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Continental-scale enrichment of atmospheric $^{14}CO_2$ from the nuclear power industry: potential impact on the estimation of fossil fuel-derived CO_2

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Abstract. The ^{14}C-free fossil carbon added to atmospheric CO_2 by combustion dilutes the atmospheric $^{14}C/C$ ratio ($\Delta^{14}C$), potentially providing a means to verify fossil CO_2 emissions calculated using economic inventories. However, sources of ^{14}C from nuclear power generation and spent fuel reprocessing can counteract this dilution and may bias $^{14}C/C$-based estimates of fossil fuel-derived CO_2 if these nuclear influences are not correctly accounted for. Previous studies have examined nuclear influences on local scales, but the potential for continental-scale influences on $\Delta^{14}C$ has not yet been explored. We estimate annual ^{14}C emissions from each nuclear site in the world and conduct an Eulerian transport modeling study to investigate the continental-scale, steady-state gradients of $\Delta^{14}C$ caused by nuclear activities and fossil fuel combustion. Over large regions of Europe, North America and East Asia, nuclear enrichment may offset at least 20 % of the fossil fuel dilution in $\Delta^{14}C$, corresponding to potential biases of more than -0.25 ppm in the CO_2 attributed to fossil fuel emissions, larger than the bias from plant and soil respiration in some areas. Model grid cells including high ^{14}C-release reactors or fuel reprocessing sites showed much larger nuclear enrichment, despite the coarse model resolution of $1.8° \times 1.8°$. The recent growth of nuclear ^{14}C emissions increased the potential nuclear bias over 1985–2005, suggesting that changing nuclear activities may complicate the use of $\Delta^{14}C$ observations to identify trends in fossil fuel emissions. The magnitude of the potential nuclear bias is largely independent of the choice of reference station in the context of continental-scale Eulerian transport and inversion studies, but could potentially be reduced by an appropriate choice of reference station in the context of local-scale assessments.

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1 Introduction

Since radiocarbon (^{14}C) is absent in highly aged fossil fuels, fossil fuel combustion strongly dilutes the ratio of $^{14}C/C$ in atmospheric CO_2, reported as $\Delta^{14}C$ including corrections for age and fractionation. Atmospheric observations can be used to quantify the dilution of $\Delta^{14}C$ and thereby provide an estimate of the amount of CO_2 added by fossil fuel combustion, relative to a clean air reference site (e.g., Levin et al., 2003). Thus, $\Delta^{14}C$ observations and atmospheric transport modeling may provide a means for independently validating CO_2 emissions calculated from economic data (Pacala et al., 2010).

One way that $\Delta^{14}C$ observations may be employed to estimate CO_2 emissions from fossil fuel combustion is through the joint inversion of atmospheric CO_2 and its $^{14}C/C$ ratio on continental scales (Peters et al., 2007; Pacala et al., 2010). Previous studies using observations and models have shown that fossil fuel emissions cause discernable continental-scale $\Delta^{14}C$ gradients (Randerson et al., 2002; Hsueh et al., 2007; Turnbull et al., 2009). Implementing observation sites along such $\Delta^{14}C$ gradients may allow continental-scale fossil fuel emissions to be estimated with inversion schemes such as CarbonTracker (Peters et al., 2007). However, in order to

make such inversion-based estimates of fossil fuel fluxes on the basis of $\Delta^{14}C$ observations, all other influences on $\Delta^{14}C$ gradients must be known and corrected for.

One such influence is caused by activities of the nuclear power industry. Nuclear power and spent fuel reprocessing sites release ^{14}C in gaseous and liquid effluents, enriching ^{14}C of CO_2 in air and carbon in plant material and water surrounding nuclear sites by 4–20 000 ‰ (Levin et al., 1988, 2003; Dias et al., 2008).

Most prior studies of the nuclear influence on $\Delta^{14}C$ have focused on the impact of these emissions on CO_2 in the local areas surrounding nuclear sites, i.e., on scales of less than a hundred kilometers. For example, (Levin et al., 2003) calculated the influence of a nearby reactor on $\Delta^{14}C$ measured at the Heidelberg atmospheric sampling site in Germany using dispersion modeling of ^{14}C emissions observed at that reactor (Levin et al., 2003). Nuclear ^{14}C emissions may also contribute to $\Delta^{14}C$ gradients at larger, i.e. continental, scales extending to several hundred or thousand kilometers; however, the potential for nuclear ^{14}C emissions to influence continental-scale gradients of $\Delta^{14}C$ has not yet been explored. A previous modeling study found that the $\Delta^{14}C$ enrichment caused by the nuclear industry was negligible, but this study unrealistically applied ^{14}C emissions homogeneously across northern continental regions without considering the spatial distribution of individual nuclear sites (Turnbull et al., 2009).

In this study, we consider the influence of ^{14}C emissions from nuclear sites on continental scales. When nuclear ^{14}C emissions are mixed into the larger atmosphere, will a high density of nuclear sources or even one large nuclear source create large-scale regions of high $\Delta^{14}C$, relative to areas on the same continent without nuclear sites or relative to the free troposphere? An analogy could be made to SO_2 emissions from coal-fired power plants causing acid rain deposition over a large-scale region that extends several hundred kilometers downwind of the power plants.

In order to investigate the potential for ^{14}C emissions from the nuclear energy industry to cause continental-scale gradients in $\Delta^{14}C$, we estimate ^{14}C emissions from individual nuclear sites and conduct Eulerian atmospheric transport simulations of spatially-resolved nuclear $^{14}CO_2$ and fossil fuel CO_2 sources. We assess the potential for $\Delta^{14}C$ gradients from nuclear ^{14}C emissions to cause biases in fossil fuel CO_2 at continental scales and compare the pattern and magnitude of the potential nuclear biases to those arising from ^{14}C exchange with the ocean and terrestrial biosphere (Turnbull et al., 2009). By compiling observed ^{14}C emission rates, we also consider variability and uncertainty in nuclear ^{14}C emissions.

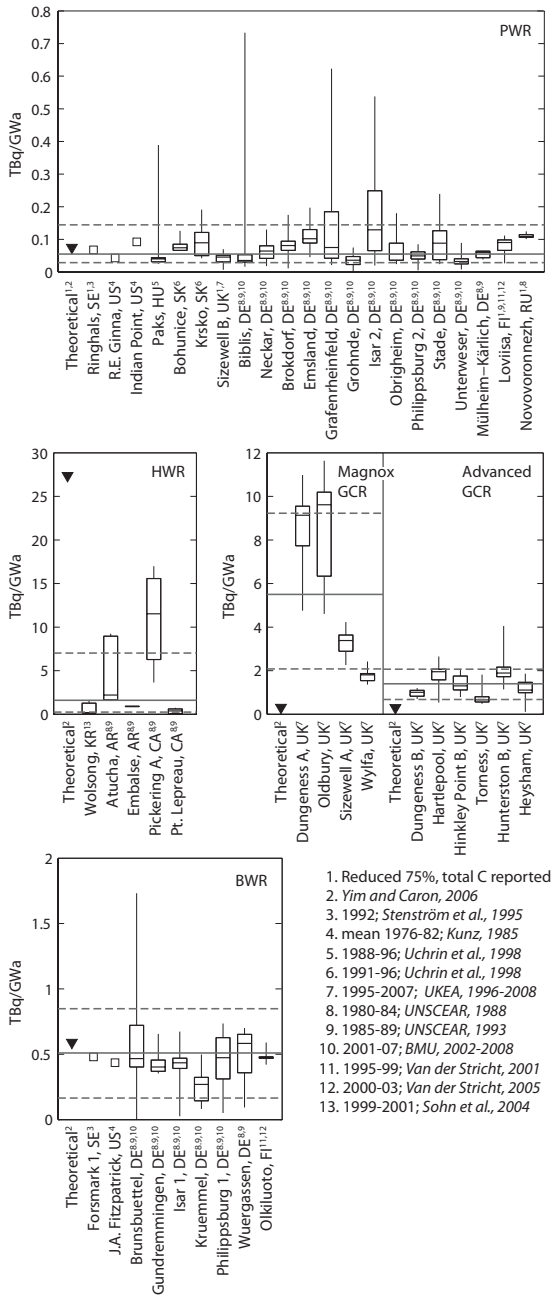
Unlike previous work examining the dispersion of temporary, severe radioactive sources using Lagrangian approaches (e.g., Klug et al., 1992; Draxler and Hess, 1998), our study focuses on ^{14}C emissions from multiple nuclear sites that occur continually within continental regions of the Northern Hemisphere. These ^{14}C emissions are part of the normal operating procedures of the nuclear sites and are within government-imposed limits. We use an Eulerian framework, rather than a Lagrangian framework, to estimate steady-state gradients over large scales. This Eulerian framework is similar to that used in global and regional inversions of CO_2 that exploit gradients between observation stations located 200–10 000 km from one another (e.g., Gurney et al., 2002; Peters et al., 2007), as well as in other studies of continental $\Delta^{14}C$ gradients (Hsueh et al., 2007; Turnbull et al., 2009). Our results therefore have specific relevance for applications utilizing steady-state, continental-scale $\Delta^{14}C$ gradients, while they do not address the small-scale gradients that exist in the local vicinity of individual nuclear sites and may also influence $\Delta^{14}C$ at some observation sites.

2 Methods

2.1 $^{14}CO_2$ emissions from individual nuclear power plant sites

Radiocarbon is produced mainly through reactions of nitrogen impurities and oxygen in uranium oxide fuel or coolant water of nuclear reactors, but also in structural material, in the graphite of graphite-moderated reactors and the cooling gas of gas-cooled reactors (Yim and Caron, 2006). Nearly all ^{14}C is released in the form of $^{14}CO_2$, except in Pressurized Water Reactors (PWRs) where ^{14}C is mainly released as $^{14}CH_4$ (Kunz, 1985; Uchrin et al., 1998; Van der Stricht and Janssens, 2001, 2005). We assume the lifetime of $^{14}CH_4$ (approx. 10 yr; Prather, 1994) to be too long to contribute to continental-scale gradients in $\Delta^{14}C$ of CO_2, permitting us to neglect $^{14}CH_4$ emissions.

Only 20–25 % of all nuclear sites measure and report ^{14}C emissions (Fig. 1), so we use ^{14}C emission factors, i.e. the ratio of ^{14}C emissions over electrical energy output, to estimate ^{14}C emissions at all sites. Annual energy output for each reactor in operation between 1985 and 2005 was compiled from the International Atomic Energy Agency's Power Reactor Information System (IAEA PRIS, available at http://www.iaea.org/programmes/a2/index.html). We use $^{14}CO_2$ emission factors of: 0.06 TBq GWa^{-1} for PWRs, 0.51 TBq GWa^{-1} for Boiling Water Reactors (BWRs), 1.6 TBq GWa^{-1} for Heavy Water Reactors (HWRs), 1.4 TBq GWa^{-1} for Advanced Gas-Cooled Reactors (GCRs), 5.5 TBq GWa^{-1} for Magnox GCRs, 1.3 TBq GWa^{-1} for Light-Water-cooled Graphite-moderated Reactors (LWGRs) and 0.12 TBq GWa^{-1} for Fast Breeder Reactors (FBRs). These emission factors were given as averages for 1990–1995 in UNSCEAR (2000). We reduced the emission factor for PWRs by 75 % to account for ^{14}C released as methane (Kunz, 1985; Uchrin et al., 1998; Van der Stricht and Janssens, 2001, 2005) and increased the emission factor for Magnox-type GCRs by a factor of 4 based



1. Reduced 75%, total C reported
2. *Yim and Caron, 2006*
3. 1992; *Stenström et al., 1995*
4. mean 1976-82; *Kunz, 1985*
5. 1988-96; *Uchrin et al., 1998*
6. 1991-96; *Uchrin et al., 1998*
7. 1995-2007; *UKEA, 1996-2008*
8. 1980-84; *UNSCEAR, 1988*
9. 1985-89; *UNSCEAR, 1993*
10. 2001-07; *BMU, 2002-2008*
11. 1995-99; *Van der Stricht, 2001*
12. 2000-03; *Van der Stricht, 2005*
13. 1999-2001; *Sohn et al., 2004*

Fig. 1. Emission factors of $^{14}CO_2$ release per electrical energy output at nuclear reactors of Pressurized Water Reactor (PWR), Heavy Water Reactor (HWR), Magnox and Advanced Gas-Cooled Reactor (GCR) and Boiling Water Reactor (BWR) types. Triangles indicate theoretical emission factors from Yim and Caron (2006). Observed emission factors at individual nuclear sites are shown as squares when one year or one multi-year average observation of $^{14}CO_2$ release was reported, or as boxplots when several years of annual mean observations were reported. Dashed lines show 70 % confidence intervals. Emission factors at PWRs footnoted with a "1" reported total ^{14}C release and were reduced by 75 % to account for $^{14}CH_4$ emissions. Other footnotes indicate the periods of observation and references. Solid lines show emission factors used, as listed in Sect. 2.1.

on observed emission rates (Fig. 1, UKEA 1996–2008). Estimated emissions of ^{14}C from each nuclear site are tabulated in the auxiliary material.

Total electrical energy output by all nuclear reactors nearly doubled between 1985 and 2005, while total ^{14}C emissions (including $^{14}CH_4$) increased by only 40–60 %, from 89 [43, 172] to 130 [69, 280] TBq yr^{-1} (bracketed values indicate 70 % confidence intervals). This is because most of the growth in electrical output was generated by PWR- and BWR-type reactors that release comparatively less ^{14}C. Total ^{14}C release represented about 10 % of the average production rate from cosmogenic radiation (Masarik and Beer, 2009).

The ^{14}C emission factors are associated with substantial uncertainties as they vary, for example, due to episodic venting, replacement of resin columns and other maintenance (Kunz, 1985; Stenström et al., 1995; Sohn et al., 2004). To examine temporal and site-to-site variability, we compiled available observations of gaseous ^{14}C emissions and compared them to electrical energy output at several individual PWRs, BWRs, HWRs and GCRs (Fig. 1). Observations at LWGRs (Konstantinov et al., 1989) were consistent with UNSCEAR (2000). No observations from FBRs were found.

Substantial variability spanning 300–1000 % was found in the observations for different reactors and for individual reactors over several years, particularly in PWRs, HWRs and Magnox GCRs. No consistent differences between reactors in different countries were apparent. We calculated the 15 and 85 % limits of the lognormal cumulative distribution of the observations for each reactor type in Fig. 1 to define a 70 % confidence interval for the emission factors, similar to a 1-sigma uncertainty in a normal distribution. We apply the observed confidence intervals to estimate uncertainty in ^{14}C emissions and uncertainty in the resulting enrichment in atmospheric $^{14}CO_2$ (Sects. 3 and 4).

Theoretical estimates of ^{14}C emission factors (Fig. 1; Yim and Caron, 2006) were similar to observations for PWR and BWRs, but quite different for HWRs and GCRs. This is likely a result of theoretical estimates not accounting for ^{14}C capture at some HWRs and GCRs or the poorly-known release of ^{14}C produced in the moderators of GCRs.

2.2 ^{14}C emissions from other sources

Dissolution of spent nuclear fuel during reprocessing liberates ^{14}C, which is released in gaseous effluents as $^{14}CO_2$ (Koarashi et al., 2005). We compiled observations of ^{14}C released between 1985 and 2005 at 3 active spent fuel reprocessing sites where ^{14}C is released: La Hague, France, Sellafield, UK and Tokai, Japan (UNSCEAR, 1988, 1993, 2000; Schneider and Marignac, 2008; Nakada et al., 2008; UKEA, 1996–2008), also tabulated in the auxiliary material. Total ^{14}C release from spent fuel reprocessing from these 3 sites over 1985–2005 was roughly 10 % of the release from nuclear power generation.

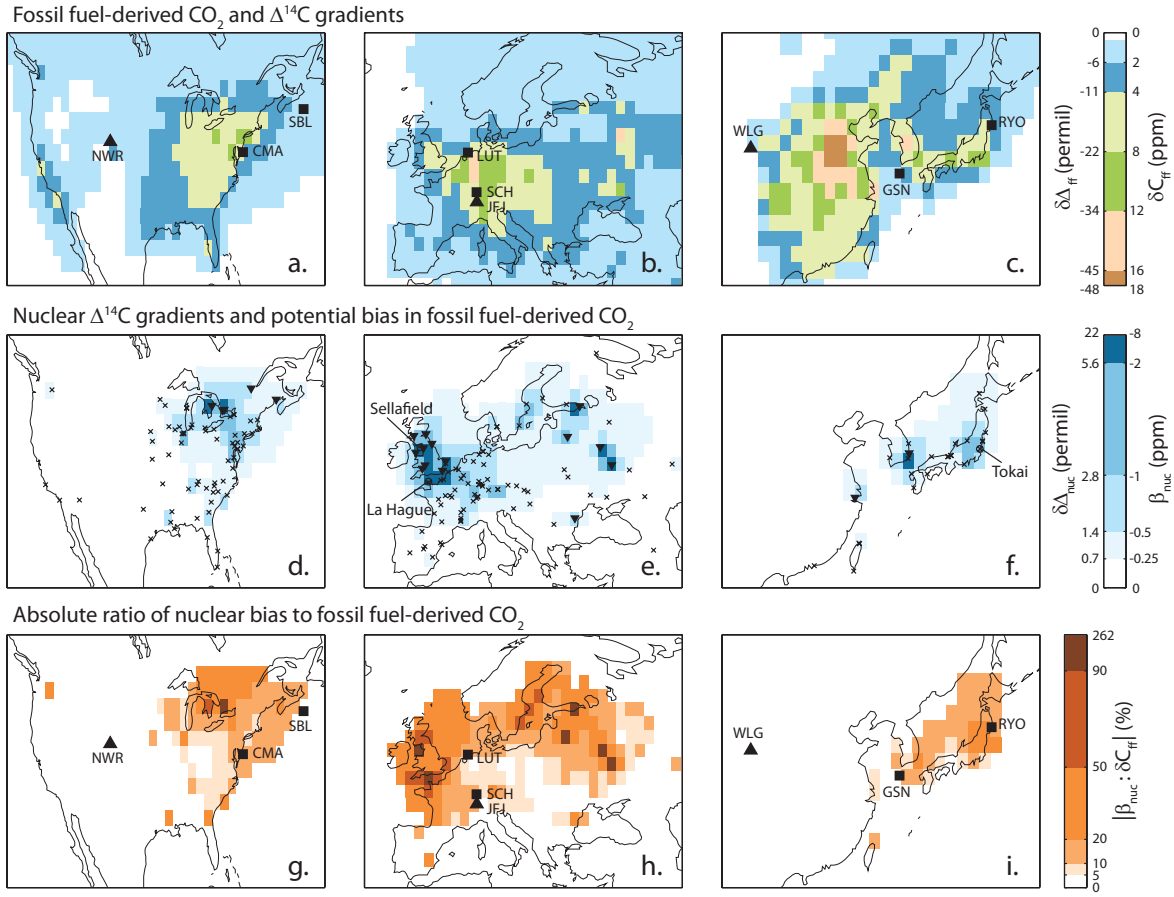


Fig. 2. (a–c) Maps of fossil fuel-derived CO_2 (δC_{ff}) and $\Delta^{14}C$ dilution ($\delta\Delta_{ff}$) in continental regions of the Northern Hemisphere. Regional reference sites are indicated by triangles and observation sites by squares. **(d–f)** Nuclear $\Delta^{14}C$ enhancement ($\delta\Delta_{nuc}$) and potential nuclear bias to fossil fuel-derived CO_2 (β_{nuc}). Locations of low-^{14}C release reactors are indicated by crosses, high-^{14}C release reactors by triangles, and spent fuel reprocessing sites are labeled. **(g–i)** The ratio $|\beta_{nuc} : \delta C_{ff}|$, in percent, shown only in grid cells where β_{nuc} was less than -0.25 ppm.

Our estimates of total ^{14}C emissions do not include some additional anthropogenic ^{14}C sources, despite the fact that they could also contribute to ^{14}C enrichment at continental scales. These sources include emissions from experimental research reactors, reactors that were recently shutdown, radiochemical production facilities, military operations, and disposal or incineration sites for medical or research waste. We omitted these sources due to lack of data on emission rates and chemical forms of ^{14}C. However, observations from research reactors in Germany (BMU, 2002–2008) and a radiochemical production facility in the UK (UKEA, 1996–2008) showed ^{14}C emissions that were similar to medium- to large-sized BWRs. Emissions from newly shutdown reactors can be as large as 300 % of the average release during active periods (BMU, 2002–2008; UKEA, 1996–2008), but are neglected here by our use of emission factors that are tied to electrical production. As a result, our estimated ^{14}C emission from the nuclear power industry does not comprise the total anthropogenic emission of ^{14}C.

2.3 Transport modeling

Surface fluxes of ^{14}C from nuclear sites and CO_2 from fossil fuel combustion were used as boundary conditions in simulations of the global TM3 atmospheric transport model with $1.8° \times 1.8°$ resolution and 28 vertical levels (Heimann and Korner, 2003). Annual mean emissions of CO_2 from fossil fuel combustion were given by the Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research version 4.0 (EDGAR, available at http://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/index.php) for individual years 1985–2005, aggregated from 0.1° to 1.8° resolution.

We computed 4-yr simulations with constant fluxes corresponding to each year 1985–2005, similar to the specifications of the Transcom 3 Experiment (Gurney et al., 2000), and averaged the simulated concentrations over the 4th year. Meteorological forcing was given by 6-h NCEP reanalysis fields specific to each year 1985–2005 (Kalnay et al., 1996).

We examine gradients in $\Delta^{14}C$ over three continental regions in the Northern Hemisphere, relative to a regional

reference site: Niwot Ridge, USA (NWR, 3.75 km a.s.l.) for North America, Jungfraujoch, Switzerland (JFJ, 3.45 km a.s.l.) for Europe and Mt. Waliguan, China (WLG, 3.81 km a.s.l.) for Asia (Fig. 2a–c). Spatial maps of gradients in $\Delta^{14}C$ in the lowest model level are presented for 2005 in Sect. 3, while temporal changes at selected sites are presented in Sect. 4.

Gradients were calculated using the simulated enhancement in CO_2 (δC_{ff}) or $^{14}CO_2$ (δA_{nuc}) relative to the regional reference sites, i.e. $\delta C_{ff} = \overline{C_{ff}} - \overline{C_{ff}^R}$ and $\delta A_{nuc} = \overline{A_{nuc}} - \overline{A_{nuc}^R}$, where R indicates the reference site. The dilution in $\Delta^{14}C$ caused by fossil fuel emissions, $\delta\Delta_{ff}$, and the enhancement in $\Delta^{14}C$ caused by nuclear emissions, $\delta\Delta_{nuc}$, were calculated by:

$$\delta\Delta_{ff} = -\delta C_{ff}\frac{1000\,‰ + \Delta_R}{C_R + \delta C_{ff}} \quad (1)$$

$$\delta\Delta_{nuc} = \frac{\delta A_{nuc} 1000\,‰}{R_s(C_R + \delta C_{ff})} \quad (2)$$

These equations were derived by approximate mass balance of carbon and ^{14}C. R_s is 1.176×10^{-12}, the $^{14}C/C$ ratio in the Modern Standard. The change in $\Delta^{14}C$ also depends on the background air CO_2 mixing ratio and $\Delta^{14}C$ (C_R and Δ_R), which was assigned to be the global average for each year (Table S1). We use global average values at each regional reference site since observations are not available for all sites in all years. Though annual mean $\Delta^{14}C$ and CO_2 in Northern Hemisphere background air can vary by ±5 ‰ and ±1.6 ppm from the estimated global average (Levin et al., 2010; Graven et al., 2011; Keeling and Whorf, 2005), the potential error in $\delta\Delta_{ff}$ caused by using global average values at the regional reference sites is less than 0.8 %.

Since the spatial gradients in fossil fuel CO_2 are small relative to the absolute concentration of CO_2 in the atmosphere, i.e., $\delta C_{ff} \ll C_R$, the dilution of $\Delta^{14}C$ by fossil fuel emissions ($\delta\Delta_{ff}$) relates to δC_{ff} by a roughly constant factor of −2.8 ‰ : 1 ppm in 2005. The bias in δC_{ff} that would occur if nuclear ^{14}C enrichment was not accounted for (β_{nuc}) similarly relates to $\delta\Delta_{nuc}$ by approximately −2.8 ‰ : 1 ppm, since nuclear enrichment reduces apparent $\delta\Delta_{ff}$.

We performed sensitivity tests to evaluate the effect of uncertainty in ^{14}C emission factors and the choice of regional reference site. To test the effect of uncertainty in the emission factors, we performed additional simulations for emissions calculated with emission factors at the lower and upper limits of the 70 % confidence intervals shown in Fig. 1. To test the sensitivity to the choice of reference site, we additionally calculated $\Delta^{14}C$ gradients relative to free tropospheric air at 2.9 km a.s.l. (the 10th model level).

3 Regional gradients in $\Delta^{14}C$ of CO_2

The largest simulated δC_{ff} of 11–18 ppm was associated with the most densely populated areas (Fig. 2a–c), while over large regions of North America, Europe, and Asia δC_{ff} exceeded 0.5 ppm ($\delta\Delta_{ff} < -1.4$ ‰). In contrast, nuclear ^{14}C emissions enhanced $\Delta^{14}C$ by more than 0.7 ‰ over large regions of North America, Europe and Asia in 2005 (Fig. 2d–f), offsetting the dilution of $\Delta^{14}C$ from fossil fuel emissions substantially.

The largest $\delta\Delta_{nuc}$ and β_{nuc} was simulated over northern France and the UK due to releases from La Hague and Sellafield reprocessing sites and several Gas-Cooled Reactors. Though enhancement of $\Delta^{14}C$ was largest in grid cells containing large nuclear sources, negative values of β_{nuc} extend far into downwind regions without nuclear sources. Outflow from northern France and the UK contributed to high $\delta\Delta_{nuc}$ and β_{nuc} over much of Northern Europe (Fig. 2e). The Great Lakes region of North America, central Japan and South Korea also showed substantial $\delta\Delta_{nuc}$ and β_{nuc} extending >400 km away from nuclear sites.

The simulations clearly show a continental-scale influence of nuclear emissions: significant $\delta\Delta_{nuc}$ gradients extended more than 700 km (3 grid cells) away from nuclear sites in northeastern North America, Europe and Asia. This spatial scale is sufficiently resolved by the model resolution of TM3, 100–200 km in mid-latitude regions. However, since Eulerian models like TM3 homogenize point sources over the local grid cell, simulated β_{nuc} near nuclear point sources are sensitive to the model resolution and the location of the model grid. For example, the largest simulated β_{nuc} is in the grid cell containing the spent fuel reprocessing site at La Hague, France. β_{nuc} simulated for the area within this grid cell (−8 ppm) is likely to change if a different model resolution or model grid is used, particularly for areas within the grid cell that are particularly near to or distant from the La Hague site.

The relative magnitude of the potential biases in inferred fossil fuel-derived CO_2, i.e. the absolute of the ratio of β_{nuc} to δC_{ff}, can amount to more than 100 % (Fig. 2g–i). Over the English Channel, β_{nuc} was as large as 260 % of δC_{ff}. In large regions, such as Eastern Canada, Northwestern France, the UK, Ireland, the Baltic Sea, Russia and Japan, the potential bias remained above 20 %. There were also areas with very little potential bias, owing to intense fossil fuel emissions but little to no nuclear activity, such as over the west coast of North America and most of China.

Simulated β_{nuc} for 2005 using emission factors at the 15 % and 85 % limits of the cumulative distribution of observed emission factors are shown in Fig. 3. Increasing emission factors to the upper limit caused β_{nuc} to be 300 % larger, on average. The area of $\beta_{nuc} < -0.25$ ppm spread over the Atlantic Ocean, Eastern Canada, Russia, Scandinavia, Southern Europe, China and Korea. In these areas, β_{nuc} was generally larger than 20 % of δC_{ff}. In simulations with emission factors

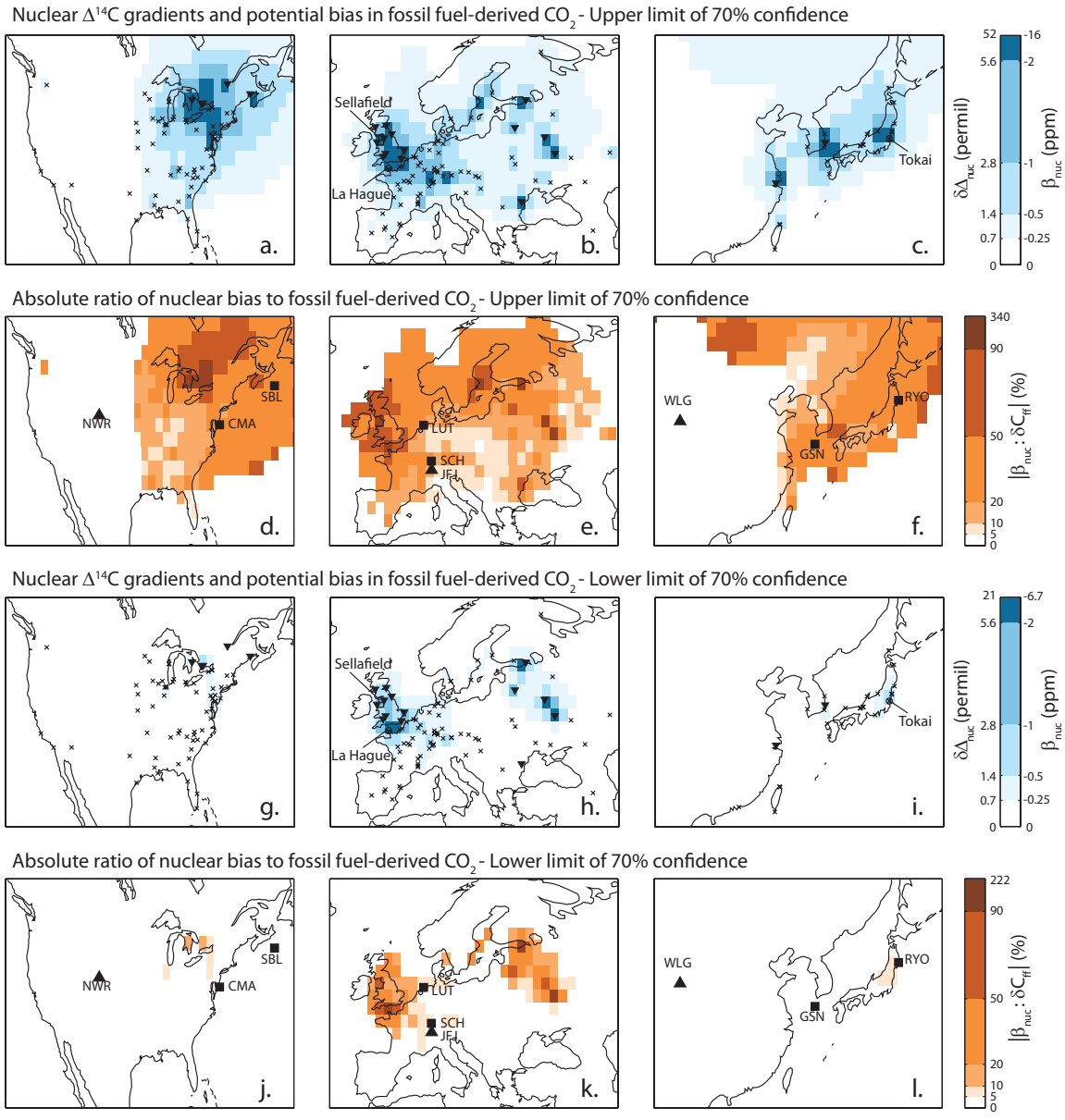


Fig. 3. Results from transport model simulations of ^{14}C emissions for 2005 estimated using emission factors at the upper and lower limits of the 70 % confidence intervals as shown in Fig. 1. Nuclear $\Delta^{14}C$ enhancement ($\delta\Delta_{nuc}$) and potential nuclear bias to fossil fuel-derived CO_2 (β_{nuc}) for emissions at the upper **(a–c)** and lower **(g–i)** limits of 70 % confidence. The ratio $|\beta_{nuc} : \delta C_{ff}|$, in percent, shown only in grid cells where β_{nuc} was less than -0.25 ppm for emissions at the upper **(d–f)** and lower **(j–l)** limits of 70 % confidence.

at the lower limit, $\delta\Delta_{nuc}$ and β_{nuc} became 60 % smaller in North America and Asia and 40 % smaller in Europe, on average. Potential biases were much less important in North America and Asia, but in large regions of Northern Europe β_{nuc} was still comparable in magnitude to δC_{ff} (>20 %). Patterns were largely the same when we used free tropospheric air as the background instead of the continental reference sites, and δC_{ff} changed by less than ± 0.1 ppm and β_{nuc} changed by less than ± 0.01 ppm in more than 85 % of grid cells shown in Fig. 2.

4 Temporal changes in δC_{ff} and β_{nuc}

Concurrent changes to the patterns and magnitudes of fossil fuel and nuclear emissions could cause spurious trends in δC_{ff} inferred from $\Delta^{14}C$ observations. To estimate the potential for such an effect, we examine modeled annual mean δC_{ff} and β_{nuc}, relative to the continental reference sites, over 1985–2005 at 6 sites where $\Delta^{14}C$ in CO_2 is currently measured or may be initiated in the future: Cape May, USA (CMA) and Sable Island, Canada (SBL) in North America;

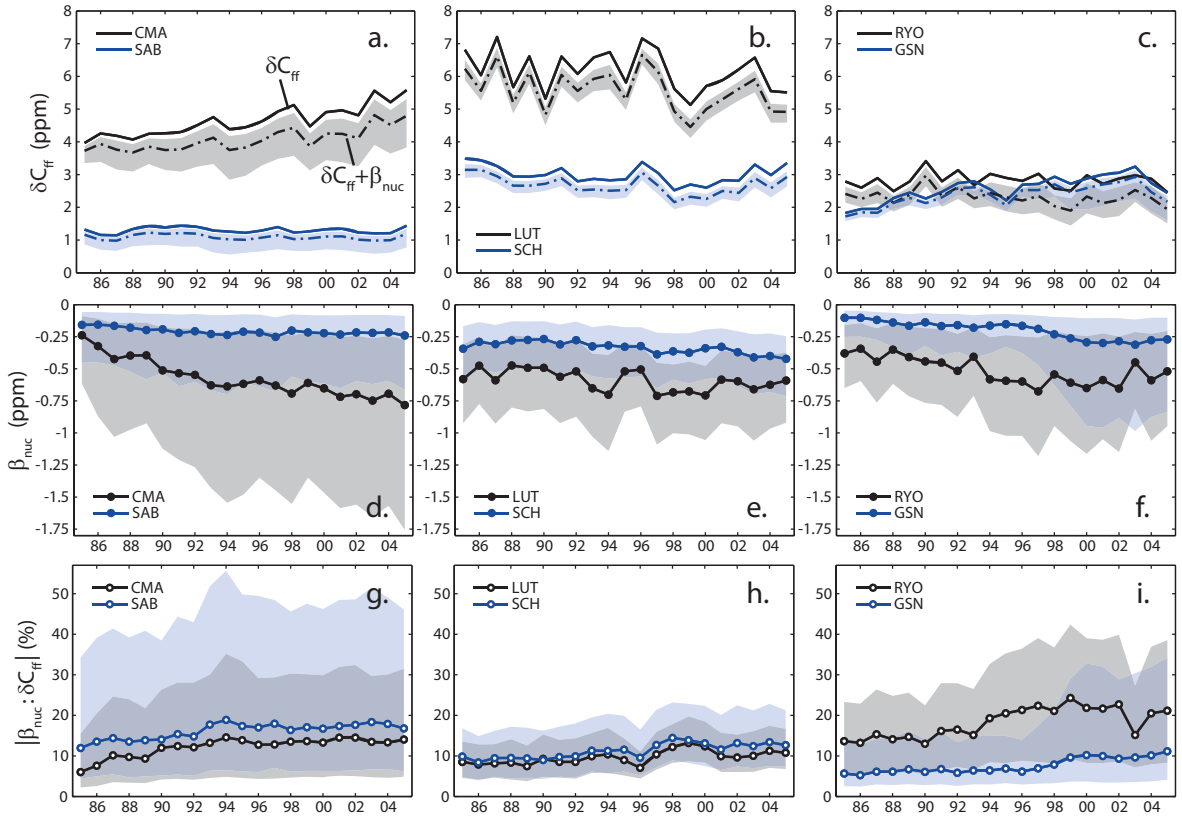


Fig. 4. (a–c) Annual mean fossil fuel-derived CO_2 ($\delta C_{\rm ff}$, solid lines) and fossil fuel-derived CO_2 including the nuclear bias ($\delta C_{\rm ff} + \beta_{\rm nuc}$, dashed lines) simulated at each observation site for 1985–2005. **(d–f)** Annual mean $\beta_{\rm nuc}$ simulated at each observation site for 1985–2005. Panels **(g–i)** Annual mean ratio $|\beta_{\rm nuc} : \delta C_{\rm ff}|$ simulated at each observation site for 1985–2005, in percent. Filled areas show 70 % confidence intervals.

Lutjewad, Netherlands (LUT) and Schauinsland, Germany (SCH) in Europe; and Gosan, South Korea (GSN) and Ryori, Japan (RYO) in Asia.

Modeled $\delta C_{\rm ff}$ was between 1 and 7 ppm at the 6 sites over 1985–2005 (Fig. 4a–c). At each site, $\delta C_{\rm ff}$ spanned ± 0.2 to ± 1.0 ppm from the mean value due to an overall trend and/or to variations in emission and atmospheric transport. $\beta_{\rm nuc}$ was -0.1 to -0.8 ppm, with the largest negative potential biases at Cape May, Lutjewad and Ryori (Fig. 4d–f).

At all sites, $\beta_{\rm nuc}$ grew in proportion to $\delta C_{\rm ff}$ (Fig. 4g–i) as the number and activity of nuclear reactors expanded between 1985–2005 and, at the European sites, as $\delta C_{\rm ff}$ decreased. A strong increase in $\beta_{\rm nuc}$ is apparent at Gosan, caused by the implementation of 3 Heavy Water Reactors at Wolsong, South Korea in the 1990s. To assess the impact of growth in $\beta_{\rm nuc}$ on the apparent trend in $\delta C_{\rm ff}$, we compare 5-yr means of $\delta C_{\rm ff}$ and $\delta C_{\rm ff} + \beta_{\rm nuc}$ for 1985–1989 and 2001–2005 (Table 1). Simulated $\delta C_{\rm ff}$ increased at the North American and Asian sites and decreased at the European sites between 1985–1989 and 2001–2005. Including the simultaneous change in $\beta_{\rm nuc}$ caused $\delta C_{\rm ff}$ to appear to have increased 6–7 % less at Cape May and Gosan, to have decreased 2–3 % more at Schauinsland and Lutjewad, and to have decreased by 4–5 % instead of increased by 1–2 % at Sable Island and Ryori. The largest effects were at Cape May and Ryori, significantly larger in magnitude than uncertainties in the fractional change in local $\delta C_{\rm ff}$ or $\delta C_{\rm ff} + \beta_{\rm nuc}$ due to variations in emission and atmospheric transport. Our results indicate that concurrent trends in $\beta_{\rm nuc}$ can bias and change the sign of Δ^{14}C-based observations of $\delta C_{\rm ff}$ trends.

$\delta C_{\rm ff}$ calculated in comparison to free tropospheric air was 3–40 % smaller than $\delta C_{\rm ff}$ calculated using the continental reference sites, except at Schauinsland where it was slightly larger. However, in comparison to free tropospheric air, $\beta_{\rm nuc}$ was simultaneously reduced by a comparable amount (1–44 %) so that the ratio of $\beta_{\rm nuc}$ to $\delta C_{\rm ff}$ changed very little.

Simulations using emission factors at the limits of 70 % confidence demonstrate very large uncertainties that are skewed toward stronger $\beta_{\rm nuc}$ (Fig. 4). At the upper limit, $\beta_{\rm nuc}$ compensated 15–50 % of the dilution from $\delta C_{\rm ff}$ at the sites. At the lower limit, $\beta_{\rm nuc}$ compensated 5–10 % of $\delta C_{\rm ff}$. These uncertainties further complicate the identification of trends in $\delta C_{\rm ff}$ using Δ^{14}C observations. While we have set emission factors to either the lower or upper limit at all sites,

Table 1. Change in simulated $\delta C_{\rm ff}$ and $\delta C_{\rm ff} + \beta_{\rm nuc}$ between 5-yr means for 1985–1989 and 2001–2005 at the sites shown in Fig. 4. Uncertainties were calculated using the standard error in simulated $\delta C_{\rm ff}$ and $\delta C_{\rm ff} + \beta_{\rm nuc}$ over the 5-yr periods, which comprise only variations in emissions and atmospheric transport over the 5-yr periods. Uncertainties in ^{14}C emission factors are not included.

	$\Delta\delta C_{\rm ff}$ (%)	$\Delta(\delta C_{\rm ff} + \beta_{\rm nuc})$ (%)	difference (%)
CMA	$+26 \pm 4$	$+19 \pm 3$	-7
SAB	$+1 \pm 6$	-4 ± 6	-5
SCH	-5 ± 5	-8 ± 5	-3
LTW	-8 ± 5	-10 ± 6	-2
RYO	$+2 \pm 4$	-5 ± 5	-7
GSN	$+38 \pm 9$	$+32 \pm 7$	-6

the observations show that emission factors at each site vary from year to year (Fig. 1), which may cause different patterns and larger variability than our simulations.

5 Comparison with previous estimates of $\beta_{\rm nuc}$

Turnbull et al. (2009) simulated $\beta_{\rm nuc}$ using a slightly lower resolution atmospheric transport model with surface fluxes of ^{14}C from the nuclear industry that were spread homogeneously across the Northern continents. They report simulated $\beta_{\rm nuc}$ at Cape May of only 0 to -0.2 ppm over 2002–2008, much smaller than our value of -0.8 [-0.3, -1.8] ppm for 2005 (Fig. 4). A similarly large underestimation occurs in the study of Turnbull et al. (2009) for Orleans, France (48.8° N, 2.5° E). There, they reported a simulated $\beta_{\rm nuc}$ of 0 to -0.2 ppm over 2002–2008 while we simulated a value of -0.9 [-0.6, -1.4] ppm for 2005 (Figs. 2 and 3). This is a consequence of us emitting the nuclear ^{14}C from point sources rather than spreading the emissions homogenously over the northern continents. Our result for Cape May could also be overestimated by the presence of two nuclear reactors in the local model grid cell, both located near the western edge of the grid cell while Cape May is located near the eastern edge. But the potential biases in the 5th model level (900 m) above Cape May and in the adjacent grid cell to the east are -0.4 ppm, also substantially larger than Turnbull et al. (2009). Similarly, there are two nuclear sites within the local grid cell of Orleans but the potential bias in the 5th model level above Orleans is also substantially larger than Turnbull et al. (2009), -0.5 ppm. No nuclear sites are present in the grid cells containing Sable Island, Lutjewad, Schauinsland, Ryori and Gosan.

Simulated continental-scale effects can be compared with local-scale effects at Heidelberg, Germany (49.4° N, 8.7° E), estimated by Levin et al. (2003). Our simulated continental-scale influence of nuclear emissions at Heidelberg is half as large as the estimated local-scale influence from the nearby Philippsburg nuclear site. Levin et al. (2003) used observed ^{14}C emissions at Philippsburg with a dispersion model to estimate local Δ^{14}C enrichment of 0.2–10 ‰ over 1986-2002, averaging 4.8 ± 2.0 ‰. Our simulated nuclear enrichment in the grid cell containing Heidelberg is 2.1 [1.1, 3.7] ‰ in 2005 (Figs. 2 and 3), which equates to a potential bias of -0.7 [-0.4, -1.3] ppm. Our estimate is lower than Levin et al. (2003) mainly because, as described above, the coarse resolution model underestimates Δ^{14}C near to nuclear point sources. However, another fundamental difference from Levin et al. (2003) is that we consider the influence from all nuclear sites, not only from Phillipsburg. Our results indicate that long-range transport from more distant nuclear sites is likely to be significant in Heidelberg, in addition to local transport from the Phillipsburg site.

6 Discussion and conclusions

Accounting for the spatial distribution of nuclear sites reveals several regions with a high density of ^{14}C sources that are important to consider in determining continental-scale influences on Δ^{14}C. Simulation of spatially-resolved ^{14}C emissions from individual nuclear sites in the Northern Hemisphere shows that these ^{14}C emissions contribute to a Δ^{14}C enrichment at continental scales that is substantial enough to partially counteract the fossil fuel dilution effect. Simulated potential nuclear biases of more than -0.25 ppm to $\delta C_{\rm ff}$ extend over spatial scales on the order of 1000 km in populated regions of the Northern Hemisphere. This spatial scale is sufficiently resolved by the coarse Eulerian model we used, 100–200 km in mid-latitude regions, so this result is not limited by our model or model resolution.

Potential nuclear biases of -0.25 ppm or more make a substantial contribution to the total uncertainty in fossil fuel-derived CO_2 determined by Δ^{14}C measurements, which is comprised of a component from measurement uncertainty and a component from uncertainty in non-fossil influences on Δ^{14}C. The measurement uncertainty is presently >0.5 ppm for an individual sample but can be as low as 0.3 ppm for an annual mean, calculated by averaging many samples (Levin and Rödenbeck, 2008). In continental studies, respiration of ^{14}C-enriched carbon from terrestrial ecosystems has been regarded to be the only substantial non-fossil influence on Δ^{14}C (Hsueh et al., 2007; Turnbull et al., 2009). However, by accounting for the location of nuclear point sources, rather than spreading the emissions homogenously over the northern continents as in Turnbull et al. (2009), our results suggest that nuclear influences on Δ^{14}C are likely to be larger than those previously estimated (Sect. 5; Turnbull et al., 2009).

Our work suggests that the potential bias in $\delta C_{\rm ff}$ caused by nuclear ^{14}C releases may be as large or larger than the potential bias caused by exchanges with the terrestrial biosphere over some areas. Turnbull et al. (2009) simulated biases caused by respiration in recent years to be -0.2 ppm above northern continents, on average, and as large as -1 ppm,

consistent with model results of $\Delta^{14}C$ enrichment of 0–2 ‰ above North America by Hsueh et al. (2007). Our simulated potential biases are more than −0.25 ppm over large regions, and up to several ppm near to nuclear sites. Additionally, β_{nuc} tends to show stronger gradients than those resulting from relatively homogeneous biospheric sources (Turnbull et al., 2009). Together, nuclear and respiratory influences on $\Delta^{14}C$ likely cause potential negative biases in δC_{ff} larger than 0.5 ppm over large regions of the Northern Hemisphere, similar to uncertainty contributed by measurement precision.

The broad, continental-scale patterns we simulated using an Eulerian transport modeling approach are caused by the aggregate influence on $\Delta^{14}C$ from all nuclear sites in the region, which cannot be accounted for by dispersion modeling of nearby reactors only. Our results show that the comparison of observed $\Delta^{14}C$ to a reference site >100–200 km away may therefore include a substantial continental-scale effect, in addition to any local-scale effects from nearby reactors. Observational studies at finer (urban) scales may be effective in reducing the continental-scale β_{nuc}, however, by using local observation sites to define background air composition, particularly in areas that are far from nuclear sources.

While our objective was not to resolve local-scale dispersion and transport, simulated continental-scale β_{nuc} is still highly dependent on model resolution such that stronger gradients exist within the 100–200 km grid used in the rather coarse TM3 simulations. Higher resolution regional models are likely to provide better estimates of continental-scale β_{nuc} at particular sites. Higher resolution models may also represent transport to high altitude sites more accurately. Our results are also sensitive to errors in model transport, particularly in the vertical transport out of the boundary layer, though TM3 shows realistic vertical profiles of CO_2 on an annual mean basis (Stephens et al., 2007).

The simulated $\Delta^{14}C$ gradients include substantial uncertainties due to the large uncertainty associated with estimated ^{14}C emissions. The observed variability in emission factors (Fig. 1) suggests that β_{nuc} could be much stronger (+300 %) or weaker (−60 %) in magnitude (Fig. 3). Moreover, ^{14}C emissions can vary strongly between different reactors or years (Fig. 1; Sect. 2.1) and can occur in discrete periods when the reactor effluent is vented to the atmosphere.

In the coming decades, nuclear ^{14}C release is likely to grow in Asia and decline in Europe. 58 nuclear power reactors are currently under construction in Asia, with the largest share (23) in China. Nearly all the reactors will be of the Pressurized Water Reactor type that has the lowest emission factor. However, a high density of low-^{14}C release reactors caused simulated biases of up to −1.5 ppm in Germany (Fig. 2e). At the same time, several reactors are being shut down due to age, including high-^{14}C release Magnox-type gas-cooled reactors in the UK, or due to the nuclear accident at Fukushima Daiichi Nuclear Power Plant in Japan in March 2011. More than half of Japan's nuclear reactors were immediately shut down for at least several months after the accident, while Germany immediately shut down several older reactors and pledged to phase out all nuclear reactors within a decade. Several other countries delayed or canceled plans to build new reactors and the fuel reprocessing site at Sellafield, UK was shut down.

Whether ^{14}C releases grow or decline, trends in β_{nuc} can bias the apparent change in δC_{ff} over time and complicate the use of atmospheric $\Delta^{14}C$ to identify growth or reduction in CO_2 emissions. Trends in β_{nuc} caused potential biases of 2–7 % in δC_{ff} trends in our simulations, comparable to the emissions reductions agreed upon in the Kyoto Protocol.

Our results suggest that the influence of nuclear activities on atmospheric $\Delta^{14}C$ must be correctly accounted for in large regions of North America, Europe and Asia to estimate δC_{ff} accurately using observations of $\Delta^{14}C$ in CO_2. High resolution ^{14}C release data from each nuclear reactor site would improve estimates of $\Delta^{14}C$ enrichment by transport modeling. Alternatively, measures to reduce or eliminate ^{14}C release would improve accuracy in observation-based estimates of δC_{ff}, though such measures would cause temporal changes to β_{nuc} that would influence apparent trends in δC_{ff}.

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