

1 Springtime transitions of NO₂, CO, and O₃ over North America: Model
2 evaluation and analysis
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7 Yunsoo Choi^{1,2}, Yuhang Wang¹, Tao Zeng¹, Derek Cunnold¹, Eun-Su Yang¹, Randall
8 Martin^{3,4}, and Kelly Chance⁴, Valerie Thouret⁵, and Eric Edgerton⁶
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16 Submitted to *J. Geophys. Res.*
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21 November 21, 2007
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27 ¹Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA

28 ²Now at Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, CA

29 ³Dalhousie University, Halifax, NS B3H 3J5 Canada

30 ⁴Harvard-Smithsonian Center for Astrophysics, Cambridge, MA

31 ⁵Laboratoire d'Aerologie du CNRS, Toulouse, France

32 ⁶Atmospheric Research and Analysis, Inc., Durham, NC
33

34 Corresponding author: Yuhang Wang, School of Earth and Atmospheric Sciences,
35 Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA 30332-0340. (Email:
36 ywang@eas.gatech.edu)
37

1 **Abstract**

2 Surface observations from AIRNow and SEARCH networks, aircraft observations
3 from the MOZAIC program, ozonesondes, and remote sensing measurements from
4 GOME, TOMS and SAGE II for February-May 2000 over North America are used to
5 characterize the springtime transitions of O₃ and its precursors. These measurements
6 provide a comprehensive dataset to evaluate the performance of the 3-D Regional
7 chEmical trAnspOrt Model (REAM). The model is then applied to analyze the key factors
8 affecting the springtime transitions of trace gas concentrations and export. The global
9 GEOS-CHEM model is used to provide chemical initial and boundary conditions.
10 Generally, the model results are in good agreement with the observations in the
11 troposphere except for a low bias of upper tropospheric O₃; the bias decreases towards
12 the summer and lower latitudes. The rate of observed surface O₃ increase in spring is
13 simulated by REAM. It is overestimated by GEOS-CHEM over the eastern United States.
14 A key factor driving the model difference is daytime mixing depth. A shallow boundary
15 layer in REAM leads to more efficient removal of radicals and hence slower activation of
16 photochemistry in spring, when the primary radical source is relatively small.
17 Comparison of top-down estimates of fossil fuel NO_x emissions indicates the dependence
18 of these estimates on model results. The associated uncertainty is up to 20% on a monthly
19 basis. Averaging over a season reduces this uncertainty. While tropospheric column NO₂
20 decreases over the continent, it increases over the western North Atlantic due to lightning
21 NO_x production. Consequently the REAM model simulates significant increases of
22 tropospheric O₃ over the region as indicated by column data derived from TOMS-SAGE
23 II. Lightning impact is also evident in model-simulated NO_x exports.

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1 **1. Introduction**

2 Ozone (O₃), carbon monoxide (CO), and nitrogen oxides (NO_x = NO+NO₂),
3 which are regulated under the National Ambient Air Quality Standards, are among the six
4 criterion pollutants that adversely affect human health and biological ecosystems [NRC,
5 1991]. Ozone is a major precursor of the hydroxyl radical (OH), which plays a key role
6 in oxidation chemistry in the troposphere. It is also a greenhouse gas, particularly in the
7 upper troposphere. NO_x and CO are major O₃ precursors produced during combustion.
8 NO_x is also emitted from soils and lightning, and CO can be produced during the
9 oxidation of anthropogenic and biogenic hydrocarbons.

10 Springtime is a unique period to understand the behaviors of O₃ and its precursors
11 over North America because of the rapid changes in the photochemical and dynamical
12 conditions of the atmosphere. These changes are driven primarily by increasing solar
13 insolation. The solar input energizes photochemical and meteorological processes directly
14 by increasing radical sources through photolysis and the surface sensible and latent heat
15 fluxes, respectively.

16 Meteorological changes are a powerful force that leads to changes in chemical
17 processes. First, increasing water vapor due to warmer temperature increases the primary
18 radical source through OH production from the reaction of O(¹D) and H₂O, which results
19 in more active photochemistry [e.g., Y. Wang et al., 2003a; Kondo et al., 2004]. Second,
20 the abundance of water vapor and surface heating increase convection and lightning
21 [Rind, 1998; Price, 2000], which is a large source of NO_x in the free troposphere [e.g.,
22 Price et al., 1997]. Third, warmer surface temperature and precipitation increase NO_x

1 emissions from soils [e.g., Yienger and Levy II, 1995]. One key atmospheric chemical
2 species affected by all these processes is tropospheric O₃.

3 The Tropospheric Ozone Production about the Spring Equinox (TOPSE)
4 experiment of 2000 was designed to measure tropospheric chemical changes during the
5 spring transition period [Atlas et al., 2003]. The experiment took place from February to
6 May 2000 over North America covering the region from Colorado to north of Thule,
7 Greenland. These measurements were taken over remote regions at mid and high
8 latitudes; in situ photochemistry [e.g., Cantrell et al., 2003; Y. Wang et al., 2003a] and
9 large-scale transport of O₃ and its precursors to the measurement regions [e.g., Emmons
10 et al., 2003; LaMarque and Hess, 2003; Y. Wang et al., 2003b; Allen et al., 2003; Y.
11 Wang et al., 2006] are among the foci of previous TOPSE-related tropospheric chemistry
12 analyses.

13 In this work, we explore the other aspects of tropospheric chemical changes
14 during the spring transition periods, not covered by previous TOPSE-related analyses,
15 using the rich datasets of in situ and satellite measurements available during the same
16 time period over North America. In the process, we evaluate the Regional chEmical
17 trAnsport Model (REAM). Certain aspects of this model have been evaluated in our
18 previous applications of this model to analyze tropospheric chemistry and transport over
19 the polar regions [Zeng *et al.*, 2003, 2006; Y. Wang *et al.*, 2007] and North America
20 [Choi *et al.*, 2005; Jing *et al.*, 2006; Y. Wang *et al.*, 2006; Guillas et al., 2007]. However,
21 those evaluations lacked breadth because of the nature of the previous analyses. This is
22 the first time that the evaluations of REAM model results with an extensive array of the
23 observations are presented. For comparison purposes, selected results from the global

1 GEOS-CHEM model are used to illustrate key factors contributing to the observed
2 features of springtime transitions of chemicals.

3 The springtime chemical changes provide a critical test for the simulation
4 capability of REAM. The quality of the emission inventories strongly affects the model
5 simulations of air quality. Emissions of NO_x, in particular, are important for near-surface
6 O₃ simulations. Satellite observations provide powerful constraints on surface NO_x
7 emissions [e.g., Martin et al., 2003]. We evaluate the model NO_x emission inventory
8 using satellite NO₂ measurements first. We further investigate the springtime transitions
9 of different NO_x sources. Second, we explore the changes of near-surface O₃, CO, and
10 NO_x concentrations during spring. Surface air quality changes are characterized from the
11 observations of two monitoring networks, AIRNow by the U.S. Environmental Protection
12 Agency (EPA) and the Southeastern Aerosol Research and Characterization Study
13 (SEARCH). Third, we study the springtime changes of free-tropospheric O₃ as
14 characterized by in situ measurements from the Measurement of Ozone and Water Vapor
15 by Airbus In-Service Aircraft (MOZAIC) program and ozonesondes, and tropospheric
16 column O₃ derived from the Total Ozone Mapping Spectrometer (TOMS) and the
17 Stratospheric Aerosol and Gas Experiment (SAGE) II. Lastly, using the results of the
18 REAM model, we examine the springtime exports of O₃ and its precursors from North
19 America [e.g., Horowitz *et al.*, 1998; Liang *et al.*, 1998; Park *et al.*, 2004].

20 We first describe the in situ and satellite measurements. The regional REAM and
21 global GEOS-CHEM models are then described. After that, we examine the specific
22 aspects of the springtime transitions of NO_x, CO, and O₃. Conclusions are given in the
23 end. In the appendix, we describe briefly the comparison of REAM simulations to

1 observed column CO by the Measurement of Pollution In The Troposphere (MOPITT)
2 instrument.

3 **2. Measurements**

4 *2.1 In situ measurements*

5 EPA AIRNow network

6 Hourly O₃ concentrations are obtained from the EPA AIRNow data archives. The
7 sites are divided into three categories: urban, suburban, and rural. The 291 rural sites are
8 used since they are more representative of the region than urban sites. The detection limit
9 value for O₃ was 5 ppbv. We focus on the afternoon (1300 to 1700 LT) when surface
10 observations are more representative because of strong turbulent mixing in the planetary
11 boundary layer (PBL). The CO and NO_x measurements are not used because of their
12 high method detection limits of 0.5 ppmv for CO and 5 ppbv for NO_x (Jake Summers,
13 Personal Comm., 2004). Rural CO and NO_x measurements are usually below the
14 detection limit values (reported as one-half the detection limit).

15 SEARCH network

16 Hourly O₃, NO, and CO are measured at eight SEARCH sites: Yorkville in
17 Georgia (YRK, rural), Jefferson Street in Atlanta, Georgia (JST, urban), Centreville in
18 Alabama (CTR, rural), Birmingham in Alabama (BHM, urban), Gulfport in Mississippi
19 (GFP, urban), Oak Grove in Mississippi (OAK, rural), Outlying Landing Field #8 in
20 Florida (OLF, suburban), and Pensacola in Florida (PNS, urban). For our analysis, we use
21 observations from the following rural and suburban sites: YRK (85° W, 34° N), CTR
22 (87° W, 33° N), OAK (89° W, 32° N), and OLF (87° W, 30° N). The detection limits of
23 O₃, NO, and CO are 1 ppbv, 50 pptv, and 10 ppbv, respectively.

1 MOZAIC Program

2 The MOZAIC program was designed to automatically collect O₃ and water vapor
3 data on five commercial Airbus A340 aircraft [Marenco *et al.*, 1998]. For recent updates,
4 see <http://www.aero.obs-mip.fr/mozaic/>. For the ascent and descent portions of the
5 flights, MOZAIC raw data (4-sec time resolution) are averaged over 150-m height
6 intervals. The MOZAIC analyzer is the dual-beam UV absorption Model 49-103 from
7 Thermo Environment Instruments [Thouret *et al.*, 1998]. The instruments are laboratory-
8 calibrated before and after flight periods and laboratory re-calibrated every 12 to 18
9 months. During flight operation, the instrument is automatically checked for zero and the
10 calibration factor using a built-in O₃ generator.

11 Ozonesondes

12 We use ozonesonde data from six mid-latitude stations located between 35° and
13 53°N: Goose Bay (53°N, 50°W), Richland (46°N, 119°W), Trinidad Head (41°N,
14 124°W), Boulder (40°N, 105°W), Wallops Island (38°N, 75°W), and Huntsville (35°N,
15 87°W). The electrochemical concentration cell (ECC) sensor is typically used and the
16 accuracy is about ±6% on the ground and -7% to 17% in the middle and upper
17 troposphere [Komhyr *et al.*, 1995].

18 *2.2 Satellite measurements*

19 Tropospheric NO₂ vertical column from GOME

20 The GOME instrument is on board the European Remote Sensing-2 (ERS-2)
21 satellite that passes over the equator at 1030 AM local time (LT), and its typical
22 horizontal resolution is 40 km (along track) by 320 km (cross track). The retrieval
23 algorithm and air mass factor calculation are described in detail by Chance *et al.* [2000]

1 and Martin *et al.* [2002]. First, the NO₂ slant column is determined by fitting directly
2 backscattered radiance spectra measured by GOME. Then the stratospheric column
3 determined from the NO₂ column over the central Pacific [Martin *et al.*, 2002] is
4 subtracted from the total column. Finally, the subtracted columns are converted to
5 vertical columns using air mass factors, which are an integral of the product of the shape
6 factor from model-calculated vertical profiles and the sensitivity of backscattered
7 radiance to NO₂. The radiance perturbation due to the change of NO₂ is calculated from
8 the Linearized Discrete Ordinate Radiative Transfer (LIDORT) model [Spurr *et al.*,
9 2001], which considers multiple scattering in the atmosphere. Data of cloud optical
10 depth and fraction are from GOME [Kurosu *et al.*, 1999]. The monthly mean fields of
11 aerosol mass concentrations are taken from the Global Ozone Chemistry Aerosol
12 Radiation and Transport (GOCART) model [Chin, 2002], which simulates 3-D
13 distributions of sulfate, mineral dust, sea salt, black carbon, and organic carbon. We do
14 not use GOME measurements when cloud cover is >40% [Martin *et al.*, 2002]. The
15 retrieval uncertainties are mostly due to spectral fitting, spectral artifacts related to the
16 diffuser plate, removal of the stratospheric column, and air mass factor calculations
17 [Martin *et al.*, 2002; Choi *et al.*, 2005]. The uncertainties are generally $0.6-1.2 \times 10^{15}$
18 molecules cm⁻² over the ocean and $1.0-3.5 \times 10^{15}$ molecules cm⁻² over the continent.

19 Tropospheric O₃ column from TOMS and SAGE II

20 TOMS on board the Earth Probe satellite that crosses the equator at 1116 AM
21 local time measures incident solar radiation and backscattered ultraviolet sunlight. Total
22 atmospheric O₃ columns have a horizontal resolution of 39×39 km² with a measurement
23 uncertainty of about 5%. SAGE II on board the Earth Radiation Budget Satellite (ERBS)

1 measured the Earth limb extinction via the solar occultation technique during each
2 spacecraft sunrise and sunset. The horizontal and vertical resolutions of SAGE are about
3 $30 \times 250 \text{ km}^2$ and 1 km, respectively. Scatter-plots of SAGE II (retrieval version 6.2) O_3
4 versus potential vorticity (PV) on isentropic surfaces are used to produce the O_3 profiles
5 in the stratosphere [Jing *et al.*, 2004], which are coincident in latitude, longitude, and
6 time with TOMS (version 8) total column O_3 measurements. When the TOMS data
7 indicate a reflectivity $< 20\%$, tropospheric O_3 columns are inferred by subtracting the
8 SAGE II-based stratospheric from the TOMS columns. The PV values are obtained from
9 the NCEP reanalysis data set, and a value of 3.5 PV units is used to define the location of
10 the tropopause.

11 By comparisons with the ozonesonde measurements, two previous studies [H-J.
12 Wang *et al.*, 2002, 2006] indicate that SAGE O_3 has an accuracy of 10% or better down
13 to the tropopause and that the SAGE data are 5% higher than the ozonesonde values at 15
14 -20 km. The PV-mapped SAGE O_3 column estimates between 340 and 800 K isentropic
15 surfaces (~ 10 -30 km) have a 4% error, compared to the ozonesonde observations at 30-
16 60° N. Considering that 90% of total column O_3 resides in the stratosphere, the
17 uncertainty of the derived tropospheric column O_3 is $\sim 40\%$. The uncertainty is expected
18 to decrease when tropospheric columns are averaged over a period of a month. In our
19 analysis, we focus more on the qualitative aspects of model results in comparison to
20 TOMS-SAGE II tropospheric O_3 columns.

21 **3. Model Descriptions**

22 In this work, REAM has a horizontal resolution of 70 km with 23 vertical layers
23 reaching 10 hPa, 20 of which are below 100 hPa. The National Center for Atmospheric

1 Research/Penn State MM5 is used to simulate meteorological fields using four-
2 dimensional data assimilation (FDDA) [Stauffer *et al.*, 1991] based on the National
3 Center for Environmental Prediction reanalysis, surface, and rawinsonde observations.
4 Most of the meteorological variables are archived every 30 minutes, except those for
5 convection and lightning which are archived every 2.5 minutes because of the highly
6 variable nature of these processes. The horizontal domain of MM5 has five extra grids on
7 each side of the REAM domain to minimize potential transport anomalies near the
8 boundary. We use the ETA Mellor-Yamada-Janjic (MYJ) 2.5-order closure scheme
9 [Black, 1994] for turbulence calculations. Regional simulations are spun up in the last
10 week of January 2000.

11 The photochemical, dry, and wet deposition modules of REAM are adopted from
12 the GEOS-CHEM model [Bey *et al.*, 2001]. The altitude-dependent cloud optical depth is
13 calculated using MM5 liquid water content [Stephens *et al.*, 1978]. The UV surface
14 albedo distribution, for photolysis rate calculations, is obtained from TOMS observations
15 [Herman and Celarier, 1997]. The transport scheme is from Walcek [2000]. The
16 convective scheme by Grell [1993] is implemented to be consistent with the
17 meteorological model; sub-grid scale updraft and downdraft processes and large-scale
18 subsidence are considered. The top and bottom layers of shallow convection are
19 determined by MM5 simulations; the cloud fraction is determined using the scheme
20 described by Geleyn [1981].

21 Emission inventories for combustion and industrial sources are taken from GEOS-
22 CHEM [Bey *et al.*, 2001], except the fossil fuel NO_x and CO emission inventories over
23 the United States, which are taken from the 1999 US Environmental Protection Agency

1 National Emission Inventory. These values are scaled with the national total emissions of
2 2000 [EPA, 2003]. Emission algorithms for vegetation and soils are adopted from GEOS-
3 CHEM, although meteorological inputs are from MM5. Parameterizations of NO_x from
4 lightning as functions of convective mass flux and convective available potential energy
5 are the same as described by Choi et al. [2005].

6 Spring 2000 GEOS-CHEM model simulations provide initial and boundary
7 conditions for trace gases. GEOS-CHEM (version 7.2) is driven by GEOS assimilated
8 meteorological fields (GEOS-3) for 2000. The horizontal resolution of GEOS-CHEM is
9 2° latitude by 2.5° longitude. Detailed algorithms for photochemistry, dry and wet
10 deposition, and emissions, many of which are adopted in REAM as discussed above, are
11 described by Bey *et al.* [2001]. Algorithms of NO_x emissions from lightning based on
12 cloud top height by Price and Rind [1994] and from soils by Yienger and Levy [1995]
13 were adapted by Wang et al. [1998].

14 **4. Surface emissions of fossil fuel NO_x**

15 *4.1 Dependence of GOME NO₂ retrievals on the a priori profiles*

16 GOME NO₂ measurements provide useful constraints on surface NO_x emissions
17 [e.g., Martin et al., 2003]. The retrieval process is described in Section 2.2. To obtain the
18 tropospheric vertical columns, model profiles of NO₂ are used to calculate the air mass
19 factor. As a result, some model dependence of the retrieval is therefore convoluted in the
20 retrieved vertical columns. As will be discussed in the next section, REAM and GEOS-
21 CHEM models simulate different vertical profiles of tropospheric NO₂ (to be shown in
22 Figure 6). We therefore compute the air mass factors separately from these two model
23 results as a way of examining the sensitivity of GOME retrievals to the simulated NO₂

1 vertical profiles. Figure 1 shows good agreement between GOME NO₂ column retrievals
2 using the REAM and GEOS-CHEM profiles between February and May 2000. The
3 correlation coefficient is > 0.99. The monthly mean NO₂ columns of the retrievals using
4 REAM profiles are higher by 6.1, 12.0, 5.5, and 0.4% from February to May than those
5 using GEOS-CHEM profiles. Generally, a value of 15% is estimated as the NO₂-profile
6 associated retrieval uncertainty [Martin *et al.*, 2002], which encompasses the range of
7 model derived difference found here.

8 *4.2 Characterizations of tropospheric column NO₂*

9 GOME derived tropospheric NO₂ columns in Figure 1 shows a decreasing trend
10 over the continental region, particularly over high emissions regions in the Northeast and
11 Midwest of the United States. In contrast, there is a clear increasing trend over the
12 western North Atlantic. Comparing the two model simulations to the retrieved column
13 NO₂, the mean biases are within 11%, and the correlations are high (R>0.85). Over the
14 continent, the two models show similar trends as observed. The decreasing trend
15 simulated in the model is driven by more active photochemistry as spring progresses
16 towards summer. As a result, more NO₂ is removed by the reaction of OH and NO₂. Due
17 to its coarse spatial resolution, the GEOS-CHEM model fails to capture high NO₂
18 columns ($>5 \times 10^{15}$ molecules cm⁻²) in California, which are shown in REAM results. In
19 April and May, both models slightly underestimate NO₂ columns in the western United
20 States probably due to underestimated soil NO_x emissions [e.g., Martin *et al.*, 2003;
21 Bertram *et al.*, 2005]. While REAM tends to slightly overestimate GOME NO₂ columns
22 in May partly due to larger lightning NO_x productions, GEOS-CHEM tends to
23 underestimate.

1 The large increase of column NO₂ over the western North Atlantic, despite
2 increasing photochemical removal as the season progresses is captured by REAM. In
3 comparison, no significant changes are shown in GEOS-CHEM simulations, leading to
4 underestimates of column NO₂ in the region. We discuss the contributions of several
5 factors to tropospheric column NO₂ in the next section.

6 *4.3 Contributions of lightning, soil emissions, and convection to column NO₂*

7 We compute the contributions of lightning production, convective transport, and
8 soil emissions in the model by comparing the standard REAM simulation against
9 simulations with one of these processes turned off. Figure 2 shows monthly mean column
10 differences between the standard and sensitivity simulations. In February and March,
11 lightning NO₂ enhancements are typically $<3.0 \times 10^{14}$ molecules cm⁻², but in April and
12 May, they increase to $0.5\text{-}2.0 \times 10^{15}$ molecules cm⁻² over the southern United States, the
13 Gulf of Mexico, and the western North Atlantic. Typical monthly mean uncertainties for
14 GOME retrievals are $2\text{-}9 \times 10^{14}$ molecules cm⁻² over ocean, which is 20%-70% of typical
15 uncertainties over the continent. Large enhancements from lightning and soil emissions
16 simulated in May are larger than the retrieval errors on a monthly mean basis.

17 The lightning and soil emission contributions over land increase to about 10 and
18 7% of tropospheric column NO₂, respectively, in May. The estimated contribution of
19 lightning is larger than that of soil emissions, except in February. The springtime increase
20 of tropospheric column NO₂ over the western North Atlantic is driven by lightning NO_x
21 emissions in the REAM simulations. The increasing trend is not simulated by GEOS-
22 CHEM because the algorithm by Price and Rind [1994] gives very low flash rates over
23 the ocean.

1 4.4 Top-down estimates of fossil fuel NOx emissions

2 Optimized NOx emissions are estimated by combining top-down NOx emission
3 estimates from satellite measurements with a priori bottom-up emissions, weighted by
4 relative errors for the two estimates [Martin *et al.*, 2003]. Both REAM and GEOS-CHEM
5 use the same EPA 1999 NEI inventory for surface fossil fuel NOx emissions in the
6 United States as the a priori.

7 The top-down NOx fossil fuel emission inventory (E_t) is first calculated following
8 Martin *et al.* [2003] by fitting E_t to a priori bottom-up emission E_a with the ratio of the
9 retrieved NO₂ column (Ω_r) to the simulated column (Ω_s):

10
$$E_t = E_a \times \Omega_r / \Omega_s . \quad (1)$$

11 Monthly a posteriori emissions (E) are then calculated by the weighted averages of E_a
12 and E_t [Martin *et al.*, 2003]:

13
$$\ln E = \frac{(\ln E_t)(\ln \varepsilon_a)^2 + (\ln E_a)(\ln \varepsilon_t)^2}{(\ln \varepsilon_a)^2 + (\ln \varepsilon_t)^2} , \quad (2)$$

14 where ε_a and ε_t are the a priori inventory and top-down emission errors, respectively.

15 Table 1 shows the monthly a priori, top-down, and a posteriori emissions derived
16 using REAM and GEOS-CHEM results, respectively. The a priori emissions from
17 REAM and GEOS-CHEM are almost the same, but the top-down estimates sometimes
18 differ significantly. The top-down emissions derived by REAM are larger by 3% to 16%
19 than those of GEOS-CHEM between February and April, and are smaller by 20% than
20 GEOS-CHEM in May. Two sources contribute the variations in the top-down estimates.
21 One is due to the difference in model simulated vertical profiles of NO₂ and hence the
22 calculated air mass factors discussed in section 4.1. The other is the difference in model

1 simulated emission-column relationship used in Equation (1). For comparison, the
2 standard deviation of monthly averages from the 4-month average is 16-19% in the each
3 model, comparable to the difference between the two model estimates for each month.
4 Therefore, time averaging (> 1 month) is needed to derive a more robust top-down
5 estimate. On a seasonal basis, the top-down and a posteriori emissions are almost exactly
6 the same as the a priori.

7 **5. Spring transitions of near-surface air quality**

8 Springtime air quality changes can be characterized by the measurements from
9 the EPA AIRNow monitoring network. To avoid the problems in the reported CO and
10 NO_x measurements from this network (section 2.1), we first make use of the
11 measurements of NO, CO, and O₃ from the SEARCH networks, even though the
12 geographic coverage of the SEARCH dataset is limited.

13 *5.1 Spring trends of NO, CO, and O₃ at SEARCH sites*

14 Inspection of NO, CO, and O₃ concentrations at the four SEARCH rural sites
15 (CTR, OAK, OLF, and YRK, section 2.1) in February-May 2000 reveals that these sites
16 show similar multi-day temporal patterns (not shown), which are driven by synoptic-scale
17 meteorological changes over the region. To illustrate the comparison, we show the results
18 at the OAK site in Figure 3. Hourly NO concentrations vary significantly between day
19 and night because of the shallow boundary layer at night. We show only daily 1-5 pm
20 (LT) values for NO. The temporal variation pattern is not well characterized by NO
21 concentrations even though that periods with elevated NO at all four sites can be found.
22 The model has some capability to capture the NO variations. The multi-day synoptic-

1 scale variations are better characterized by CO and O₃, which have longer chemical
2 lifetimes. These variations are simulated by the model.

3 The correlations coefficients between REAM and SEARCH NO are higher at
4 CTR and OAK sites (0.66 and 0.56, respectively) than OLF and YRK sites (0.40 and
5 0.23, respectively). The lower correlations at the latter two sites reflect the coastal
6 location of the OLF site and the large influence of power plant emissions at the YRK site.
7 The model resolution is too coarse to simulate properly the influence of power plant
8 plumes. The correlation coefficients for CO are in the range of 0.52-0.63 except the YRK
9 site (0.48). Too much influence from CO emissions in Atlanta is simulated in the model
10 because the proximity of Yorkville to Atlanta (60 km). The correlation coefficients for O₃
11 are in the range of 0.65-0.69.

12 The seasonal transitions of NO, CO, and O₃ are different. Concentrations of NO
13 decrease, reflecting in part the increasing photochemical loss of NO_x. The trend is
14 consistent with GOME measurements (Figure 1). The seasonal decrease of CO is
15 relatively small during spring. Increasing CO loss due to increasing OH oxidation is
16 compensated for by faster CO production from VOC oxidation. Ozone, in comparison,
17 clearly has an increasing trend as photochemistry becomes more active. These trends are
18 simulated well by REAM. We also compared GEOS-CHEM simulations with these
19 surface observations (not shown). One large difference between REAM and GEOS-
20 CHEM is that GEOS-CHEM tends to overestimate surface O₃ concentrations in April and
21 May. We look at this issue using the measurements from the AIRNow network, which
22 has good spatial coverage over the contiguous United States.

23 *5.2 Surface O₃ increase in AIRNow measurements*

1 Monthly mean afternoon (1300-1700, LT) O₃ concentrations measured by the
2 EPA AIRNow surface sites are compared with REAM and the GEOS-CHEM simulations
3 from February to May (Figure 4). High O₃ peaks are captured by REAM to within 10
4 ppbv. The correlation coefficients of the REAM and GEOS-CHEM results with the
5 measurements are in the range of 0.56-0.65 and 0.44-0.68, respectively. The correlations
6 between the GEOS-CHEM and AIRNow observations decrease as the season progresses
7 towards summer while the opposite is true for REAM.

8 As the season progresses towards summer, increasing solar influx and water vapor
9 activates photochemistry [e.g., Y. Wang *et al.*, 2003]. Both REAM and GEOS-CHEM
10 simulate the resulting increase in surface O₃. The rates of photochemical activation and
11 surface O₃ increases are better simulated in REAM than in GEOS-CHEM. The global
12 model simulates higher O₃ concentrations over the eastern United States in April and
13 May than AIRNow observations. Inspections of the model difference between REAM
14 and GEOS-CHEM reveal that a major contributing factor is the differences in the
15 boundary layer mixing depth used in the models.

16 5.3 Daytime mixing depth and surface O₃

17 It was known that mixing depth of the boundary layer affects surface O₃
18 concentrations [e.g., Holzworth, 1964, 1967]. From February to May, both MM5 and
19 GEOS-3 predict increasing boundary layer mixing depth as solar insolation increases
20 (Figure 5). However, MM5 predicted mixing depths (used in REAM) are in general
21 lower than GEOS-3 predictions (used in GOES-CHEM). The difference is particularly
22 large over the eastern United States, where the difference is up to a factor of 2.

1 Unfortunately routine meteorological observations do not provide useful information to
2 evaluate model simulated afternoon mixing depth.

3 The shallower mixing depth in REAM results in stronger boundary layer vertical
4 gradients and higher surface concentrations of CO and NO_x but lower concentrations of
5 O₃ than GEOS-CHEM over the eastern United States (Figure 6). The effect of boundary
6 layer mixing is best demonstrated by CO distributions since its photochemical source is
7 relatively small compared to emissions and its lifetime is long. Below 900 hPa, REAM
8 simulates higher concentrations than GEOS-CHEM. The opposite is true between 700-
9 850 hPa, reflecting more efficient mixing in GEOS-CHEM. From March to May, the
10 REAM-GEOS-CHEM difference of CO near the surface increases, reflecting a faster
11 mixing depth increase in GEOS-CHEM than REAM. Similar characteristics are found for
12 NO_x and O₃. Surface CO and NO_x are larger by ~50 ppbv and ~1 ppbv, respectively, in
13 the REAM results. In contrast, REAM surface O₃ mixing ratios are lower by 5-10 ppbv.
14 REAM simulated increase of NO_x concentrations in the upper troposphere, particularly
15 in May, is due to lightning NO_x production.

16 During spring, the radical source, which is largely driven by photon flux and
17 water vapor [e.g., Y. Wang *et al.*, 2003], is limited. High concentrations of NO_x decrease
18 photochemical activity because of increasing radical loss through the reaction of OH and
19 NO₂. Thus, less active mixing in REAM results in lower surface O₃ production and
20 concentrations than GEOS-CHEM during spring, leading to better agreement with
21 AIRNow surface measurements (Figure 4).

22 **6. Free-tropospheric O₃ in spring**

23 *6.1 In situ O₃ measurements*

1 We first examine in Figure 7a the vertical O₃ profiles from ozonesondes and
2 MOZAIC program during spring. MOZAIC profiles are taken during takeoff and landing
3 from cities including Toronto, New York City, Chicago, Washington DC, Atlanta,
4 Houston, and Dallas. Most of the data are over the eastern United States because the
5 measurements were made on commercial flights between the United States and Europe.
6 Model results are in good agreement with the measurements in the lower and middle
7 troposphere, except for a low bias of 10 ppbv at Wallops Island. The site is located at a
8 baroclinic zone with large O₃ gradients [Thouret *et al.*, 2006], making it more difficult to
9 simulate in the model. The boundary-layer O₃ trend in spring was discussed in section 5.
10 We investigate the seasonal O₃ trend in the free troposphere (400-800 hPa.) in Figure 7b.
11 Ozonesonde and MOZAIC measurements show an increase of ~10 ppbv from February
12 to May. This magnitude of increase is captured well by REAM, although REAM monthly
13 mean mixing ratios are lower than the measurements by ~3 ppbv.

14 In the upper troposphere, however, the REAM model has a clear tendency to
15 underestimate. To illustrate the spatial and temporal distributions, we show in Figure 8 a
16 comparison of MOZAIC measurements with REAM results at 150-250 hPa from
17 February to May. MOZAIC measurements have better data coverage in this region than
18 lower altitudes because it is close to the cruise altitude of aircraft. We filtered out mixing
19 ratios > 200 ppbv in the measurements (and model results) to minimize the effects of
20 extreme values.

21 In general, REAM tends to underestimate O₃ concentration measurements.
22 Thouret *et al.* [2006] found that spring maximum O₃ in the MOZAIC measurements is
23 located in the lower stratosphere, where O₃ concentrations range from 150 to 500 ppbv

1 with a strong vertical gradient near the tropopause region. The upper tropospheric O₃
2 simulations in REAM are strongly affected by the specified upper boundary conditions at
3 100 hPa from GEOS-CHEM, which exhibits difficulties in simulating the sharp O₃
4 gradient across the tropopause [Bey *et al.*, 2001]. REAM results in the upper troposphere
5 improve towards May as tropospheric photochemical production contributes more to
6 upper tropospheric ozone. In the same vein, Figure 7a shows that model low bias
7 improves significantly as we move towards the lower-latitude sites or cities, where
8 photochemical production of ozone is more active.

9 *6.2 TOMS-SAGE II tropospheric column O₃*

10 Ozonesonde and MOZIAC data do not provide enough coverage to allow
11 examination of the spatial distribution of the spring increase of tropospheric ozone. We
12 use the tropospheric column O₃ derived from TOMS and SAGE II measurements (section
13 2.2) here to qualitatively examine the seasonal transition in tropospheric O₃ columns.
14 Figure 9 compares TOMS-SAGE II tropospheric O₃ column with REAM and GEOS-
15 CHEM results from February to May 2000. The satellite products and the models show a
16 springtime increase in tropospheric O₃ over North America, even though the absolute
17 amounts of column O₃ derived from TOMS and SAGE II do not agree well with either
18 model. High O₃ columns are clearly shown over the western North Atlantic in the
19 satellite-derived columns, particularly in May. REAM produces significant enhancements
20 over the region while GEOS-CHEM does not. A sensitivity REAM simulation without
21 lightning NO production exhibits much weaker enhancements, suggesting that lightning
22 NO production is a large contributor to O₃ enhancements over the western North Atlantic.
23 While simulated lightning NO_x enhancements cover a broad region (Figure 1), the

1 resulting O₃ enhancements are mainly in the southern region, where solar insolation is
2 large and photochemistry is active.

3 **7. Pollutant import and export**

4 *7.1 Vertical profiles of pollutant fluxes*

5 Fluxes of NO_x, NO_y, CO, and O₃ imported to and exported from the troposphere
6 over North America are estimated using REAM. Fluxes through the western and eastern
7 boundaries are a factor of 18 larger than through the north and south boundaries. Here,
8 we focus on longitudinal fluxes. Figure 10 shows the vertical profiles of longitudinal
9 import and export fluxes of these pollutants. While the export (in the eastern boundary)
10 of CO decrease, exports of NO_x and NO_y show increases. The large increase of NO_x in
11 the upper troposphere is driven primarily by lightning NO_x production. For example,
12 simulated NO_x export fluxes at 12 km increase from 1.8×10^7 moles day⁻¹ to 4×10^7 moles
13 day⁻¹ from February to May. Sensitivity studies (not shown) indicate that lightning
14 production enhances NO_x and NO_y exports in the upper troposphere (8-12 km) by 250%
15 and 66%, respectively, in May. Lightning NO_x is oxidized to longer lived NO_y species,
16 which have longer lifetimes. Therefore the vertical gradient of NO_y export is much less
17 that of NO_x. The decrease of CO export is associated in part with much longer lifetimes
18 of CO during winter, allowing for the accumulation of CO at mid and high latitudes. As
19 oxidation becomes more active spring, tropospheric CO concentrations begin to decrease;
20 both export and import fluxes decrease. Ozone export in the upper troposphere is due
21 mainly to transport from the stratosphere over North America in the model.

22 For comparison with previous studies, we use that by Park *et al.* [2004] (hereafter
23 referred to as PK04) because of the large number of flux values provided. Import fluxes

1 of NO_x and NO_y in this study are similar to those from PK04. However, the peak NO_x
2 and NO_y exports in May in this study are larger than that from PK04 by a factor of 5 and
3 38%, respectively. In PK04, less CO was exported than imported above 7 km in June;
4 they suggested that the net import of CO is due to a stronger jet stream over the Pacific
5 than over the Atlantic. A similar feature is also found in May in this study. PK04 shows
6 that less O₃ is exported than imported above 9 km in June. By comparison, we find that
7 O₃ export fluxes are similar to the import fluxes in the upper troposphere in May, likely
8 due to higher lightning NO_x production in this study.

9 *7.2 Import/export fluxes in the boundary layer and export efficiencies for NO_x and NO_y*

10 We chose 2.5 km as the top of the boundary layer as in PK04. Table 2 lists the
11 import and export fluxes. For NO_x and NO_y, export fluxes are larger by a factor of > 10
12 than import fluxes. The net export is driven mainly by fossil fuel sources. The imports of
13 O₃ and CO show consistent decreasing trends. Decreasing photochemical lifetimes of
14 these species and weakening westerlies from spring to summer reduce the effects of long-
15 range transport. The exports of O₃ and CO also decrease from February to April. In May,
16 the export of both gases increase because of more active convection in REAM, leading to
17 efficient export into the free troposphere. The net exports estimated in REAM for May
18 are similar to the June estimates by PK04 for NO_x, NO_y, and CO. The export of O₃ in
19 REAM (for May) is lower than PK04 (for June). The reasons are likely two-fold. First,
20 photochemical production is more active in June than in May. Secondly, PK04 used
21 meteorological fields from GEOS-3 Stretched Grid Data Assimilation System (SG-DAS)
22 [Fox-Rabinovitz *et al.*, 2002], which may also have deeper mixing depths than MM5

1 simulations used in REAM, resulting in higher O₃ concentrations near the surface, as in
2 the case of GEOS-CHEM (section 5.2).

3 North American NO_x emissions (20-62°N) are ~1.47 Gmol day⁻¹. About 1.4%,
4 0.7%, 0.6%, and 0.7% of the emission are exported as NO_x, and 20%, 12%, 12%, and
5 14% are exported as NO_y from the boundary layer from February to May, respectively.
6 The export efficiency of NO_x decreases as photochemical oxidations becomes more
7 active during spring. However, more active convection towards May increases the export
8 efficiency. As a result, the simulated export efficiencies do not change much from March
9 to May. REAM estimated NO_x export efficiency in May is comparable to that of PK04
10 (0.6%), but the efficiency for NO_y is twice as large as that of PK04 (7%), suggesting that
11 there may be a large difference between the two models in reactive nitrogen speciation.

12 **5. Conclusions**

13 The spring transitions of O₃, NO_x, and CO were characterized based on surface,
14 ozonesonde, aircraft, and satellite measurements over North America from February to
15 May 2000, when rapid photochemical and dynamical changes occur. These observed
16 seasonal changes provide a good testbed to evaluate REAM simulations. The GEOS-
17 CHEM model is used to provide chemical initial and boundary conditions. For
18 illustrations of the effects of key parameters on model simulations, GEOS-CHEM
19 simulations are also used for targeted comparisons with REAM results. The REAM
20 results are generally in good agreement with observations in the troposphere. An
21 exception is the low bias of simulated O₃ concentrations above 350 hPa because the
22 specified upper boundary condition for O₃ (at 100 hPa) is also biased low. The low bias

1 improves towards the summer and towards lower latitudes as tropospheric photochemical
2 production becomes more dominant.

3 Fossil fuel NO_x emission inventory is evaluated with GOME measurements. Both
4 REAM and GEOS-CHEM products are used in order to test the model dependence of the
5 top-down emission estimates. The monthly top-down estimates differ between the two
6 models for two reasons. First, the different NO₂ profiles lead to 0-12% difference in
7 monthly air mass factors. Second, model differences lead to a different relationship
8 between surface emissions and column NO₂. The resulting monthly top-down emission
9 difference between the two models is 3-20%, in the range of the standard deviation of
10 monthly emission estimates (16-19%) for each model. These differences are averaged out
11 during the 4-month period, leading to close agreement between a priori and top-down
12 emission estimates.

13 Measurements of tropospheric NO_x and O₃ show clear seasonal changes and
14 these changes are captured by REAM simulations. Over the continent, surface NO_x and
15 tropospheric column NO₂ decrease despite increasing lightning and soil emissions. Loss
16 by photochemical oxidation of NO_x is larger than the source increase. In contrast,
17 tropospheric column NO₂ increases over the western North Atlantic. The increasing trend
18 appears to be due to lightning NO emissions based on REAM results. Monthly mean
19 lightning enhancements are $0.5-2 \times 10^{15}$ and $0.5-1.0 \times 10^{15}$ molecules cm⁻² over the
20 continent and western Atlantic, respectively. Some NO_x enhancements in May due to
21 lightning and soil emissions are larger than GOME retrieval uncertainties, suggesting that
22 satellite measurements may be used to constrain these emissions.

1 Surface O₃ over North America increases during spring as photochemistry
2 activates. REAM performs well in simulating the multi-day variations and seasonal
3 transition. In comparison, the rate of surface O₃ increase over the eastern United States in
4 GEOS-CHEM is larger than in REAM (or AIRNow surface observations). A key factor
5 driving the model difference is daytime mixing depth, which is much lower in REAM
6 (simulated by MM5) than it is in GEOS-CHEM (simulated by GEOS-3). With limited
7 supplies of radicals in the springtime, a larger daytime mixing depth in GEOS-CHEM
8 results in faster photochemical activation because radical loss by the reaction of OH and
9 NO₂ is less.

10 In the free troposphere (400-800 hPa), ozonesonde and MOZAIC measurements
11 show an increase of ~10 ppbv of O₃ from February to May. This increase is well
12 simulated by REAM. Tropospheric O₃ columns derived from TOMS-SAGE II indicate
13 significant increase over the western North Atlantic. Qualitative agreement is found in
14 REAM results, although the simulated magnitudes are lower. Lightning NO_x production
15 is found to be the main contributor to the increase of column O₃ over the western North
16 Atlantic.

17 REAM model simulations are applied to investigate the pollutant imports and
18 exports during spring. Lightning NO_x production is a major contributor to the seasonal
19 increase in the exports of NO_x and NO_y from North America in the upper troposphere.
20 Simulated NO_x export fluxes at 12 km increase by more than a factor of 2 from February
21 to May (1.8 to 4×10⁷ moles day⁻¹). In May, lightning production enhances NO_x and NO_y
22 exports in the upper troposphere (8-12 km) by 252% and 66%, respectively. In the
23 boundary layer, the import fluxes of O₃ and CO consistently decrease, reflecting a

1 decrease of long-range transport from spring to summer. The export fluxes of O₃, CO,
2 and NO_x from the boundary layer do not exhibit large changes from March to May. The
3 export efficiencies of NO_x and NO_y from the boundary layer are 0.6-0.7% and 12-14%,
4 respectively.

5
6 **Acknowledgements.** We thank Daniel Jacob and Robert Yantosca for providing GEOS-
7 CHEM model and data, Mian Chin for providing aerosol optical depth data, Dale Allen
8 and Louisa Emmons for helping us analyze MOPITT CO and ozonesonde data, and
9 Kenneth Cummins for providing the NLDN effective detection efficiency. The GEOS-
10 CHEM model is managed at Harvard University with support from the NASA
11 Atmospheric Chemistry Modeling and Analysis Program. This work was supported by
12 the National Science Foundation Atmospheric Chemistry Program.

13
14 **Appendix.** The MOPITT instrument on board the NASA Terra satellite is capable of
15 globally CO monitoring through observations in the thermal band around 4.6 μm. The
16 satellite passes over the equator at around 1045 AM and 2245 PM local time, and the
17 horizontal resolution of MOPITT is 22×22 km². During March 2000, the first month
18 when MOPITT data were collected, large amounts of data are missing due to calibrations.
19 We compared REAM results to MOPITT for April and May 2000 (not shown). After
20 processing the model results with the MOPITT averaging kernel [Deeter *et al.*, 2003] and
21 considering only the measurements with a priori portion < 60%, we found that the
22 correlation coefficients between simulated and MOPITT monthly mean CO columns are
23 ~0.9 and that the monthly mean bias is ~1%.

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- 45

1 **Table 1.** Monthly North America (20 - 62°N) fossil fuel NO_x emissions (Tg N month⁻¹)

	REAM derived			GEOS-CHEM derived		
	A priori	Top-down	A posteriori	A priori	Top-down	A posteriori
February	0.57	0.49	0.52	0.55	0.41	0.47
March	0.61	0.76	0.69	0.61	0.66	0.64
April	0.59	0.66	0.63	0.58	0.64	0.61
May	0.61	0.59	0.60	0.60	0.71	0.66
Average	0.60	0.63	0.61	0.59	0.61	0.60

2

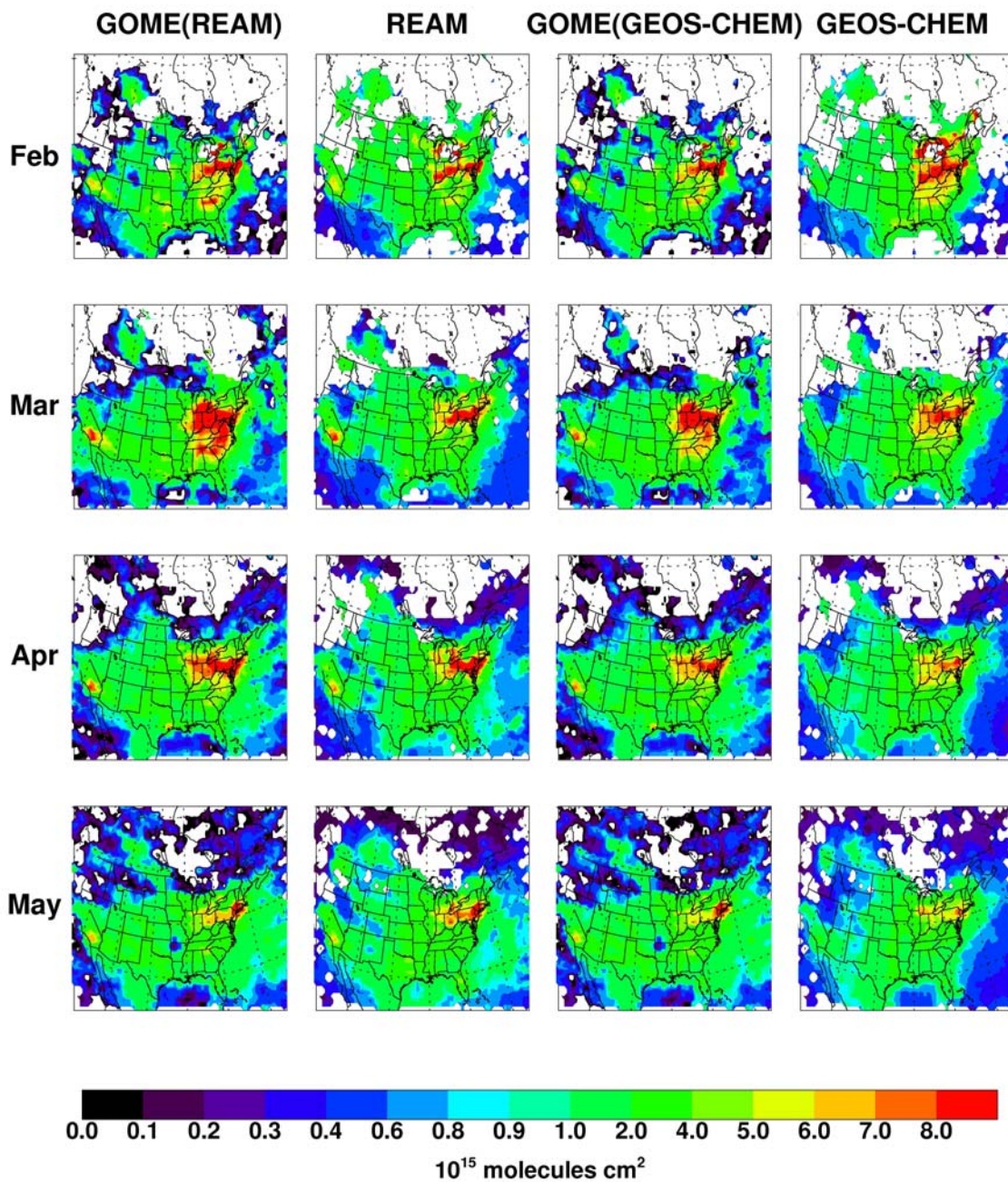
3

4 **Table 2.** Import and export fluxes of pollutants in the boundary layer (<2.5 km) over
5 North America (20 – 62°N, Gmol day⁻¹)

6

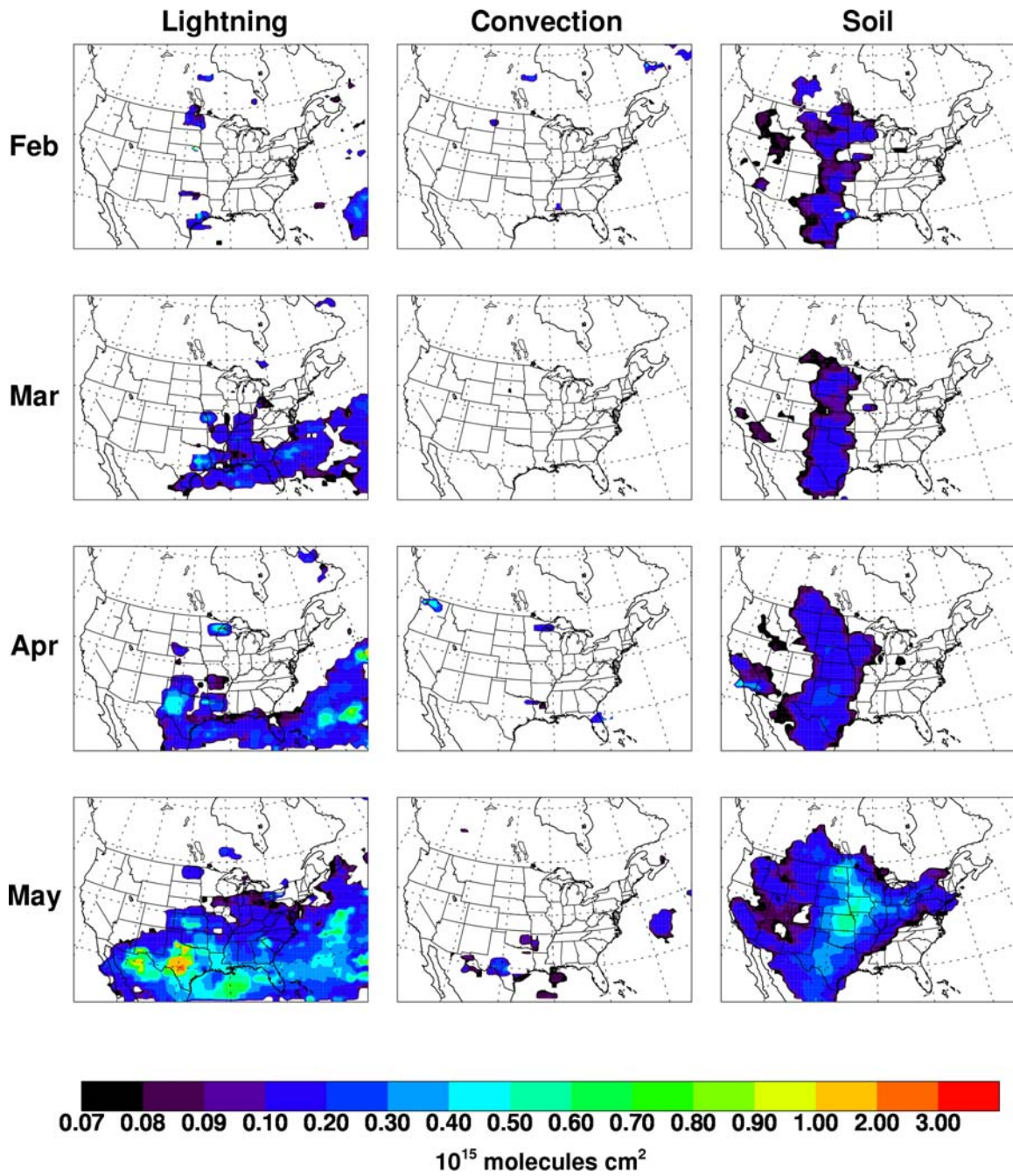
	Import fluxes				Export fluxes			
	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Feb	Mar	Apr	May
NO _x	< 10 ⁻⁴	< 10 ⁻⁴	< 10 ⁻⁴	< 10 ⁻⁴	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01
NO _y	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.31	0.20	0.19	0.21
CO	18	17	13	9	33	19	14	16
O ₃	5.2	4.5	3.8	2.5	8.2	5.2	4.2	5.3

7



1

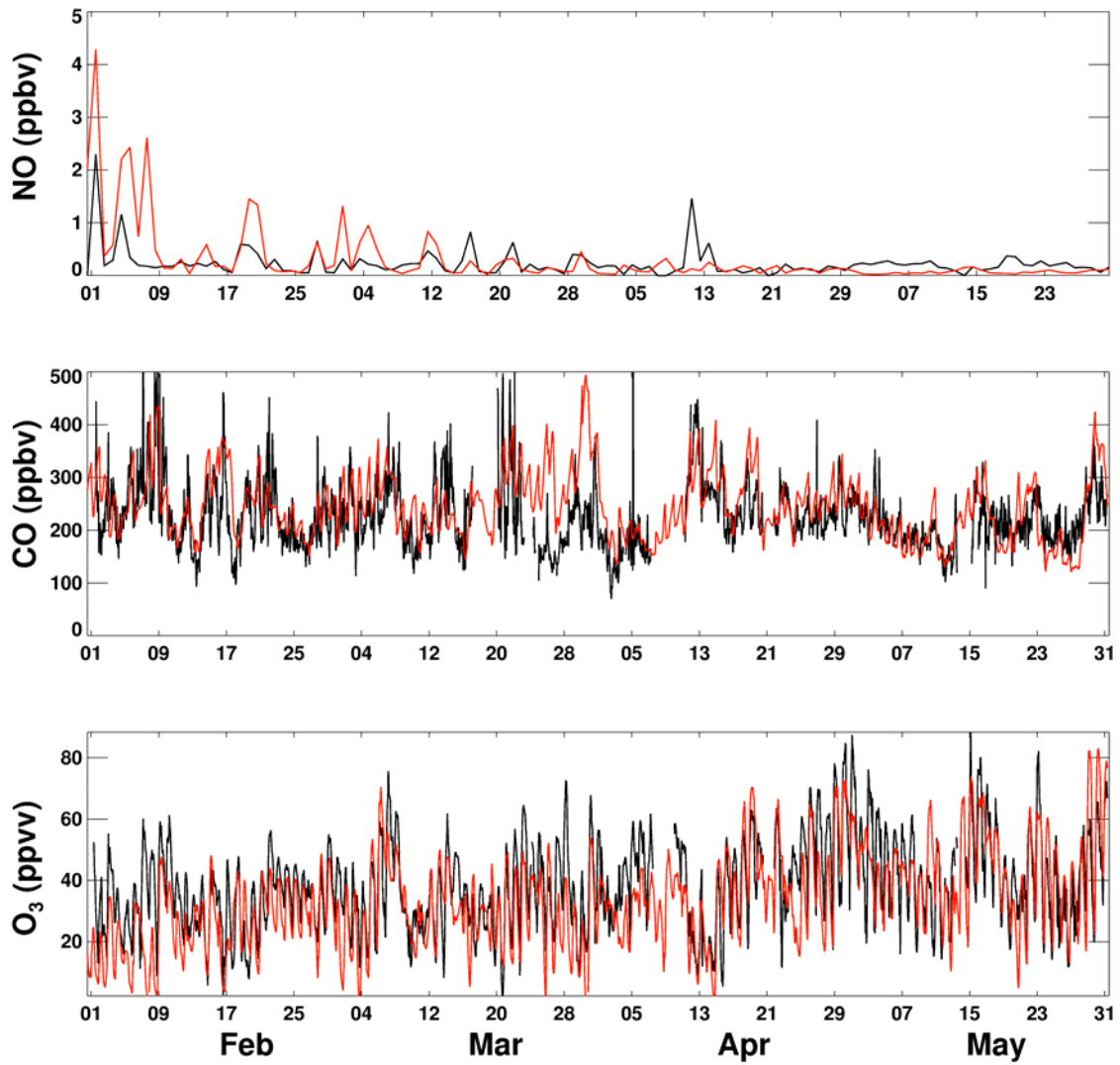
2 **Figure 1.** Monthly mean tropospheric NO₂ vertical columns during February-May 2000
 3 from GOME retrievals using the REAM-derived shape factor (first column), the REAM
 4 model (second column), GOME retrievals using the GEOS-CHEM-derived shape factor
 5 (third column), and the GEOS-CHEM model (last column). Only measurements with
 6 cloud fraction ≤ 40% are used. The text provides the description of retrieval process. The
 7 model results are obtained by averaging NO₂ data during the satellite overpass time
 8 period (1000-1100, LT).



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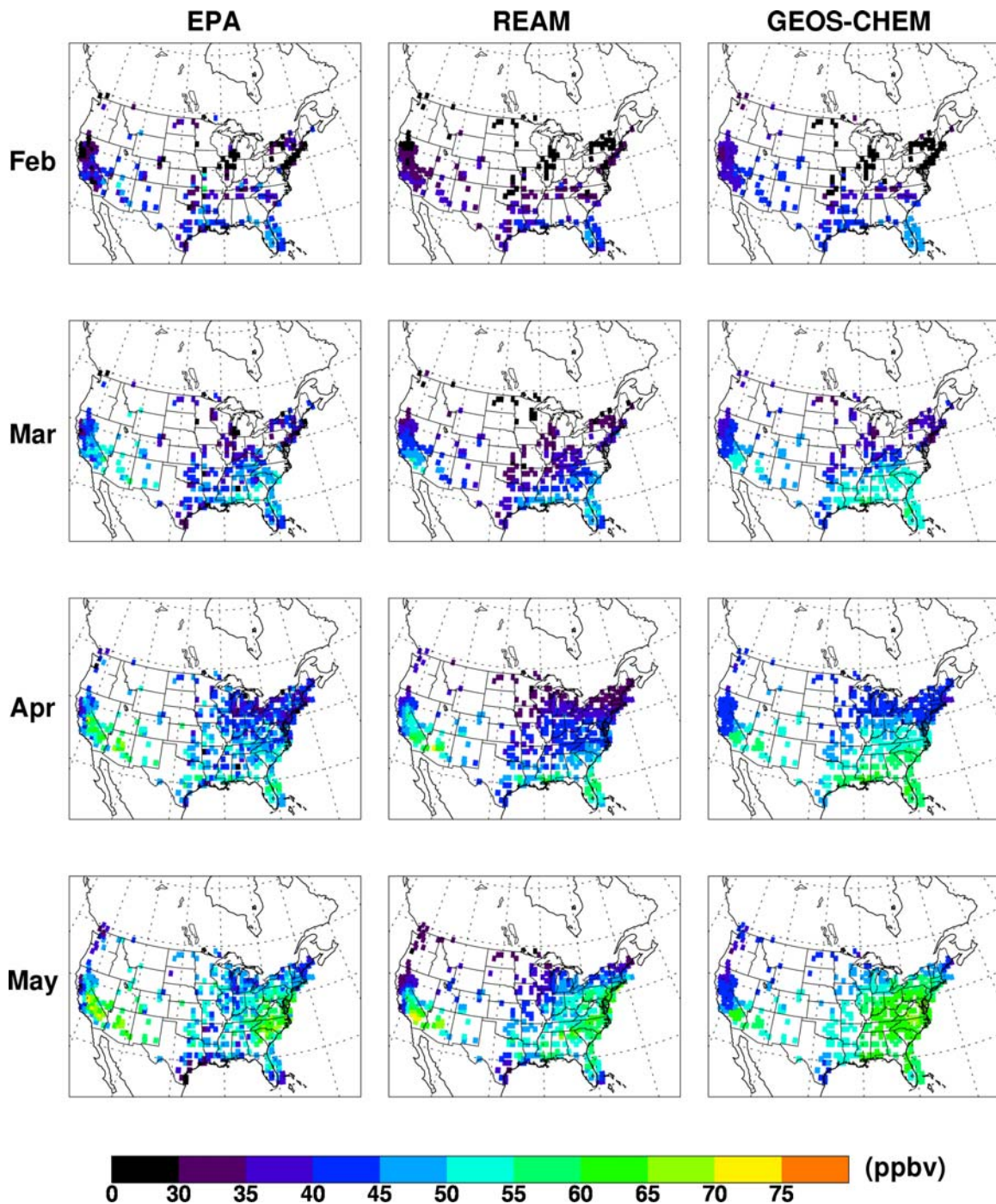
2 **Figure 2.** Monthly mean contributions of lightning production, convection, and soil
 3 emissions to tropospheric NO₂ vertical columns.

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2 **Figure 3.** Observed and simulated afternoon (1300-1700 LT) average NO, and hourly
 3 CO and O₃ at the Oak Grove site (89° W, 32° N). The solid black lines represent the
 4 SEARCH measurements and red lines represent the REAM results.



2 **Figure 4.** Monthly mean afternoon (1300-1700, LT) surface O₃ concentrations (ppbv)
 3 over the United States in February-May 2000. Shown are the EPA AIRNow observations
 4 at rural sites (left column), REAM simulation results (middle column), and GEOS-
 5 CHEM simulation results (right column).

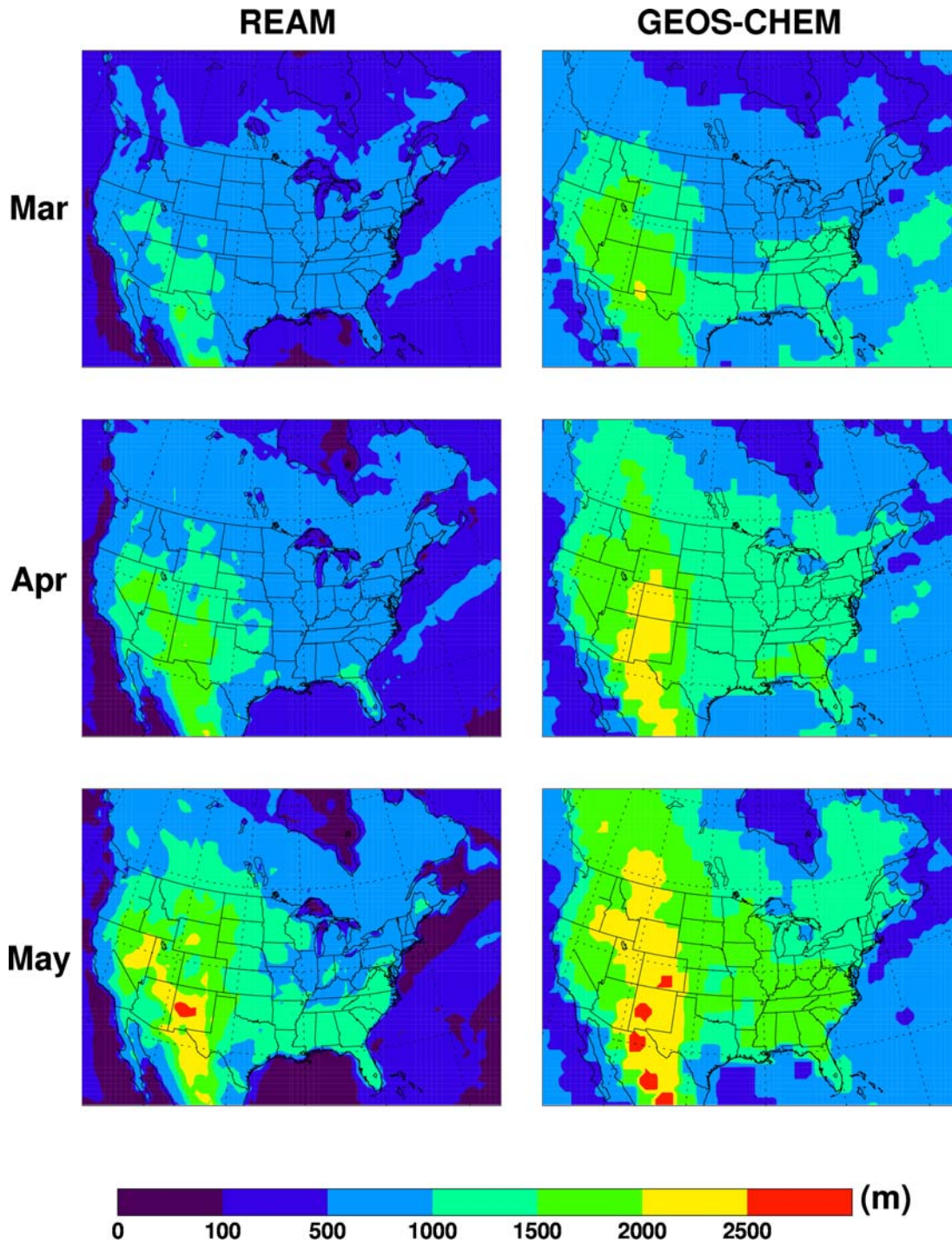
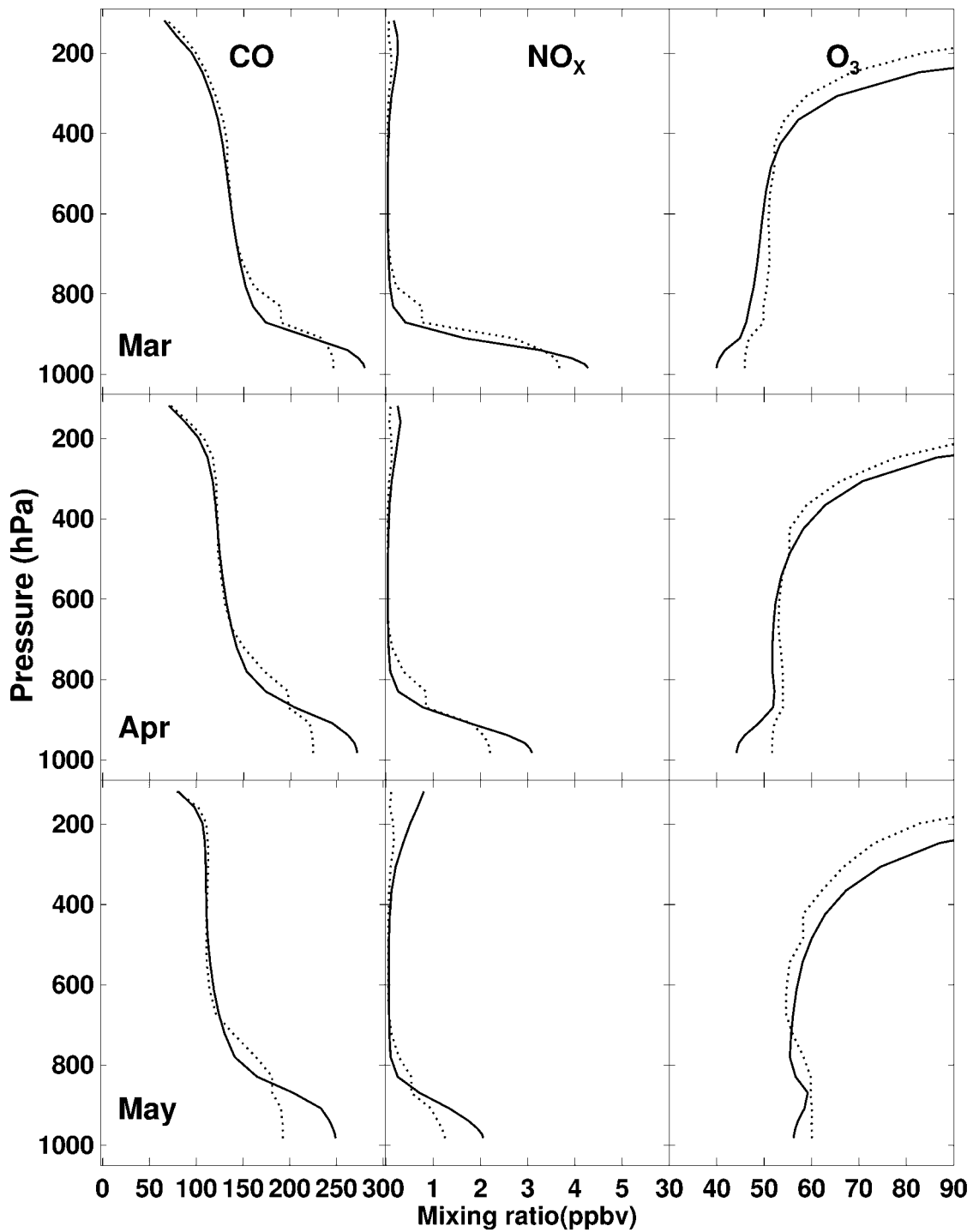
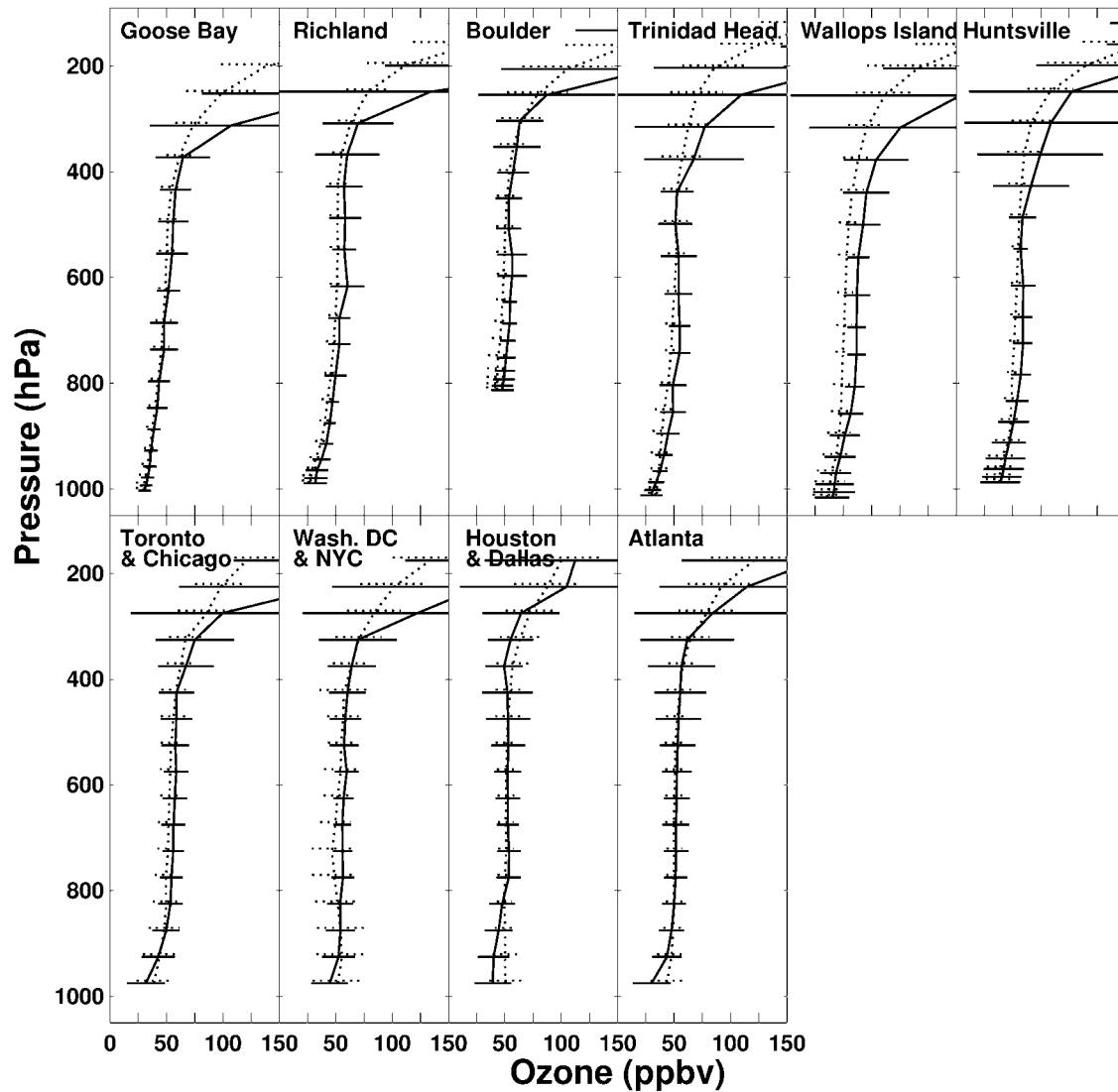


Figure 5. Average afternoon (1200-1600, LT) mixing depths over North America in March-May 2000. The data used in REAM (left column) are simulated by MM5, and those used in GEOS-CHEM (right column) are simulated by GEOS-3.



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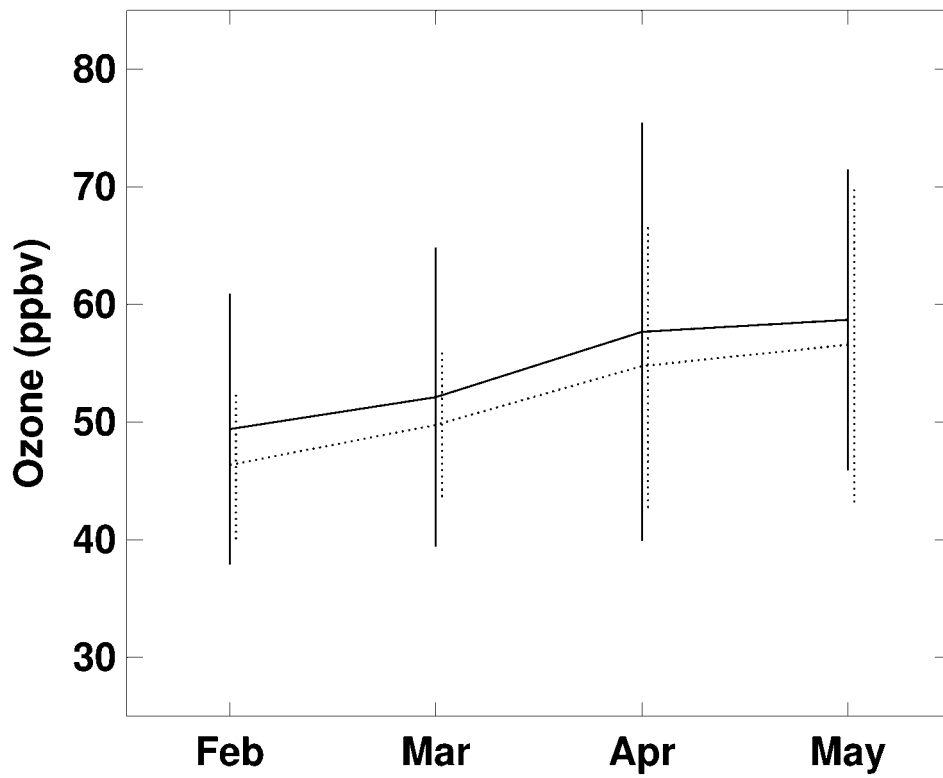
Figure 6. Comparisons of monthly averaged afternoon (1200-1600, LT) vertical profiles of CO, NO_x, and O₃ concentrations between REAM and GEOS-CHEM models. The profile is averaged over the continental region of 75-90° W and 30-42° N. The solid lines represent the REAM simulations, and the dotted lines represent the GEOS-CHEM simulations.



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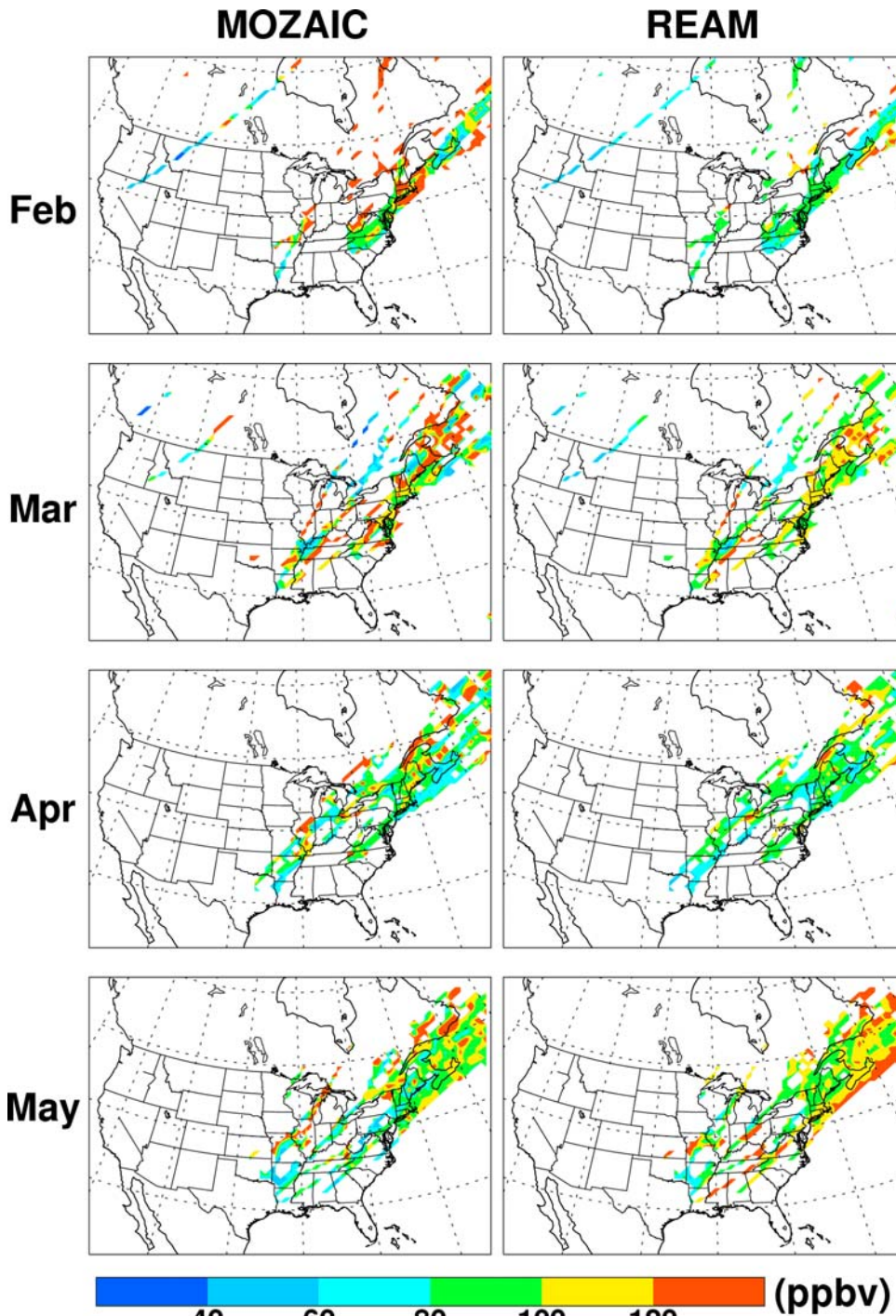
2 **Figure 7a.** Observed and simulated mean O₃ profiles for February-May, 2000. The upper
 3 and lower panels show the observations from ozonesondes and MOZAIC program in
 4 solid lines, respectively. Horizontal bars show standard deviations. Dotted lines show
 5 corresponding REAM results. The ozonesonde sites include: Goose Bay (53° N, 60° W),
 6 Richland (46° N, 119° W), Boulder (40° N, 105° W), Rinidad Head (41° N, 124° W),
 7 Wallops Island (38° N, 75° W), and Hunsville (35° N, 87° W). “Wash. DC” denotes
 8 Washington, DC and “NYC” denotes New York City.

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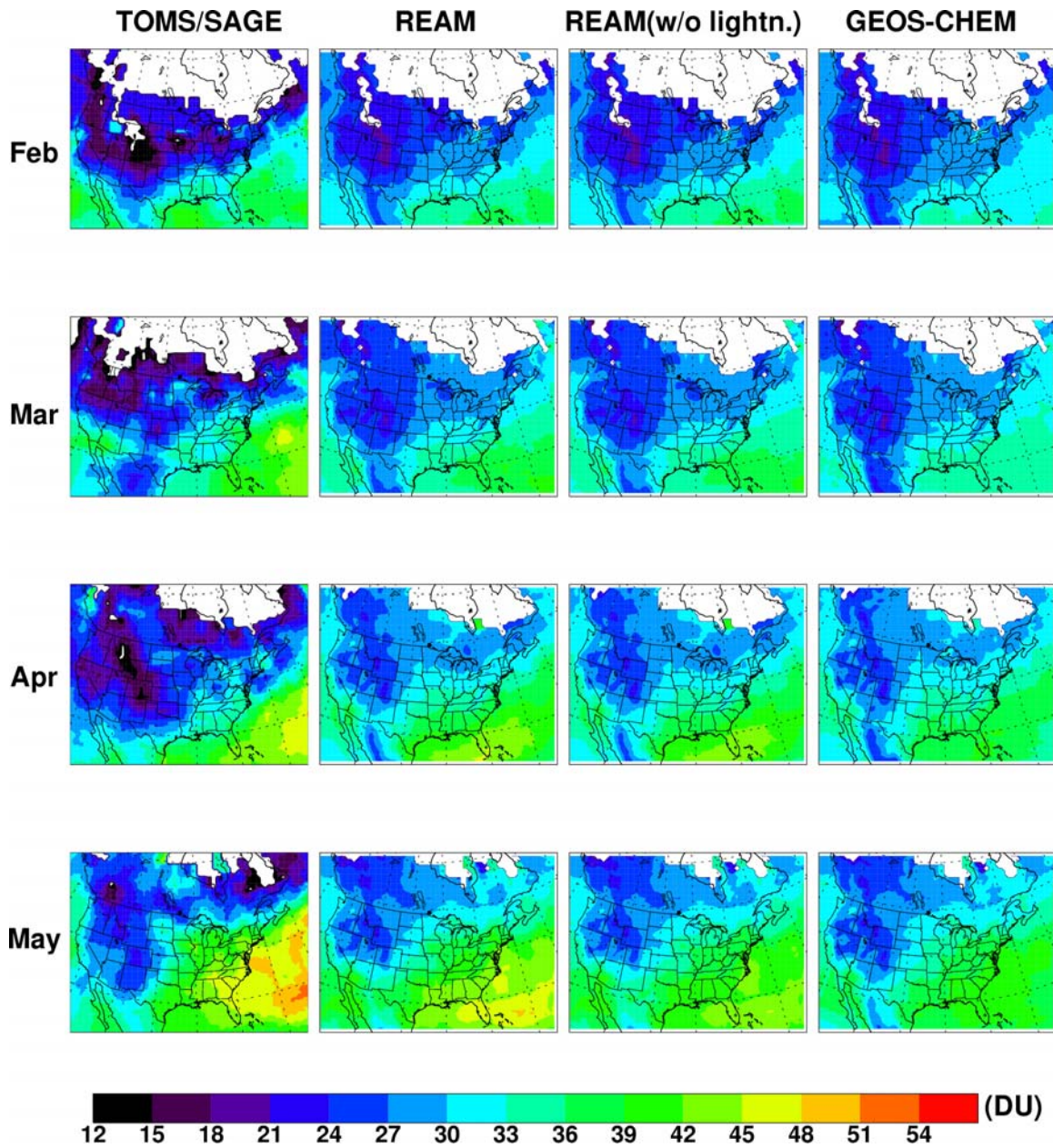


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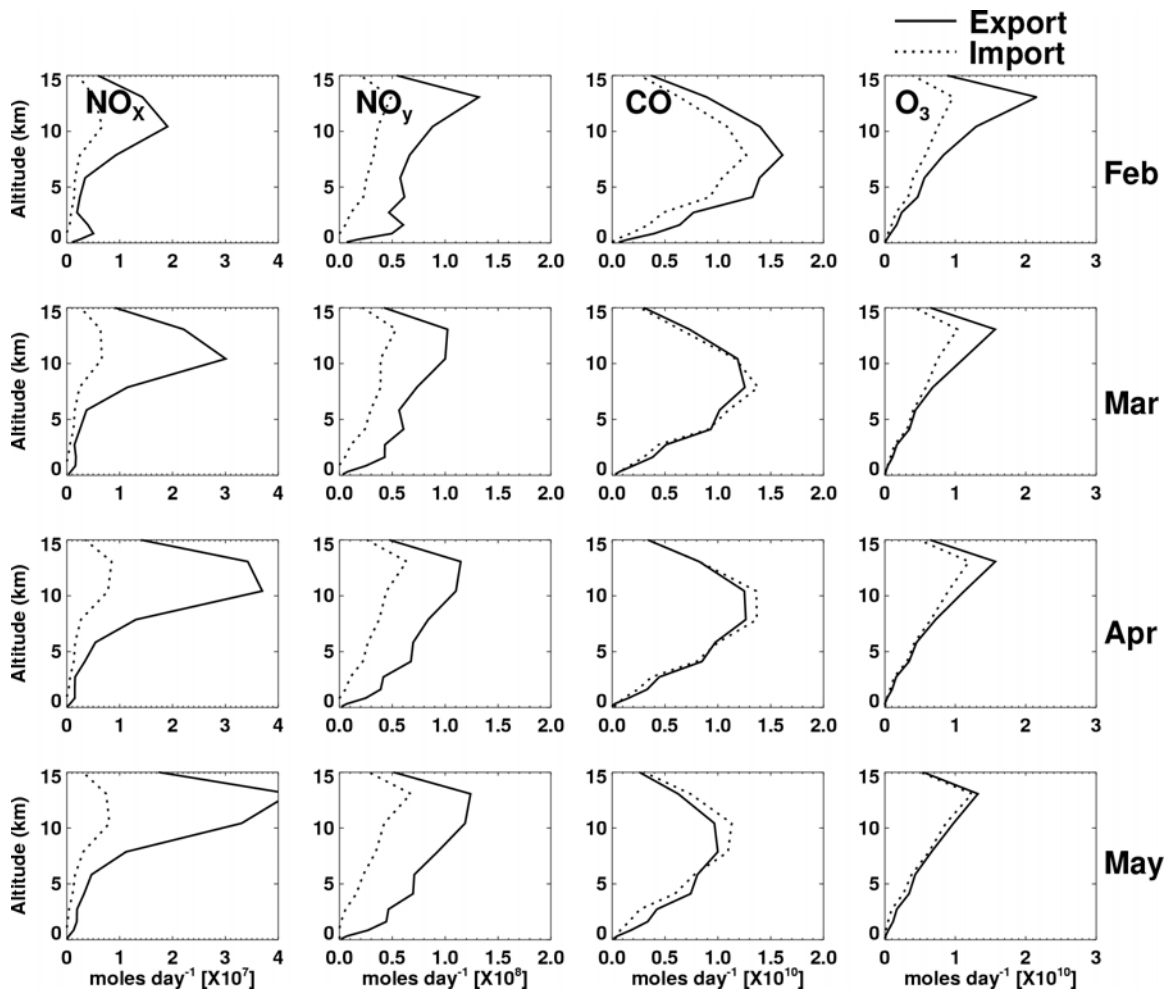
Figure 7b. Observed and simulated monthly tropospheric O₃ mixing ratios at 400-800 hPa. The solids lines show means and standard deviations of ozonesonde and MOZIAC measurements. The dotted lines show corresponding REAM results.



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 2 **Figure 8.** Mean O₃ concentration (ppbv) at 150-250 hpa from the MOZAIC
 3 measurements during February-May 2000 (left column) and the corresponding REAM
 4 results (right column). REAM data are sampled along MOZAIC aircraft tracks. Ozone
 5 data > 200 ppbv from MOZAIC and REAM are filtered out.
 6



2 **Figure 9.** Monthly mean tropospheric O₃ columns derived from TOMS total columns and SAGE II stratospheric columns (first column), the REAM standard simulation
 3 and SAGE II stratospheric columns (first column), the REAM standard simulation
 4 (second column), the REAM sensitivity simulation without lightning NO_x production
 5 (third column), and the GEOS-CHEM simulation (last column).



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2 **Figure 10.** Vertical profiles of longitudinal import and export fluxes of NO_x , NO_y , CO,
 3 and O_3 over North America in the troposphere. The western and eastern boundaries are
 4 the same as those depicted in Figure 10. The solid lines represent export fluxes while the
 5 dotted lines represent import fluxes.