1 Retrieval of ammonia from ground-based FTIR solar spectra

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- 16 Abstract We present a retrieval method for ammonia (NH₃) total columns from ground-based Fourier
- 17 Transform InfraRed (FTIR) observations. Observations from Bremen (53.10N, 8.85E), Lauder (45.04S,
- 18 169.68E), Reunion (20.9S, 55.50E) and Jungfraujoch (46.55N, 7.98E) were used to illustrate the capabilities of
- 19 the method. NH₃ mean total columns ranging three orders of magnitude were obtained with higher values at
- 20 Bremen (mean of 13.47e15 molecules cm⁻²) to the lower values at Jungfraujoch (mean of 0.18e15 molecules
- 21 cm⁻²). In conditions with high surface concentrations of ammonia, as in Bremen, it is possible to retrieve
- 22 information on the vertical gradient as two layers can be discriminated. The retrieval there is most sensitive to
- ammonia in the planetary boundary layer, where the trace gas concentration is highest. For conditions with low
- 24 concentrations only the total column can be retrieved. Combining the systematic and random errors we have a
- 25 mean total error of 26% for all spectra measured at Bremen (Number of spectra (N) =554), 30% for all spectra
- 26 from Lauder (N=2412), 25% for spectra from Reunion (N=1262) and 34% for spectra measured at Jungfraujoch
- 27 (N=2702). The error is dominated by the systematic uncertainties in the spectroscopy parameters. Station
- 28 specific seasonal cycles were found to be consistent with known seasonal cycles of the dominant ammonia
- 29 sources in the station surroundings. The developed retrieval methodology from FTIR-instruments provides a
- 30 new way to obtain highly time-resolved measurements of ammonia burdens. FTIR-NH₃ observations will be
- 31 useful for understanding the dynamics of ammonia concentrations in the atmosphere and for satellite and model
- 32 validation. It will also provide additional information to constrain the global ammonia budget.

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35 **1. Introduction**

36 Nitrogen emissions in the form of ammonia (NH_3) , which largely derive from agriculture, have been associated 37 with acidification and eutrophication of soils and surface waters (Krupa, 2003; Vitousek et al., 1997), which may reduce biodiversity in vulnerable ecosystems (Bobbink et al., 1998, 2010). Ammonia also reacts with nitric acid 38 39 and sulphuric acid to form ammonium salts, which account for a large fraction of particulate matter concentrations 40 (Schaap et al., 2004). Particulate matter is a major contributor to smog and is related to negative health impacts 41 (Pope et al., 2009). Moreover ammonium salts play an important role in the radiance balance of the Earth, thus 42 having an impact on climate change (Charlson et al., 1991, Erisman et al., 2007). It was shown that reduced 43 nitrogen also plays a role in the fixation of carbon dioxide (CO₂) (Reay et al., 2008). Human activities have 44 increased the global emissions of reactive nitrogen (Nr) to the atmosphere (Holland et al., 1999). Current global 45 Nr emissions have been estimated to be almost four times larger compared to pre-industrial levels (Fowler et al., 46 2013) with NH₃ emissions amounting to 49.3Tg in 2008 (EDGAR-Emission Database for Global Atmospheric 47 Research, 2011). Consequently this has led to large increases in atmospheric nitrogen deposition (Rodhe et al., 48 2002; Dentener et al., 2006). Biomass burning was found to account for 11% of the global emission budget of 49 NH₃ (Bouwman et al., 1997). While the agricultural emissions dominate in the Northern Hemisphere, biomass 50 burning is one of the main sources of the NH₃ concentrations in the Southern Hemisphere.

51 Despite its central role in many environmental threats, little is known about the ammonia budget and its 52 distribution across the globe. Uncertainties in global and regional emission rates are large with errors of more than 53 50% (Erisman et al., 2007; Sutton et al., 2013). Ammonia concentrations have a large variability in time and 54 space, a short lifetime in the order of hours, and the lack of globally distributed observations hamper our 55 understanding. Surface observations are available, but these are not homogenously distributed over the globe with 56 most observation sites located in the Northern Hemisphere. Most sites provide data with a poor temporal resolution 57 (e.g. many observation networks use passive samplers with a sampling time of 2 or 4 weeks (Thijsse et al., 1998; 58 Puchalski et al., 2011)) whereas emission and deposition dynamics affect concentrations on the scale of hours to 59 days. Systems with higher sampling frequency such as the AMANDA, MARGA and (denuder) filter packs are 60 available, but the number of measurement networks using these instruments is limited as they are often costly to operate (Erisman et al., 2001; Thomas et al., 2009; Mount et al., 2002; Hansen et al., 2003). Moreover, measuring 61 62 NH₃ is challenging and existing in-situ measurement techniques are often prone to sampling artefacts (Bobrutzki 63 et al., 2010). Recent advances in open path remote sensing techniques, like (mini-) DOAS systems and open path 64 Quantum Cascaded Laser instruments show large potential to overcome part of these sampling issues (Volten et 65 al., 2012; Miller et al., 2014), but are still in the development stage and not widely applied yet. Another aspect is the lack of vertical information, as most instruments only measure surface concentrations (Erisman et al., 1998, 66 2007; Van Damme et al. 2014c). Some recent airborne measurements have been made (Nowak et al., 2007, 2010; 67 68 Leen et al., 2013), but only during dedicated campaigns with limited temporal and spatial coverage. In short, it is 69 very difficult to obtain detailed knowledge on the global ammonia budget using currently available field 70 observations.

Remote sensing products from atmospheric satellite sounders such as the Infrared Atmospheric Sounding
 Interferometer (IASI), the Tropospheric Emission Spectrometer (TES) and the Cross-track Infrared Sounder

(CrIS) (Van Damme et al., 2014a; Shephard et al., 2011; 2015a) have become available and show good promise 73 74 to improve NH₃ concentration monitoring (Van Damme et al. 2014b; Luo et al., 2015; Whitburn et al. 2015). 75 However, these data sets are constrained by the overpass time of the satellite and the atmospheric conditions 76 (cloud coverage, thermal contrast, etc.). Moreover, the uncertainties associated to the data are relatively large, 77 which calls for a detailed evaluation of the data. A recent study (Van Damme et al., 2014c) showed a number of 78 challenges related to the validation. First, reliable hourly in-situ data is sparse. Second, when not using optimal 79 estimation satellite product as is the case for the IASI- NH₃ retrieval, one has to assume a vertical profile to link 80 surface concentrations to a column value. Third, the ground-based observations are often influenced by local 81 sources, whereas satellite observations have a footprint of the order of tens on kilometres. A recent study by 82 Shephard et al (2015b) shows the potential of an instrument that can be used for profile comparisons. In the study 83 instruments on an aircraft were used measure a vertical profile of NH₃ which were used as a validation tool for 84 the NH3-profile observations of TES. Hence, a measurement methodology that would provide columnar and 85 vertical profiles of ammonia concentrations at a high temporal resolution would be highly beneficial for evaluating 86 the merits of the novel satellite products. Fourier Transform infrared spectrometry (FTIR) provides this 87 methodology. Atmospheric sounders have a long history for validation of satellite products. FTIR observations 88 are already commonly used for the validation of satellite products of among others, carbon monoxide (CO), 89 methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O) (Wood et al., 2002; Griesfeller et al., 2006; Dils et al., 2006; 90 Kerzenmacher et al., 2012).

91 FTIR spectrometry is a well-established remote sensing technique for the observation of atmospheric trace gases 92 (Rao and Weber, 1992). FTIR has so far been used to estimate ammonia emissions from fires (Yokelson et al., 93 1997, 2007, Paton-Walsh et al., 2005)), but only on a campaign basis, not long-term monitoring. There are several 94 monitoring stations with FTIR instruments operated on a regular basis, providing long-term time series for a suite of key tropospheric and stratospheric species, including Carbon Dioxide (CO₂), Carbon Monoxide (CO) and 95 96 Ozone (O₃). So far nobody has systematically analysed the FTIR measurements for NH_3 . We have developed a 97 NH₃ retrieval strategies for four Network for detection of Atmospheric Composition Change (NDACC) FTIR 98 stations, spanning very different concentration conditions (polluted and remote sites), in order to obtain time-99 series of NH₃ total columns and show its value for describing temporal variations.

First we present the measurement sites and the retrieval strategies in section 2. We describe the characteristics of the retrieval in section 3.1.1 and the uncertainty budget in section 3.1.2. Section 3.2 constitutes of an interpretation of the results in combination with a comparison with existing datasets of CO total columns and temperature to distinguish between emission sources. We summarize the results in section 4.

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105 2. Measurement sites and retrieval strategies

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107 2.1 Sites description

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- 109 Ground-based FTIR instruments measure the solar absorption spectra under cloud-free conditions by using a
- 110 Fourier Transform Spectrometer. These spectra can be analysed by using a line by line model (Pougatchev et al.,

111 1995; Hase et al., 2004, 2006), which models the spectroscopic absorption lines by using known parameters

- 112 from a spectroscopic database (e.g. HITRAN, Rothman et al., 2013) in combination with the radiative state of
- the atmosphere, and an optimal estimation inversion scheme (Rodgers, 2000). Information on vertical
- 114 concentration profiles can be retrieved using the pressure broadening of the absorption lines. For the NDACC
- 115 network the spectral region measured is the near- to mid-infrared domain (740 to 4250 cm⁻¹, i.e. 13.5 to 2.4 μ m)
- 116 with a HgCdTe or InSb cooled detector (Zander et al., 2008) and a suite of optical filters are used to optimize
- 117 the signal-to-noise ratio in the complementary spectral regions. Instruments in the network are routinely checked
- and characterized using laboratory measurements of HBr lines and the linefit software (Hase et al., 1999) to
- assess the instrument line shape, alignment and measurement noise levels. Four NDACC stations are used in ourstudy, two in each hemisphere:
- The site of Bremen (53.10N, 8.85E) is especially suitable to measure variations in ammonia concentrations
 as the surrounding state, Lower Saxony, which is a region with intensive agricultural activities with high and
- as the suffounding state, Lower Saxony, which is a region with intensive agricultural activities with high and
 temporal variable emissions (Dämmgen et al., 2005). In short, the ammonia total columns (molecules cm⁻²)
 at Bremen are expected to reach high values compared to background stations. The Universität Bremen
 operates a Bruker 125HR spectrometer and a solar tracker by Bruker GmbH, directly on the university
 campus.
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The Jungfraujoch station (46.55N, 7.98E) is a high altitude station (3580 m.a.s.l.) located in Switzerland (Zander et al., 2008). There are no large emissions sources surrounding the station itself as it is mostly located in the free troposphere. At Jungfraujoch, a Bruker 120HR instrument is in operation since the early 1990s.
 For the current study, specific for the Jungfraujoch site, we used a subset of spectra recorded during the 2004-2013 time period with apparent solar zenith angles (SZA) between 70 and 85° to increase the capability to retrieve the very low ammonia concentrations.

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The Lauder (45.04S, 169.68E) National Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research (NIWA) atmospheric research station in Central Otago, New Zealand at an altitude of 370 (m.a.s.l.). Long-term operations started in 1991 with a Bruker 120M (Griffith et al., 2003). This instrument was replaced with a Bruker 120HR in October 2001. Ammonia emissions in the surrounding valley are mostly due to livestock grazing on the pastures and a by-product of seasonal fertilizer application. In recent years there has been an increase in cattle grazing and crop cultivation (EDGAR-Emission Database for Global Atmospheric Research, 2011).

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142 Reunion Island (20.9S, 55.50E) is located in the Indian Ocean to the east of Madagascar. The station is located 143 at the University campus of St.-Denis on the north side of the island. Agricultural activities are mostly related 144 to sugar cane production. The island is prone to some local biomass burning and wild fire events, which are 145 known to emit ammonia. It is also very close to Madagascar, a region with frequent and intense biomass 146 burning events, and it has been found using backward trajectory that the emissions in Madagascar can be 147 transported to Reunion Island within one day (Vigouroux et al., 2009). The measurements used in this study 148 are performed with a Bruker 120M spectrometer. Details on the measurements can be found in Senten et al. 149 (2008) and Vigouroux et al. (2012).

151 These stations are expected to provide significant differences in variability and levels of ammonia, making them 152 suitable to demonstrate the strength of our retrieval scheme for application across the whole network. A summary 153 of the station descriptions is given in Table 1. CO columns were obtained from the NDACC database to be used 154 for comparison in section 3.

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156 2.2 NH₃ Retrieval Strategies

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158 The ammonia absorption lines from its v_2 vibrational band can be observed in the 700-1350 cm⁻¹ wavenumber 159 range, which are also used in the retrieval of satellite products of ammonia (e.g. Clarisse et al., 2009, Van Damme 160 et al., 2014a). In this spectral range the FTIR spectra can be measured using a potassium bromide (KBr) beam-161 splitter in combination with a mercury cadmium telluride (MCT) nitrogen cooled detector (Zander et al., 2008). The retrieval scheme of trace gas concentrations from FTIR spectra is built on the use of a set of spectral micro 162 163 windows containing absorption lines of the targeted species, with minimum interference by other atmospheric species or solar lines. Two slightly different set of spectral micro-windows were used at the four stations, but they 164 165 both use the same main NH₃ absorption lines. The target and interfering species are summarized in Table 2, with the profile retrieved species indicated in **bold**. To properly estimate ammonia, interfering species like O₃ and water 166 167 vapour (H₂O) that overlap NH₃ lines in the v_2 vibrational band have to be accounted for. Two micro windows 168 were chosen that contain as little interfering species as possible. In both sets, the first micro window (MW1) 169 covers the NH₃ absorption line at 930.75 cm⁻¹. At Bremen/Lauder, the choice was to use only isolated NH₃ 170 absorption features to avoid possible problems due to line mixing, therefore the spectral window MW1 is only 1 171 cm⁻¹ wide [930.32-931.32, MW1]. Figure 1 shows an example of a synthetic spectrum calculated to fit a 172 observation that was measured with the 125HR in Bremen on the 19th of April 2010 at 09:59 (UTC) (Solar Zenith 173 Angle of 45 degrees). The NH₃ concentrations on this day were slightly higher than average resulting in slightly 174 stronger NH₃ absorption features in the spectra. The top two figures show the absorption contributions of the absorbing species in both micro windows. The bottom two panels show an enlarged version of the figure to 175 176 distinguish the interfering species with smaller absorption features. At Reunion Island/Jungfraujoch, MW1 was extended [929.4-931.4, MW1] to cover another NH₃ line at 929.9 cm⁻¹. This improved the retrieval for Reunion 177 178 Island because at this location the NH₃ concentration levels are much lower than at Bremen and the water vapour 179 concentrations are much higher. In this high humidity condition, the 930.75 cm^{-1} line is not isolated from H₂O, and it improved the retrieval to add the more isolated one at 929.9 cm⁻¹ (see Figure 2). The main interfering species 180 181 in MW1 are CO₂, N₂O, and H₂O. Minor interfering species are SF₆ and CFC-12. The second window is spanning the NH₃ line at 967.35 cm⁻¹. Again, different widths are used for Bremen/Lauder [966.97-967.68, MW2] and 182 183 Reunion Island/Jungfraujoch [962.7-970, MW2]. The very weak absorption signatures at Reunion Island and 184 Jungfraujoch are close to the noise level and therefore the whole NH₃ absorption shape is retrieved (about 964-968 cm⁻¹, see Figure 2) rather than a single line. The main interfering species in MW2 are O₃, CO₂ and H₂O for 185 all sites. At Reunion Island HDO is also interfering in MW2 as well as the isotopologue 686 O₃ (i.e. $^{16}O^{-18}O^{-16}O$), 186 which has been fitted in addition to the main 666 O₃. At Jungfraujoch apart from CO₂, two O₃ isotopologues (the 187 188 most abundant and 686 O₃) and water vapour which are the main interferences, N₂O, CFC-12, SF₆ and HDO absorptions are also retrieved. Typical NH₃ absorptions are weak, on the order of a few tenths of a percent. The 189

- 190 typical measurement noise (signal-to-noise ratio) differs per spectra and site but ranges between ~250 at Lauder
- 191 to ~450 at Bremen. Channelling was not an issue in any of the spectra and did not need to be fitted.
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193 Except at Jungfraujoch where SFIT2 is used, the retrieval is performed using the more recent SFIT4.0.9.4 194 algorithm (Pougatchev et al., 1995, Hase et al., 2004, 2006). Both versions use a form of the optimal estimation 195 method (Rodgers et al., 2000) to retrieve the volume mixing ratios and total columns of NH₃ and makes use of 196 a-priori information (profile and covariance matrix). For Bremen, Lauder and Jungfraujoch the used NH₃ a-197 priori volume mixing ratios are based on balloon observations (Toon et al. 1999, NH₃ available in dataset but 198 not reported). The shape of the balloon measurements profile was kept constant but extended and scaled to 199 expected surface concentrations. The a-priori surface volume mixing ratio is estimated to be 10 ppb for Bremen 200 (Dämmgen et al., 2005). Although the shape of NH₃ profiles do change through time, the largest share of NH₃ is 201 expected to be in the mixing layer, which is represented by the lowest layers in the calculation (Van Damme et 202 al 2014c, Nowak et al., 2010). At Reunion Island, the a priori profile was taken from the MOZART model 203 (Louisa Emmons, private communication). The a-priori profile peaks at a higher altitude (4-5 km) instead of the 204 boundary layer as in Bremen, as NH₃ is expected to originate mainly from transport of biomass burning 205 emissions at this location. At all stations, the a-priori profiles of the interfering species were taken from the 206 Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model (Chang et al., 2008).

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208 At Bremen and Lauder, the a priori covariance matrices only have diagonal values corresponding to standard 209 deviations of 100% for all layers with no interlayer correlation, chosen in relation to the large range of possible 210 concentrations and variations between layers. At Jungfraujoch and Reunion Island, we did not use the a priori 211 covariance matrix as in optimal estimation but the Tikhonov type L_1 regularization (e.g. Sussmann et al., 2009) 212 was adopted for the Jungfraujoch retrievals. After several tests, values of 50 and 250 were adopted for the alpha 213 parameter and the signal to noise for inversion, respectively. A Tikhonov regularization with an alpha parameter 214 value of 50 was also adopted for the Reunion retrievals. The signal to noise ratio is calculated for each spectra, 215 the mean value being 365.

- 217 Daily temperature and pressure profiles for the meteorological variables were taken from NCEP (National
- 218 Center for Environment Prediction). For the radiative transfer calculations the profiles were split into about 50
- 219 levels, depending slightly on the station, from ground up to 80 kilometres (100 kilometres in the case of
- 220 Jungfraujoch and Reunion Island). The layers have a typical thickness of 500 meters in the troposphere up to 2
- km for the higher layers. For the line spectroscopy we use the HITRAN 2012 database (Rothman et al., 2013) in
- 222 combination with a number of corrections for CO₂ (ATMOS, Brown et al., 1996) (except for Jungfraujoch for
- 223 which the HITRAN lines are used) and sets of pseudo lines generated by G.C. Toon (NASA-JPL) to account for
- broad unresolved absorptions by heavy molecules (e.g. CFC-12, SF6).
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- Figure 3 shows an example of the fit in both micro windows for the same measured spectra as used in Figure 1.
- 227 The top two and bottom two panels show the calculated (Green line) and measured spectrum (Blue line) and the
- residual of both micro windows. The simultaneous fits are good with a standard deviation of 0.15% in both
- cases.

231 **3.** Results of the FTIR retrievals

232 **3.1** Characteristics of the NH₃ retrievals

233 **3.1.1 Vertical Information**

234 The retrieved vertical information differs from station to station. The top of Figure 4 shows for the 4 stations the 235 average NH₃ volume mixing ratios (VMR) for each of the retrieved layers (blue line) and the a priori profile that 236 was used as input in the retrieval (green line). The bottom of Figure 4 shows the averaging kernels for each of the 237 4 stations averaged over all available observations. As mentioned earlier most of the NH₃ at Bremen is in the 238 lowest layers. In Figure 4 this is also observed as the averaging kernel shows the most sensitivity in the lowest 239 layers (red and green lines for the layers 0.03-0.5km and 0.5-1km). The combination of the two spectral micro 240 windows on average contain 1.9 degree of freedom for signal (DOFS) for the Bremen spectra, which means around 241 two independent vertical layers can be retrieved. The two separate layers consist of a layer covering ground-1km 242 and one that covers 1 km - 6 km height, which can be observed in Figure 4. It must be taken into account however 243 that the shown averaging kernels are a mean for all observations and thus the retrievable number of layers and combined layer depths vary from spectra to spectra. On average, the Lauder spectra have a DOFS of 1.4. There is 244 245 only vertical information for multiple layers during periods with increased NH₃ total columns, which mostly occur during summer. Similar to Bremen averaging kernels peak near the surface. At Reunion Island only 1.0 DOFS is 246 247 achieved, with almost no vertical information available. All the averaging kernels are peaking at the same altitude 248 (about 5km), which is also the peak of the a priori profile (Figure 4). Similar to the Reunion spectra the 249 Jungfraujoch spectra do not have vertical information with a DOF of 1.0.

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251 **3.1.2 Uncertainties Budget**

252 For the error analysis the posteriori error calculation included in the SFIT4 package is used. The error calculation 253 is based on the error estimation approach by Rodgers (2000). It allows the calculation of the error by attributing 254 errors to each of the parameters used in the retrieval. The error budget can be divided into three contributions, the 255 error due to the forward model parameters, the measurement noise and the error due to the vertical resolution of 256 the retrieval (smoothing error). The assumed uncertainties for the used parameters in the retrieval are listed in 257 Table 3 for the parameters used in the calculation for Bremen, Lauder and Reunion. For Jungfraujoch, the error 258 computation was performed using the perturbation method, the spectra of 2009 to 2011 and the Rodger formalism 259 as explained e.g. in Franco et al., 2015. For Reunion Island, the covariance matrix used for the smoothing error 260 has diagonal elements representing 150% of variability from the a priori profile. To reflect the error in the NCEP temperature profiles we assume an uncertainty of about 2 K in the troposphere and a 5 K uncertainty in the 261 262 stratosphere. For the uncertainty in the NH₃ line parameters we assume values as stated in the HITRAN 2012 263 database. We assume a conservative 20% uncertainty for the intensity and 10% for both the temperature and 264 pressure broadening coefficients.

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266 The results of the error calculation are listed in in Table 4. Combining the systematic and random errors we have

- a mean total error of 25.8 % for all the spectra measured at Bremen (N=554), 30.2 % for the spectra from Lauder
- 268 (N=2412), 25.2 % for the Reunion spectra (N=1262) and 34.2 for the Jungfraujoch spectra (N=2702). The errors
- are dominated by uncertainties in the spectroscopy. In detail, the random error sources amount to a mean error of
- 270 9.1 % for the Bremen spectra, which is mostly due to uncertainty in temperature, measurement noise and the zero

- level of the sensor (i.e. an instrument property). In the case of the systematic error, with a mean error of 23.5 %,
- the error is for the largest part due to the spectroscopy (i.e. line parameters) with smaller contributions of the temperature, zero level, phase and the smoothing error. The results are similar for the Lauder, Reunion and
- 274 Jungfraujoch spectra with most of the uncertainty coming from the line parameters. Hence, line intensity
- 275 parameters of the ammonia absorption lines are critical for the NH₃ concentrations.
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3.2 Time series

278 Figure 5 shows the NH₃ total columns retrieved from all available spectra from 2004-2013. Table 5 gives a 279 summary of statistics of the retrieved NH₃ columns. Individual measurements at Bremen (blue) show high 280 concentrations, especially in spring with an overall mean column total of 13.7e15 molecules NH₃ cm⁻² and a root 281 mean square (RMS) of 20.22 indicating a large variability in the observations. The amplitude of the spring peaks 282 vary throughout the years, with maxima in 2010 and 2013 reaching ~93e15 and 85e15 molecules NH_3 cm⁻². The 283 variability through the years is caused by changes in meteorology, emissions and timing of the measurements. 284 Gaps in the data are due to days with overcast and instrument downtimes. The individual observed columns are 285 sorted into monthly averages to analyse the seasonal variability and to understand the processes driving the NH₃ concentrations. This is shown in Figure 6 together with monthly averages of surface temperature and CO total 286 287 columns. NH₃ column total concentrations at Bremen (Blue line) have a seasonal cycle with highest levels during 288 spring, the summer months and autumn. The maximum concentrations occur around April which is consistent 289 with temporal emission patterns for manure application reported for this region (Friedrich and Reis, 2004; Martin 290 et al., 2015; Paulot et al., 2014). The baseline variability with higher concentrations in summer can be explained 291 by an increase in volatilization rates of NH₃, emitted from livestock housing, which is driven by animal activity 292 and temperature (Gyldenkaerne et al., 2005). A comparison with CO is made to distinguish between agricultural 293 and fire emissions sources. A correlation between NH₃ and CO columns is not observed, which is consistent with 294 agriculture as the dominant source of ammonia.

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On average the measurements at Lauder (Figure 5, red line, top panel) yield a column total of 4.17e15 molecules 296 NH₃ cm⁻². These levels are about 1/3rd of the concentrations measured at Bremen (blue, top panel). Spectra from 297 298 Lauder are available for most days in the retrieved time series, which makes it easier to discern peaks and 299 variability. Distinctive peaks are only visible in the summers. Maxima during spring times are not often observed. 300 The peak values are similar in between years, with maxima typically around 30e15 molecules NH₃ cm⁻². The RMS 301 of 5.95 reflects a large variability in the observations between individual retrievals. The average error is 1.34e15 302 molecules NH₃ cm⁻², which is around a quarter of the mean. Figure 6 shows the seasonal cycle of Lauder (red 303 line, top left panel). The seasonal variation of NH₃ coincides with that of the atmospheric temperature (red line, 304 bottom right panel) and with the livestock emissions in the surrounding region, which are strongly correlated with 305 temperature.

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307 The third panel of Figure 5 shows the observations from Reunion (green symbols, bottom panel). The mean

- 308 column total observed at Reunion is 0.80e15 molecules NH₃ cm⁻². The concentrations are low during most of the
- 309 year. However, peaks reaching densities of ~6e15 molecules $NH_3 \text{ cm}^{-2}$ can be observed during the end of each
- 310 year. The peaks in September-November coincide with the dry season indicating that emissions are mostly due to

biomass burning and large fire events (Vigouroux et al., 2012). This is supported by the increased CO concentrations, which are also observed in October and November (see, bottom left panel, Figure 6). NH₃ surface concentration measurements are not available for this region but a recent paper by Van Damme et al. (2015), which uses IASI-NH₃ observations, shows similar seasonal cycles for the south eastern parts of Africa

- 315 (Madagascar). Temperature is almost constant throughout the year and not a major factor in the seasonality of316 Reunion.
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318 Observations from Jungfraujoch have the lowest mean concentration of all four stations (Figure 5, orange line), 319 with a mean of 0.18e15 molecules NH₃ cm⁻². The low concentrations at Jungfraujoch are expected, as the station 320 is located in the free troposphere high above the surrounding valleys. Transport of NH₃ from the valleys only 321 occurs sporadically during days with intense vertical mixing. This was also observed in an earlier study of CO 322 concentrations (Barret et al., 2003). The Jungfraujoch observations show almost no seasonal effects with only a 323 minimal increase during the summer months. The low concentrations measured at Jungfraujoch support our 324 assumption on the vertical distribution of the ammonia concentrations with low values in the troposphere that 325 were used in our a-priori.

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327 4. Conclusions and perspectives

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329 In this study we presented a new method to retrieve ammonia total columns from ground-based FTIR solar spectra. 330 Observations from four complementary stations were used to illustrate the capabilities of the retrieval method. 331 NH₃ total columns ranging three orders of magnitude were obtained with high abundances at Bremen (mean of 332 13.7e15 molecules cm⁻², with a mean DOFS 1.9) to low columns at Jungfraujoch (mean of 0.18e15 molecules cm⁻²) 333 2 , with a mean DOFS 1.0). The very low levels obtained at the Jungfraujoch demonstrate the sensitivity of the 334 retrieval method we developed. A separate error calculation shows random errors in the order of 10% and 335 systematic errors of 25% for individual observations. The errors are dominated by uncertainties in spectroscopy, 336 atmospheric temperature and deviations in instrumental parameters. For conditions with high surface 337 concentrations of ammonia, as in Bremen, it is possible to retrieve information on the vertical gradient as two 338 layers can be discriminated. At Bremen, the retrieval there is most sensitive to ammonia in the planetary boundary layer, where most of the ammonia is expected. For conditions with lower concentrations there is not enough 339 340 information to discriminate individual layers. Station specific seasonal cycles were found to be consistent with 341 known seasonal cycles of the dominant ammonia sources in the station surroundings. For example, highest levels 342 in Bremen were observed during spring time when manure is applied to the fields with column total concentrations 343 reaching up to 93e15 molecules cm⁻².

Remote sensing techniques avoid sampling artefacts common to other techniques such as filter packs (Puchalski et al., 2011; Bobrutzki et al., 2010). For in-situ observations open path remote sensing techniques, e.g. DOAS and QCL instruments, are starting to be used (Volten et al., 2010, Miller et al., 2014). The FTIR-NH₃ observations would be an excellent addition to these approaches as it provides the NH₃ total column and profiles, including vertical information for sites sampling high ammonia levels. With a mean error of ~25% for all observations in high ammonia source areas the accuracy of the FTIR retrievals is comparable to that reported for satellite products (TES, IASI, CrIS). Compared to the in-situ open path remote sensing methods the FTIR method has a higher 351 uncertainty, but this is a trade-off for the ability to retrieve vertical information. To improve the accuracy of the 352 FTIR-NH₃ retrieval a reassessment of the spectral line parameters is necessary.

Observations from existing networks commonly represent daily or even monthly averaged concentration values, which severely complicates any attempt to validate satellite observations. The novel FTIR-NH₃ observations enable a direct validation of satellite products. As the FTIR- NH₃ product provides averaging kernels a direct comparison can be made with optimal estimation satellite retrievals while taking account of the a-priori information and vertical sensitivity of both instruments (Rogers and Connor, 2003). A dedicated field campaign was executed at the Cabauw Experimental Site for Atmospheric Remote Sensing (CESAR) in the Netherlands (spring and summer 2014) to validate the IASI- NH₃ using a range of instruments including mini-DOAS

360 instruments and a Bruker IFS-66 instrument (Dammers et al. in prep).

361 The uncertainty in the emission distributions hampers the performance and prediction capabilities of air quality 362 and climate models (Heald et al., 2012). Emissions are usually based on nationally reported yearly emission inventories (Pouliot et al., 2012) and gridded by distributing the emissions following animal numbers and 363 364 agricultural land use (Bouwman et al., 2002, Keunen et al., 2011). To improve on static emission time profiles, a new direction is to include the impact of meteorological variability of ammonia emissions in modelling systems 365 366 (Sutton et al., 2013). Recently, such an improvement was shown to greatly enhance the performance of air quality models (Skjoth et al., 2011). Satellite observations in combination with chemical transport models (CTM) have 367 368 been used to provide a top-down constraint on ammonia emissions (e.g. Zhu et al., 2013). Similar to satellite 369 observations, FTIR total columns in combination with surface and satellite observations could provide the means 370 to evaluate the emission modelling through comparing trends and concentration anomalies within and between 371 years. For this purpose continuous time series are necessary. Due to the lack of continuous data (i.e. more than 372 one observation per hour) we could not derive a typical diurnal cycle in this study, whereas this would be highly 373 useful for model evaluation. Improved knowledge on the diurnal cycles may also greatly help to interpret model 374 evaluation results against satellite data as they provide snapshots, e.g. daily IASI's observations at 9:30 local time. 375 Also, the model-measurement comparison would be less sensitive to modelling errors in the turbulent vertical 376 exchange as the ammonia is integrated over vertical.

The developed retrieval methodology from FTIR-instruments provides a new way to obtain vertically and temporally resolved measurements on ammonia concentrations. FTIR-NH₃ observations may prove very valuable for satellite and model validation and may provide a complementary source of information to constrain the global ammonia budget.

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677 Tables

Table 1 FTIR stations used in the analysis. The location, longitude, latitude and altitude are given for each station as well as the instrument used for the measurements. Some station specifics are given in the last column.

Station	Location	Longitude	Latitude	Altitude	Instrument	Station specifics
				(m.a.s.l.)		
Bremen	Germany	8.85E	53.10N	27	Bruker 125 HR	City, fertilizers, livestock
Lauder	New Zealand	169.68E	45.04S	370	Bruker 120 HR	Fertilizers, livestock
Reunion	Indian Ocean	55.5E	20.905	85	Bruker 120 M	Fertilizers, fires
Jungfraujoch	Switzerland	7.98E	46.55N	3580	Bruker 120 HR	High altitude, no large sources

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Table 2 Micro windows used in the NH_3 retrieval at the four stations.

Stations	Micro	Spectral range	Interfering species (Profile	Signal-to-noise ratio
	window	(cm ⁻¹)	retrieved species in bold)	(SNR)
Bremen and	MW1	930.32-931.32	NH3, H2O, O3, CO2, N2O, HNO3,	Bremen – Real SNR
Lauder			SF ₆ , CFC-12, solar lines	mean value of 450
	MW2	966.97-967.68	NH3, H2O, O3, CO ₂ , N ₂ O, HNO ₃ ,	Lauder – Real SNR
			solar lines	mean value of 250
Reunion	MW1	929.4-931.4	NH3, H2O, O ₃ , CO ₂ , N ₂ O, HNO ₃ ,	Reunion – Real SNR
			SF ₆ , CFC-12	mean value of 365
	MW2	962.1-970.0	NH3, H2O, O3, CO2, N2O, HNO3,	
			HDO, ⁶⁸⁶ O ₃ , solar lines	
Jungfraujoch	MW1	929.4-931.4	NH ₃ , H ₂ O, O ₃ , CO ₂ , N ₂ O, HNO ₃ ,	
			SF ₆ , CFC-12	
	MW2	962.1-970.0	NH ₃ , H ₂ O, O ₃ , CO ₂ , N ₂ O, HDO,	Jungfraujoch – Fixed at
			⁶⁸⁶ O ₃ , solar lines	250

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680 **Table 3** Random and Systematic uncertainties used in the error calculation

Version (Stations) SFIT 4 (Bremen, La		auder, Reunion)	Version (Stations)	SFIT 2 (Jungfraujoch)	
Parameter	Random uncertainty	Systematic uncertainty	Parameter	Random uncertainty	Systematic uncertainty
Temperature	2 K troposphere 5 K stratosphere	2 K troposphere 5 K stratosphere	Temperature	1.5 K 0-20km 2.0 K 20-30km 5.0 K 30km -	
Solar line shift	0.005 cm ⁻¹	0.005 cm ⁻¹	Line intensity		20.0%
Solar line strength	0.1 %	0.1 %	Line T broadening		10.0%
Solar zenith angle	0.01 Degrees	0.01 Degrees	Line P broadening		10.0%
Phase	0.001 Rad	0.001 Rad	Interfering species		HITRAN2012: varies
Zero level	0.01	0.01	Instrumental Line Shape (ILS)		10%
Background curvature		0.001 cm ⁻²	Influence a priori profiles	Calculated	
Field of view		0.001	Solar Zenith Angle (SZA)	0.2 degrees	
Line intensity		20.0%			
Line T broadening		10.0%			

Line P broadening		10.0%		
Interfering species	HITRAN2012: varies			

Table 4 Mean random and systematic errors for each of the individual NH_3 retrieval parameters. The table is splitinto two sections to cover both the error calculation using SFIT4 (Bremen, Lauder, Reunion) and SFIT2(Jungfraujoch). At the bottom the errors are summarized into total mean errors for each of the stations.

Station	Bremen		Lauder		Reunion		Jungfraujoch		
Parameter	Mean Random Error (%)	Mean Systematic Error (%)	Mean Random Error (%)	Mean Systematic Error (%)	Mean Random Error (%)	Mean Systematic Error (%)	Parameter	Mean Random Error (%)	Mean Systematic Error (%)
Temperature	4.9	4.9	3.6	3.6	2.7	2.9	Temperature	15.2	
Solar zenith angle	1.6	1.6					Solar zenith angle	1.9	
Phase	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1			Instrumental lineshape		1.4
Zero level	5.0	5.0	6.8	6.8					
Measurement noise	4.5		8.4		10.9		Measurement noise	18.2	
Interfering Species	1.3		2.4		0.9	8.7 (H ₂ O line pressure broadening)	Interfering species		1.4
Retrieval parameters	0.1		0.1				Model parameters	1.4	
Background curvature		1.1		1.2		0.3	Forward model		1.0
Smoothing error		2.8		8.1	10.3		Smoothing	5.4	
Spectroscopy		21.0		22.7		17.8	Spectroscopy		20.1
							NH3 a priori		6.1
							Influence a priori profiles (H2O & HDO)	6.6	
Subtotal error	9.1	23.5	12.0	27.0	15.3	20.0	Subtotal error	25.3	23.1
Total error	25.8		30.2		25.2		Total	34.2	

Table 5 Statistics of the NH₃ columns. (Nr: number of data points, DOFS: Degree of Freedom for Signal, Mean \pm the error of the mean, RMS: Root Mean Square). Total columns are given in 1e15 molecules NH₃ cm⁻².

Station	Nr	Mean DOFS	Mean (molecules x 1e15)	Median (molecules x 1e15)	RMS (molecules x 1e15)
Bremen	554	1.9	13.75 ± 4.24	9.51	20.22
Lauder	2412	1.4	4.17 ± 1.40	2.85	5.95
Reunion	1262	1.0	0.80 ± 0.54	0.56	1.14
Jungfraujoch	2702	1.0	0.18 ± 0.07	0.15	0.22

685 Figures





show the individual contributions of the different species in the first (MW1) and second (MW2) spectral

691 windows. The second row show the same calculated spectra but now with the y-axis scaled to show the minor

692 interfering species.



Figure 2 Example of a synthetic atmospheric spectrum for both spectral windows at Reunion Island, computed for the 5th June 2011 and a total column of 1.07E15 molecules cm⁻². The top panel shows the individual contributions of the main species in the first spectral window. The bottom panel shows the second spectral window.



Figure 3 Measured and calculated spectrum for both spectral windows measured with the 125HR in Bremen on the 19th of April 2010 at 09:59 (UTC) corresponding to a total column of 18.83e15 molecules $NH_3 \text{ cm}^{-2}$. The top two panels show the observed (blue line) and calculated (green line) spectra for MW1 (left) and MW2 (right). The bottom two figures show the residuals of the fits in both spectral windows.



Figure 4 Top panels: the retrieved NH₃ profile (blue) and the a-priori profile (green) in order from left to right:
Bremen (Left), Lauder (Left middle), Reunion island (right middle) and Jungfraujoch (right). Horizontal lines
indicate the standard deviation in all observations for each layer. Bottom panels: the normalized averaging kernel
for each of the stations.

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Figure 5 Time series of retrieved NH₃ columns (in molecules NH₃ cm⁻²). From top to bottom the figure shows 712

713 the Bremen (blue), Lauder (red), Reunion (green) and Jungfraujoch (yellow) total columns. The bars reflect the 714 errors on the individual observations.

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Figure 6 2004-2013 monthly averaged columns for NH₃, CO and temperature. The top two panels show the monthly NH₃ column concentrations (molecules NH₃ cm⁻²) for each of the four stations. Vertical lines indicate the

mean monthly error. The bottom two panels show additional column concentrations of CO (bottom, left) and temperature (bottom, right).