Atmospheric ammonia variability and link with PM formation: a case study over the Paris area” by Camille Viatte et al.

Anonymous Referee #1

Authors: We would like to thank the referee for his/her insightful comments. We have made changes to the manuscript to address those comments.

Referee: This manuscript uses observations from two independent satellites to assess the role of NH$_3$ in springtime particle pollution episodes in the Paris region by examining the seasonal and interannual variability (IAV) in NH$_3$ columns over northwestern Europe.

The observations are compared to simulations from the CHIMERE chemical transport model. In general, the authors do a good job of reviewing the existing literature to provide context for their results, but it would be useful if they could include a comparison with the study of Schiferl et al. (2016), which examines seasonal cycles and IAV of NH$_3$ over the US.

Authors: We have added sentences in the revised manuscript to compare with the interesting study of Schiferl et al., (2016):

In section 3.1.2: “In addition, inter-annual variabilities of NH$_3$ concentrations over the United-States are dominated by meteorological conditions [Schiferl et al., 2016].”

In section 3.2.1: “This is a different finding than in Schiferl et al. (2016) since they restricted IASI high relative errors when comparing to the GEOS-Chem model over the United-States, which inherently favors larger columns and thus lead to weaken the observed seasonal cycle.”

Referee: In Section 2.2, it is important that the authors report what proportion of the column observations from each satellite were below the limit of detection and how those data were incorporated into the monthly means used throughout the paper. If observations below the limit of detection were discarded, then the resulting monthly means will be biased high. It would then be important to filter the model output in a similar way to ensure that the observation-model comparison is more appropriate.

Authors: As mentioned in the manuscript, IASI’s detection limit is 4-6 $10^{15}$ molecules/cm$^2$. Observations below this detection limits represent about 60% of the 2014-2015 dataset. Those were not discarded when computing monthly means. CrIS’s detection limit is 1-2 $10^{15}$ molecules/cm$^2$ but no observations in the current product are reported (Shephard et al., 2019). This is a potential reason why CrIS is high compared to IASI in absolute values (See figure R1). However, when comparing to the model data, we
selected CHIMERE outputs located within the same 0.15°x0.15° grid box than the satellite and within 1 hour from its measurement to ensure that the comparisons are appropriate.

We now have added a sentence about this difference in averaging IASI and CrIS when comparing monthly means to the model outputs in section 3.2.1: “Note that values below detection limits have not been filtered out from the IASI dataset whereas the quality flag was used to discard CrIS’s retrievals associated with DOFS<=0.1 (Section 2.2.2) favors larger observed columns. Consequently, the normalized seasonal cycle amplitude derived from CrIS is weaker than the IASI one.”

Figure R1: Time series of daily mean NH$_3$ concentrations (in molecules/cm$^2$) derived from IASI and CrIS satellite measurements (red and black, respectively), and from the CHIMERE model outputs coincident in space and time with IASI (in blue) and CrIS (in cyan).

Referee: A general concern in Section 3.1 is the confidence with which the authors interpret the causes contributing to the seasonality and IAV of the ammonia columns. In many cases, the explanations provided by the authors seem reasonable, but unless there is conclusive proof, the language should be toned down to indicate that these are possible/likely explanations rather than the only ones:

Referee: Lines 282-301, a handful of data are provided to describe farming practices in different regions, but not in a consistent way. What evidence is there that the factors described are the most important in causing the spatial and temporal patterns observed?

Authors: We have changed the tone of the text, it is now: “The observed seasonality is mainly related to agricultural practices (fertilizer application period varying as function of the crop types and type of
livestock) and changes in temperatures, with higher temperatures favoring volatilization. This likely explains the high concentration in July and August.”

Referee: Lines 313-314 How do crop type and phenological stage impact ammonia concentrations leading to interannual variability?

Authors: The phenological stage controls the fertilizer spreading dates, driving NH$_3$ emissions, and consequently, is likely to regulate NH$_3$ Inter-anual variability observed in a specific region.

We have added details in the manuscript: “It has been recently shown that spatial variability of NH$_3$ emissions in France is due to fertilizer use and type and pedoclimatic conditions, and that temporal variability depends on seasonal timing of fertilizer applications [Ramanantenasa et al., 2018]. In addition, inter-annual variabilities of NH$_3$ concentrations over the United-States are dominated by meteorological conditions [Schiferl et al., 2016]. Thus, inter-annual variability of observed NH$_3$ total columns is likely to be driven by meteorological conditions and specific agricultural constrains (crop type and phenological stage for instance).”

Referee: Lines 330-333 These seem like plausible explanation for the impact of precipitation amount of ammonia columns, but is there direct evidence that they are the only (most) important factors?

Authors: We added likely and toned down our language throughout this section and in the conclusion.

Referee: Lines 334-335 The relationship between gas phase ammonia and temperature should be exponential based on the temperature dependence of its volatilization (either vapor pressure or effective solubility). Does the correlation coefficient change if a non-linear fit is tried?

Authors: We have checked and found a correlation of R = 0.30 instead of 0.33 when using a linear fit. We have rectified the manuscript accordingly. The residuals of the fit, however are similar when trying linear and exponential based fitting.

Referee: In Section 3.2, the authors compare ‘standardized’ monthly means for the years 2014 and 2015 between the two satellite products and the model. More explanation should be provided about how these standardized means were calculated. Do the emissions used in the model differ between the two years? This would be useful to know to help in interpreting the variability produced by the model.

Authors: We have included the computation equations regarding the standardization in the 2.4 section: “The standardized columns have been computed following equation 1:
\[ X_{\text{data}}^{\text{stand}} = \frac{(X_{\text{data}} - \mu(X_{\text{data}}))}{S(X_{\text{data}})} \] (1)

Where \( (X_{\text{data}}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i^{\text{data}} \), \( S(X_{\text{data}}) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{N=1}^{N} (X_i - \mu)^2} \), \( X_{\text{data}} \) corresponds to NH\textsubscript{3} columns derived from a dataset (IASI, CrIS, or CHIMERE), and \( X_{\text{data}}^{\text{stand}} \) is the corresponding standardized dataset.

The emissions of the model are the same for the 2 years of simulations; the interannual variability of the model is therefore likely to be attributed to meteorological conditions changes. We have clarified in the text that the emissions were the same for the two years and have added a sentence: “In addition, year-to-year variability can be seen in the model with lower concentrations in March 2015 compared to 2014 for instance, despite constant emissions in the 2-years simulation. This interannual variability is likely to be attributed to meteorological conditions changes.”

Referee: Lines 371-382 This discussion is a bit confusing because initially the values quoted from the correlation plots of are the coefficients of determination, and then the comparison is restricted to select months and the values quoted are the slopes. I would recommend quoting the r\textsuperscript{2} values for both, to make it more clear that the coefficients of determination did not increase significantly when the months were restricted. Also, the fact that the slope is close to 1 is not that meaningful since each dataset has already been standardized.

Authors: We have changed the text accordingly by removing the slope values and adding p-value instead:

“Over the whole period, the coefficient of determination (r\textsuperscript{2}) between the standardized monthly mean NH\textsubscript{3} columns derived from IASI (CrIS), and the CHIMERE model is 0.58 (0.18) for the annual cycles of 2014 and 2015 with low associated p-values of 1.5 \times 10^{-5} (0.06) reflecting the significance level of the fits (not shown here). If we only consider months of high NH\textsubscript{3} in the domain from March to August, the correlation between the observational datasets and the model is rather good with r\textsuperscript{2} values between IASI (CrIS) and CHIMERE of 0.29 (0.14) with associated p-values of 0.07 (0.24), as shown in Figure 7. Since annual total emissions are the same for the two years and simply disaggregated with a monthly profile in the model, the correlations reveal that the seasonal cycle is likely to be reproduced by the model. In addition, year-to-year variability can be seen in the model with lower concentrations in March 2015 compared to 2014 for instance, despite constant emissions in the 2-years simulation. This interannual variability is likely to be attributed to meteorological conditions changes. However, the values of the r\textsuperscript{2} lower than 0.5 indicate that the CHIMERE model only reproduces at most half of the observed monthly temporal NH\textsubscript{3} variabilities in the domain. Similar variabilities are found between the observations and the model outputs since the coefficients of correlation of the standard deviations are 0.4 and 0.6 between CHIMERE and IASI and CrIS, respectively.”

We have also changed the abstract accordingly:
“A detailed analysis of the seasonal cycle is performed using both IASI and the CrIS instrument data, together with outputs from the CHIMERE atmospheric model. For 2014 and 2015 the CHIMERE model shows coefficient of determination of 0.58 and 0.18 when comparing with IASI and CrIS, respectively.”

Referee: In Section 3.3, which focuses on the role of NH$_3$ in producing PM$_{2.5}$ in the Ile de France region, the analysis is overly simplistic. Why have the PM$_{2.5}$ observations included in the analysis been restricted the measurements between 9 and 11 am? This time interval is particularly challenging to interpret because of the impacts of primary emissions and the role of the rapidly changing boundary layer height. It seems like a poor choice of time window to focus on a phenomenon that is influenced by long-range/regional transport of a precursor species like NH$_3$. The role of temperature and relative humidity on the formation of ammonium salts is well-described by thermodynamic relationships. Statements like those on Lines 504-509 are not fully accurate.

Authors: Over the studied area, Metop-A and Metop-B have an overpass time difference ranging from only a few seconds to 67 minutes depending on the viewing geometry of the satellite scans; the average difference is of 26 minutes for the 1325 days of common measurements. Over the whole time period IASI (MetopA and B) overpass time is about 9.50am on average. Therefore we have selected PM$_{2.5}$ data between 9 and 11 am to study cases in which PM$_{2.5}$ and NH$_3$ (observations averaged with MetopA and B) concentrations are enhanced simultaneously (or within a one-hour interval) over the IdF region. We also tried a similar analysis considering PM$_{2.5}$ measured at 10am only and averaged all day (between 8am and 6pm), and this did not change our results regarding the number of events detected for case A and B.

Concerning the statements concerning the role of temperature and humidity on the formation of ammonium salts, we have added ‘mainly’ and ‘in particular’ to be more accurate: “Our observations are in agreement with previous studies [Bessagnet et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2015], which have shown that the formation of ammonium salt needs a specific humidity of 60 - 70%, mainly because it corresponds to the deliquescence point of NH$_4$NO$_3$ in ambient air. This is in agreement with our results since the mean of relative humidity in case A is 70%. Our results also support the idea that a relatively low atmospheric temperature favor PM$_{2.5}$ formation in particular since the phase equilibrium leads to NH$_4$NO$_3$ decomposition above 30 °C.”

Specific comments:

Referee: Line 46 – ‘biochemical’ should perhaps be ‘biogeochemical’

Authors: We changed this.

Referee: Line 63 – ‘related to’ should be ‘relative to’

Authors: We changed this.
Referee: Line 111-114 – It would be helpful to reword the sentence slightly, to clarify that all of the studies being referenced were carried out in Paris.

Authors: We have reworded this sentence as: “However, although the Paris megacity is repeatedly shrouded by particulate pollution episodes, many studies are limited in the Paris megacity and performed over relatively short time frame during field campaigns: NH$_3$ measurements from May 2010 to February 2011 [Petetin et al., 2016] and nitrate, sulfate, and ammonium aerosol measurements in July 2009 [Zhang et al., 2013], or based on numerical simulations [Skyllakou et al., 2014].”

Referee: Figure 1 – The coloring of the map by the emissions is not easy to see. The colors become a very different shade on the map then on the legend. Is it possible to use a map that doesn’t have a green background, or to make the emissions coloring more opaque?

Authors: We changed the background of the map and made the emissions coloring more opaque.

Referee: Figure 6 – would be helpful to have the same months identified on the axis for each year

Authors: We have edited the figure to have the same months for the 2 years.

References: Shephard, M. W., Dammers, E., Kharol, S., and Cady-Pereira, K.: Ammonia measurements from space with the Cross-track Infrared Sounder (CrIS): characteristics and applications, in preparation for ACP, 2019
“Atmospheric ammonia variability and link with PM formation: a case study over the Paris area” by Camille Viatte et al.

Anonymous Referee #2

Referee: In this study, Viatte et al. use satellite observations (CrIS, IASI) to a) characterize the spatial and interannual variability of ammonia column over Western Europe and its drivers and b) examine the connection between NH3 and PM2.5 over Paris. The material presented is interesting and well suited for ACP. However, I have some significant concerns regarding the robustness of some of the conclusions and the lack of connection between a) and b). These need to be addressed before publication can be considered.

Authors: We would like to thank the referee for his/her insightful comments. We have performed additional analyses and adapted the manuscript to fully address those comments.

General Comments

Referee: a) there are places when the authors make fairly definitive claims with insufficient support/references.

For instance Line 49: it is stated that N causes species/ecosystem extinction. A specific reference is needed.

Authors: We have added 2 references for this sentence: [Isbell et al., 2013; Hernandez et al., 2016]

Referee: Line 341 and discussion above. This discussion is too speculative and needs to be much better supported. Was more corn planted in 2011 than in 2012? Were planting dates shifted earlier in 2011 relative to 2012? This is critical since the authors then state that they have shown that meteorology and farming practices account for the interannual variability in NH3 column.

Authors: We have toned down our language to indicate that these are possible/likely explanations rather than the only ones.

Referee: Line 374 It is stated that the correlation is “good” based on Fig. 7 (r2<0.3). What is the p value, what is the uncertainty on the slopes given the large error bars shown in Fig. 7? In general, the authors need to be more quantitative when reporting statistics: always give p value for correlation (e.g., line 331 and 333) and uncertainty for slopes.
Authors: We have changed “good” to “rather good”. As proposed by the other referee, the values of the slopes are not that meaningful since each dataset has already been standardized. Therefore we have removed the slope values and added the p-values for each $r^2$ values, as you suggested.

“Over the whole period, the coefficient of determination ($r^2$) between the standardized monthly mean NH$_3$ columns derived from IASI (CrIS), and the CHIMERE model is 0.58 (0.18) for the annual cycles of 2014 and 2015 with low associated p-values of 1.5 $10^{-5}$ (0.06) reflecting the significance level of the fits (not shown here). If we only consider months of high NH$_3$ in the domain from March to August, the correlation between the observational datasets and the model is rather good with $r^2$ values between IASI (CrIS) and CHIMERE of 0.29 (0.14) with associated p-values of 0.07 (0.24), as shown in Figure 7. Since annual total emissions are the same for the two years and simply disaggregated with a monthly profile in the model, the correlations reveal that the seasonal cycle is likely to be reproduced by the model. In addition, year-to-year variability can be seen in the model with lower concentrations in March 2015 compared to 2014 for instance, despite constant emissions in the 2-years simulation. This interannual variability is likely to be attributed to meteorological conditions changes. However, the values of the $r^2$ lower than 0.5 indicate that the CHIMERE model only reproduces at most half of the observed monthly temporal NH$_3$ variabilities in the domain. Similar variabilities are found between the observations and the model outputs since the coefficients of correlation of the standard deviations are 0.4 and 0.6 between CHIMERE and IASI and CrIS, respectively.”

We have also changed the abstract accordingly:

“A detailed analysis of the seasonal cycle is performed using both IASI and the CrIS instrument data, together with outputs from the CHIMERE atmospheric model. For 2014 and 2015 the CHIMERE model shows coefficient of determination of 0.58 and 0.18 when comparing with IASI and CrIS, respectively.”

Referee: b) there is very little connection between a) and b) in the current manuscript. In part b), the authors focus on the relationship between PM2.5 and NH3 in two (fairly similar) years (2014, 2015). The main conclusion is that meteorology (temperature, local PBL) probably controls whether NH3 contributes to PM2.5. This is interesting although very much expected from studies performed in other regions. From part a), I was instead expecting the authors to consider whether the considerable variability in NH3 sources over Belgium/Netherlands could impact PM2.5 over Paris. From part a), I was also expecting to have the authors show whether CHIMERE is able to capture the observed correlation between PM2.5 and NH3. This could help understand whether the observed PM2.5 enhancement results from production of ammonium nitrate in Ile de France or from transport of ammonium nitrate/sulfate or other aerosols from Belgium. I fully appreciate that such analysis will require significant work. However, without a significantly stronger connection between part a) and b), I would recommend the paper be split, with part a) being more readily publishable.

Authors: We have added a section (3.3) and a Figure (new Figure 11) to evaluate the capacity of the model to reproduce PM$_{2.5}$ over the Parisian region.
Comparisons of PM\(_{2.5}\) concentrations in IdF derived from the Airparif network and CHIMERE for 2014 and 2015

To evaluate the model capacity to reproduce PM\(_{2.5}\) concentrations over the Parisian region, comparisons between the Airparif measurements network and the CHIMERE outputs have been performed for 2014 and 2015 (Figure 11). For those years, concentrations of PM\(_{2.5}\) are measured hourly from the surface at 13 Airparif stations distributed over the IdF region (black dots, Figure 1). To compare with the CHIMERE model, we have extracted the hourly surface PM\(_{2.5}\) outputs in the IdF region, i.e. within a 50 km-radius circle from Paris.

Results of the comparison are shown in Figure 11. Day-to-Day variability of PM\(_{2.5}\) concentrations at the surface is well represented by the CHIMERE model with however differences during pollution events in March/April and in December for both years. The model may underestimate PM\(_{2.5}\) concentrations in spring due to unknown PM\(_{2.5}\) formation processes, but overestimate them in winter which could be due to uncertainties on NH\(_3\) emissions from wood burning processes. Overall, good agreement is found between the measurements and the model in term of PM\(_{2.5}\) concentrations over the IdF region given values of \(r^2\) of 0.56 (associated with p-value of \(6 \times 10^{-13}\)), a slope of 0.67 ± 3.51, with a slightly underestimation of the CHIMERE model given a mean relative difference (calculated as model-observations/observations) of -18% over 2014 and 2015.

We have also added a sentence in the conclusion about this analysis: “In this region, we also found that the CHIMERE model is able to reproduce the day-to-day variability of PM\(_{2.5}\) concentrations (\(r^2\) of 0.56), with however an underestimation during spring pollution events, which could be due to unknown secondary aerosol formation processes.”

Finally, we have added a sentence in the abstract section about PM\(_{2.5}\) concentrations evaluation from CHIMERE: “In addition, PM\(_{2.5}\) concentrations derived from the CHIMERE model have been evaluated against surface measurements from the Airparif network over Paris. Agreement was found (\(r^2\) of 0.56) with however an underestimation during spring pollution events.”

To investigate whether the variability in NH\(_3\) sources over the northeast part of the domain could impact NH\(_3\) over Paris, we have studied the cross-correlation function of NH\(_3\) concentrations between the Northeast part of the domain (over the Netherlands) and the IdF region (see Figure R1 and Figure S5 in the supplement information). The cross-correlation function (CCF) is calculated between the daily averaged mean of the IASI NH\(_3\) columns observed over these two regions (both are average values of available pixels of the same day). From the CCF plot, we can see that when lag = 0 (i.e. within the same day), the cross-correlation is maximum with CCF = 0.37, and the CCF is above 0.3 when lag=±1 (i.e. 1 day before or after) for the whole time period (2008-2016). Therefore, correlation between NH\(_3\) concentrations over the northeast part of the domain and the IdF region is relatively correlated. This confirms the result suggested by the back-trajectory analysis in Figure 10. We have also computed the CCF over these two regions considering months with high NH\(_3\); the maximum CCF between March and August and between March and April are 0.35 and 0.26, respectively. Therefore we have added a sentence about this analysis in the new section 3.4: “Indeed, NH\(_3\) columns over the Netherlands are relatively correlated to NH\(_3\) columns measured over IdF since the cross-correlation function is 0.37 at lag.
= 0 and above 0.3 at lag = ±1 day over the whole time period (2008-2016 - Figure S5). “ and we add a sentence in the abstract: “Variability of NH$_3$ in the Northeast region is likely to impact NH$_3$ concentrations in the Parisian region since the cross-correlation function is above 0.3 (at lag = 0 and 1).”

Figure R1: Cross-correlation analysis of NH$_3$ concentrations between the Northeast part of the domain (over the Netherlands) and the IdF region.

In addition, to study the effect of transport on NH$_3$ and PM$_{2.5}$ concentrations observed over the Parisian region, we have included wind fields analysis in Section 3.4 (old Section 3.3). In Figure 12 (old Figure 11) in the lower panel, we have added wind fields parameters (direction and speed) from ERA-5 and included wind roses for studies cases (ensemble, case A, and case B) in the supplement information. Results of the statistic show that cases involving simultaneous enhancements of NH$_3$ and PM$_{2.5}$ concentrations in Paris (cases A) are associated with wind fields dominantly coming from the Northeast. Air masses coming from this area are thus likely to favor simultaneous enhancements of NH$_3$ and PM$_{2.5}$ over Paris. We have added few sentences in the new Section 3.4 and the conclusion about this: Section 3.4: “Results also suggest that simultaneous enhancements of NH$_3$ and PM$_{2.5}$ over Paris (cases A) are mainly associated with wind fields dominantly coming from the Northeast part of the domain (Figure S6). Thus the combination of the following four meteorological parameters favors simultaneous appearances of NH$_3$ and of PM$_{2.5}$ in Paris (i.e. case A): low surface temperatures (5°C), with thin boundary layers (“500m), rare precipitations, and northeast wind.” In the conclusion section: “To assess the link between NH$_3$ and PM$_{2.5}$ over the Parisian (IdF) region, the main meteorological parameters driving the optimal conditions involved in the PM$_{2.5}$ formation have been identified. The results show that relatively low temperature, thin boundary layer, coupled with almost no precipitation and wind coming from the northeast, favor the PM$_{2.5}$ formation with the presence of atmospheric NH$_3$ in the IdF region.”
Technical comments

Referee: Section 2.3 the description of CHIMERE is far too short (especially with respect to the treatment of ammonia. For instance: -> how is dry deposition represented? Does it include the bidirectional exchange between land and atmosphere -> what is the temporal resolution of the emissions? Does it include a diurnal cycle? It would be useful to show the seasonality of the emissions in a few regions, to help the reader better analyze Figs 2 and 3 -> how is the gas/aerosol partitioning of NH3 represented (ISORROPIA?) -> I assume that NH3/NH4/NH4NO3 in CHIMERE have been evaluated previously? Please provide reference for these studies at this stage. I also encourage the authors to show how the configuration of CHIMERE that is used here performs against surface observations (e.g., EMEP wet deposition/concentrations). This could be briefly discussed in the main text, with figures in the supplementary materials.

Authors: We have detailed the description of the model by adding this section:

“These annual emissions are then distributed in hourly data to feed CHIMERE using seasonal, weekly and hourly factors. Fire emissions come from the Global Fire Assimilation System (GFAS, [Kaiser et al., 2012]).

The model computes hourly concentrations for more than 180 species, among which are the regulated pollutants such as ozone, PM_{10}, and NH_{3}. The processes that will influence the NH_{3} concentrations taken into consideration in CHIMERE are the dry deposition (following [Wesely et al., 1989]) and wet deposition due to in-cloud process and precipitations. The gas-particulate phase equilibrium is computed with the ISORROPIA module [Nenes et al, 1998] which is a thermodynamic equilibrium model for NH_{4}^{+}, NO_{3}^{-} and SO_{4}^{2-}. It evaluates the NH_{4}NO_{3} contribution to the particulate matter which is especially large during March-April pollution episodes [Petit et al., 2017].”

Referee: Section 3.1.1 It would be useful to include a map showing the distribution of livestock and major crops in Western Europe so that the reader can see the relationship between NH3 emissions and the different sources described by the authors. This would be especially helpful as some of the material the authors refer to is in French.

Authors: We have added specific references for livestock mapping and found English versions of the references:

- https://agriculture.gouv.fr/overview-french-agricultural-diversity;
- Scarlat et al., 2018 – their figure 2],
- [Robinson et al., 2014 - their figure 2c].
Referee: Fig. 5. This figures shows first and foremost that there is good correlation between skin temperature and precipitation at the regional level. I think it would be more relevant to show the relationship between temperature/precipitation and NH3 anomaly. In addition, I assume that the precipitation/temperature anomalies exhibit some significant spatial variability? Do you weigh the anomaly by the average NH3 column? High NH3 columns only cover a small fraction of your domain and it’s unclear to me why it would respond to the average temperature change (vs the local change).

Authors: We have tried the analysis suggested by the referee. Anomalies of NH3 and temperature/precipitation over the domain are shown in Figure R2. The results suggests strong relationships exists between anomalies of NH3 and skin temperature (correlation R = 0.72), and total precipitation (anti-correlation R = -52).

![Figure R2: monthly mean anomaly (relative to the 10-years – 2008 to 2017 - monthly average) of total precipitation/skin temperature derived from ECMWF from March to August in the domain, versus NH3 total columns anomaly derived from IASI.](image)

When computing the anomalies, temperature and precipitation anomalies were not weighting by NH3 total column.

Referee: Section 3.2. I am a little confused by the need for the standardization. CrIS and IASI seem reasonably close, so why not use the model absolute NH3 column. In addition, Fig. 6 only show one CHIMERE time series, shouldn’t there be two, one for CHIMERE sampled at the IASI overpass time and one at the CrIS overpass time (with AK)..

Authors: The CrIS and the IASI data are not close in absolute values: CrIS is higher than IASI in the region of interest (of about 1.10^{16} molecule/cm^2). In addition, the CHIMERE output concentrations are closer to
IASI observations than CrIS’s ones (see Figure R3), which is why we wanted to standardized each dataset independently. We have also tested the comparison between CrIS and CHIMERE by taking into account the different vertical sensitivity (smoothing by the AK) but results were not improved.

Figure R3: Time series of daily mean NH$_3$ concentrations (in molecules/cm$^2$) derived from IASI and CrIS satellite measurements (red and black, respectively), and from the CHIMERE model outputs coincident in space and time with IASI (in blue) and CrIS (in cyan).

As for Figure 6, we have changed it to include the CHIMERE time series sampled in space and time with IASI and CrIS, as you suggested.

Referee: Line 351 I am not sure I understand the motivation for picking this years. Why not use the climatological seasonality? Why are these years more useful to benchmark the model? They look fairly similar as far as I can tell from the supporting material.

Authors: In the frame of evaluating the model capacity of reproducing NH$_3$ variability in space and time at regional scale and its impact on air quality at local scale, those two years are interesting for the following reasons.

At regional scale (over the 400 km radius around Paris), NH$_3$ total columns derived from IASI in 2014 and 2015 are highly variable in time throughout the years and especially in spring, reaching 10% higher in March and 50% lower in May than the 10-years average. Since ammonia emission variability depends on seasonal timing of fertilizer applications in France [Ramanantenasoa et al., 2018], this period is crucial to assess the model capacity.

Second, for those two years NH$_3$ concentrations over the IdF region (100 km radius around Paris) are also extremely high in March (Figure R4, upper panel). These extreme events might have affected the Parisian
air quality since PM$_{2.5}$ concentrations are also enhanced, especially in 2014 (Figure R4, lower panel). We have added this Figure in the Supplementary Information (Figure S1).

Therefore, we think these years could serve as benchmark to evaluate the model in terms of NH$_3$ variability at regional scale, and PM$_{2.5}$ formation at local scale. We have changed the manuscript to explain the motivation for choosing these years in section 2.3 dedicated to the CHIMERE model: “To evaluate the model capacity of reproducing NH$_3$ variability in space and time at regional scale and its impact on air quality at local scale, comparisons have been performed in 2014 and 2015 for the following reasons. At regional scale (over the 400 km radius around Paris), NH$_3$ total columns derived from IASI in 2014 and 2015 are highly variable in spring, reaching 10% higher in March and 50% lower in May than the 10-years average. Since ammonia emission variability in France depends on seasonal timing of fertilizer applications [Ramanantenasoa et al., 2018], this period is crucial to assess the model capacity. Second, the IdF region (100 km radius around Paris) also experiences high NH$_3$ and PM$_{2.5}$ events in spring 2014 and 2015 (Figure S1). Thus, these years serve as benchmark to evaluate the model in terms of NH$_3$ variability and PM$_{2.5}$ formation at local and regional scales.”

**Figure R4: Time series of daily mean NH$_3$ concentrations (in molecules/cm$^2$) derived from IASI (upper panel) and PM$_{2.5}$ concentration (in μg/m$^3$) observed over the IdF region between 2013 and 2016.**
Technical comments

Referee: They are a few issues with language. It sometimes (rarely) makes it challenging to understand the manuscript.

Referee: line 28: regression slope. Remove slope

Authors: We have removed slope

Referee: line 63: related->relative

Authors: We have changed this.

Referee: Line 112: many of studies?

Authors: We have deleted “of”

Referee: Line 283: farming species? Do you mean livestock?

Authors: Yes, we have changed it to livestock.

Referee: Line 300. What are non-poultry granivorous (animals)?

Authors: We have deleted granivorous.

Referee: Fig. 7 What do the error bars correspond to?

Authors: The error bars correspond to the 1-sigma standard deviation around the mean. We have clarified it in the figure caption.

Referee: Fig. 9: Same than Fig.7 -> “Same as Fig. 8”

Authors: We have changed this.

Referee: Fig. 12: Define IQR

Authors: We added: The IQR is the "interquartile range", and it equals to Q3 - Q1 where Q3 and Q1 are the 75th and 25th percentiles. Setting the thresholds at Q1 - 1.5 * IQR and Q3 + 1.5 * IQR is a common practice to determine outliers.

Referee: Line 220: I don’t understand the distinction between inorganic, organic and natural aerosols?

Authors: We have deleted this part of the text to include more specific description of the model.

Referee: Line 487. Why is the value given on line 476 different (mean/median?)

Authors: The first value refers to the example given in the manuscript, i. e. from March 3rd and March 15th 2014, whereas the second value represents the mean value for the case A over the whole dataset. We have added ‘over the whole dataset’ in the latest sentence to avoid confusion.
Atmospheric ammonia variability and link with PM formation: a case study over the Paris area

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Abstract

The Paris megacity experiences frequent particulate matter (PM$_{2.5}$, PM with a diameter less than 2.5 μm) pollution episodes in springtime (March-April). At this time of the year, large parts of the particles consist of ammonium sulfate and nitrate which are formed from ammonia (NH$_3$) released during fertilizer spreading practices and transported from the surrounding areas to Paris. There is still limited knowledge on the emission sources around Paris, their magnitude and seasonality.

Using space-borne NH$_3$ observation records of 10-years (2008-2017) and 5-years (2013-2017) provided by the Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI) and the Cross-Track Infrared Sounder (CrIS) instrument, regional pattern of NH$_3$ variabilities (seasonal and inter-annual) are derived. Observations reveal identical high seasonal variabilities with three major NH$_3$ hot spots found from March to August. The high inter-annual variability is discussed with respect to atmospheric total precipitation and temperature.

A detailed analysis of the seasonal cycle is performed using both IASI and the CrIS instrument data, together with outputs from the CHIMERE atmospheric model. For 2014 and 2015 the CHIMERE model shows coefficient of determination of 0.58 and 0.18 when comparing with IASI and CrIS, respectively. It is found that the model is only able to reproduce half of the observed atmospheric temporal NH$_3$ variability in the domain. In term of spatial variability, the CHIMERE monthly NH$_3$ concentrations in springtime show a slight underrepresentation over Belgium and the United-Kingdom and overrepresentation in agricultural areas in the French Brittany/Pays de la Loire and Plateau du Jura region, as well as in the north part of Switzerland. In addition, PM$_{2.5}$ concentrations derived from the CHIMERE model have been evaluated against surface measurements from the Airparif network over Paris. Agreement was found ($r^2$ of 0.56) with however an underestimation during spring pollution events.

Using HYSPLIT cluster analysis of back-trajectories, we show that NH$_3$ total columns measured in spring over Paris are enhanced when air masses are originated from the Northeast (e. g., Netherlands and Belgium), highlighting the long-range transport importance on the NH$_3$ budget over Paris. Variability of NH$_3$ in the Northeast region is likely to impact NH$_3$ concentrations in the Parisian region since the cross-correlation function is above 0.3 (at lag = 0 and 1).

Finally, we quantify the key meteorological parameters driving the specific conditions important for the PM$_{2.5}$ formation from NH$_3$ in the Ile-de-France region in springtime. Data-driven results
based on surface PM$_{2.5}$ measurements from the Airparif network and IASI NH$_3$ observations show that a combination of the factors, e. g. a low boundary layer of ~500m, a relatively low temperature of 5°C, and a high relative humidity of 70%, and wind from the Northeast contributes to favor PM$_{2.5}$ and NH$_3$ correlation.
1. Introduction

Ammonia (NH$_3$) is an atmospheric pollutant and one of the main sources of reactive nitrogen in the atmosphere which is involved in numerous biochemical and biogeochemical exchanges impacting all ecosystems [Sutton et al., 2013]. The global budget of reactive N has dramatically increased since the preindustrial era [Holland et al., 2005; Battye et al., 2017] causing major environmental damages such as ecosystems and species extinction [Isbell et al., 2013; Hernandez et al., 2016], as well as soil and water eutrophication and acidification [Rockström et al., 2009].

NH$_3$ is a precursor of ammonium salts which can form up to 50% of particulate matter (PM) total mass [Behera et al., 2013]. Large cities such as Paris (which is the most populated area in the European Union with 10.5 million people when its larger metropolitan regions are included) typically experience strong PM pollution episodes in springtime. These particles are known to be harmful for human health [Pope III et al., 2009] inducing 2000 deaths per year in the Paris megacity [Corso et al., 2016] and to impact the radiative budget of the Earth [Myhre et al., 2013].

Because of their impact on the environment, public health, and climate change, NH$_3$ emissions are regulated in several countries in the world. However, NH$_3$ emissions of European countries have increased by 2% over the period 2014-2016 [National Emission Ceilings Directive reporting status, 2018], where the Gothenburg Protocol set a reduction of 6% by 2020. In France, where 94% of NH$_3$ emissions come from the agriculture sector [CITEPA, 2018] as a result of extensive fertilizer use to increase crop yields [Erisman et al., 2008], policies have been implemented with the aim to reduce NH$_3$ emissions by 13% in 2030 relative to 2005 [CEIP, 2016]. However NH$_3$ emissions are projected to increase in the future globally with increased population and food demand [van Vuuren et al., 2011] and NH$_3$ volatilization will be enhanced with climate change [Sutton et al., 2013].

Once in the atmosphere, NH$_3$ is rapidly removed by wet and dry deposition, and by reactions with atmospheric sulfuric and nitric acid, leading to a relatively short lifetime between a few hours and a few days [Galloway et al., 2003]. Release of NH$_3$ in the atmosphere depends on i) agriculture practices: spreading season, fertilizer form (urea, ammonium nitrate), fertilizer application methods, crops, soil conditions such as pH [Hamaoui-Laguel et al., 2014]; and on ii) meteorological conditions (i.e. wind, temperature, and precipitation). Inter-annual variability of PM formation over urban areas is poorly understood, since it also depends on many factors such as atmospheric humidity and temperature, which govern the phase equilibrium of secondary aerosols [Fuzzi et al., 2015]. The variety of factors influencing NH$_3$ volatilization and PM formation illustrates the complexity of predicting their concentrations in the atmosphere [Behera et al., 2013].
Atmospheric chemical transport models have difficulty representing both NH$_3$ and PM$_{2.5}$ distributions due to the challenge of reproducing NH$_3$ temporal variability [Pinder et al., 2006; Fortems-Cheiney et al., 2016], long-range transport of pollutants [Moran et al., 2014], and secondary aerosol formation in the atmosphere [Petetin et al., 2016]. The GEOS-Chem chemical transport model [Bey et al., 2001] was found to underestimate the observed NH$_3$ concentrations in most regions of the globe [Zhu et al., 2013; Li et al., 2017]. Heald et al. (2012) compared the IASI observations with the GEOS-Chem model and showed that NH$_3$ is likely underestimated in California, leading to a local underestimate of ammonium nitrate aerosol. Similarly, the French CHIMERE model [Menut et al., 2013] underestimates the NH$_3$ budget over Paris [Petetin et al., 2016; Fortems-Cheiney et al., 2016] because of the mis-representation of agricultural emissions in terms of intensity and both spatial and temporal distribution. Often ground and aircraft-based observations are used to provide detailed representation of the atmospheric state that can be used to evaluate and improve the model simulations; however, these can be spatially sparse and/or over short sampling periods, especially globally. Additionally, more recently available (within the last 10-years) sun-synchronous satellite-based infrared sensors have been providing NH$_3$ observations globally with a spatial resolution of ~15 km approximately twice a day. These satellite observations have limited independent vertical information, but do capture the spatiotemporal variabilities needed to help address these issues and improve model simulations, especially in remote locations [Skjøth et al., 2011; Kranenburg et al., 2016].

Aside from the Tropospheric Emission Spectrometer (TES, [Beer et al., 2008]), now decommissioned but which was first to demonstrate the capability of thermal infrared instruments to monitoring lower tropospheric NH$_3$, 3 missions are able to measure it now: the Atmospheric InfraRed Sounder (AIRS, [Warner et al., 2016]), the Cross-track Infrared Sounder (CrIS, [Shephard and Cady-Pereira, 2015]), and the Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI, [Clarisse et al., 2009]). Recent studies have shown the increased capacity of space-borne instruments to derived spatial and seasonal distributions of NH$_3$ concentrations globally [Clarisse et al., 2009; Shephard et al., 2011; Van Damme et al., 2014a & 2015a], regionally [Beer et al., 2008; Clarisse et al., 2010; Van Damme et al., 2014b] and locally [Van Damme et al., 2018], as well as trends of NH$_3$ [Warner et al., 2017].

Representative measurements of NH$_3$ concentrations and spatiotemporal variabilities are needed to address the link between NH$_3$ and PM$_{2.5}$ formation and improve model simulations. This has been attempted previously in some cities around the world, such as in Shanghai [Ye et al., 2011], Houston [Gong et al., 2013], Santiago City [Toro et al., 2014], and Beijing [Zhao et al., 2016] for instance. However, although the Paris megacity is repeatedly shrouded by particulate pollution episodes, many of studies are limited in the Paris megacity and performed over relatively short time frame during field campaigns: NH$_3$ measurements from May 2010 to February 2011 [Petetin et al., 2016] and nitrate, sulfate, and ammonium aerosol measurements...
in July 2009 [Zhang et al., 2013], or based on numerical simulations [Skyllakou et al., 2014]. Our study is a data-driven regional approach and considers a longer time period to study the seasonal/inter-annual variabilities of NH$_3$ and its impact of PM$_{2.5}$ formation over the Paris megacity. Specifically in this paper we study concentrations and spatiotemporal variability of atmospheric NH$_3$ from the agricultural sector to gain insights on its effects on megacity air quality using: 1) long-term satellite observations derived from IASI (10 years from 2008 to 2017) and CrIS (5 years from 2013 to 2017) at regional scale (400km radius-circle from Paris city center); 2) spatiotemporal patterns of the CHIMERE model evaluated against the IASI and CrIS datasets for 2014 and 2015; and 3) the main meteorological parameters favoring the secondary PM$_{2.5}$ formation from NH$_3$ in the Paris megacity are analyzed.

2. **Methodology**

2.1. **Region of analysis**

The domain of analysis covers a circular area of 400 km radius around the Paris city center (Figure 1, larger circle) enabling the study of temporal and spatial variabilities of NH$_3$ emission sources likely to affect air quality in the Paris megacity. It has been selected for two reasons. First, it includes main regions known for their high NH$_3$ emissions, which can be transported and affect air quality over the Parisian region (Ile-de-France –IdF-, smaller circle in Figure 1). Emission regions in the Netherlands, North of Germany, Northwest of Belgium, and the Brittany region in France, are highlighted in darker colors in Figure 1 (emissions values are from the European Monitoring and Evaluation Programme -EMEP- 2015). Second, this area corresponds to the transport of 24 hours back-trajectories from Paris generated from the HYSPLIT model for one year, ensuring that NH$_3$ can indeed be efficiently transported from the emitting sources within the selected domain to the IdF region.

2.2. **Satellite observations of ammonia**

For this study we used the available data from IASI and CrIS which are both Fourier transform spectrometers to evaluate the current capacity to observe NH$_3$ concentrations from space, and study its variability around IdF. Technical information are summarized in Table 1.

2.2.1. **Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI)**

IASI is a nadir-viewing spectrometer launched on board the Metop-A and Metop-B satellites and operated by EUMETSAT (European Organisation for the Exploitation of Meteorological Satellites), since October 2006 and September 2012, respectively. These satellites are on similar polar orbits with Equator crossing times at 09:30 (21:30) local mean solar time for the descending (ascending) orbit. IASI measures the thermal infrared radiation of the system Earth-atmosphere in the spectral range from 645 to 2760 cm$^{-1}$ with a spectral resolution 0.5 cm$^{-1}$.
The satellite swath is an area of 2200 km width composed by off-nadir measurements up to 48.3° on both sides of the track. At nadir, the IASI field of view is composed of 4 x 4 pixels of 12 km diameter each [Clerbaux et al., 2009]. The NH$_3$ total columns used here are derived from IASI using an Artificial Neural Network reanalyzed with ERA-interim data (ANNI-NH3-v2.1R [Van Damme et al., 2017]). This dataset is consistent in time and suitable for investigating inter-annual variability, which is one purpose of this study. Note that we have considered here only morning measurements (9:30) since the evening ones (21:30) are associated with larger relative errors [Van Damme et al., 2017]. IASI retrievals provide a robust error estimate for each IASI-NH3 observations, allowing to take into account the variable sensitivity when comparing IASI dataset with independent measurements. Finally, no filter on relative errors of the IASI datasets has been applied following recommendations from Van Damme et al. (2017) and outliers for which concentrations exceed 10 standard deviations above the mean in the domain of study have been removed.

Over the studied area, Metop-A and Metop-B have an overpass time difference ranging from only a few seconds to 67 minutes depending on the viewing geometry of the satellite scans; the average difference is 26 minutes for the 1325 days of common measurements. Monthly maps for the 10 years of observations between 2008 and 2017 are obtained by averaging Metop-A and whenever Metop-B (the two instruments are considered jointly for their period of common operation from March 2013 to 2017) with more than 10$^5$ pixels on average over the domain of analysis. The number of available NH$_3$ columns depends not only on the satellite overpass time but also on the state of the atmosphere being remotely sensed (e.g. thermal contrast and cloud cover). IASI NH$_3$ has been evaluated using the LOTOS-EUROS model over Europe [Van Damme et al., 2014b] and ground-based and airborne measurements [Van Damme et al., 2015b], showing consistency between the IASI NH$_3$ and the available datasets. When comparing IASI NH$_3$ (previous IASI-NN version) with ground-based Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) observations, a correlation of 0.8 and a slope of 0.73, with a mean relative difference of −32.4 ± (56.3)% have been found [Dammers et al., 2016].

2.2.2. Cross-track Infrared Sounder (CrIS)

The CrIS instrument [Zavyalov et al., 2013] is a Fourier Transform spectrometer operated by the Joint Polar Satellite System (JPSS) program on Suomi National Polar-orbiting Partnership (NPP) satellite, launched on 28 October 2011. CrIS is in a sun-synchronous orbit with a mean local daytime overpass time of 13:30 (01:30) in the ascending (descending) node. CrIS measures the atmospheric composition over three wavelength bands in the infrared region (645–1095 cm$^{-1}$; 1210–1750 cm$^{-1}$; 2155–2550 cm$^{-1}$). NH$_3$ retrievals are performed from the 645–1095 cm$^{-1}$ band with a spectral resolution of 0.625 cm$^{-1}$. The CrIS instrument scans a 2200 km swath width (+/-...
At nadir, the CrIS field of view consists of a $3 \times 3$ array of circular pixels of 14 km diameter each.

The CrIS Fast Physical Retrieval (CRPR) [Shephard and Cady-Pereira., 2015] uses an optimal estimation approach [Rodgers, 2000] that minimizes the difference between the CrIS measured atmospheric spectra and a very fast Optimal Spectral Sampling (OSS) [Moncet et al., 2008] forward model simulated spectrum to retrieve atmospheric profiles of ammonia volume mixing ratios. This physical approach provides direct estimates of the retrieval errors and the vertical sensitivity (averaging kernels) of the satellite observations, which is important as they vary from profile-to-profile depending on the atmospheric state. The retrieved error covariance and averaging kernels are also beneficial for air quality model comparisons and data assimilation into models as any a priori information used in the retrieval can be accounted for in a robust manner (i.e. observation operator). CrIS has been shown to retrieve ammonia surface concentrations values down to $\sim 0.2$-0.3 ppbv under favorable conditions [Kharol, et al., 2018].

CrIS comparisons with ground-based FTIR observations show a correlation of 0.77 with a low CrIS bias of +2% in the total column [Dammers et al., 2017]. Initial evaluation against surface observations from the Ammonia Monitoring Network (AMoN) show that even with the inherent sampling differences between the two surface observations they compare well with a correlation of 0.76 and an overall mean CrIS – AMoN difference of $\sim +15\%$ [Kharol et al., 2018].

For this study, the CrIS quality flag $= 4$ has been used, ensuring that retrievals provide some information from the measurement (degrees-of-freedom-of-signal — DOFS $> 0.1$). In addition, outliers for which concentrations exceed 10 standard deviations above the mean have been removed.

### 2.3. Modelling NH$_3$ from the CHIMERE model

The CHIMERE runs used in this study were obtained in the framework of the Copernicus Atmospheric Monitoring Service (CAMS, https://atmosphere.copernicus.eu/), and its annual task devoted to the production of regional reanalysis over Europe. The hindcasts for year 2014 and 2015 (raw simulation without data assimilation) were produced over Europe with a horizontal resolution of 0.1° per 0.1° and 9 vertical levels stretched from the surface up to 500 hPa ($\sim 5000m$). The input data to feed CHIMERE [Menut et al., 2013; Mailler et al., 2017] were the Integrated Forecasting System (IFS) meteorological data from European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF), the annual emission inventory provided by the Netherlands Organisation for Applied Scientific Research (TNO) [Kuenen et al., 2014] for year 2011. These annual emissions are then distributed in hourly data to feed CHIMERE using seasonal, weekly and hourly factors. Fire emissions come from the Global Fire Assimilation System (GFAS, [Kaiser et al., 2012]).
and the fire emissions from the Global Fire Assimilation System (GFAS, [Kaiser et al., 2012]). The model computes hourly concentrations for more than 180 species, among which are the regulated pollutants such as ozone, PM$_{10}$, and NH$_3$. The processes that will influence the NH$_3$ concentrations taken into consideration in CHIMERE are the dry deposition (following [Wesely et al., 1989] and wet deposition due to in-cloud process and precipitations. The gas-particulate phase equilibrium is computed with the ISOROPPIA module [Nenes et al, 1998] which is a thermodynamic equilibrium model for NH$_4^+$, NO$_3^-$ and SO$_4^{2-}$. It evaluates the NH$_3$NO$_3$ contribution to the particulate matter which is especially large during March-April pollution episodes [Petit et al., 2017].

Within CHIMERE a comprehensive modelling system allows to compute the evolutions of gaseous species and aerosols taking into account physical and chemical process. More than 30 gaseous species are involved in the chemical scheme and an aerosol module assesses the gas-particulate phase equilibrium and compute the aerosol composition (inorganic, organic and natural components). These datasets were evaluated over Europe for several pollutants before being used for air quality studies (http://policy.atmosphere.copernicus.eu/Reports.html).

The model NH$_3$ profiles were integrated vertically along the 9 km model layers to provide a column that can be compared to that of the satellite measurements. Concretely this makes the reasonable assumption that all the NH$_3$ is located within this 0-5km layer (see e.g. Figure 1 in [Whitburn et al., 2016]).

To evaluate the model capacity of reproducing NH$_3$ variability in space and time at regional scale and its impact on air quality at local scale, comparisons have been performed in 2014 and 2015 for the following different reasons. At regional scale (over the 400 km radius around Paris), NH$_3$ total columns derived from IASI in 2014 and 2015 are highly variable in spring, reaching 10% higher in March and 50% lower in May than the 10-years average. Since ammonia emission variability in France depends on seasonal timing of fertilizer applications [Ramanantenasoa et al., 2018], this period is crucial to assess the model capacity. Second, the IdF region (100 km radius around Paris) also experiences high NH$_3$ and PM$_{2.5}$ events in spring 2014 and 2015 (Figure S1). Thus, these years serve as benchmark to evaluate the model in terms of NH$_3$ variability and PM$_{2.5}$ formation at local and regional scales.

**2.4. Relative scales and coincidence criteria for dataset comparisons**

Direct quantitative comparisons of satellite NH$_3$ products are difficult because of the different overpass times and ground footprint sizes of the 2 space borne instruments, which are not compatible with the high variability of NH$_3$ in space and time. Therefore, the evaluation of satellite observations is often made with the use of in situ measurements performed at surface
and onboard aircrafts [Nowak et al., 2012; Van Damme et al., 2015b], or with ground-based remote-sounding FTIR [Dammers et al., 2016; Dammers et al., 2017].

The purpose here of comparing CrIS and IASI is to assess qualitatively the spatiotemporal patterns of the NH₃ sources derived from the two datasets and use these regional observations to evaluate the CHIMERE model in the domain of analysis at the local time for their respective overpasses: 9:30 and 13:30. CHIMERE outputs, in terms of NH₃ concentrations, have already been compared to the IASI observations at regional scale (Europe, [Fortems-Cheiney et al., 2016], and to surface measurements at local scale (Paris, [Petetin et al., 2016]), but have never been evaluated against the CrIS observations.

One aspect that needs to be considered when comparing concentration amounts inferred from infrared satellite observations is the importance of the algorithm and the a priori information used in the retrieval, especially for NH₃ which has limited vertical information. Some differences between the IASI and CrIS observations might arise due to instrument measurement differences (e.g. sensitivity), difference sampling period (e.g. overpass times of morning/evening vs middle of day/night), and retrieval algorithm differences, but they have both been validated and shown to capture well the spatiotemporal variations in lower tropospheric ammonia. Since the purpose of our study is not to quantitatively compare IASI and CrIS NH₃ data, but rather to use these independent datasets to assess NH₃ sources patterns over the domain and qualitatively evaluate the CHIMERE model in terms of NH₃ concentrations and variabilities, a standardization procedure was applied to their retrieved absolute NH₃ columns. We computed “standardized columns” for each independent dataset (IASI, CrIS, and CHIMERE, separately) for 2014 and 2015 over the domain of study in such a way that the corresponding values have a standard deviation of 1 and a mean of 0, as in [Wilks, 2011].

The standardized columns have been computed following equation 1:

\[ X_{\text{stand}} = \frac{(X_{\text{data}} - \mu(X_{\text{data}}))}{S(X_{\text{data}})} \]  

Where \( (X_{\text{data}}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i^{\text{data}} \) \( S(X_{\text{data}}) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N}(X_i - \mu)^2} \), \( X_{\text{data}} \) corresponds to NH₃ columns derived from a dataset (IASI, CrIS, or CHIMERE), and \( X_{\text{stand}} \) is the corresponding standardized dataset.

In addition, to compare CHIMERE outputs with satellite data/columns, spatial and temporal coincidence criteria have been applied. To compare satellite observations, all CrIS pixels located within a 25-km radius circle from the center of the IASI ground pixels have been considered within the same day of measurements. A spatial criterion of 25 km has been chosen because it optimizes the number of pairs involved in the statistics and improves the correlations. As for the
comparisons between the model and the observations: all CHIMERE outputs located within the same 0.15°x0.15° grid box than the satellite and within 1 hour from its measurement have been selected.

3. Results

3.1. \(\text{NH}_3\) regional observations derived from IASI (10-years) and CrIS (5-years)

3.1.1. Seasonal variabilities

First the seasonal variability was investigated over the IdF area. On a monthly basis, the 10-year and 5-year averaged regional \(\text{NH}_3\) total column distributions derived from IASI and CrIS were found to exhibit a high seasonality over the domain (Figures 2 and 3). Note that the distributions in Figures 2 and 3 have been obtained by averaging satellite \(\text{NH}_3\) observations in 0.25°x 0.25° grid boxes. Both satellite datasets exhibit the same variability over the domain even if the time period is different (10-years versus 5-years) and the sampling hour differs (~9.30 versus ~13.30). One note that CrIS and IASI \(\text{NH}_3\) columns present small differences in term of \(\text{NH}_3\) total columns in low concentration regimes in the domain of study.

In these figures (2 and 3) high \(\text{NH}_3\) concentrations (up to \(2.10^{16}\) molecules/cm\(^2\)) can be observed from March to August at different locations of the domain:

- The French Champagne-Ardennes region in March and April (Figures 2 and 3, box A),
- The northern part of the domain corresponding to the Netherlands and the North of Belgium from April to August (Figures 2 and 3, box B), and
- The Brittany/Pays de la Loire regions (West of France) mainly in April and August but still persistent from March to August (Figures 2 and 3, box C).

The observed seasonality is mainly related to agricultural practices (fertilizer application period varying as function of the crop types and type of farming species/livestock) and changes in temperatures, with higher temperatures favoring volatilization. This likely explains the high concentration in July and August.

In the Champagne-Ardenne region, areas of hotspots do not correspond to vineyards but to field vegetables and root crops ([https://agriculture.gouv.fr/overview-french-agricultural-diversity](https://agriculture.gouv.fr/overview-french-agricultural-diversity)) from the Institut National de la Recherche Agronomique INRA [https://odr.inra.fr/intranet/carto/cartowiki/index.php/OTEX_et_Orientation_Agricole_des_territoires](https://odr.inra.fr/intranet/carto/cartowiki/index.php/OTEX_et_Orientation_Agricole_des_territoires), and AGRESTE, Service Central d’Enquêtes et d’Études Statistiques, 2015 [http://agreste.agriculture.gouv.fr/IMG/pdf/R4215A15.pdf](http://agreste.agriculture.gouv.fr/IMG/pdf/R4215A15.pdf). This is a leader region for mineral fertilization used for sugar industry in France [Ramanantenasoa et al., 2018]. Hamaoui-Laguel et al. (2014) and Fortems-Cheiney et al. (2016) have previously noted that \(\text{NH}_3\) emissions in this
region, mainly due to fertilizer over barley, sugar beet, and potato starch in early March, were higher than what have been reported in the EMEP inventory.

NH$_3$ concentrations are high from April to August in the northern part of the domain that is known for its animal farming (Eurostat 2014, [Van Damme et al., 2014a; Scarlat et al., 2018 – their figure 2]).

In the Pays de la Loire, NH$_3$ concentrations are high in April and August and remain relatively high from March to September. Hotspots are found in areas of livestock farming, mainly poultry and granivorous [Robinson et al., 2014 - their figure 2c], which might explains the high and relatively constant NH$_3$ concentrations over warmer periods in this region.

3.1.2. Inter-annual variabilities

As can be seen in Figures 2 and 3, NH$_3$ concentrations are enhanced between March and August in the domain. In this section, inter-annual variabilities are discussed regarding meteorological conditions and agricultural practices during this time period.

Inter-annual variability of NH$_3$ is higher in springtime than in summer, e.g. in June the variance is 8 times lower than for the other months. To illustrate the inter-annual variability in springtime, maps of monthly mean NH$_3$ total columns derived in March-April period from IASI (2008-2017 time period) and from CrIS (2013-2017 time period) are shown in Figure 4. Both satellite distributions exhibit the same inter-annual variability from 2013 to 2017 with higher NH$_3$ concentrations in 2015 over the northern part of the domain than the other years. NH$_3$ concentrations derived from IASI in 2011 are 150% higher in spring (March and April) compared to 2016 (Figure 4). It has been recently shown that spatial variability of NH$_3$ emissions in France is due to fertilizer use and type and pedoclimatic conditions, and that temporal variability depends on seasonal timing of fertilizer applications [Ramanantenasoa et al., 2018]. In addition, inter-annual variabilities of NH$_3$ concentrations over the United States are dominated by meteorological conditions [Schiferl et al., 2016]. Thus, inter-annual variability of observed NH$_3$ total columns is likely to be partly driven by meteorological conditions and specific agricultural constrains (crop type and phenological stage for instance).

To investigate the impact of meteorological conditions on atmospheric NH$_3$ variability, we computed the monthly mean anomalies of total precipitation versus skin temperature derived from ECMWF ERA-interim [Dee et al., 2011], color coded by NH$_3$ total columns anomalies derived from IASI, as shown in Figure 5. Monthly mean anomalies have been calculated relative to the 10-years averages (in %). In this figure, monthly NH$_3$ total columns are at least 10% higher (positive anomalies, red dots) when skin temperatures are higher and total precipitation are lower than the 10-year average. In contrast, negative monthly NH$_3$ total columns anomalies
(blue dots, Figure 5) are associated with higher total precipitation and lower skin temperatures than the 10-years average. To further detail this analysis, Figure 1 of the supplement information shows bar plots of monthly mean NH$_3$ total columns derived from IASI, total precipitation and skin temperature derived from ECMWF from March to August, plotted in different colors for the different years of measurements from 2008 to 2017. NH$_3$ total columns are larger by more than 300% in March-April 2012 compared to 2013 (Figure S21a). Total precipitation is higher (0.4 mm compared to 1 mm, Figure S21b) and skin temperature is lower (281 compared to 288 K, Figure S21c) in March 2013 than in March 2012 on average over the domain. Overall, total precipitation is anti-correlated with NH$_3$ concentrations in the atmosphere ($R = -0.52$ from March to May for all years, not shown here) likely because of a) the wet deposition importance in the atmospheric NH$_3$ removal and b) the absence of fertilization during rainy periods. Skin temperature is relatively correlated with NH$_3$ concentrations ($R = 0.303$ from March to May for all years) since higher temperature increases volatilization of NH$_3$ from the surface to the atmosphere.

In addition, NH$_3$ concentration is maximum in March 2011 whereas it peaks later in April for 2012 (Figure S21a). Springtime is a spreading fertilizer period depending on many agricultural and meteorological constrains. When temperature are mild, such as in 2012 (Figure S21b), fertilizer spreading may occur sooner because the phenological growth stage might be is more advanced. Fertilizing process period also varies in function of the sowing date which depends on agricultural practices and crop types: corn is fertilized in early spring whereas rapeseed is in late spring.

Overall, all these meteorological (precipitation and temperature) and agricultural (fertilizer and manure applications) parameters are possible factors to account for the high NH$_3$ inter-annual variabilities revealed by both IASI and CrIS in the domain of study.

### 3.2. Comparisons of NH$_3$ columns derived from IASI, CrIS, and CHIMERE for 2014 and 2015

To discuss the representation of agricultural emissions in the models in terms of intensity and both spatial and temporal distributions, regional satellite observations derived from IASI and CrIS have been compared to the CHIMERE model in the region of analysis.

#### 3.2.1. Annual cycle

Standardized monthly mean concentrations derived from IASI, CrIS, and CHIMERE for 2014 and 2015 are shown in Figure 6. These years were selected as NH$_3$ total columns were found to vary a lot, reaching 10% higher in March and 50% lower in May than the 10-years average.
As can be seen from the plot, the 3 datasets exhibit similar patterns in terms of seasonality: all are enhanced in March-April and in summer, and show a decrease in May. However two major differences can be noted.

First, CrIS standardized NH$_3$ columns are higher in winter (November, December, and January) compared to the other dataset which can be also be seen in Figure 3. This could be attributed to a higher number of outliers, given the larger standard deviation (shaded areas, Figure 6) and no attempt to account for potential non-detects when concentrations fall below the instrument detection limits. For these months, NH$_3$ levels are low and undetectable by satellite observations (Figures 2 and 3) so these high values could be interpreted as observational noise. The detection limit depends on the instrument characteristics and atmospheric state, with IASI minimum detection limit of ~2-3 ppbv (~4-6.10$^{15}$ molecules.cm$^{-2}$) [Clarisse et al., 2010] and CrIS ~0.5-1.0 ppbv (~1-2.10$^{15}$ molecules.cm$^{-2}$) [Shephard and Cady-Pereira, 2015; Kharol et. al., 2018]. **Note that values below detection limits have not been filtered out from the IASI dataset whereas the quality flag was used to discard CrIS’s retrievals associated with DOFS<=0.1** (Section 2.2.2) favors larger observed columns. Consequently, the normalized seasonal cycle amplitude derived from CrIS is weaker than the IASI one.

Second, the CHIMERE standardized NH$_3$ columns are enhanced in September 2014, which is not supported by the observations. It has been recently shown that CHIMERE overestimated NH$_3$ emissions in autumn over Europe [Couvidat et al., 2018]. Generally, the amplitude of the modelled seasonal cycle exceeds the measured ones, which could be explained by higher concentrations measured in winter due to the observational noise and lower emissions. **This is a different finding than in Schiferl et al. (2016) since they restricted IASI high relative errors when comparing to the GEOS-Chem model over the United-States, which inherently favors larger columns and thus lead to weaken the observed seasonal cycle.**

Over the whole period, the coefficient of determination ($r^2$) between the standardized monthly mean NH$_3$ columns derived from IASI (CrIS), and the CHIMERE model is 0.58 (0.18) for the annual cycles of 2014 and 2015 **with low associated p-values of 1.5 10$^{-5}$ (0.06) reflecting the significance level of the fits** (not shown here). If we only consider months of high NH$_3$ in the domain from March to August, the correlation between the observational datasets and the model is **rather good with $r^2$ values linear regression slope values** between IASI (CrIS) and CHIMERE of **0.290.98 (0.1471) with associated p-values of 0.07 (0.24)**, as shown in Figure 7. **Since annual total emissions are the same for the two years and simply disaggregated with a monthly profile in the model, the correlations reveal that the seasonal cycle is likely to be reproduced by the model. In addition, year-to-year variability can be seen in the model with lower concentrations in March 2015 compared to 2014 for instance, despite constant emissions in the 2-years simulation. This interannual variability is likely to be attributed to meteorological**
conditions changes. However, the values of the \( r^2 \) lower than 0.5 indicate that the CHIMERE model only reproduces at most half of the observed monthly temporal \( \text{NH}_3 \) variabilities in the domain. Similar variabilities are found between the observations and the model outputs since the coefficients of correlation of the standard deviations are 0.4 and 0.6 between CHIMERE and IASI and CrIS, respectively.

### 3.2.2. Spatial variability of \( \text{NH}_3 \) in springtime

The IASI and CrIS regional maps have been compared to the CHIMERE model for the March-April period in 2014 and 2015 to evaluate the model’s capacity to reproduce the spatial distribution of the episodic emissions from fertilizer spreading practices in springtime, as well as their inter-annual variability. Satellite \( \text{NH}_3 \) measurements in springtime have been gridded at 0.15°x 0.15° spatial resolution, and the associated CHIMERE maps have been computed following the coincident criteria described in section 2.4 at the same spatial resolution (Figures 8 and 9).

First one can notice that the spatial distribution of \( \text{NH}_3 \) observed in springtime by both satellite instruments are in good agreement, even though their overpass time is different (~4 hours apart). This was already seen in the inter-annual variability agreement seen in Figure 4. In spring 2014, IASI and CrIS both reveal three main regions of enhanced \( \text{NH}_3 \) concentrations (North, Champagne-Ardennes, and Brittany/Pays de la Loire region) already identified by the 10-years and 5-years of IASI and CrIS observation maps (Boxes A, B, and C of Figures 2 and 3). In 2015, concentrations of \( \text{NH}_3 \) in the northern part of the domain are higher than in 2014, as indicated by both IASI and CrIS observations (Figure 9, upper panels). Overall, satellite observations are able to capture similar spatial distributions of high \( \text{NH}_3 \) concentrations in springtime, and their evolution in time.

In spring 2014, the CHIMERE model reproduces the high concentrations in the three regions of the domain identified in Figures 2 and 3. Additional \( \text{NH}_3 \) hot spots in the southeastern part of the domain including the Po Valley, Switzerland, and the wine region between Besancon and Lyon (blue box in Figure 8) are indicated by the CHIMERE model. \( \text{NH}_3 \) emissions in this latter region are comparable to average agricultural plains over France. Only dispersion conditions related to wind speed and boundary layer height can explain high \( \text{NH}_3 \) concentrations over this area.

In spring 2015, satellite observations and the CHIMERE model outputs exhibit very similar patterns in term of high \( \text{NH}_3 \) distributions, with however higher \( \text{NH}_3 \) concentrations indicated by the model in the southern part of the domain (blue box in Figure 9).

Finally, the (model - observations) differences between the standardized \( \text{NH}_3 \) column derived from the satellite instruments in springtime 2014-2015 and the corresponding \( \text{NH}_3 \) columns derived from the CHIMERE model are shown in Figure 2 of the supplement information. One
can see that very similar patterns are presented when comparing the model to independent satellite observations from IASI and CrIS: the modelled NH₃ concentrations are systematically lower for both years over Belgium and United Kingdom, and higher in the southern part of the domain (green square, Figure S22) including the Pays de la Loire region (box C in Figures 2 and 3), and in the southeastern part of the domain (over the North part of Switzerland and the Plateau du Jura region - between Besancon and Lyon cities – blue box in Figure 8). Reasons of enhanced NH₃ columns derived from the model in this latter region are not clear yet. An explanation could be that the temporal distribution of the emissions is misrepresented in the model since the modelled concentrations are enhanced in April whereas the two satellite observations are enhanced earlier in March for both years. It is worth noting that there are no EMEP stations measuring surface NH₃ concentrations in these regions. As for the Brittany/Pays de la Loire region, it has already been shown that the LOTOS-EUROS atmospheric model [Schaap et al., 2008] using similar chemistry schemes and NH₃ emissions shows higher columns each year in this area [Van Damme et al., 2014b].

3.3. Comparisons of PM₂.₅ concentrations in IdF derived from the Airparif network and CHIMERE for 2014 and 2015

To evaluate the model capacity to reproduce PM₂.₅ concentrations over the Parisian region, comparisons between the Airparif measurements network and the CHIMERE outputs have been performed for 2014 and 2015 (Figure 11). For those years, concentrations of PM₂.₅ are measured hourly from the surface at 13 Airparif stations distributed over the IdF region (black dots, Figure 1). To compare with the CHIMERE model, we have extracted the hourly surface PM₂.₅ outputs in the IdF region, i.e. within a 50 km-radius circle from Paris.

Results of the comparison are shown in Figure 11. Day-to-Day variability of PM₂.₅ concentrations at the surface is well represented by the CHIMERE model with however differences during pollution events in March/April and in December for both years. The model may underestimate PM₂.₅ concentrations in spring due to unknown PM₂.₅ formation processes, but overestimate them in winter which could be due to uncertainties on NH₃ emissions from wood burning processes. Overall, good agreement is found between the measurements and the model in term of PM₂.₅ concentrations over the IdF region given values of r² of 0.56 (associated with p-value of 6 × 10⁻¹³), a slope of 0.67 ± 3.51, with a slightly underestimation of the CHIMERE model given a mean relative difference (calculated as model-observations/observations) of -18% over 2014 and 2015.

3.3. Conditions for PM formation in the Paris megacity

3.4. Conditions for PM formation in the Paris megacity
To investigate the impact of intensive agriculture practices on the Paris megacity air quality, we need to better understand the role of NH$_3$ in the formation of PM$_{2.5}$ that depends, among others, on specific meteorological conditions such as atmospheric temperature and humidity that alter the gas-particle partitioning. The link between high NH$_3$ concentrations inducing PM$_{2.5}$ formation in the Paris megacity is known [Petetin et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2013] but quantification of such phenomena is difficult due the lack of long-term NH$_3$ monitoring in the IdF region. PM$_{2.5}$ is however measured hourly at several locations in Paris by the Airparif network (https://www.airparif.asso.fr/, Figure 1). Thanks to the 10 years of IASI observations, an observational evidence of PM$_{2.5}$ formation in the IdF region (100 km around Paris - black box in Figure 1) is represented in Figure S43. Simultaneous enhancements in March of PM$_{2.5}$ measured at the surface and NH$_3$ columns derived from the IASI observations over the IdF region are clearly visible. However, high concentrations of NH$_3$ observed in summer are not associated with high PM$_{2.5}$ concentrations. This reflects the complexity of the PM$_{2.5}$ formation depending on various factors, such as NH$_3$ emissions, atmospheric chemistry (acidic content of the atmosphere), transport, and specific meteorological conditions involved in the gas to solid phase conversion between NH$_3$ and ammonium salts.

To evaluate the impact of long-range transport on NH$_3$ levels observed over the Parisian region (IdF) in spring, back-trajectory analysis was performed. In total 231 24-hours back-trajectories ending in Paris (period from February 15th to May 15th from 2013 to 2016) were classified into 8 clusters using HYSPLIT (https://ready.arl.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT.php). Figure 10 shows the mean trajectories for each cluster associated with the average NH$_3$ total columns measured by IASI over the IdF region. In this figure, higher NH$_3$ columns are found under the influence of air masses transported from the northern part of the domain (over Belgium and the Netherlands, clusters 4 and 5) and from the Brittany region (cluster 8), which are the major sources regions of NH$_3$ in spring in the domain as previously identified (Figures 2 and 3). Indeed, NH$_3$ columns over the Netherlands are relatively correlated to NH$_3$ columns measured over IdF since the cross-correlation function is 0.37 at lag = 0 and above 0.3 at lag = ±1 day over the whole time period (2008-2016 - Figure S5). Clusters 2 and 3 (Figure 10) are associated with intermediate NH$_3$ levels since air masses moved slowly transporting NH$_3$-rich air from rural regions near IdF (such as the Champagne-Ardennes region - Box A in Figures 2 and 3) to Paris. Finally, low NH$_3$ concentrations are measured when air masses originated from ocean regions passing through continental areas with minor NH$_3$ sources in spring (clusters 1, 6 and 7, Figure 10). This reflects the importance of long-range transport in the NH$_3$ budget observed over the Paris megacity in spring.

To quantitatively assess the influence of meteorological parameters on the formation of PM$_{2.5}$ from NH$_3$ in the IdF region, timeseries of NH$_3$ total columns, PM$_{2.5}$ surface concentrations, and five meteorological parameters (temperature at 2 m, boundary layer height, total precipitation, and relative humidity, and wind field) derived from ECMWF - ERA-Interim. [Dee
et al., 2011, Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S), 2017] were analyzed. To compute daily
and monthly means, IASI NH$_3$ total columns have been averaged over IdF (black box in Figure 1),
PM$_{2.5}$ concentrations measured between 9 AM and 11 AM have been averaged over the 14
stations (dark points in Figure 1), and ECMWF data have been averaged over a 300 km region
around Paris (the blue box in Figure 1). Figure 1 shows all these parameters for spring 2014.

We have flagged pollution episodes in both time series (PM$_{2.5}$ and NH$_3$) by selecting data above
1-sigma standard deviation over the mean of the datasets from 2013 to 2016. This time period
was selected to have enough IASI observations in the IdF region. Then two cases have been
defined to study the temporal correlation between NH$_3$ and PM$_{2.5}$: case A in which both NH$_3$ and
PM$_{2.5}$ pollution episodes appear simultaneously, i.e. within the same day or 2 days apart
(shaded in red in Figure 1); case B in which pollution episodes appear at least 3 days apart
(shaded in blue in Figure 1). In Figure 1, a strong relationship between peaks of NH$_3$, PM$_{2.5}$
and meteorological parameters can be seen. For example, between March 3$^{rd}$ and March 19$^{th}$
2014 (case A), the boundary layer height is exceptionally low (456 m; compared to 760 m on
average); the temperature is relatively low (280 K; 282 K on average); and there is no
precipitation (0.01 mm/h; 0.11 mm/h on average). One note that peaks of maximum NH$_3$
observed in IdF on March 11$^{th}$ and 12$^{th}$ are associated with air masses coming from the northern
part of the domain (clusters 4 and 5 in Figure 10). In contrast, for the case B in which
appearance of peaks of NH$_3$ and PM$_{2.5}$ is not simultaneous, meteorological conditions are
different: the boundary layer is thicker (908 m on April 23$^{rd}$ 2014), or temperature is higher (285
K on April 11$^{th}$ 2014).

To further investigate the influence of meteorological parameters on the pollution episodes in
the IdF region, detailed analysis have been made over the whole dataset. Figure 1 shows the
statistical distribution of meteorological parameters corresponding to case A, case B, and all
observations. One can see that for the whole dataset the boundary layer height is significantly
lower in case A (550 ± 205 m) than in case B (751 ± 276 m), and that precipitations are absent in
case A (0.019 mm/h) compared to case B (0.085 mm/h). The temperature at 2 meters also
differs between the two cases (case A: 278 ± 3 K; case B: 282 ± 4 K), but the humidity is almost
the same (70% ± 17% versus 75% ± 18). Results also suggest that simultaneous enhancements of
NH$_3$ and PM$_{2.5}$ over Paris (cases A) are mainly associated with wind fields dominantly coming
from the Northeast part of the domain (Figure 5). Thus the combination of the following four
meteorological parameters favors simultaneous appearances of NH$_3$ and of PM$_{2.5}$ in Paris (i.e.
case A): low surface temperatures (5°C), with thin boundary layers (~500m), rare precipitations,
and northeast wind (%). Thus the combination of the following three meteorological parameters
favors simultaneous appearances of NH$_3$ and of PM$_{2.5}$ in Paris (i.e. case A): low surface
temperatures (5°C), with thin boundary layers (~500m), and rare precipitations. In addition, the
Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test ([Wilks, 2011], not shown here) indicates that each single
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A parameter has no significant influence on the NH$_3$-PM$_{2.5}$ correlation. Therefore only a combination of these different parameters has an impact on secondary aerosol formation from NH$_3$.

An explanation of these findings might be that anticyclonic conditions (low planetary boundary layer), preventing pollutant dispersions in the lower atmosphere [Salmond and McKendry, 2005], along with moderate wind fields allow NH$_3$ plumes to be transported from rural to urban regions [Petit et al., 2015]. In addition, thanks to relatively low atmospheric temperatures and a moderate relative humidity, conversion of gas phase NH$_3$ to ammonium salts is then accentuated via optimal phase equilibrium [Watson et al., 1994; Nenes et al., 1998]. Finally, with the absence of rain, ammonium salts are stabilized in the aerosols.

Our observations are in agreement with previous studies [Bessagnet et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2015], which have shown that the formation of ammonium salt needs a specific humidity of 60 - 70%, mainly because it corresponds to the deliquescence point of NH$_4$NO$_3$ in ambient air. This is in agreement with our results since the mean of relative humidity in case A is 70%. Our results also support the idea that a relatively low atmospheric temperature favor PM$_{2.5}$ formation in particular since the phase equilibrium leads to NH$_4$NO$_3$ decomposition above 30 °C.

4. Conclusions

This study focuses on seasonal and inter-annual variabilities of NH$_3$ concentrations in a 400 km radius-circle area around Paris to assess the evolution of major NH$_3$ agricultural sources and its key role in the formation of the secondary aerosols that affect air quality over the Paris megacity.

Thanks to 10-years and 5-years of regional NH$_3$ observations derived from IASI and CrIS, three main regions of high NH$_3$ occurring between March and August were identified. Observed inter-annual variabilities of NH$_3$ concentrations have been discussed with respect to total precipitations and atmospheric temperature, showing that total precipitations are anti-correlated with high NH$_3$ concentrations, and that mild temperature in late winter might causes precocious fertilizer spreading due to advanced phenological growth stage.

To evaluate our knowledge on agricultural emissions in terms of intensity and both spatial and temporal distributions, coincident CHIMERE model outputs have been compared to satellite observations of IASI and CrIS for 2014 and 2015. The annual cycle is well reproduced by the model (correlation slopes of 0.98 and 0.71 between the model and IASI and CrIS, respectively) but the model is only able to reproduce half of the observed atmospheric NH$_3$ variability. Focusing on spring periods (March-April 2014 and 2015) of episodic NH$_3$ emissions, the two independent satellite observations derived from IASI and CrIS show very similar spatial distributions of high NH$_3$ concentrations, as well as their evolution in time. The comparison
between CHIMERE NH₃ columns and coincident satellite observations highlights the same
difference spatial patterns with a systematic underestimation of NH₃ concentrations from the
model over Belgium and an overestimation in the southern part of the domain (French
Brittany/Pays de la Loire and Plateau du Jura regions, as well as North of Switzerland).

Focusing on the Ile-de-France (IdF, 100 km around Paris) region, we found that air masses
originated from rich-NH₃ areas, mainly the northern part of the domain over Belgium and the
Netherlands, increase the observed NH₃ total columns measured by IASI over the urban area of
Paris. In this region, we also found that the CHIMERE model is able to reproduce the day-to-day
variability of PM₂.₅ concentrations ($r^2$ of 0.56), with however an underestimation during spring
pollution events, which could be due to unknown secondary aerosol formation processes.

To assess the link between NH₃ and PM₂.₅ over the Parisian (IdF) region, the main
meteorological parameters driving the optimal conditions involved in the PM₂.₅ formation have
been identified. The results show that relatively low temperature, thin boundary layer, coupled
with almost no precipitation and wind coming from the northeast, favor the PM₂.₅ formation
with the presence of atmospheric NH₃ in the IdF region. Based on a more observational
approach over large time scale, this work is in agreement with previous studies.

This study highlights the need for a better representative NH₃ monitoring to improve numerical
simulation of spatial and temporal NH₃ variabilities, especially at fine scales. In order to
compare IASI and CrIS data in absolute values, it would be recommended to derive both
datasets using the same retrieval algorithm. Thus, by combining these datasets bi-daily NH₃
total columns in absolute values at regional scale would be provided. This would help inferring
variability of top-down NH₃ emissions. Complementarily, long term quantification of NH₃ diurnal
cycle inside Paris would improve comparisons with local PM₂.₅ needed to understand secondary
aerosols formations. For this purpose, an ongoing activity consists in the deployment of a mini-
DOAS instrument [Volten et al., 2012] used for long-term and continuous monitoring of
atmospheric NH₃ concentrations in the center of Paris from the QUALAIR platform
(http://www.ipsl.fr/en/Our-research/Atmospheric-chemistry-and-air-quality/Tropospheric-
chemistry/QUALAIR). Finally, the geostationary-orbit sounder IRS-MTG ([Stuhlmann et al.,
2005], to be launched after 2022) will provide NH₃ columns at very high sampling rate (every 0.5
hour over Europe) with an unprecedented spatial resolution (pixel size of 4 km).

**Author contribution:**
CV wrote the paper with contributions of all coauthors. CV and CC designed the study. MV, LC,
and SW performed IASI retrievals and ED, MWS, and KEC performed the CrIS retrievals. FM ran
the CHIMERE simulations. CV and TW analyzed the data with guidance from CC and PFC. All
authors discussed the results and contributed to the final paper.
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References


Figure 1: Region of analysis: 400 km radius-circle around the Paris megacity and 100 km around Paris. The latter is representative of the Ile-de-France (IdF) region where the Airparif PM observational network is located. Black points are the locations of the Airparif stations measuring hourly PM$_{2.5}$ concentration at the surface. The black (blue) box delimitates the IdF region in which the IASI NH$_3$ (ECMWF) data have been considered. The overlay represents NH$_3$ emissions (in Mg per year and per cell of 0.1°x0.1°) derived from the EMEP inventory for 2015.
Figure 2: Monthly means of NH$_3$ total columns (molecules/cm$^2$) derived from 10 years (2008-2017) of IASI NH$_3$-retrieved columns. The blue cross indicates Paris location.
Figure 3: Monthly means of NH₃ total columns (molecules/cm²) derived from 5 years (2013-2017) of CrIS NH₃-retrieved columns. The blue cross indicates Paris location.
Figure 4: Maps of monthly mean $NH_3$ total columns (molecules/cm$^2$) in March-April period derived from IASI from 2008 to 2017 and CrIS from 2013 to 2017.
Figure 5: Scatter plot of monthly mean anomaly (relative to the 10-years – 2008 to 2017 - monthly average) of total precipitation versus skin temperature derived from ECMWF from March to August in the domain, and color coded by the NH$_3$ total columns anomaly derived from IASI.
Figure 6: Standardized monthly mean concentrations derived from IASI (red), CrIS (black), and CHIMERE sampled at IASI overpass time and space (blue) and CHIMERE sample at CrIS overpass time and space (cyan) for 2014 and 2015. Shaded areas correspond to the one-sigma standard deviation around the means.
Figure 7: Correlation plots between monthly means NH$_3$ standardized concentrations derived from satellite observations (IASI in red and CrIS in black) and the CHIMERE outputs for the March to August months of 2014 and 2015. The 1:1 line is represented in the dashed line. Error bars represent the one-sigma standard deviation around the monthly means.
Figure 8: Standardized NH$_3$ column derived from the satellite instruments (IASI = top left panel, and CrIS = top right panel) and the corresponding NH$_3$ column derived from the CHIMERE model (coincident with IASI – bottom left panel, and coincident with CrIS – bottom left panel) for March-April 2014. Blue dots indicate Paris location.
Figure 9: Same as Figure 7 but for March-April 2015.
Figure 10: Cluster analysis of 24-h backward trajectories arriving in spring in Paris (from February 15\textsuperscript{th} to May 15\textsuperscript{th} for the 2013-2016 period) using HYSPLIT-4 model obtained from the NOAA Air Resources Laboratory. Mean trajectories of the 8 clusters are shown in different colors, associated with the NH\textsubscript{3} concentrations measured by IASI in the IdF region (in molecules/cm\textsuperscript{2}).
Figure 11: Comparison between PM$_{2.5}$ concentrations derived from the Airparif network and the CHIMERE model outputs. Left panel: time serie of the daily mean PM$_{2.5}$ concentrations (in $\mu$g/m$^3$) observed at the surface with the Airparif network (red) and calculated with the CHIMERE model (black), associated with relative differences (in %) calculated as model-observations for 2014 and 2015. Right panel: correlation plots between daily mean PM$_{2.5}$ concentrations derived from the CHIMERE model versus the Airparif network.
Figure 12: Average concentrations of NH$_3$ total columns derived from IASI (in molecules/cm$^2$; orange, upper panel) and PM$_{2.5}$ derived from the Airparif network selected within 2 hours from the IASI overpass (in $\mu$g/m$^3$; red, upper panel) for 2014 as example. Periods of simultaneous (independent) enhancements of NH$_3$ and PM concentrations are represented with red (blue) areas, i.e. case A (case B). Temperature at 2 meters (in Kelvin; green, upper middle panel), boundary layer height (in meter; blue, upper middle panel), precipitation (in meter; dark blue, lower middle panel), and relative humidity (in percent; purple, lower middle panel), and wind speed and directions (lower panel) derived from the ECMWF ERA-interim.
Figure 1: Statistical distributions of meteorological parameters corresponding to case A, case B, and all observations derived from 2013 to 2016. The medians and the quartiles are presented.
by center lines and borders of the boxes, respectively. The mean values are indicated by red points, and the extreme values (i.e. those beyond Q1 - 1.5 IQR and Q3 + 1.5 IQR) by black points. The IQR is the "interquartile range", and it equals to Q3 - Q1 where Q3 and Q1 are the 75th and 25th percentiles. Setting the thresholds at Q1 - 1.5 * IQR and Q3 + 1.5 * IQR is a common practice to determine outliers.
<table>
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<th>Satellite</th>
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<th>Time coverage</th>
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<th>Spectral range (cm(^{-1}))</th>
<th>Spectral resolution (cm(^{-1}))</th>
<th>Spectral Noise ((\text{K}) @ 270\text{K} @ 970\text{ cm}^{-1})</th>
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<td>CrIS</td>
<td>Suomi-NPP 1.30 (AM/PM)</td>
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<td>0.625; ~0.05</td>
<td>Zavyalov et al., 2013 (unapodized)</td>
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*Spectral noise comparison values in main ammonia spectral region (~970 cm\(^{-1}\)) obtained from Zavyalov et al., 2013.

Table 1: Instrumental specifications for the IASI and CrIS satellite instruments.