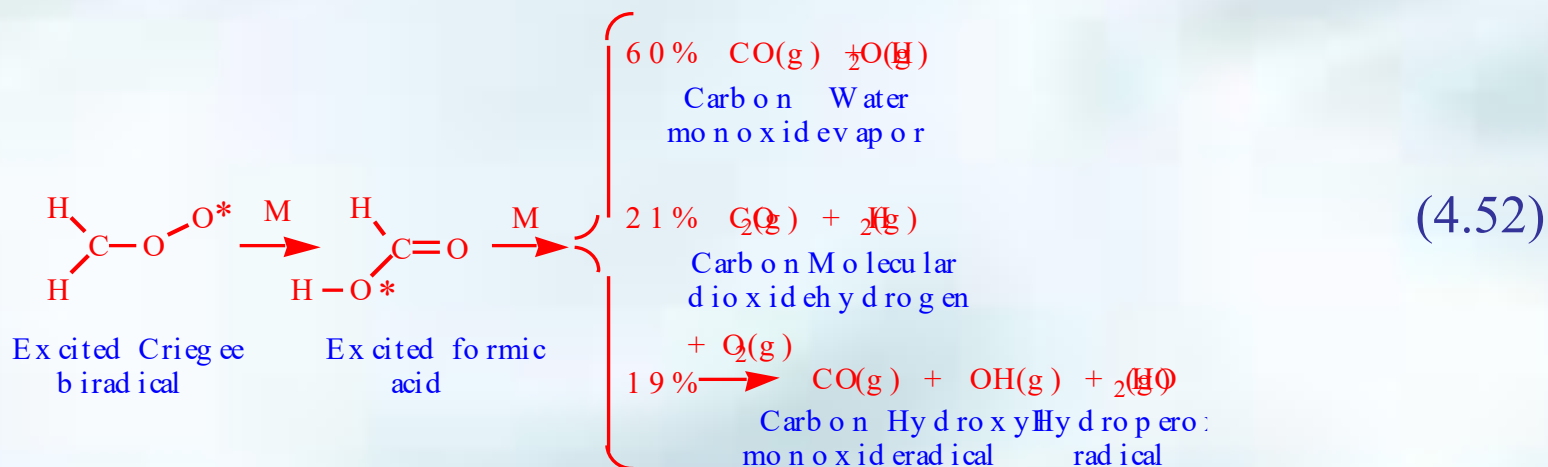
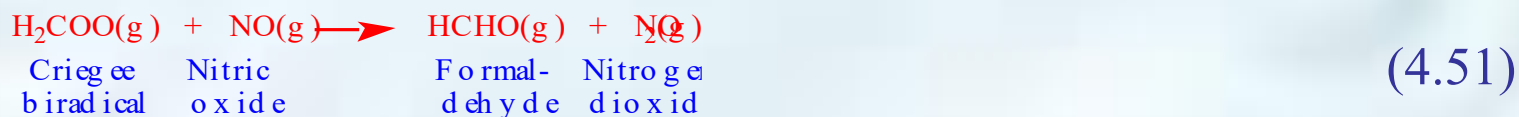
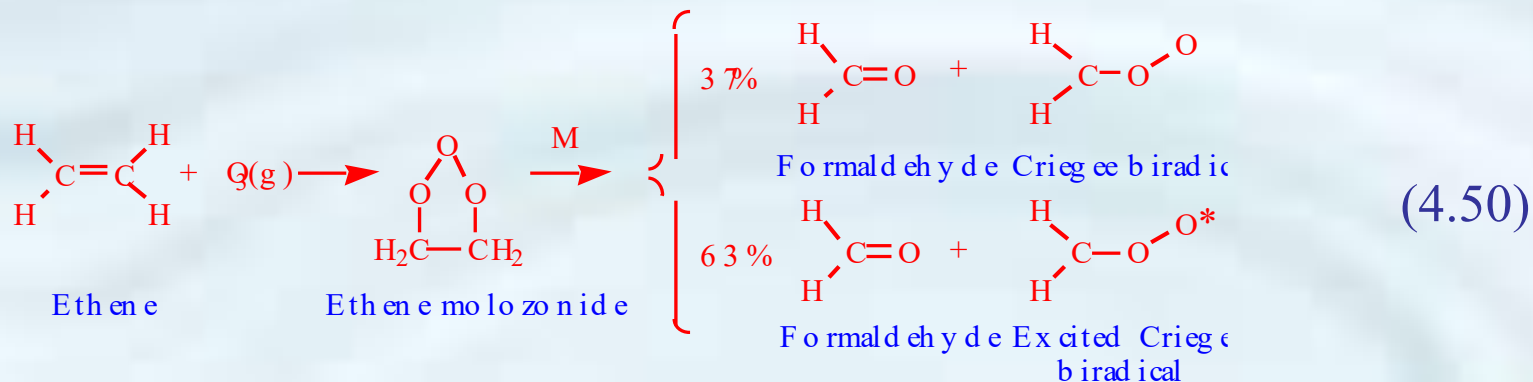


Alkene Reaction with OH

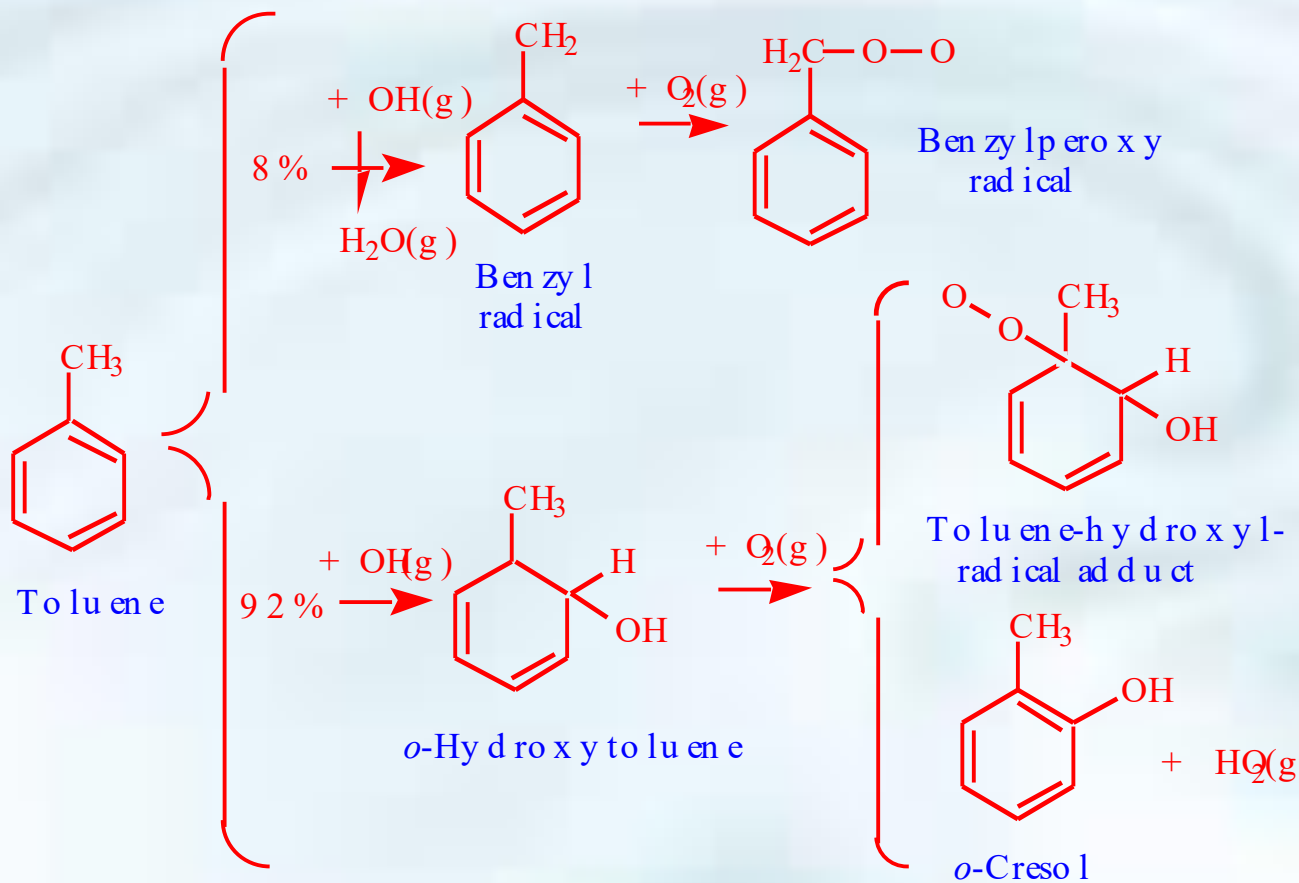


(4.49)

Alkene Reaction with Ozone

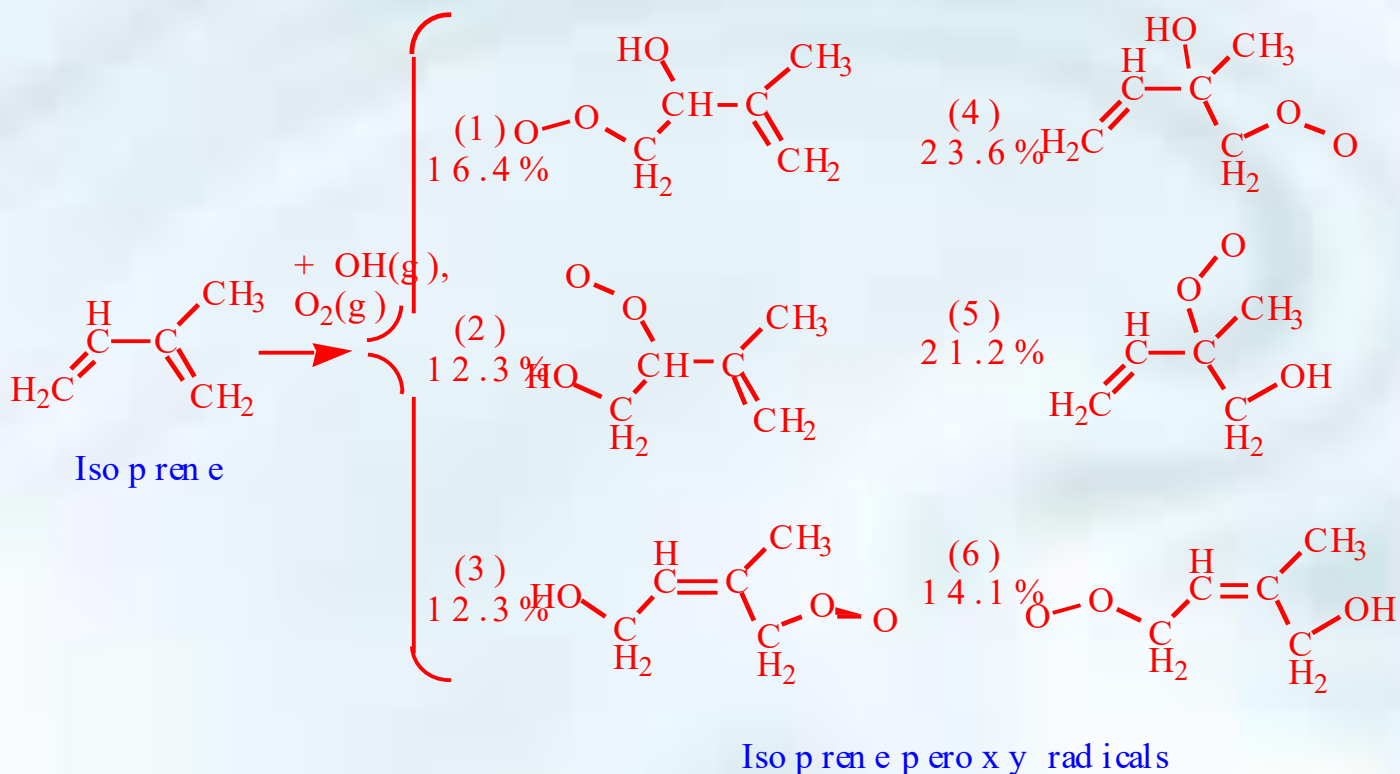


Toluene Reaction with OH



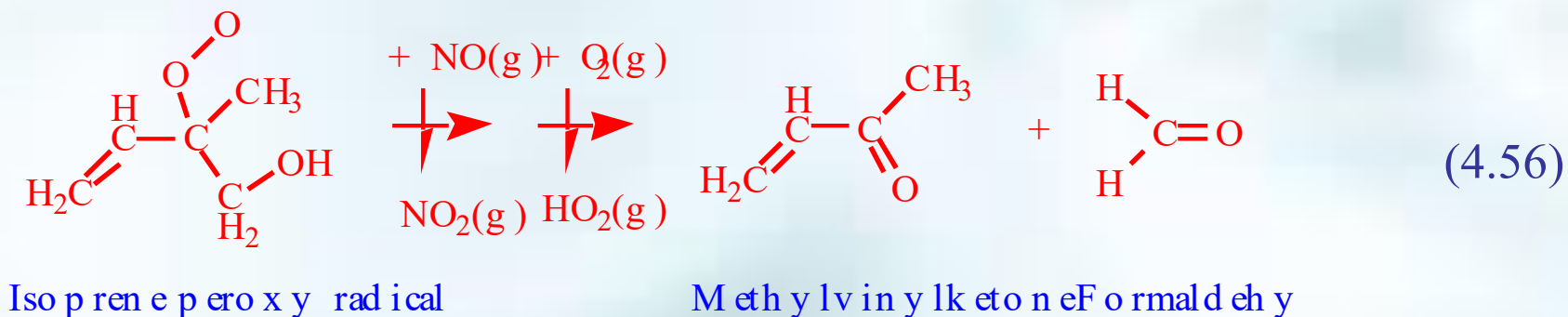
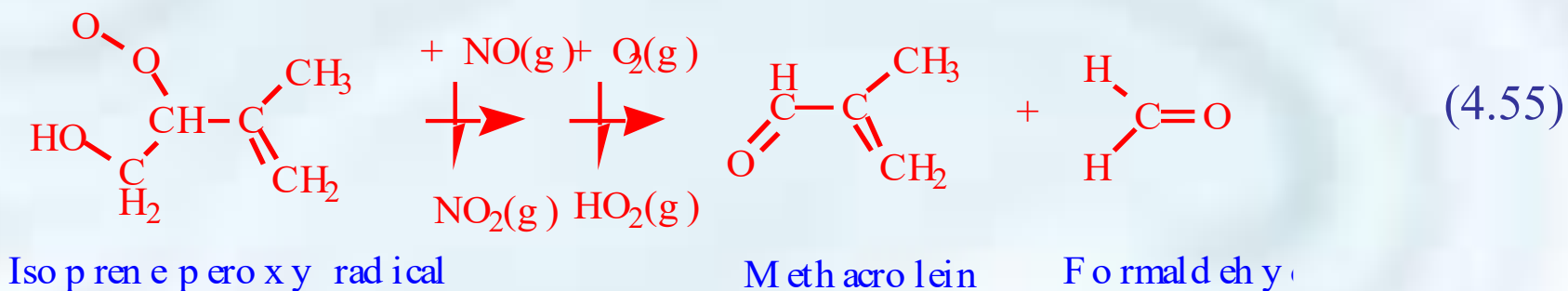
(4.53)

Isoprene Reaction with OH

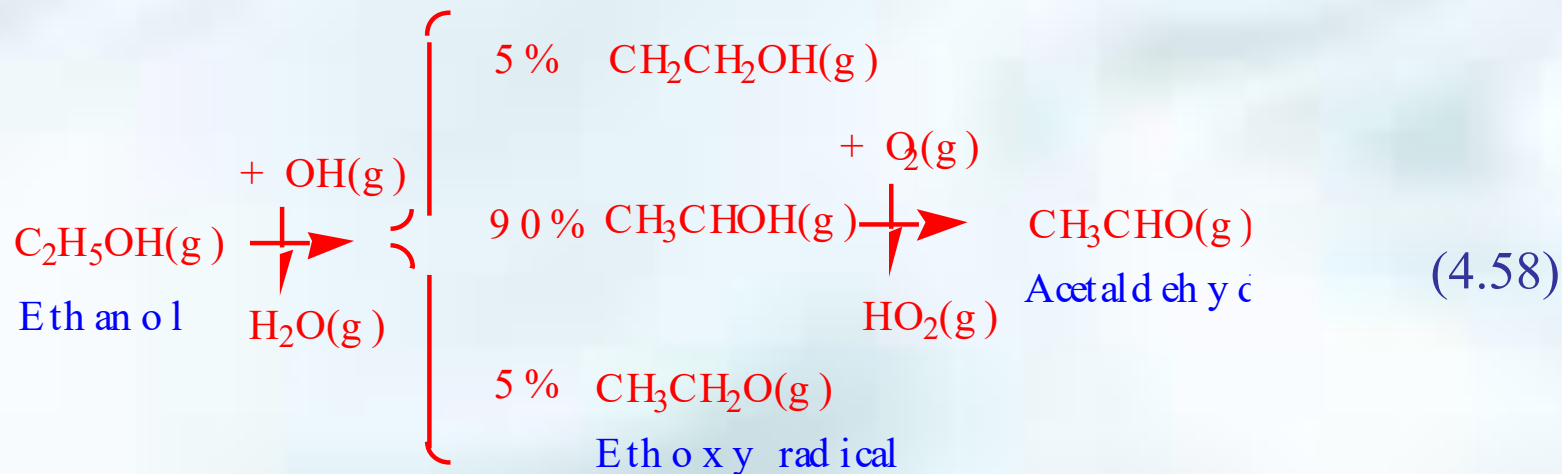
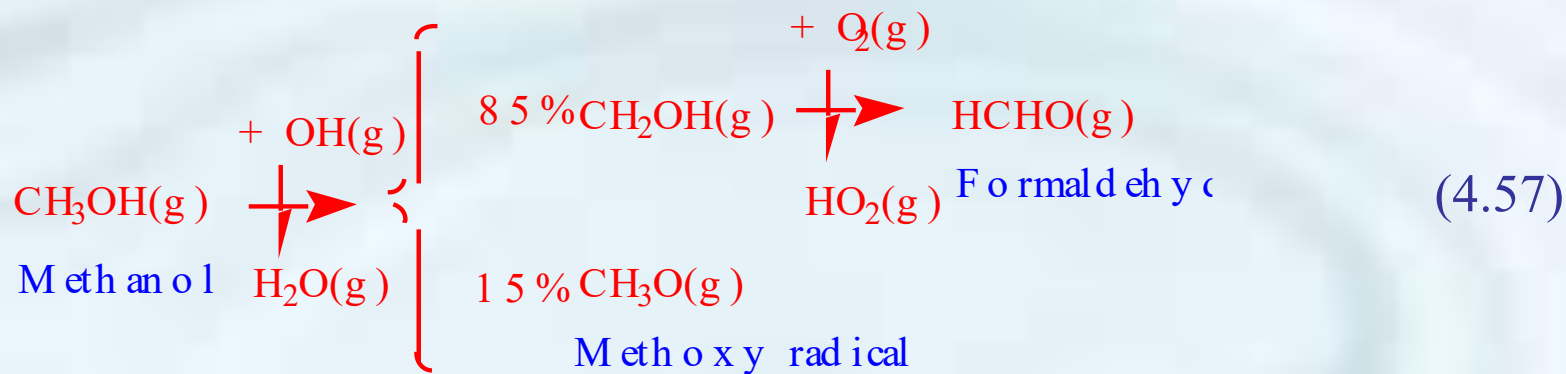


(4.54)

Methacrolein and Methylvinylketone Production



Alcohol Reactions with OH



Chapter 2:

The Sun, the Earth, and the Evolution of the Earth's Atmosphere

Origin of the Sun

15 billion years ago (bya). Big bang. All mass in universe compressed to single point 10^9 kg m^{-3} density, $T=10^{12} \text{ K}$

Aggregates of ejected material collapsed gravitationally to form earliest stars.

Temperatures in cores increased due to compressional heating

When temperatures reached 10 million K, nuclear fusion of H into He and other elements began, releasing energy to power the stars.

As early stars aged, they ultimately exploded, ejecting elements to the universe around

Cosmic Abundance of Hydrogen Relative to Other Elements

Element	Atomic Mass	Abundance of H Relative to Element
Hydrogen	1.01	1:1
Helium	4.00	14:1
Oxygen	16.0	1400:1
Carbon	12.0	2300:1
Nitrogen	14.0	11,000:1
Magnesium	24.3	24,000:1
Silicon	28.1	26,000:1
Iron	55.8	29,000:1
Aluminum	27.0	306,000:1
Sodium	23.0	433,000:1

Table 2₅₇1

Origin of the Sun

4.6 bya interstellar material aggregated to form cloudy mass, the solar nebula

Sun formed from gravitational collapse of solar nebula

Today's Sun (90% H, 9.9% He)

Core (8-15 million K)

Intermediate interior (5-8 million K)

Hydrogen convection zone (HCZ) (6400 K - 5 million K)

10 million years for photon to travel from core to top of HCZ

Photosphere (4000-6400 K, effective 5785 K)

Chromosphere (4000 K - 1 million K. H energized and decays)

Corona (1 - 2 million K. Consists of ionized gases)

Solar wind --> Aurora Borealis and Aurora Australis on Earth

300-1000 km/s, 200,000 K at Earth

Structure of the Sun

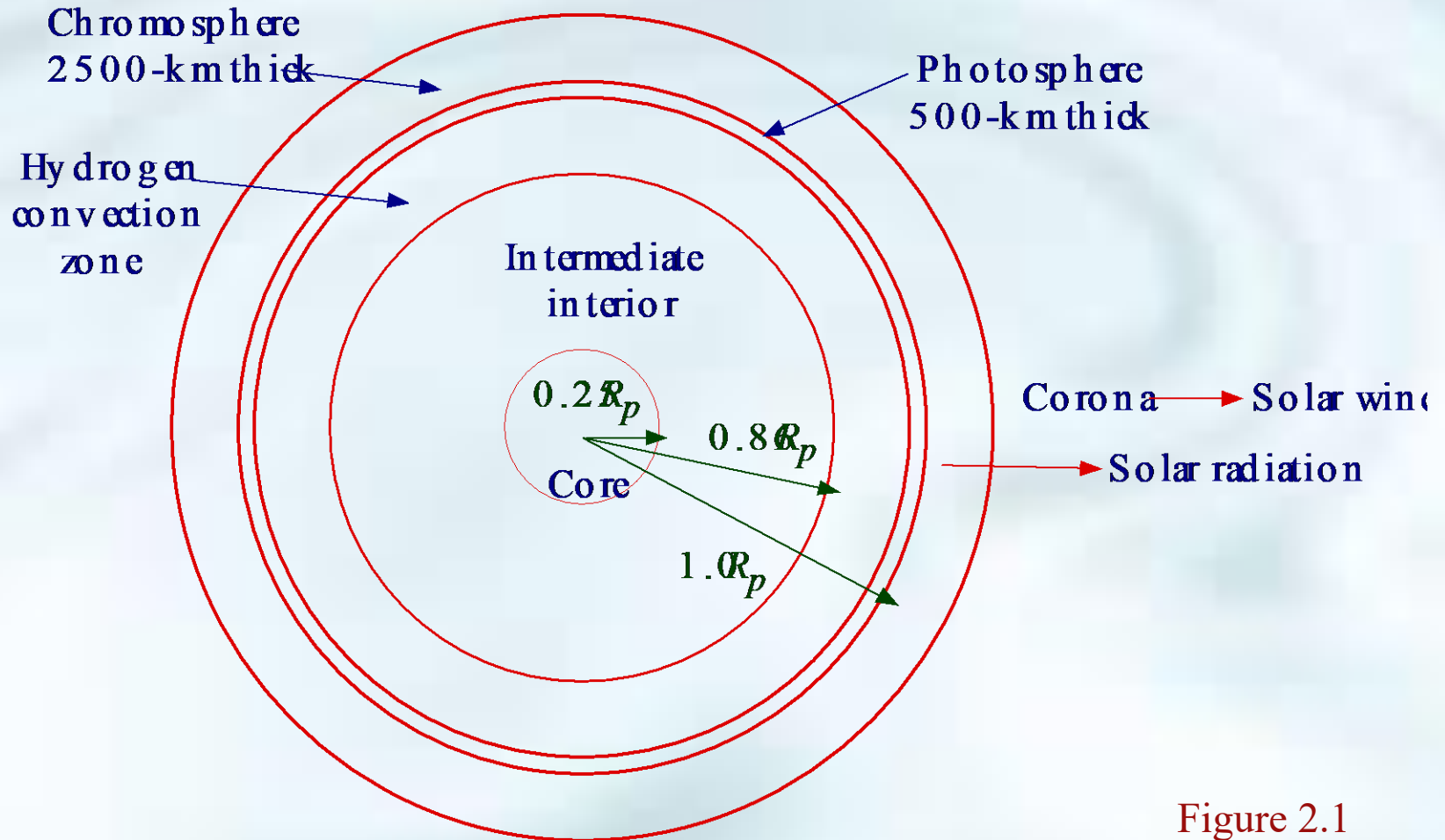


Figure 2.1

Aurora Australis



David Miller, National Geophysical Data Center, available
from NOAA Central Library

Radiation Spectra

Radiation intensity ($\text{W m}^{-2} \mu\text{m}^{-1}$)

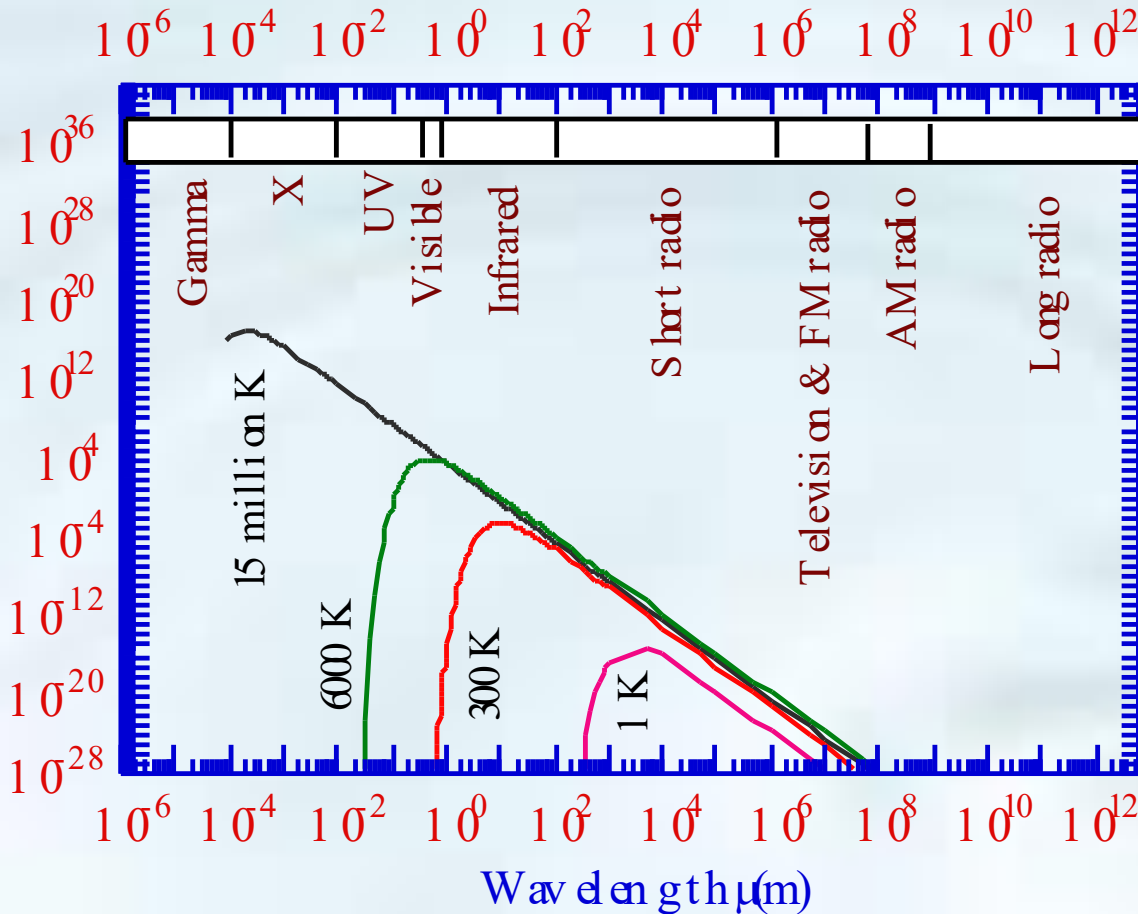


Figure 2.3

Wien's Law (2.1)

$$\lambda_p(\mu\text{m}) = 2897/T(\text{K})$$

Stefan-Boltzmann Law (2.2)

$$F_b (\text{W/m}^2) = \epsilon\sigma T(\text{K})^4$$

Emission Spectra of the Sun and Earth

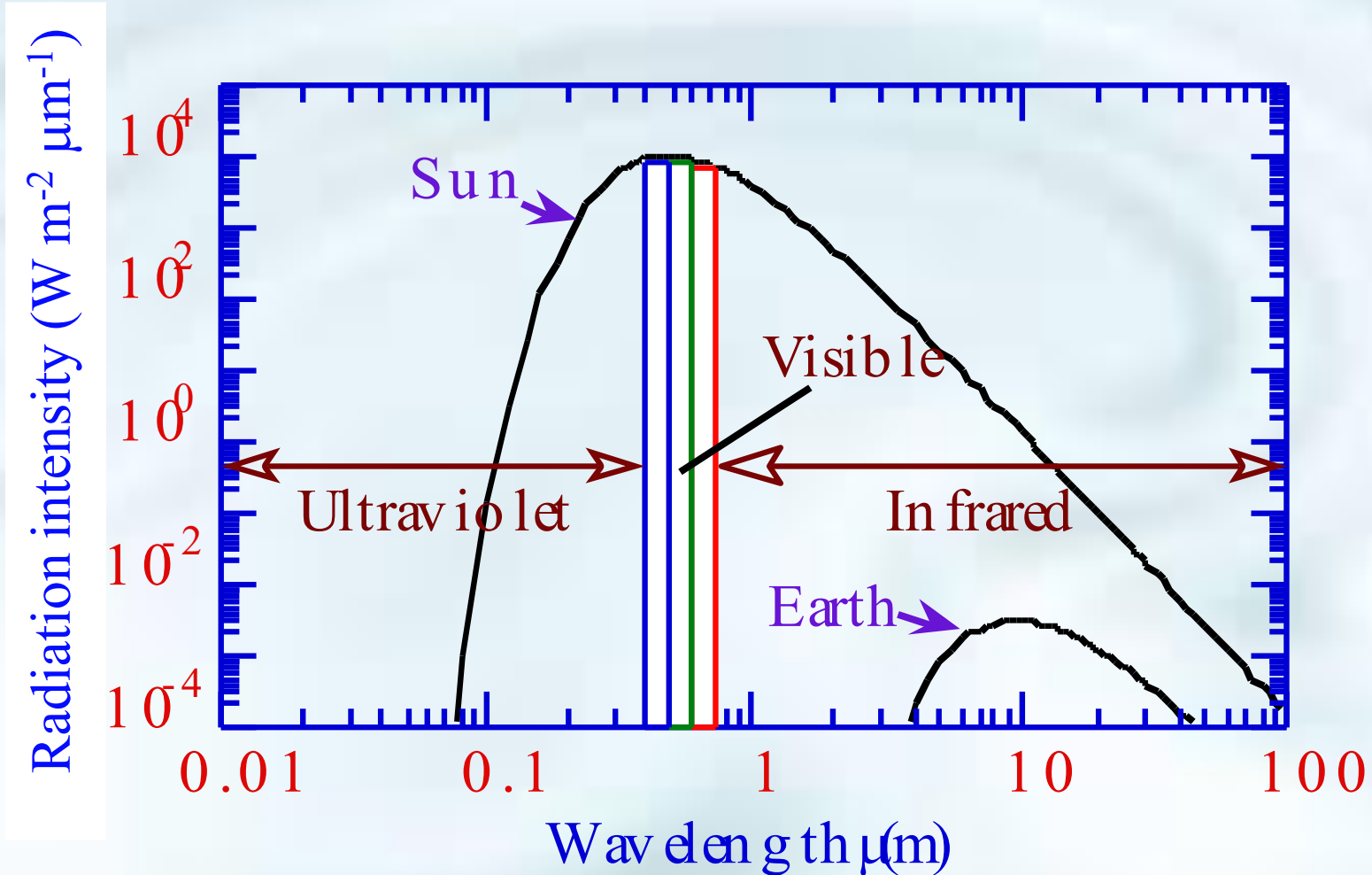


Figure 2.4 62

Ultraviolet and Visible Spectra of the Sun

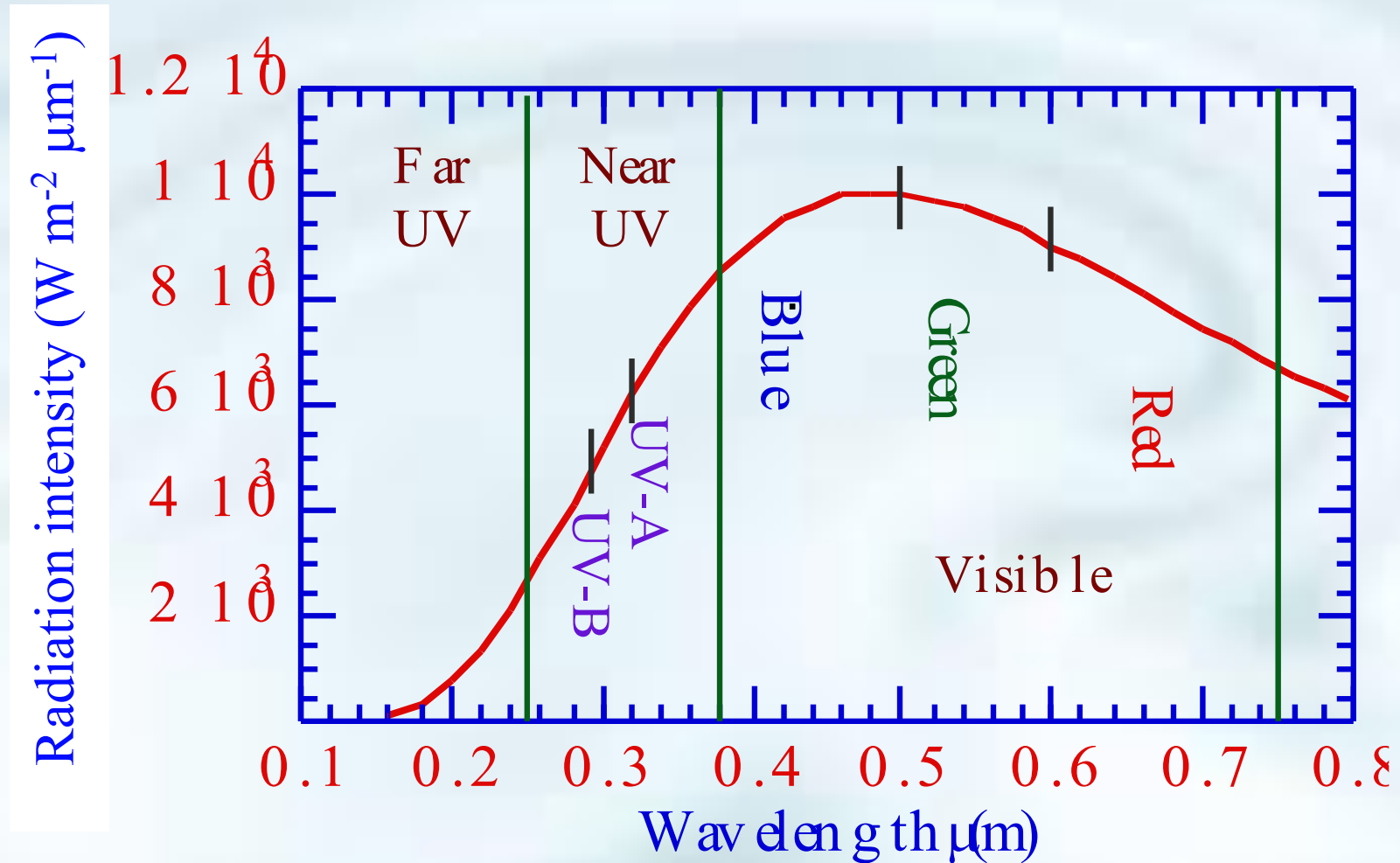


Figure 2.5

Origin of the Earth

4.6 bya, rock-forming elements, which were gases at high temperature in solar nebula, condensed into small solid grains as nebula cooled.

Grains accreted to planetesimals, such as asteroids and comets.

Asteroid: rocky body 1-1000 km in size that orbits sun.

Comet: a small frozen mass that orbits sun

Planetesimals accreted to form the Earth

Meteorite bombardment over 500 million years aided Earth's growth.

Meteorite: Solid mineral or rock that reaches a planet's surface without vaporizing.

Asteroid Ida and its Moon, Dactyl



National Space Science Data Center

Meteorite Impacts

Meteorites contained rock-forming elements (Mg, Si, Fe, Al, Ca, Na, Ni) that condensed in solar nebula and noncondensable elements (H, He, O, C, Ne, N, S, Ar, P).

How did noncondensable elements enter meteorites?

They chemically reacted as gases to form high molecular-weight compounds that condensed.

Upon impact with Earth, some noncondensable elements (volatiles) evaporated (volatilized) on impact. Others have volatilized over time and have been outgassed through volcanos, fumaroles, steam wells, geysers.

Composition of Stony Meteorites, Total Earth, and Earth's Crust

Element	<---- Mass percent of element in ---->			
	Stony Meteorites	Total Earth	Soil Crust	Ocean Crust
Oxygen	33.24	29.50	46.6	45.4
Iron	27.24	34.60	5.0	6.4
Silicon	17.10	15.20	27.2	22.8
Magnesium	14.29	12.70	2.1	4.1
Sulfur	1.93	1.93	0.026	0.026
Nickel	1.64	2.39	0.075	0.075
Calcium	1.27	1.13	3.6	8.8
Aluminum	1.22	1.09	8.1	8.7
Sodium	0.64	0.57	2.8	1.9

Table 2.2

Formation of the Earth's Crust

4.5-4 bya, Earth's core hotter than today. Only mechanism of energy escape was conduction (transfer of energy molecule to molecule).

Because conduction is slow, internal energy could not dissipate, so entire Earth became molten and surface was magma ocean.

At that point, energy could be transferred to the surface by convection, the mass movement of molecules.

Convection allowed energy release and cooling at the surface, forming the Earth's crust 4.3-3.8 bya.

Dense elements (Fe, Ni) settled to core. Light ones (Si, Al, Na, Ca) rose to surface. Certain Mg, Fe silicates settled to mantle.

Today, land crust granite (quartz, potassium feldspar). Ocean crust basalt (plagioclase feldspar, pyroxene). Outer core liquid Fe, Ni; inner core solid Fe, Ni

The Earth's Interior

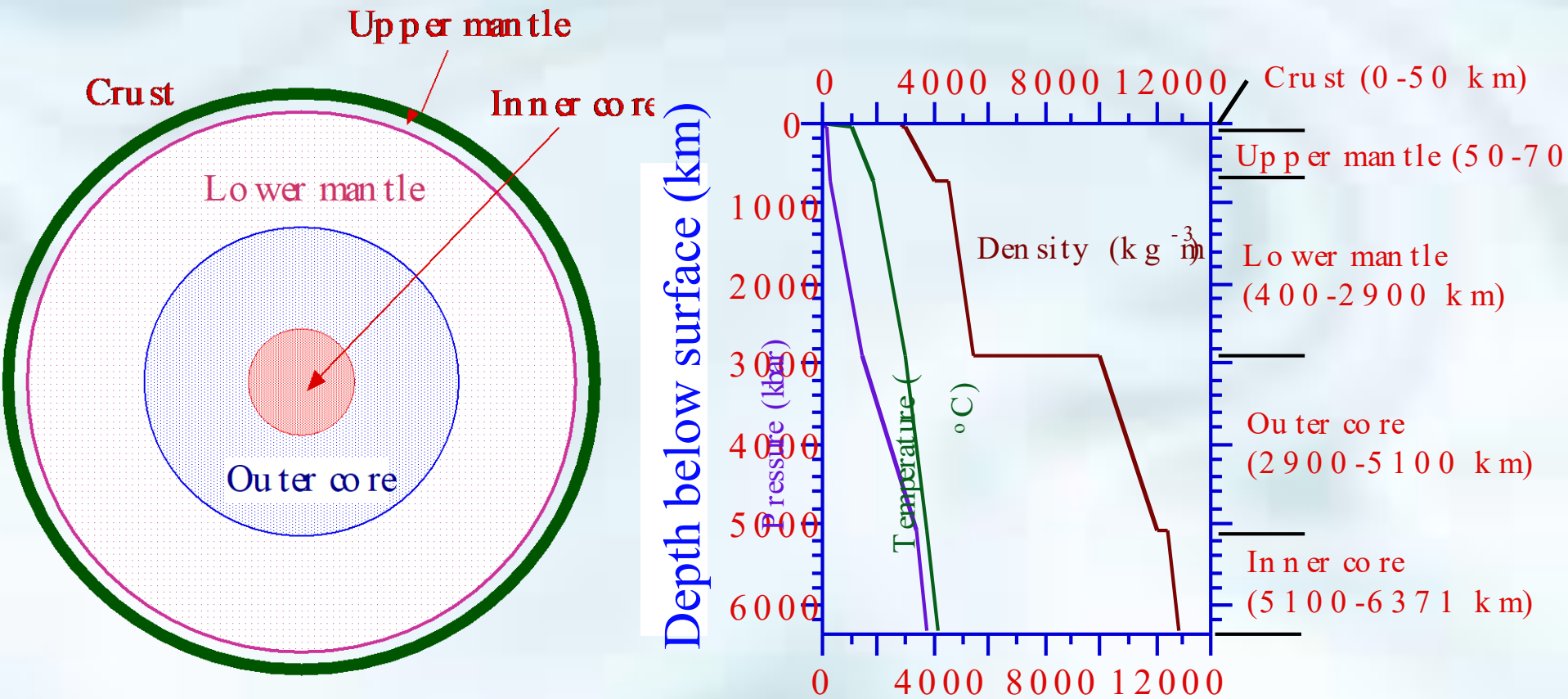


Figure 2.7

Earth's First Atmosphere

Consisted mostly of H, He

During birth of the Sun, nuclear reactions are enhanced, increasing solar wind speeds and densities (T-Tauri stage of solar evolution).

Enhanced solar wind stripped off most H, He from the Earth.

Additional H, He lost by escape from Earth's gravitational field.

Earth's Second Atmosphere

Initially due to outgassing by volcanos, fumaroles, steam wells, geysers.

Hydroxyl molecules (OH) bound in crustal minerals, became detached and converted reduced gases to oxidized gases:



Second atmosphere dominated initially by $\text{CO}_2(\text{g})$, $\text{H}_2(\text{g})$

Outgassed water vapor condensed to form the oceans.

Timeline of Earth's Evolution

4.6 bya

Formation of the Earth

3.5 bya

Abiotic synthesis,
1953 Miller and Urey

$\text{H}_2(\text{g}) + \text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{g}) + \text{CH}_4(\text{g}) + \text{NH}_3(\text{g}) + \text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{aq}) +$
electricity or UV --> complex organics, amino acids

--> first prokaryotes

single strand of DNA but no nucleus

conventional heterotrophs

Classification of Organisms

Energy Source

Sunlight

Oxidation of inorganic material

Oxidation of organic material

Phototroph

Lithotroph

Conventional heterotroph

Carbon source

Carbon dioxide

Organic material

Autotroph

Heterotroph

*Conventional heterotrophs obtain
Energy and carbon from organic material

Table 2.3

Classification of Organisms

Photoautotrophs

Green plants, most algae, cyanobacteria, some purple and green bacteria

Photoheterotrophs

Some algae, most purple and green bacteria, some cyanobacteria

Lithotrophic autotrophs

Hydrogen bacteria, colorless sulfur bacteria, methanogenic bacteria, nitrifying bacteria, iron bacteria

Lithotrophic heterotrophs

Some colorless sulfur bacteria

Conventional heterotrophs

Animals, fungi, protozoa, most bacteria

Table 2.4

Hot Sulfur Springs in Lassen National Park



Lithotrophic autotrophs oxidize $\text{H}_2\text{S}(\text{aq})$ to $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4(\text{aq})$, which dissolves minerals into a “mud pot.” Alfred Spormann, Stanford University

CO₂(g) and CH₄(g) From Bacteria

Anaerobic respiration: production of energy from food where electron acceptor is not oxygen.

CO₂(g) by fermentation (2.3)



CH₄(g) by methanogenesis (lithotrophic autotrophs) (2.4)

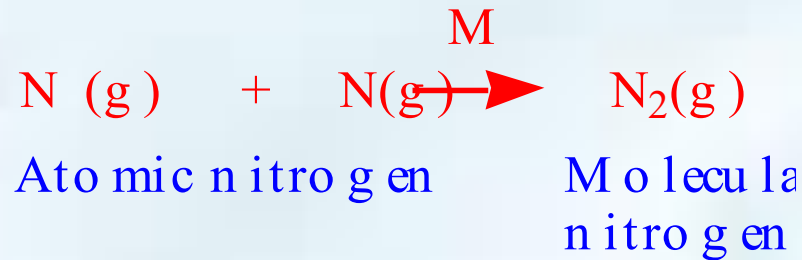
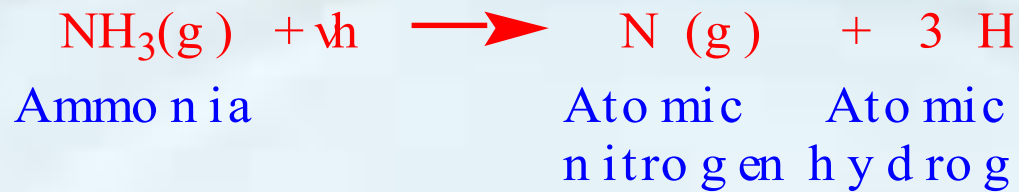


Evolution of Molecular Nitrogen

4.6 bya

$N_2(g)$ by ammonia photolysis

(2.5-2.6)



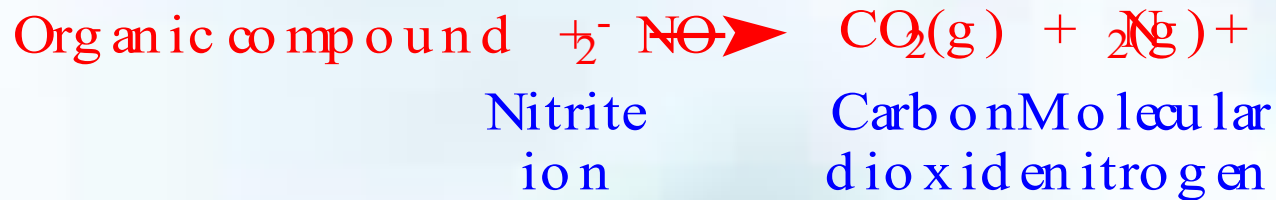
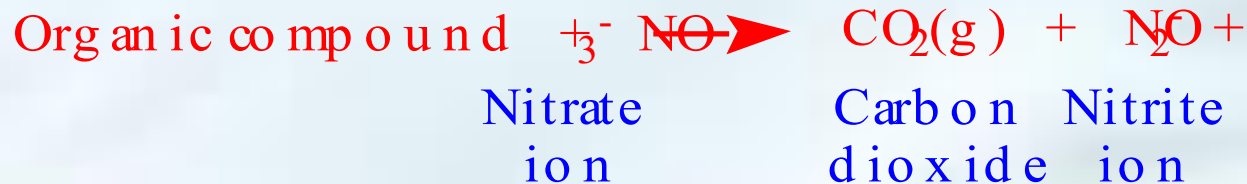
Evolution of Molecular Nitrogen

3.2 bya

Denitrification: 2-step process

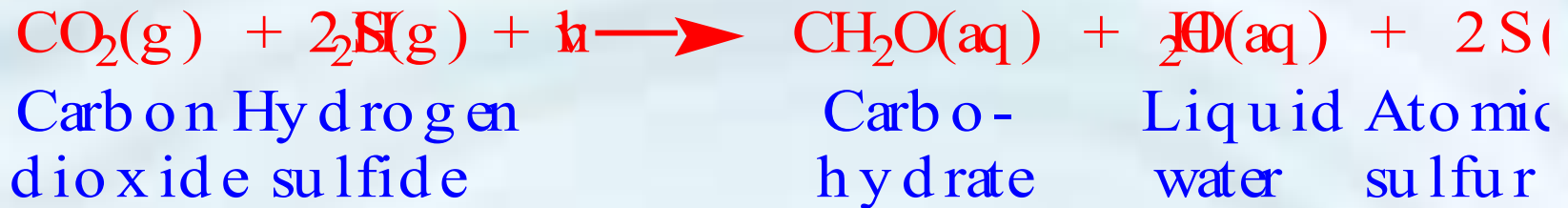
$N_2(g)$ by anaerobic respiration
(conventional heterotrophs)

(2.7-2.8)



Photosynthesis

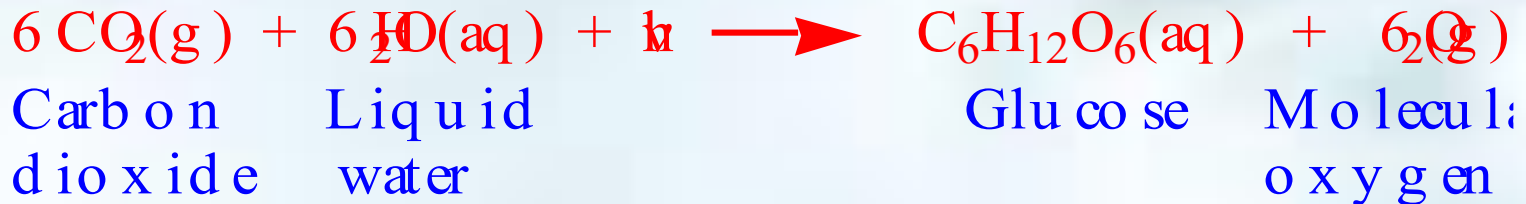
Anoxygenic photosynthesis (photoautotrophs) (2.9)



2.3 bya Oxygenic photosynthesis (cyanobacteria) (2.10)

1.4 bya Oxygen levels still 1% of today

0.395-0.43 bya Green plant photosynthesis



Photosynthesis in chlorophylls *a*, *b* : pigments that absorb visible

Chlorophyll *a*. Absorbs red more efficiently

Chlorophyll *b*. Absorbs blue more efficiently

Hot Spring in Yellowstone National Park



Different colored photosynthetic cyanobacteria grow at in hot spring due to different temperatures. Alfred Spormann, Stanford University

Aerobic Respiration

$O_2(g)$ reacts with organic cell material to produce energy during cellular respiration, which is oxidation of organics in living cells.



Aerobic respiration developed first in prokaryotes (bacteria, blue-green algae), but spread with the advent of eukaryotes.

Eukaryote. Cell containing DNA surrounded by a true membrane-enclosed nucleus. Cells of higher organisms all eukaryotic.

Eukaryotic cells usually switch from fermentation to aerobic respiration when oxygen reaches 1% of present levels -->
Eukaryotes developed about 1.4 bya, after oxygen rose to 1%

Timeline of Earth's Evolution

4.6 bya	Formation of the Earth
3.5 bya	Abiotic synthesis,
3.2 bya	Denitrification
2.3 bya	Oxygen-producing photosynthesis by cyanobacteria Start of ozone formation
1.8 bya	Nitrification (aerobic)
1.5 bya	Nitrogen fixation (aerobic)
1.4 bya	Earliest eukaryotes
0.57 bya	First shelled invertebrates
0.43-0.5 bya	Primitive fish
0.395-0.43 bya	First land plants -- oxygen and ozone increase

Figure 2.8²

The Nitrogen Cycle

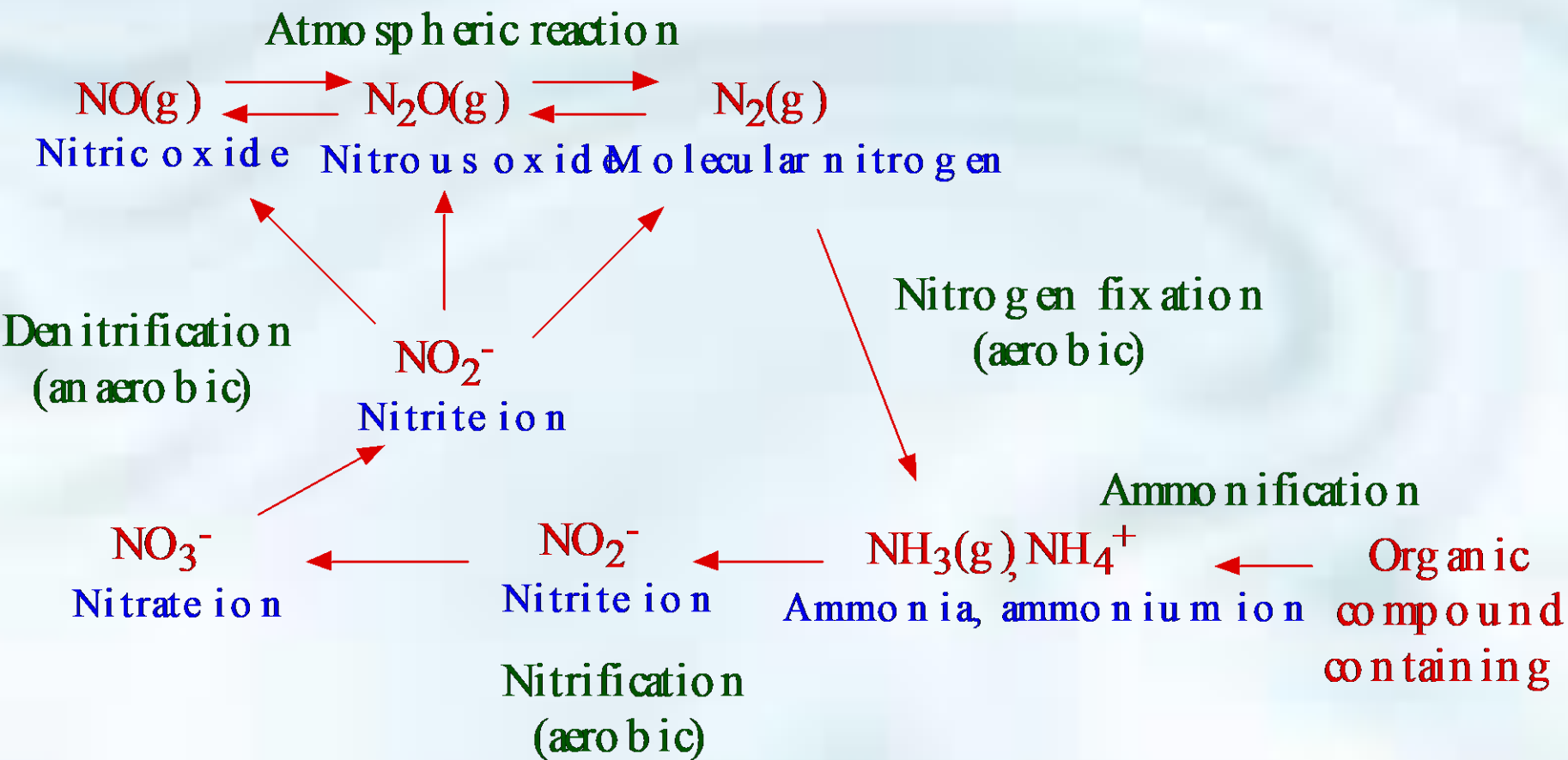


Figure 2.11

Evolution of the Earth's Second Atmosphere

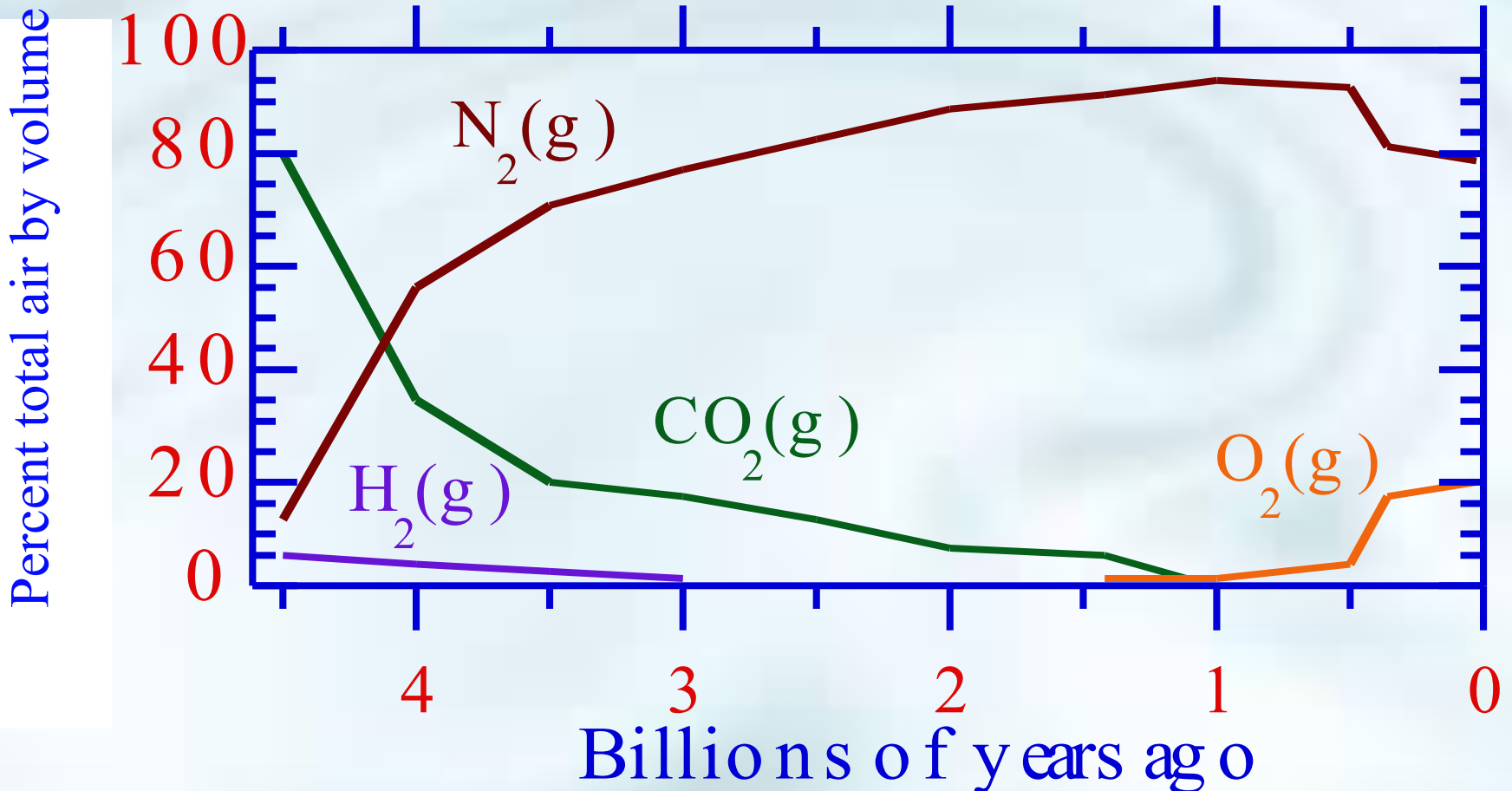


Figure 2.12