Dear Editor,

We are grateful to the reviewers for their constructive comments that we believe have helped us to strengthen the manuscript. Major changes to the text are shown in blue in the manuscript. Below we include the original review, and we respond to each comment line-by-line. Original reviewer's comments are shown in black, and our response in blue.

Sincerely,
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Reviewer #1 (Comments to Author):
In this manuscript, observations made from the Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS) in the spectral region between 860 and 967 cm-1 are used in a forward model to deduce NH3 concentrations, averaging kernels and degrees of freedom for signal. As the authors note, other satellite-borne IR spectrometers, including IASI and TES, also provide retrievals for ammonia on a global scale. The challenge for all such measurements is that NH3 mixing ratios are typically at a maximum within tens or hundreds of meters of the Earth's surface, whereas the retrieval is most sensitive at higher altitudes. Further compounding the challenge is that chemical transport models often struggle to reproduce the diel behaviour of NH3, and its vertical distribution in the atmosphere in the few regions where in situ measurements are available for comparison.

> We agree with the reviewer that it is challenging to measure NH3 on a global scale, which makes it more valuable to use satellite products. We do not agree with the statement that the retrieval is most sensitive at higher altitudes, because the spectral range we use is in the atmospheric window region, and with NH3 concentration typically at a maximum within tens or hundreds of meters of the Earth's surface (as stated by the reviewer), we can see through the "clean" atmospheric column into the lower troposphere with best sensitivity at 918 hPa.

Throughout the paper, the authors conflate high observed volume mixing ratios (VMRs) retrieved at 918 hPa with high emissions at that location. It is not necessarily the case that high VMRs observed aloft correspond to high emissions directly below the retrieval, especially given the importance of wildfires to high signal at 918 hPa. Even if the VMR is related to local emissions, the retrieved quantity will also depend on the degree of vertical mixing and the impacts of sinks such as deposition and gas-particle partitioning. I think the language used in the manuscript is somewhat misleading since it implies that elevated VMRs at 918 hPa are uniquely associated with elevated emissions. Since the authors restrict themselves to only three pollution scenarios to serve as a priori profiles, it may be a

convenient shorthand but it can lead to misleading statements about the interpretation of the retrievals.

> This is our oversight. We have carried out model studies over China (not shown) that demonstrate the NH3 emissions and the concentrations are linearly correlated, however, not at the same rate. We have made correction to change the term 'emission' into 'concentration' in all the relevant locations in the manuscript.

In Section 3, the authors use in situ measurements from the DISCOVER-AQ field campaign in California during the winter of 2013 to evaluate retrieval profiles. These aircraft profiles are useful, in that they occur in a significant source region, which may be expected to correspond to the 'high pollution' a priori. On the other hand, there is significant heterogeneity, with individual aircraft profiles corresponding to the same satellite retrieval measuring mixing ratios that differ by an order of magnitude close to the surface. This section ends without a clear statement about the quality of the retrieval methodology, as evaluated using this comparison.

> We added the following sentence at the end of the session: "Nonetheless, the vertical profiles show good agreement (~5 – 15%) between AIRS NH_3 and the in situ profiles in the examples given above."

In Section 4, the authors apply the methodology to the globe from 2002-2015. As they state, interpreting the analysis requires not only consideration of the average VMR at 918 hPa, but also the frequency of elevated 'emissions' (actually VMRs > 1.0 ppbv at 918 hPa), and also the retrieval DOFs. It appears that many of the regions with the highest average VMRs are in places with infrequent occurrences of high emissions, probably related to episodic wildfires. Given that the relationship between VMR at 918 hPa and emission is likely very different for agricultural and wildfire emissions, it becomes challenging to use the retrievals to constrain the global budget of NH3. Furthermore, the authors state that regions where DOFs are never above 0.1 are excluded from the analysis. But what about regions where DOFs are < 0.1 the majority of the time, but are occasionally impacted by wildfire. Is the average VMR reported for that pixel simply the average of the high signal episodes, or the average of the entire time period, in which case a significant fraction of the time the retrieval is probably indistinguishable from the a priori?

> This approach with related thresholds was applied to illustrate where the major global NH3 sources are; was not intended to constrain the global budget of NH3. Also once a region is identified as being persistent sources using the frequent occurrences thresholds, we use all data (not just high signal episodes) in the average in that region.

I did not find Figure 6, and the associated discussion to add significantly to the manuscript. It is to be expected that fertilizer use and animal husbandry will dominate 'persistent sources' of NH3 on a global scale, so what new information is gained here?

We intend to show here that our observations are consistent with prior knowledge.

Specific Comments Lines 45-47 – References would be good for these statements, particularly that idea that NH3 deposition increases emissions of CH4.

We have added references and modified into the following sentences: "Ammonia deposition modifies the transport lifetimes, and deposition patterns of sulfur dioxide (SO_2) and nitrogen dioxide (NO_x) (Wang et al., 2008; Henze et al., 2012). Additionally, ammonia increases the concentrations of the greenhouse gases nitrous oxide (N_2O) (EPA, 2011) and, together with NH_4^+ content in soils, NH_3 is involved in CH_4 production and release (Fowler et al., 2009)."

Lines 52-72 – In the second paragraph of the introduction, it's difficult to tell if the authors are stating that they used the NH3 fields generated in the Park et al., 2004 study, or whether they ran GEOS-Chem themselves using the methods described in Park et al., 2004. Later, it is mentioned that v9-02 was used – this information should be clarified in the introductory paragraph.

We moved the sentence "We used the simulated NH_3 fields from GEOS-Chem as the retrieval a priori for this study." to the front of the paragraph to clarify the purpose of this model discussion.

Lines 9-99 – This sentence is a bit confusing. Does the 'both' in 'if both are large enough' refer to the concentrations and thermal contrast, or retrieval and radiative transfer model runs. One assumes the former, but it's hard to tell from the sentence.

We changed the sentence to "…, if both of the NH_3 concentrations and thermal contrast are large enough, …"

Line 142 – Sentence refers to the contributions of co-authors Strow and Hannon, but Hannon does not appear in the author list of this manuscript

Changed to co-author Strow and team.

L185-187 Why is the a priori developed for 2003-2012 when it is applied for observations between 2002-2015?

The a priori was developed at the beginning of algorithm development (in 2012), but we extended our data product to current time. A priori information shows our current knowledge of the data range, which has not changed significantly between 2012 and 2015. Therefore, there is no need to update the a priori information as we continue processing new measurements.

L186 and Figure 1. I find the use of 'level' for the three different versions of the a priori

somewhat confusing because it makes me think of vertical levels. Perhaps using the term 'emission scenarios' instead of 'emission levels' would be more clear? Also, it would be interesting to know if the three scenarios differ in terms of shape or just overall levels. This could be shown with an additional panel in which each scenario is shown normalized to the surface concentration.

> We changed "levels" to "scenarios". We used a large number of NH3 profiles from GEOS-Chem model output to derive the statistic properties of these a priori profiles. The shapes of the three scenarios are different but follow the model property.

L196-198 How significant are the adjustments and extrapolations mentioned here?

> It is not possible to measure the near surface high NH3 values as described by the model, so we modified the a priori profile shape to suit satellite measurements better.

Figure 3 – it's too difficult to distinguish between the solid and dashed green lines in the figure panels

> We changed the green dashed lines to blue.

L 318-320 Can the authors clarify why they excluded the nighttime retrievals carried out at 01:30? Measurements of NH3 in the residual layer would be valuable.

> Additional studies are needed to specifically address NH3 retrievals at nighttime and will be included in a future publication.

Section 5 - Can the seasonality in the retrievals be uniquely attributed to seasonality in column NH3 or the VMR at 918 hPa?

> The seasonality is for the VMR at 918 hPa.

Technical comments L79 remove 'the' before Beijing'

> Corrected.

Reviewer #2 (Comments to Author):

The authors of this paper describe the algorithm to derive ammonia from AIRS measurements using inversion theory pioneered by C. D. Rodgers, and present spatial and temporal (in seasonal sense) analysis of global ammonia distributions. This is important work and the paper should be published. The paper, however, could have been better written and data analyzed more thoroughly (e.g., just noting a particular phenomenon and merely speculating the cause is not enough). I have specific comments below that I would like the authors to address. I recommend the publication of the paper after these comments are addressed. The revisions that I am recommending are not major and should not take more than a month or two to implement. I highlight my concerns below:

We thank Reviewer #2 for providing insightful comments.

The paper needs editorial work. Many blatant errors and sentences with poor word choices are present in the paper and need to be resolved. For example, on page 4, "R'Honi et al. (2013) discussed the exceptional emissions of NH3 and HCOOH in the 2010 Russian wildfires." Another example is the reference to 13-yr time period as long-term. It so happens that there is a 13-yr record of AIRS ammonia retrievals. However, that does not define what a long-term record is. Because the 13-yr record is close to a decade, that could be used in a general sense perhaps?

We changed the first sentence to "R'Honi et al. (2013) discussed the elevated concentrations of NH3 and HCOOH emitted by the 2010 Russian wildfires." We took out the work longterm and changed the sentence to "Global ammonia sources and variability based on continuous monitoring with longer than a decade record (13 years) have not been available."

Algorithm should be discussed in general terms instead of repeating material from Rodgers book/papers. The methodology should be conceptually explained for ammonia and also other trace gases that are generally simultaneously retrieved inverting hyperspectral infrared radiances.

We aim to provide details so that the process for the retrieval can be repeated.

Validation of the retrievals is only done for two weeks. I understand that not many ground measurements of ammonia exist but the DISCOVER-AQ field campaign data provided the authors with profiles covering 2-week time period. The comparisons are very encouraging. To explain the differences between retrieved and aircraft observed profiles for some cases, the authors revert to spatial variability of ammonia in a 45-km grid space (aircraft captures that variability but satellites can't resolve it). It would be nice if the authors can actually demonstrate the spatial variability of ammonia (from models or other ground observations) to explain the usability of AIRS ammonia product. Does this mean that AIRS ammonia retrievals at 45-km resolution (is it larger at scan edges?) are of no use to high resolution air

quality models for forecasting applications? Are the retrievals more useful in regions where spatial variability is not that high? I think a discussion on these validation results from the application perspective will be very useful. Or perhaps the retrievals are only useful to document trends in ammonia and not for real time applications in models?

> The AIRS NH3 current products are at 45 km resolution to recover cloudy pixels, and therefore, increasing global coverage. However, AIRS NH3 retrievals for single view pixels at 13.5 km resolution are possible for clear-sky only cases. The resolution of 45 km is higher than many global models, and when applied to high resolution localized models, cautions need to be taken so the spatial resolutions are matched. We believe our products provide significant value to the modeling field not only in the trend studies, but also spatial distribution by validation to the modeled properties.

I am also a little concerned that the authors have not compared global maps of ammonia from AIRS to other correlative measurements from other satellites (IASI for example). Although instrument and algorithm differences can exist, readers can look at the comparisons in a qualitative sense and decide for themselves if the product is useful for certain applications or not. Also, for validation results please provide information on the geographic location for each profiles to get a sense on where these observations taken (terrain, surface emissivity, etc.)

> We have carried out preliminary comparison with IASI's published results. It is in our plan to carry out detailed quantitative comparison, which should results in a separate manuscript. We added the following sentence to describe the environment of the central valley location where DISCOVER-AQ CA took place: "The in-situ NH3 vertical profiles were made in the Southern San Joaquin Valley of California. This region inside the central valley of California, between the coastal mountains in the west and the Sierra Nevada Mountains in the east, consists largely of farmland with scattered dairy farms. Although most of the area is rural, the profiles were made near the small cities of Hanford and Corcoran."

The authors presumably are continuing their collaboration with field campaign programs and therefore should recommend to the campaign that future experiments should focus doing multiple spirals within a short distance of each other in a 45-km box to understand sub-grid variability of ammonia.

> Great suggestion.

In Figure 4, the color bar is referred to as x-axis.

> We have corrected this.

There is a lot of discussion on the relevance of biomass burning and ammonia distribution observed in global maps. I think the authors are correct in drawing those correlations but

would be nice to correlate with MODIS fire activity maps. Without corroboration from other sources of information, it becomes speculative at best. I say this because in Russia and Siberia, there seem to be elevated ammonia in all seasons and number of retrievals (days of data available) low. Could it be that there are some retrieval issues owing to the persistent snow on the ground? Again, this is why it is important to compare AIRS ammonia retrievals with other satellite retrievals to establish biases as a function of season and location. The 2-week time period is not enough to capture the dynamic range, seasonal, and regional variability seen in ammonia to validate the product.

> We agree that continued validation and intercomparisons are important and they are in our plans to do. This manuscript aims to introduce the AIRS NH3 new product and document the algorithm applied. Even though we did not have the space to show the verification of this product with MODIS fire counts as well as correlation with other trace gas species (i.e., carbon monoxide), this has been in our regular practice in the algorithm development stage. Any potential retrieval artifacts were taken care of in the algorithm.

Minor comment: The few sentences dedicated to World Bank data on page 12 can become a footnote to avoid distracting the reader.

> We have removed the sentences and added them as a footnote.

Figure 9 is cited twice. Should there be a Figure 10?

> There is only Figure 9, and we have made sure they are used in the right content.

In global season maps, African biomass burning appears to show up prominently in MAM season. However this March peak is absent in Figure 9 for SH. Is it masked by the global averaging? Should this analysis be stratified into crop lands, forests etc. to separate agricultural burning vs. wildfires? I think this stratification will gel nicely with the way the results are presented in Figure 6. In summary, this is important work that should be published after addressing the comments above.

> We divided the hemispheres at the equator and most of the African fires in MAM located in the NH. To separate agricultural burning vs. wildfires, and to study the land type vs. emissions require in depth study that is beyond the scope of this paper.

> We appreciate very much reviewer #3 for believing that this is an important work. More research of this new product is needed from a greater community once the data is distributed upon preliminary validations.

The Global Tropospheric Ammonia Distribution as seen in the 13-year AIRS Measurement Record

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Abstract:

Ammonia (NH_3) plays an increasingly important role in the global biogeochemical cycle of reactive nitrogen as well as in aerosol formation and climate. We present extensive and nearly continuous global ammonia measurements made by the Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS) from the Aqua satellite to identify and quantify major persistent and episodic sources as well as to characterize seasonality. We examine the 13-year period from September 2002 through August 2015 with a retrieval algorithm using an optimal estimation technique with a set of three, spatially and temporally uniform a priori profiles. Vertical profiles show good agreement (~5 – 15%) between AIRS NH_3 and the in situ profiles from the winter 2013 DISCOVER-AQ field campaign in central California, despite the likely biases due to spatial resolution differences between the two instruments. AIRS captures the strongest consistent NH_3 concentrations due to emissions from the anthropogenic (agricultural) source regions, such as, South Asia (India/Pakistan), China, the US, parts of Europe, SE Asia (Thailand/Myanmar/Laos), the central portion of South America, as well as Western and Northern Africa. These correspond primarily to irrigated croplands, as well as regions with heavy precipitation, with extensive animal feeding operations and fertilizer applications where a summer maximum and secondary spring maximum are reliably observable. In the Southern Hemisphere (SH) regular agricultural fires contribute to a spring maximum. Regions of strong episodic emissions include Russia and Alaska as well as parts of South America, Africa, and Indonesia. Biomass burning, especially wildfires, dominate these episodic NH_3 high concentrations.

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1. Introduction

Global ammonia (NH_3) emissions are increasing due to the increased agricultural livestock numbers coupled with the increasing use of nitrogen fertilization (Sutton et al., 2007, 2008). Atmospheric ammonia has impacts upon local scales, acidification and eutrophication of the ecosystems, and international (transboundary), as well as local, scales through formation of fine ammonium containing aerosols. Ammonia reacts rapidly with sulfuric (H_2SO_4), nitric (HNO_3), and hydrochloric (HCl) acids to form a large fraction of secondary aerosols, i.e., fine Particulate Matter ($PM_{2.5}$) (particles less than 2.5 micrometers in diameter) (Malm et al., 2004). These ammonium containing aerosols affect Earth's radiative balance, both directly by scattering incoming radiation and indirectly by acting as cloud condensation nuclei (e.g., Adams et al., 2001; Martin et al., 2004; Abbatt et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2008; Henze et al., 2012). A large percentage of $PM_{2.5}$ can penetrate human respiratory systems and deposit in the lungs and alveolar regions, thus endangering public health (e.g., Pope et al., 2002). Ammonia deposition modifies the transport lifetimes, and deposition patterns of sulfur dioxide (SO_2) and nitrogen dioxide (NO_x) (Wang et al., 2008; Henze et al., 2012). Additionally, ammonia increases the concentrations of the greenhouse gases nitrous oxide (N_2O) (EPA, 2011) and, together with NH_4^+ content in soils, NH_3 is involved in CH_4 production and release (Fowler et al., 2009). NH_3 can also contribute to increases in radiative forcing through conversion of organic carbon (OC) into brown carbon (BrC) (Updyke et al., 2012). Therefore, monitoring NH_3 global distribution of sources is vital important to human health, with respect to air and water quality, and climate change.

Atmospheric ammonia concentrations have been modeled from a three-dimensional coupled-oxidant-aerosol model (GEOS-Chem) (Bey et al., 2001) to estimate natural and transboundary pollution influences on sulfate-nitrate-ammonium aerosol concentrations in the United States (Park et al., 2004). We used the simulated NH_3 fields from GEOS-Chem as the retrieval a priori for this study. A number of ammonia related science studies and top-down inventory studies are based on GEOS-Chem and its adjoint (Henze et al., 2009; Heald et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2013; Paulot et al., 2013; 2014; Paulot and Jacob, 2014). The model's ammonia emissions were based on annual data from the 1990 1° x 1° GEIA inventory of Bouwman et al. (1997). Table 1b from

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Park et al. (2004) shows a summary of global and contiguous U.S. ammonia emissions for 2001. The inventory's categories include anthropogenic sources: domesticated animals, fertilizers, human bodies, industry, fossil fuels, and natural sources: oceans, crops, soils, and wild animals. Additional emissions from biomass burning and biofuel used were computed using the global inventories of Duncan et al. (2003) and Yevich and Logan (2003), with an emission factor of 1.3 g NH_3 per kilogram dry mass burned (Andreae and Merlet, 2001). For the emissions from domesticated animals and soils, the GEOS-Chem model used the exponential dependencies on temperature reported by Aneja et al. (2000) and Roelle and Aneja (2002), respectively. Ammonia emissions from crops and fertilizers were assumed to vary seasonally with the number of daylight hours (Adams et al., 1999). Seasonal variations in biomass burning and biofuel emissions in the model were specified based on satellite observations (Duncan et al., 2003) and the heating degree-days approach (Park et al., 2004). The GEOS-Chem model can be used to generate 3-D global monthly mean fields of NH_3 concentrations, or higher temporal resolutions, for various years.

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Satellite remote sensing offers unique opportunities to monitor environmental variables with temporal and spatial variations. Ammonia measurements with large, daily global coverage are challenging and lacking, partly due to the relatively short (hours to a day) lifetime of NH_3 near the Earth's surface, and partly because its retrievals require high sensitivity that can be only obtained from areas with high thermal contrast (TC, the temperature difference between that of the surface temperature and of the first discernable atmospheric layer) near the surface (Clarisse et al., 2010). First measurements of ammonia from space were reported over Beijing and San Diego, CA areas with the Tropospheric Emission Spectrometer (TES, Beer et al., 2008) and in biomass burning plumes with the Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI, Coheur et al., 2009) satellite. Shephard et al. (2011) documented the TES ammonia retrieval methodology. TES NH_3 data has been utilized jointly with GEOS-Chem in various emission source studies (e.g. Zhu et al., 2013; Walker et al., 2012; Alvarado et al., 2011; Pinder et al., 2011). Luo et al. (2014) compared TES NH_3 versus carbon monoxide (CO) ratios, using data from year 2007, to those of GEOS-Chem model with a focus on biomass burning emissions using TES representative volume mixing ratio values (Shephard et al., 2011).

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The first global map of ammonia was created from IASI measurements by correlating observed brightness temperature differences to NH_3 total columns using averaged datasets from 2008 (Clarisse et al., 2009). It was later concluded that this method tends to underestimate the global emission inventories at a number of global NH_3 hotspots using IASI radiances. Clarisse et al. (2010) examined the ammonia amounts in the San Joaquin Valley using an optimal estimation (OE) retrieval method (Rodgers, 2000) with a global uniform a priori and IASI radiances and compared with TES measurements. They studied the factors influencing the ability to use satellite infrared (IR) instruments to retrieve accurate NH_3 columns and concentrations, finding that the main factors were NH_3 concentrations and thermal contrast. They concluded that through retrieval and forward radiative transfer model runs, if both of the NH_3 concentrations and thermal contrast are large enough, it is possible to quantify ammonia near the lowest level of the atmosphere. R'Honi et al. (2013) discussed the elevated concentrations of NH_3 and HCOOH emitted by the 2010 Russian wildfires. Heald et al. (2012) used contributions from IASI ammonia products in the GEOS-Chem study of inorganic aerosol loading and atmospheric ammonia concentrations over the US.

Global ammonia sources and variability based on continuous monitoring with longer than a decade record (13 years) have not been available. This study introduces a newly developed daily and global ammonia product from the Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS) on the NASA EOS Aqua satellite hyperspectral measurements spanning September 2002 through August 2015. The AIRS orbit covers nearly the entire globe twice daily, and due to cloud clearing, recovers up to 70% of cloudy coverage (Susskind et al., 2003; Warner et al., 2013). Additionally, AIRS is in the afternoon equator crossing time; and therefore, it offers high sensitivity due to higher surface temperature and provides higher thermal contrast to NH_3 measurements.

In the next section, we detail the methodology used to develop the global products of NH_3 and present the discussions for data quality. In Section 3, we show examples of validation cases using in situ data from a recent NASA aircraft mission – DISCOVER-AQ (Crawford et al., 2014) (http://discover-aq.larc.nasa.gov). Section 4 illustrates the global distributions of the NH_3 sources. We demonstrate the seasonal variability of NH_3 concentrations using AIRS 13 yr measurements in Section 5, before summarizing results in Section 6.

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2. Methodology

AIRS is a grating spectrometer with 2378 separate spectral channels between 650-2670 cm^{-1} (15.3-3.8 μm) with a spectral resolving power on the order of 1200. Twelve channels of the AIRS radiances in the window regions (860 – 875, 928 – 932, and 965 – 967 cm^{-1}) are currently used to retrieve NH_3. These channels are carefully selected so that the retrievals are based on the NH_3 sensitivity, while the effects of surface and overlapping gases are minimized. AIRS cloud clearing, described by Susskind et al. (2003), increases the data coverage significantly to nearly 50 – 70% of the total measurements, instead of the pure clear coverage of approximately 10 – 15% at a 13.5 km^2 single-view pixel size (Warner et al., 2013). AIRS NH_3 retrievals are based on the cloud-cleared radiances (CCRs) from AIRS L2 products. The averaging kernel (AK) peaks at about 918 hPa giving AIRS good sensitivity to lower tropospheric NH_3 because the planetary boundary layer generally extends above this altitude at the overpass local time of 1:30 pm.

The algorithm used in this AIRS NH_3 study was based on a retrieval module developed for AIRS carbon monoxide (CO) products (Warner et al., 2010). This module was built upon and added to the current AIRS operational system or team algorithm (Susskind et al., 2003), but used a different minimization method. The NH_3 module uses AIRS Version 6 (V6) Level 2 (L2) profiles and errors from the previous retrieval steps (i.e., surface, clouds, water vapor, ozone, methane, CO) as input to the AIRS forward model – the Stand-alone AIRS Radiative Transfer Algorithm (SARTA) (Strow et al., 2003). We used SARTA with the addition of NH_3 as a variable gas, which was carried out by co-author Strow and Hannon, since the official AIRS forward model does not include NH_3 absorption as a variable. AIRS NH_3 retrievals use an OE method following the formulations given by Rodgers (2000), and also described by Pan et al., (1998). The OE retrieval output quantities not only include the NH_3 concentrations, but also provide the AKs, the error covariance, and the degrees of freedom for signal (DOFS), which benefit model verifications and data assimilation by using well-quantified errors.

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Given a model of the instrument's signals, in the OE method, the forward equation for the NH_3 profile retrieval problem can be written as:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{b}) + \mathbf{n}, \quad (1)$$

where **y** is the vector of measured radiances, **x** is the state vector (variables to be retrieved from the measurements), **b** represents all other parameters used by the forward model, **f(x, b)** is the forward model function, and **n,** is the instrument noise. For the variables that obey a Gaussian distribution, this inverse problem is equivalent to the maximum likelihood solution. By using a Newtonian iteration; the solution to equation (1) can be written as (Rodgers, 2000):

$$\mathbf{X}_{n+1} = \mathbf{x}_a + \mathbf{C}_a\mathbf{K}_n^T(\mathbf{K}_n\mathbf{C}_a\mathbf{K}_n^T + \mathbf{C}_e)^{-1}[\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}_n - \mathbf{K}_n(\mathbf{x}_a - \mathbf{x}_n)] \quad (2)$$

where n is the order of iteration and $\mathbf{C}_e$ is the measurement error covariance matrix. $\mathbf{K}n = \partial f(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{b})/\partial \mathbf{x}$ is the jacobian matrix for iteration *n*, which is the sensitivity matrix of the forward model to the state vector **x**. $\mathbf{x}_a$ is the mean of the a priori distribution and $\mathbf{C}_a$ is the a priori error covariance matrix for $\mathbf{x}_a$.

As defined by the retrieval formulations, the AKs are computed using the following:

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{C}_a\mathbf{K}^T(\mathbf{K}\mathbf{C}_a\mathbf{K}^T + \mathbf{C}_e)^{-1}\mathbf{K} \quad (3)$$

and,

$$\mathbf{x}' \approx \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})\mathbf{x}_a, \quad (4)$$

where **I** represents the identity matrix and **x** is the true state. Equation (4) states that in the absence of other error sources the retrieved state is a weighted mean of the true state and the a priori state, with the weight **A** for the true state and **I-A** for the a priori. This shows the importance of AKs as diagnostics of the retrieval. The closer the matrix **A** is to the identity matrix the more the retrieved state resembles the true state.

The optimal estimation method requires an a priori mean profile and a corresponding error

covariance matrix that represent the current knowledge of the geophysical property, i.e., NH_3, prior to the retrieval. Due to the high spatial variability and short lifetime of NH_3, a simple fixed a priori for all emission scenarios is not appropriate. We developed a global mean, multi-year averaged (2003-2012), three-tier a priori from GEOS-Chem model (v9-02) simulations for high, moderate, and low pollutions. We used GEOS-5 MERRA datasets from the NASA Global Modeling and Assimilation Office (Rienecker et al., 2011) to drive the meteorological fields in the GEOS-Chem simulations. Figure 1 shows the a priori mean profiles (solid curve with squares) and the error covariance matrices (horizontal bars) for the low (left panel), the moderate (middle panel), and the high pollution (right panel), respectively. The high pollution range was defined by profiles with Volume Mixing Ratios (VMRs) greater than or equal to 5 parts-per-billion-volume (ppbv) at surface. The moderate pollution range includes the profiles with surface VMRs greater than or equal to 1 ppbv but less than 5 ppbv, or greater than 1 ppbv at any level between the surface and 500hPa. The low pollution is then defined as being lower than the lower bounds of the moderate pollution range. The profiles were adjusted to match AIRS forward model levels. The modeled profiles are extrapolated near the surface with additional constraints to reflect values that are likely seen by satellite sensors.

Although for each pixel there are three possible a priori, the same set of the three-tier a priori is used globally and throughout the AIRS data record. Thus, any spatial and temporal NH_3 variations detected using this algorithm are from AIRS measurements. To select one of the three a priori for each AIRS pixel, we examine the brightness temperature difference between a strong and a weak channel, divided by the measurement noise of the strong channel, defined as a "difference of brightness temperature index" (DBTI). This is similar to the method used by TES NH_3 and described by Shephard et al. (2011). The DBTIs vary with meteorological conditions and, most importantly, the thermal contrast at the surface. To take into account of these effects, we simulate the relationship between the brightness temperature differences and TC under various meteorological conditions using SARTA. We randomly picked 13790 profiles from AIRS L2 products over land from the months of January, April, July, and October in years 2003, 2008, and 2011. We then perturbed the NH_3 values spanning the three a priori mean profiles using the range of 0 – 100 ppbv for each atmospheric profile. The observed brightness temperatures are compared with the simulated values at a given TC to determine the level of a

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priori for the full retrievals. Figure 2 depicts a relationship between the DBTI and DOFS for the three emission levels with low emissions in blue, moderate emissions in green, and high emissions in red. The higher DBTIs are correlated with higher DOFS, which represent higher surface thermal contrast (Deeter et al., 2007).

The NH_3 retrieval quality assurance levels are determined based on the retrieval sensitivities under various meteorological and surface conditions using the AKs and the DOFS. We also take into account the performance of the retrievals against surface thermal contrasts from AIRS products. Additionally, we examine the retrieval residuals, χ^2, and the number of iterations to set proper quality assurance flags. The NH_3 retrieval quality is affected by the meteorological properties, such as the vertical temperature and water vapor profiles, surface temperatures, and emissivity, which are used to model the atmosphere. We also adapt the error information provided by the AIRS CCR for the relevant channels, which includes meteorological quantities that are used in deriving the AIRS CCR (http://disc.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/AIRS/documentation/v6_docs/v6releasedocs1/V6_Level_2_Cloud_Cleared_Radiances.pdf). This error information is flagged by Q0, Q1, and Q2 with Q0 having the highest quality and Q2 being unusable. In the remaining discussions of this study, we used χ^2 between 0.9 and 27, considering that the channels used are not all spectrally independent. The number of iterations limit was set at 10, meanwhile, only the cases with retrieval residuals less than 1 K are used. We also excluded cases with the surface thermal contrast between -4 and +4 K, to avoid ambiguous a priori levels; however, this primarily affects areas over the global oceans. Any additional screening of the data for higher quality requirements, e.g. the use of DOFS, will be discussed case by case. Although we have developed AIRS NH_3 products for all available datasets, only the daytime and land cases are discussed in this study. Additionally, only radiances with quality flag as Q0 are selected for the discussions in the following sections to ensure the best accuracy.

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3. Validation with in situ measurements

Validations of retrievals using in situ measurements are vital to quantifying uncertainties in the concentrations, sources, transport patterns, and trends using satellite data. Direct measurements

of tropospheric NH_3 are relatively sparse and in situ measurements above the ground level, necessary to validate satellite retrievals, are available for only limited locations and time periods (e.g. Nowak et al., 2007, 2010, and 2012). Validation of AIRS NH_3 datasets with available in situ measurements is a continuous effort as more in situ measurements become available. As an example of our validation effort, we use the DISCOVER-AQ NH_3 measurements over California (https://www-air.larc.nasa.gov/cgi-bin/ArcView/discover-aq.ca-2013--). The sampling inlet and NH_3 calibration set-up used during DISCOVER AQ with the cavity ring down spectrometer (CRDS) (G2103, Picarro Inc.) is the same as used with the Chemical Ionization Mass Spectrometry (CIMS) and described in Nowak et al. (2007). The CRDS, aboard the NASA P-3B aircraft during DISCOVER-AQ CA, data period covers January 16 to February 06, 2013. The in-situ NH3 vertical profiles were made in the Southern San Joaquin Valley of California. This region inside the central valley of California, between the coastal mountains in the west and the Sierra Nevada Mountains in the east, consists largely of farmland with scattered dairy farms. Although most of the area is rural, the profiles were made near the small cities of Hanford and Corcoran. We only select spiral profiles from the flights within 45 km of the center of the retrieved AIRS profiles, for the closest match, and within 3 hours of the measurement window, similar to the method used for AIRS CO validation (Warner et al., 2006).

Figure 3 shows four retrieval profiles that show high NH_3 concentrations and meet the matching criteria, where the red curves represent AIRS retrieved profiles, gray curves are the a priori profiles, green solid lines are in situ spiral profiles, and the blue dashed lines are the convolved in situ profiles by AIRS NH_3 AKs. Note that in Fig. 3, the x-axis is linear from 0 to 25 ppbv and logarithmic from 25 to 150 ppbv. The convolved in situ profiles take into account satellite retrieval sensitivities, making them appropriate to compare against satellite retrievals (Rodgers and Connor, 2003). The convolution calculations follow Eq. (3) and (4) in Sec. 2. The top left panel shows a case measured on January 16, 2013 with the retrieval quality at 0, DOFS at 0.64, χ^2 at 1.91, the retrieval residual at 0.77, and the measurement time differences at 1.31 hours. The distance between the in situ profile and the center of the AIRS profile is approximately 13.5 km. The top right panel shows four in situ profiles from January 21, 2013 with AIRS retrieved profile quality at 0, DOFS at 0.66, χ^2 at 1.26, the retrieval residual at 0.07, the time differences ranging from 0.58 to 1.68 hours, and the distance differences at approximately 56 km for all four profiles.

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The two profiles in the bottom left panel are also from January 21, 2013, with quality at 0, DOFS at 0.83, χ^2 at 0.31, the retrieval residual at 0.06. The time differences to the AIRS retrieved profile are 1.02 and -1.25 hours, and the distances are 38.3 and 38.7 km, respectively. In the bottom right panel, there are four profiles taken from February 4, 2013, with the retrieval profile quality at 0, DOFS at 0.84, χ^2 at 1.1, and the retrieval residual at 0.05. The time differences between the in situ and the retrieved profiles are 1.63, 1.40, -0.47, and -0.71, and the distances are 5.1, 45.2, 4.9, and 45.2 km, respectively. Some of the AIRS retrievals collocate with several in situ profiles, and these show substantial spatial variability.

Over regions with high NH_3 in situ concentrations, the convolved in situ profiles agree with the retrievals within <1 to ~3 ppbv (~5-15%) near the top of the boundary layer, as seen in the top two panels in Fig. 3. These two AIRS NH_3 profiles show good retrieval sensitivities with DOFS at approximately 0.64 and 0.66, χ^2 at 1.91 and 1.26, and the residual at 0.07, respectively. The top left in situ profile is relatively close (13.5 km) to the center of the AIRS pixel, whereas the top right in situ profiles are further away (~46 km) from the center of the AIRS pixel. When the NH_3 amount is low and there is very little sensitivity in AIRS measurements, the convolved profiles converge to the a priori profiles, as seen in the profiles with low NH_3 concentrations in the top right panel and in the bottom left panel. In the bottom right panel, there are four in situ profiles close to the AIRS profile – the AIRS pixel measures the average effect of the area represented by the four in situ profiles. Below 925 – 950 hPa in height, the in situ NH_3 mixing ratios are significantly higher than the retrieved profiles, indicating a limitation of satellite remote sensing in capturing near surface composition properties. Note again that each AIRS profile covers a surface area of 45 km^2 where in situ observed NH_3 amounts can vary by a factor of ten. The aircraft in situ flights sometimes are biased by their proximity to strong local point sources. Therefore, the differences between the retrievals and in situ measurements are likely due to sampling issues, although the retrieved profile matches the average of the in situ profiles as discussed above. Nonetheless, the vertical profiles show good agreement (~5 – 15%) between AIRS NH_3 and the in situ profiles in the examples given above.

4. Global Ammonia Concentrations

The AIRS global NH_3 VMRs at 918 hPa, averaged from Sept. 2002 through Aug. 2015, are shown in the upper panel of Fig. 4. The lower panel in Fig. 4 shows the total occurrences of elevated emissions (VMRs ≥ 1.0 ppbv at 918 hPa) for the same dataset. The occurrences, in numbers of days, are good indicators of the types of emission sources either due to recurring agricultural practices or episodic forest fires. It is important to analyze the NH_3 VMRs together with the occurrences to identify major emission sources. Another important quantity used in the NH_3 source analysis is the retrieval DOFS. Figure 5 shows the AIRS NH_3 DOFS values being in a range of 0.1 to slightly above 1.0. The regions with DOFS greater than 0.4 are generally associated with high NH_3 emissions and strong signal to noise ratios. We used a threshold level of DOFS of 0.1 to screen the retrievals in the Fig. 4 top panel to eliminate noise and to focus on where AIRS sensitivity is high. Areas with DOFS < 0.1 in the whole data record are indicated in white. The AIRS retrievals are sensitive to NH_3 concentrations in the lowest layer of the atmosphere between 850 hPa and the surface, with sensitivity peaking at approximately 918 hPa based on the retrieved AKs (not shown). Therefore, we use NH_3 VMRs at this level for all discussions in this study. There are diurnal variations in the datasets (not shown) that may be due to a number of factors including the day-night differences of emissions and chemical reactions and possibly measurement sensitivities, which is beyond the scope of this paper and will be studied at a later time. Also note that the missing data over land in certain regions are either due to high elevation (above the 918 hPa altitude level), and therefore not shown, or persistent cloudy days.

Globally, AIRS shows strong NH_3 hotspots from biogenic and anthropogenic sources including South Asia (India/Pakistan), East Asia (China), the central U.S., parts of Europe, Southeast Asia (Thailand/Myanmar/Laos), the central portion of South America, and Western and Northern Africa, where both the NH_3 VMRs and the frequent occurrences are high. The primary sources for these regions are from human activities, e.g., livestock waste management and other agricultural activities. The NH_3 concentrations over these hot spots vary from ~2.5 to above 10 ppbv, averaged over 13 years covering both strong and weak emission periods. Also seen are large regions of high NH_3 concentrations due to biomass burning events over Russia, Alaska, South America, Africa, and Indonesia, represented by high VMRs and low frequencies. High concentrations of NH_3 are persistent over South America and reflect emissions from biomass

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burning that are trapped by the Andes http://earthobservatory.nasa.gov/IOTD/view.php?id=8033&eocn=image&eoci=related_image. The hot spot over South Asia corresponds to the heavily populated Indo-Gangetic Plain with plentiful, fertile croplands and extensive livestock, and bounded on the north by the Himalayas (Yamaji et al., 2004). The absolute maximum on Fig. 4 is found over the Punjab which has the highest population density in Pakistan.

To understand the persistent emission sources, we filtered the NH_3 VMRs with the collocated occurrences of elevated emissions (≥ 1.4 ppbv) using a threshold of 40 days, and the results are shown in Fig. 6 top panel. Although a sufficient emission (≥ 1.4 ppbv) threshold is used to calculate occurrences of the persistent sources, we used all VMR values, with DOFS greater than 0.1, for the VMR maps. The persistent NH_3 sources not only include those large regions listed above, but also include small geographical areas such as in the San Joaquin Valley of central California in the U.S. (with low sulfur emissions and where livestock are plentiful); the Po Valley, Italy; Fergana Valley, Uzbekistan; Azerbaijan; the Nile Delta and along the banks of the Nile River in Egypt; and the Sichuan Basin in China. Some of these source locations are consistent with those previously reported by Clarisse et al. (2009). These emission hotspots are compared with the "Pasture and Cropland Map" (see middle panel in Fig. 6), posted by http://OurWorldInData.org, located at the Institute for New Economic Thinking at the Oxford Martin School. AIRS NH_3 source regions are strongly correlated with cropland areas, e.g., over India, China, the middle U.S., Western Africa, eastern South America, and Europe. Note that four of the strongest emission regions correspond to high percentage irrigated agricultural areas (see bottom panel in Fig. 6), i.e., over Pakistan, India, northern Italy, and Azerbaijan adjacent to the Caspian Sea. The irrigated agricultural land includes that irrigated by controlled flooding. These data are provided by the World Bank (data.worldbank.org), where the color values are the percent agricultural irrigated land of total agricultural land. These irrigation activities are associated with periods of fertilization and ammonia release. Sommer et al. (2004) studied the relationship between the fertilizing time and the ammonia release time and indicated that the fertilizers applied in March can be released in the June to August time frame depending on the amount of precipitation. The irrigation practices may have the same effect as high amounts of precipitation.

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Over China, the AIRS retrieval can match high-resolution inventories distinguishing the two major animal husbandry areas in east-central China (Henan, Shandong, and Hebei provinces) as well as Sichuan to their southwest (Huang et al., 2012). Additional weaker, but persistent, NH_3 sources are also seen in the Fig. 6 top panel that are likely related to livestock and agriculture practices. These source regions include areas in eastern North Carolina (consistent with Wu et al., 2008), Arizona near Phoenix, in the east coast of Spain near Barcelona and Águilas, and over large areas in the Netherlands, in Mozambique in Africa, and the Gambela National Park region between Ethiopia and South Sudan.

5. Seasonal Variability

Seasonal variations are shown in Fig. 7 in the four NH_3 VMR maps, averaged between Sept. 2002 and Aug. 2015, for December-January-February (DJF, upper left panel), March-April-May (MAM, upper right panel), June-July-August (JJA, lower left panel), and September-October-November (SON, lower right panel), respectively, with DOFS greater than 0.1 and no cutoff for the VMRs. Globally, the strongest emissions are in the NH summer and spring seasons, with the exception from strong biomass burning (BB) sources, i.e., over South America, the Southeast Asia, and Russia in the NH fall season. The highest NH_3 concentrations over non-BB dominant regions occur over India, China, the Mid-West U.S., and part of Europe in the summer months. The longest high emission seasons are over northern India, collocated with the measurement of high NH_4^+ in the precipitation over India reported by Kulshrestha et al. (2005). The seasonal NH_3 VMR distributions in China, Europe, and the U.S. are also consistent to a large extent, with the Paulot et al. (2014) study of agricultural emissions inventory derived by high-resolution inversion of ammonium wet deposition data. This is especially true for the spring season, as seen in Fig. A1 of Paulot et al. (2014), i.e., MASAGE_NH3 (Magnitude and Seasonality of Agricultural Emissions for NH_3, https://fpaulot.bitbucket.org/MASAGE/) emissions of NH_3 from fertilizers.

High average concentrations (Fig. 7) with low frequencies (Fig. 8) generally indicate NH_3 from biomass burning (BB). The greatest emissions from BB in the NH appear in the summer months

over Siberia and eastern Russia as well as over Alaska, U.S. The highest emissions due to BB in the SH appear over South America in September to November (spring for the SH) when precipitation is minimal and burning extensive (Oliveras et al., 2014). Over SE Asia where the dry season and most BB occurs in March to May, we find another local maximum (Lin et al., 2013). Over Africa high emissions from BB occur in the Western and Central regions, although both high concentrations and frequent appear in the Sahel just south of the Sahara in the NH winter. In that region persistent burning of agricultural waste has been reported (Haywood et al., 2008); see also http://rapidfire.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/cgi-bin/imagery/firemaps.cgi.

Ammonia seasonal variations are presented (Fig. 9) using the monthly mean VMRs averaged over the 13-year period. Simple hemispheric averages of NH_3 concentrations for all cases do not accurately reflect the seasonality of the important agricultural activities in the NH, due to the mixing with BB cases and low NH_3 regions, as well as regions with missing values due to weeks of persistent cloud cover. To understand how NH_3 emissions vary seasonally due to human activities, we focus on the NH_3 emissions from the continuous emission sources. As in the case of Fig. 6, where we showed continuous sources using screening by the occurrences of elevated emissions, we select the occurrence thresholds at emission levels higher than 1.4 ppbv on at least 40 days of the 13-year record. Figure 9 shows the monthly mean variations of NH_3 (solid line) in both the NH (upper panel) and the SH (lower panel); the dashed lines show the $\pm 1\sigma$ (standard deviation, STD) and the shaded areas represent the maximum and minimum range of each dataset. In the NH, the high emission period starts in April and the NH_3 concentrations peak in June. The NH average of the VMR concentrations from April through July is in the range of 3.7 – 4.0 ppbv; and it gradually decreases to the minimum of below 2 ppbv in November-December-January. The range of monthly mean variability between different years is also larger from April to September (at ~1 ppbv) than in the winter months (at ~0.4 ppbv). The STD decreases from the summer values of 0.6 ppbv to 0.3 ppbv in the winter.

Seasonal variation in the SH (lower panel in Fig. 9) shows that the primary sources of NH_3 emission are from BB, as was seen in the NH_3 seasonal maps (e.g., Fig. 7). Although the filtering for the continuous emission sources eliminated some large occasional fires (i.e., over Indonesia), there are still regularly occurring fires, such as those over the central part of South America. The

NH_3 emission in the SH peaks in September with an average value near 3.5 ppbv and decreases sharply after the SH spring season. The season of high emission in the SH is much shorter than in the NH, as demonstrated by the widths of the seasonal distribution curves. The largest STD occurs in September with a magnitude of 2 ppbv, but the variation between different years in the winter is very small (~0.25 ppbv).

6. Summary

AIRS ammonia (NH_3) products with a 13-year data record provide global daily maps, identify major source regions, and show seasonal cycles. This enables studies for detailed locations of the sources and their spatial and temporal variations. AIRS NH_3 products using OE retrievals provide retrieval sensitivity properties, in addition to NH_3 concentrations, such as: the AKs, error covariance matrices, and the DOFS. This will facilitate sensor inter-comparisons, model verifications, and data assimilation of satellite retrievals. AIRS measurements can not only capture high biomass burning emissions (e.g., over Russia, Alaska, South America, Africa, and Indonesia) and/or accumulated concentrations such as in various valleys (e.g., San Joaquin Valley, California in the U.S., the Po Valley, Italy, Fergana Valley, Uzbekistan, and the Sichuan Basin in China), but also emissions due to routine animal feeding and agriculture activities (e.g., Azerbaijan, Nile Delta and along the banks of the Nile River in Egypt, the Mid-West U.S., North Carolina, U.S., the east coast of Spain, in the Netherlands, in Mozambique and Ethiopia, Africa, and especially the Indo-Gangetic Plain of South Asia). Over China, the AIRS retrieval can match high-resolution inventories distinguishing the two major animal husbandry areas in east-central China and the Sichuan Basin. Preliminary validation results show excellent agreement with in situ airborne measurements (to within 5-15% of the retrieved profiles). Note that since each AIRS profile covers a surface area of 45 km^2 where the NH_3 amounts can vary largely, the simple numerical differences may not be the optimal way to validate satellite ammonia products.

We use frequent occurrences of NH_3 elevated emissions to select persistent sources. This distinguishes the NH_3 emissions due to human activities versus occasional fires or retrieval noise. We show that the persistent ammonia sources correlate well with cropland usage, particularly in regions where irrigation is a routine practice. We show the hemispheric seasonal variation

using sources screened by the high NH_3 frequent occurrences. The NH high NH_3 emissions occur in the spring and summer with highest from April to July and lowest in November through January. In the SH, the NH_3 emission is highest in September, this is most likely due to BB emissions shown by the high VRMs and relatively low frequencies.

Detailed examinations of specific regions are needed and will be included in future studies to improve our understanding of the processes that control the NH_3 distribution and variability. The recent NH_3 trends from AIRS 13-year measurements will also be a subject of future studies since the scope of this paper is to focus on the algorithm details and the global distributions. Results in this study are focused on land and daytime only. Future studies will include more complicated surface types, i.e., ocean surfaces and regions with lower thermal contrast. The diurnal variations will also be an important topic in the future studies. We have used the pixels with the highest quality cloud-cleared radiances (at 45 km^2 spatial resolution) defined by the earlier steps of AIRS retrievals, while a future direction will be to also use the higher spatial resolution single-view pixels (at 13.5 km^2) under clear-sky conditions (Warner et al., 2013).

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Figure Captions:

Fig.1. The *a priori* profiles and the square root of the diagonal terms of the error covariance matrices for the low emission levels (left panel), the moderate emission levels (middle panel), and the high emission levels (right panel), respectively.

Fig. 2. Correlation between the DBTI (Difference of Brightness Temperature Index) and DOFS (Degrees Of Freedom for Signal) for the three emission levels with low emissions in blue, moderate emissions in green, and high emissions in red.

Fig. 3. AIRS NH_3 validation against CRDS (the cavity ring down spectrometer) spiral profiles collected during the DISCOVER-AQ CA (01/16-02/06, 2013). The red curves represent AIRS retrieved profiles, gray curves are the *a priori* profiles, green solid lines are *in situ* spiral profiles, and the blue dashed lines are the convolved profiles using AIRS NH_3 AKs. The x-axis is linear from 0 to 25 ppbv and logarithmic from 25 to 150 ppbv.

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Fig. 4. Upper panel: AIRS global NH_3 VMRs at 918 hPa, averaged from September 2002 through August 2015. The colorbar is linear from 0 to 5 ppbv and 5 to 10 ppbv, but with different increments. Lower panel: The total occurrences (number of days) of high emissions (VMRs > 1.0 ppbv at 918 hPa) in the 13-year period. Red/blue indicate relatively high/low occurrences of high emissions, respectively.

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Fig. 5. AIRS NH_3 DOFS values averaged over September 2002 – August 2015 period. Red/blue indicate relatively high/low DOFS, respectively.

Fig. 6. Top panel: The NH_3 VMRs from the persistent sources filtered with the collocated occurrences of elevated emissions (≥ 1.4 ppbv) using a threshold of 40 days. Middle panel:

Pasture and Cropland Map (http://OurWorldInData.org); and Bottom panel: irrigated agricultural land areas (data.worldbank.org).

Fig. 7. AIRS NH_3 VMRs at 918 hPa averaged between September 2002 and August 2015 for December-January-February (DJF, upper left panel), March-April-May (MAM, upper right panel), June-July-August (JJA, lower left panel), and September-October-November (SON, lower right panel), with DOFS greater than 0.1 and no cutoff limit for the VMRs. Red/purple indicate relatively high/low NH_3 VMRs.

Fig. 8. As in Fig. 7 except for the occurrences of high emissions (VMRs ≥1 ppbv). Red/blue indicate relatively high/low occurrences of high emissions.

Fig. 9. The NH_3 monthly mean variations (solid line) in the NH (upper panel) and the SH (lower panel), respectively. The long-dash lines show the 1σ standard deviation (STD); and the shaded areas represent the maximum and minimum range of each dataset.

Footnotes for Figure 6:

The World Bank provided the statement that the maps displayed on the World Bank web site are for reference only and do not imply any judgment on the legal status of any territory, or any endorsement or acceptance of such boundaries.