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assimilation system
to improve ozone
simulations**

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Using 3DVAR data assimilation system to improve ozone simulations in the Mexico City basin

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Received: 2 June 2008 – Accepted: 2 June 2008 – Published: 1 July 2008

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Published by Copernicus Publications on behalf of the European Geosciences Union.

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Abstract

This study investigates the improvement of ozone (O_3) simulations in the Mexico City basin using a three-dimensional variational (3DVAR) data assimilation system in meteorological modeling during the MCMA-2003 campaign. Meteorological simulations from the Penn State/NCAR mesoscale model (MM5) are used to drive photochemical modeling with the Comprehensive Air Quality Model with extensions (CAMx) during a four-day episode on 13–16 April 2003. The calculated wind circulation, temperature, and humidity fields in the basin with the data assimilation are found to be more consistent with the observations than those from the reference deterministic forecast. This leads to improved calculations of plume position, peak O_3 timing, and peak O_3 concentrations in the photochemical model. The improvement of O_3 simulations is especially strong during the daytime. The results demonstrate the importance of applying data assimilation in meteorological simulations for air quality studies in the Mexico City basin.

1 Introduction

Air pollution episodes are determined by a complicated interaction among three factors: emissions of pollutants to the atmosphere, chemical reactions, and meteorology (Banta et al., 2005). Meteorological conditions play a key role in air quality forecast (Seaman, 2000; Solomon et al. 2000), which determine the dilution or accumulation of pollutant emissions and can also impact other key processes, such as chemical reaction rates. Past attempts to investigate photochemical sensitivity to meteorological uncertainty include adjoint sensitivity studies (Menut, 2003) and Monte Carlo simulations with randomly specified meteorological and photochemical variables (Hanna et al., 2001; Beekmann and Derognat, 2003). The impacts of realistic meteorological uncertainties on ozone pollution predictability in Houston and the surrounding area have been demonstrated recently by Zhang et al. (2007) through meteorological and

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photochemical ensemble forecasts.

In order to improve the accuracy of weather forecasts, data assimilation has been used operationally for meteorological modeling and prediction but seldom used for air quality modeling. Previous works aimed to improve the representation of meteorological fields have mostly focused on observational nudging, which is one of the four-dimensional data assimilation (FDDA) schemes (see e.g., Stauffer et al., 1990, 1991; Grell et al., 1994; Stauffer and Seaman, 1994; Fast, 1995; Seaman, 2000). Nudging is a continuous assimilation method that relaxes the model state toward the observed state by adding artificial tendency terms to one or more of the prognostic equations based on the difference between the two states. When differences are computed directly using observations which are distributed non-uniformly in space and time, it is called “Obs-Nudging”. Several studies have demonstrated that the simulation of O₃ is significantly improved when the nudged meteorological fields are used in the chemical simulations (Barna and Lamb, 2000; Davakis et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2007). However, Lee et al. (2007) have also pointed out that the influence of the FDDA on the O₃ concentrations is not the same in all areas and the complexity of the terrain might affect the efficiency of the FDDA.

The three dimensional variational (3DVAR) data assimilation system is one of the variational data assimilation systems. It has been widely used in operational weather forecasting. Its basic goal is to produce an “optimal” estimate of the true atmospheric state at analysis time through iterative solution of a prescribed cost function (Ide et al., 1997). The practical advantages of VAR systems over their predecessors include:

1. observations can easily be assimilated directly;
2. all observations are used simultaneously;
3. synoptic data can be assimilated near its validity time.

However, VAR data assimilation systems also have their weaknesses. First, the quality of the output analysis depends crucially on the accuracy of prescribed errors for

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observations and background information. Second, the variational method allows for the inclusion of linearized dynamical/physical processes, while in fact real errors in the numerical weather prediction (NWP) system may be highly nonlinear.

The Mexico City Metropolitan Area (MCMA) is situated inside a basin at 2240 m altitude and 19° N latitude and is surrounded on three sides by mountains averaging over 3000 m a.s.l. The main opening of the basin is towards the Mexico Plateau to the north. To the southeast there is a gap in the mountains, referred to as the Chalco passage, which leads to significant gap winds. The combination of weak winds and numerous pollutant sources results in high levels of air pollution (Molina and Molina, 2002). Because of its complex topography, the meteorology of the MCMA depends on the interplay of the basin with the Mexican plateau and the lower coastal areas. Both regional and synoptic-scale meteorological conditions are important for understanding flows and dispersion within the Mexico City basin (Bossert, 1997). Fast and Zhong (1998) explored the important role of meteorological processes in producing the spatial variations in the ozone distributions within the Mexico City basin by using a mesoscale dynamics and dispersion modeling system. The thermally driven gap winds in the southeast of the basin play an important role in the formation of a convergence zone, which can further affect the surface air pollutant distributions in the basin (Doran and Zhong, 2000).

Previous studies have analyzed the complex wind circulation in the Mexico City basin (see, e.g., Streit and Guzman, 1996; Fast and Zhong, 1998; Jazcilevich et al., 2003). However, meteorological mesoscale model simulations and evaluations are inherently uncertain for cases with complex terrain and weak synoptic forcing. In addition, the MCMA has an urban heat island effect with potential impacts on the wind circulation in the basin (Jauregui, 1997). As a major field study investigating the atmospheric chemistry of the MCMA, the MCMA-2003 campaign revealed important new insights into the meteorology, primary pollutant emissions, ambient secondary pollutant precursor concentrations, photochemical oxidant production, and secondary aerosol particle formation in North America's most populated megacity (Molina et al., 2007). de Foy

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et al. (2005a) identified three episode types based on wind circulation patterns: “O₃-South” (O₃ peak occurs in the south of the basin), “Cold Surge” (cold northerlies sweep the basin atmosphere clean), and “O₃-North” (O₃ peak occurs in the north of the basin). This classification has provided a means of understanding pollutant transport in the Mexico City basin as well as the basis for future meteorological and chemical analysis (Lei et al., 2008; de Foy et al., 2006a) further explored the different wind convergence patterns in the basin under different meteorological conditions. On the basin scale, convergence zones form at the interface between southerly gap winds and northerly plateau flows. High resolution satellite-derived land surface parameters were coupled into the mesoscale simulations and led to improved meteorological simulations during a high O₃ episode of MCMA-2003 (de Foy et al., 2006b). A study using a mesoscale meteorological model and a particle trajectory model indicated that the residence times of urban plumes in the basin are less than 12 h with little carry-over from day to day and little recirculation of air back into the basin (de Foy et al., 2006c).

The episode selected for this study is 13–16 April 2003, which is the first “O₃-South” episode during MCMA-2003 campaign studied by de Foy et al. (2005) and Lei et al. (2007). The meteorological fields used in Lei et al. (2007) are simply deterministic forecast using the Global Forecast System analysis and forecast data at 3-h resolution as initial and boundary conditions. Satellite-derived land surface parameters were also applied to improve the performance of the simulation (de Foy et al., 2006b). The main meteorological features over Mexico and Mexico City basin were captured in these simulations. However, discrepancies remain in the surface wind simulation on some days, including the wind speed and wind direction, which can affect the simulation of urban plume in CAMx. Lei et al. (2007) also pointed out that one major cause for the discrepancy in O₃ simulations is the inaccurate modeling of the timing of the surface winds increase and the wind shift due to the gap flow (such as on 14 and 16 April). In addition to the atmospheric chemical measurements obtained during the MCMA-2003 campaign, there are meteorological observations, which have not been assimilated in the meteorological simulations yet. This paper attempts to examine the impact of as-

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simulating both the routine and the additional meteorological observations during the meteorological simulation on the O₃ simulations in the Mexico City basin by using the MM5 3DVAR data assimilation system (Barker et al., 2004).

The observations and modeling experiments are described in Sect. 2. The episode and its related studies are reviewed in Sect. 3. Section 4 describes the modeling results and comparison with observations, while Sect. 5 presents the discussion and summary.

2 Available observations and experiments descriptions

Both routine and additional meteorological observations during the MCMA-2003 campaign are used in this study. The routine observations include radiosondes at 6 sites (shown in Fig. 1a), surface observations with 1-h interval (not shown), and the surface observations of the Mexico City Ambient Air Monitoring Network (RAMA) (www.sma.df.gob.mx/simat). The regular soundings are launched at 12:00 UTC every day. The additional meteorological observations during MCMA-2003 used in this study are shown in Fig. 1b, which include radiosonde observations at the Mexican National Weather Service (SMN) headquarters (GSMN) every 6 h, surface observations at the National Center for Environmental Research and Training (CENICA) supersite, the automatic weather stations (EHCA, indicated by SMN in Fig. 1b), 10 surface observation stations located in high schools throughout the MCMA (ENP-CCH), and two temporary stations located at ININ (Instituto Nacional de Investigaciones Nucleares) and a mobile van deployed at Santa Ana Tlacotenco (SATL).

The air quality modeling system used for this study consists of the fifth generation NCAR/Penn State Mesoscale Model (MM5) (Dudhia, 1993) and an Eulerian photochemical grid model CAMx (ENVIRON, 2003). The model set-up for MM5 is described in detail in de Foy et al. (2005a). Briefly, the simulations adopt three one-way nested grids with horizontal resolutions of 36, 12, and 3 km and 23 sigma levels in the vertical direction. The grid cells used for the three domains are 40×50, 55×64, and 61×61,

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respectively. The domains are shown in Fig. 1a. MM5 is initialized at 00:00 UTC every day and integrated 36 h. The initial and boundary conditions for the model are taken from the Global Forecast System (GFS, Kalnay et al., 1990) at a 3-h resolution. Three simulations are conducted in this study, including the reference deterministic forecast experiment (FCST), a simulation using 3DVAR data assimilation with a 6-h cycling interval (3DV6h), and one with a 3-h cycling interval (3DV3h). The routine observations (including sounding and surface observations) and the additional sounding at GSMN are assimilated in domains 1 and 2 (Fig. 1b). Since the additional surface observations are concentrated inside the Mexico City basin, we only assimilate these observations and the additional sounding observations taken at GSMN in domain 3. The background error covariance statistics used in this study are estimated through the NMC-method (Parrish and Derber, 1992) using one month 24-h and 12-h MM5 forecast data set. The assimilation time window used in 3DV6h and 3DV3h are 6-h and 3-h, respectively. The rest of the input set-ups for the three simulations are the same.

The CAMx model is designed to simulate air quality on urban and regional scales. It uses hourly meteorological output fields from the three MM5 simulations mentioned above, which include wind, temperature, water vapor, cloud/rain, land-use and vertical diffusivity. The hourly outputs of MM5 in domain 3 are used to drive the CAMx model to simulate the high O₃ events during 13–16 April 2003. The first 5 h of the MM5 output are excluded as spin-up period, therefore CAMx is initialized at 00:00 CDT every day and then integrated for 24 h. The CAMx model domain is similar to the MM5 domain 3, with four grids trimmed from each edge and 15 vertical layers corresponding to the lowest 15 layers in the MM5. The model set-up and the input data used for CAMx in this study is the same as described in Lei et al. (2007) except for the meteorological fields. The emission input is constructed based on the 2002 official emissions inventory for the MCMA (CAM, 2004) as described in Lei et al. (2007). For all the experiments, the initial and boundary conditions for chemical fields are the same, since we only focus on the effects due to changes in the meteorological fields.

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3 Overview of the episode on 13–16 April 2003

The episode on 13–16 April 2003 is one of the “O₃-South” episodes defined in de Foy et al. (2005). A detailed description of the meteorological fields during this episode can be found in de Foy et al. (2006a, 2006c). During this period, an anticyclone moved from the eastern Pacific Ocean to Mexico, leading to subsidence over Mexico. At the same time, there are strong sea breezes developing under these conditions both along the Gulf of Mexico and the east coast of the Pacific Ocean, which are clearly indicated by the surface convergence zone over Mexico. O₃-South days have weak synoptic forcing and a much clearer signature of terrain-induced flow. On the regional scale, a convergence zone is formed in the area where the sea breezes from the Pacific Ocean and the Gulf of Mexico meet. On the basin scale, the gap flow coming from the Chalco passage starts at 15:00 CDT and sweeps through the entire city by 22:00 CDT. Similar jets also exist through Toluca to the west and past Puebla on the east (de Foy et al., 2006a, c). The O₃-South days have high O₃ peaks in the southwest area of Mexico City, which is quite consistent with the convergence patterns.

The photochemical O₃ production and its sensitivity to emission changes of O₃ precursors during this episode have been studied by Lei et al. (2007) using CAMx. The relationship between O₃ production and ambient NO_x and VOC concentrations is shown to be complex due to the heterogeneous primary radical sources under different NO_x levels. The sensitivity studies of O₃ production suggest that O₃ formation is VOC limited with less chemical aging (NO_z/NO_y<0.3) in the urban region of Mexico City.

4 Results

4.1 Influence of 3DVAR data assimilation on meteorological simulations

The simulated large-scale meteorological fields and synoptic patterns have been modified slightly due to the implementation of the data assimilation. For example, at

ACPD

8, 12529–12560, 2008

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07:00 CDT and 13:00 CDT on 16 April, the position of 500 hPa anticyclone in 3DV6h is more consistent with the GFS analysis compared with that in FCST (Fig. 2), which in turn leads to the simulated wind circulation over Mexico City in 3DV6h that is in better agreement with the GFS analysis fields (inner box in Fig. 2). The impact of 3DVAR data assimilation on meteorological simulations in the urban area of Mexico City is evaluated in the following section.

Fig. 3 shows the comparison between the observed and modeled sounding in different experiments at GSMN at 13:00 CDT on 14 and 16 April. The results indicate the change of the simulated vertical wind and temperature fields caused by the data assimilation particularly at lower levels. The simulated sounding in 3DV6h is more consistent with the observations in terms of thermal structure and wind fields. At 13:00 CDT on 14 and 16 April, the simulated humidity fields between 600 and 300 hPa in 3DV6h are both lower than those in FCST, which is in better agreement with the observations. The modeled upper level wind speeds in 3DV6h are also improved for the above-mentioned two days. In addition, the simulated wind shears (including height and strength) near 700 hPa in 3DV6h are much more consistent with the observations.

The mixing layer height is an essential parameter in atmospheric dispersion modeling, controlling the extent of the vertical mixing of pollutants near the surface. In our simulations, we use the MRF (medium range forecast) boundary layer scheme (Hong and Pan, 1996), which diagnoses the mixing layer heights based on the stability class and the vertical profile of virtual potential temperature. Figure 4 illustrates the comparison of the modeled hourly mixing layer heights with the observed mixing layer height diagnosed from the sounding observations at GSMN. Observed mixing layer heights are estimated using the gradient method by identifying heights at which the vertical gradient of potential temperature exceeds a threshold of 2.5 K/km (de Foy et al., 2006c). Mixing layer heights calculated with the threshold method (de Foy et al., 2006c) are also displayed in Fig. 4. FCST generally underestimates the mixing layer heights, while 3DV6h overestimates them but in better agreement with the measurements in terms of timing. The simulated nighttime mixing layer heights in 3DV6h and

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3DV3h are both higher than those of FCST, which is much more consistent with those measured by the tethered balloon flights, in which the mixing layer heights is never lower than 200 m (Velasco et al., 2007). In general, the simulated mixing heights in 3DV6h and 3DV3h do not differ significantly.

5 The main features of the surface wind circulation during the “O₃-South” episode include the weak drainage flows in the northwest and stronger channel flow over the mountain pass from Toluca at 07:00 CDT, upslope flows along the western and southern slopes of the basin at 13:00 CDT, and the convergence line in the basin at 19:00 CDT (Fig. 12 of de Foy et al., 2006b). Figure 5 presents the simulated surface winds and temperature features in the Mexico City basin in FCST and 3DV3h together with the observations on 16 April. All available surface meteorological measurements in Mexico City basin during MCMA-2003 (see Sect. 2) are used in the comparisons. In general, both winds and temperature fields in the basin are noticeably modified due to data assimilation. A warm bias in the day and cool bias at night are simulated in 3DV3h compared to FCST, demonstrating more accurate temperature simulations through the 3DVAR system compared with the measurements. Although the wind fields in the northwest of the basin at 08:00 CDT are not well captured in both simulations (Fig. 5a–c), the temperature simulations have improved significantly in 3DV3h. At 14:00 CDT (Fig. 5d–f), upslope flows along the western and southern slopes of the basin are slightly changed in 3DV3h, and the simulated maximum temperature in the basin is increased in 3DV3h, which decreases the bias between the model and observations. At 20:00 CDT (Fig. 5g–i), the strength of the gap flow and the position of the convergence line in the basin are better simulated in 3DV3h than those in FCST. However, neither of the simulations captures the down slope winds along the southern slope of the basin.

25 The time series of observed and modeled surface wind speed and temperature averaged over the 31 monitor sites inside the Mexico City basin are depicted in Fig. 6. Through the use of data assimilation, the simulated averaged wind speeds during the morning time have been improved on most of the days (such as 13, 14, and 16 April). The simulated averaged temperature is enhanced in midday during the entire episode,

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especially on 13 and 14 April, which is closer to the observations. Nevertheless, the modeled maximum temperature appears to be underestimated compared with measurements on average.

We further compare the model results with observations using statistical analysis.

- 5 According to the study by Fox (1981) and Willmott (1982), the average difference between predictions and measurements can be described by the root mean square error (RMSE), which has the form

$$\text{RMSE} = \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (p_i - o_i)^2 \right]^{1/2} \quad (1)$$

- 10 where p_i and o_i are the predicted and observed variables, respectively. N is the number of cases. The decrease of RMSE implies the improvement of the model performance.

Willmott (1981, 1982) and Willmott and Wicks (1980) have also proposed an “index of agreement” (IOA) to describe the relative differences between model and observation. The index IOA is defined as

$$\text{IOA} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (p_i - o_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (|p_i - \bar{o}| + |o_i - \bar{o}|)^2} \quad (2)$$

- 15 where p_i and o_i are defined as above, and \bar{o} denotes the average of the observation. The model index ranges from 0 to 1, with 1 indicating the perfect agreement between the model and observation. The IOA is intended to be a descriptive measure, and it is both a relative and bounded measure. We use both RMSE and IOA to examine the performance of the different simulations respond to wind and temperature fields on the basin scale during this entire episode. Figure 7 shows the RMSE and IOA calculated in FCST, 3DV6h, 3DV3h, and the measurements in terms of wind speed and temperature. The wind speed (temperature) simulations in 3DV6h yield better results in terms

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of RMSE at 17 (30) of the 31 monitors (Fig. 7a and b) and IOA at 21 (30) of the 31 monitors (Fig. 7c and d). Consequently, the basin scale wind and temperature simulations at most stations are improved by using the 3DVAR data assimilation, especially with regard to the temperature fields. Generally speaking, the results from 3DV6h and 3DV3h are consistently better than those of FCST. In addition, 3DV3h produce better wind speed simulations than 3DV6h, but the simulated temperature in 3DV6h is slightly better than those of 3DV3h.

4.2 Influence of 3DVAR data assimilation on ozone simulations

The O₃ simulations driven by the three different meteorological fields are evaluated and compared with the measurement at 19 surface monitoring stations of the RAMA network. Figure 8 displays the diurnal cycle of observed O₃ and simulated O₃ averaged over the 19 sites of RAMA network and at the five selected individual stations. The five selected stations are TLA, XAL, MER, PED, and CES, respectively (shown in Fig. 1b), representing different areas inside the Mexico City basin. In general, except for 15 April, the averaged simulated O₃ concentrations at peak time in both 3DV6h and 3DV3h show significantly improved agreement with the measurement from RAMA network when using 3DVAR data assimilation. The improvement of peak time O₃ concentrations due to the data assimilation on most of the days is more than 20 ppb. The peak timing of simulated O₃ concentrations in 3DV6h and 3DV3h are both shifted later on 13 and 14 April, which is more consistent with the observations. The O₃ simulation in 3DV3h is generally better than that in 3DV6h, indicating that decreasing the cycling interval in the data assimilation has a positive effect on producing more accurate meteorological simulations. The improvement of peak O₃ concentration at the selected individual monitoring stations (Fig. 8b–e) is more noticeable. The variations in the simulated maximum O₃ concentrations at some individual station can be up to 70 ppb and the O₃ peak time shift can also reach 3 h (such as at station PED on 13 and 14 April).

Besides the improvement in peak O₃, the position of the outflow plumes are also altered due to changes in the wind and temperature fields caused by data assimilation.

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lation. Figure 9 shows the bi-hourly horizontal distributions of O_3 from 12:00 CDT to 18:00 CDT on 16 April. The modified meteorological fields change not only the horizontal distribution patterns of O_3 but also the position of the maximum concentration area. The position of the plume, especially the high O_3 concentration area, is significantly improved in comparison with observations. The simulated high O_3 area is larger in 3DV3h and also displaced to the northeast, which is more consistent with measurements. On 14 April the simulated high O_3 area is smaller and located further northeast in 3DV3h (Figure not shown), which is in better agreement with measurements generally.

According to the statistical evaluation methods introduced in Sect. 4.1, we employ the same indices to investigate the performance of the different O_3 simulations at different monitoring stations. Figure 10 provides the RMSE of simulated O_3 in FCST, 3DV6h, and 3DV3h against the RAMA measurements. Evaluations are conducted during the entire episode and during the daytime (06:00 a.m. to 17:00 p.m.) hours of the episode. CAMx driven by the meteorological fields with the data assimilation presents better O_3 simulations in terms of RMSE at 16 of the 19 monitors (Fig. 10a and b) and better IOA at 16 of the 19 monitors (not shown). The improvements are especially noticeable at the daytime. For example, the maximum reduction in RMSE of O_3 due to the data assimilation can be more than 15 ppb during the day time, which can be explained by the improvements in both wind and temperature simulations. Several possible reasons might contribute to smaller reductions in RMSE of O_3 on 15 April, such as the use of static background errors in the 3DVAR system, the quality and location of additional observations (Morss and Emanuel, 2002) and the uncertainties in emission sources.

4.3 Link between meteorological fields and ozone distributions

It has been known that the O_3 distribution in the Mexico City basin is closely related to vertical motions caused by the convergence within the basin, recirculation patterns associated with venting and entrainment processes, vertical wind shears, and wind speeds aloft (e.g., Fast and Zhong, 1998; Jazcilevich et al., 2003; de Foy et al., 2006a; 2006c). According to the results presented in Sect. 4.2 (Fig. 8a), the simulated mag-

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nitude of peak O₃ concentrations over the Mexico City basin are lower on the 13 and 14 April but higher on 16 April when the data assimilation system is adopted in the meteorological simulation. The simulated O₃ temporal evolutions during these days are more consistent with the measurements. The results on 16 April are employed as an example to explain the influence of meteorological fields on O₃ distributions. The differences of surface winds in the Mexico City basin between 3DV3h and FCST are analyzed below. In the morning hours (Fig. 11a and b), the gap flow through the Chalco passage in the southeastern basin and the channel flow over the mountain pass from Toluca are increased, but the upslope winds along the southern basin is decreased in 3DV3h, which are favorable for the accumulation of the pollutants inside the basin. In the early afternoon (Fig. 11c and d), the upslope winds along the southern and western basin are both weaker in 3DV3h, but the gap winds occur earlier in 3DV3h. Along with the build-up of local emissions, the magnitude of the peak O₃ is higher and the peak O₃ area is pushed further north in 3DV3h compared to FCST. In the late afternoon (Fig. 11e and f), the upslope winds along the western basin and the gap flow are both stronger in 3DV3h. Thus ozone area in 3DV3h is extended westward and moved northward compared to that in FCST.

Since the southerly gap flow and the northerly plateau-to-basin winds are important to the accumulation and ventilation of pollutants in the Mexico City basin (Doran and Zhong, 2000; de Foy et al., 2006a, c), we further analyze the vertical section of the winds and the O₃ concentrations along the cross section from northwest to southeast of the basin (the position of the cross section shown in Fig. 11). In general, as the gap flow through the Chalco passage meets the northerly flow from the Mexico plateau, there is a convergence zone and the vertical mixing is enhanced over the basin. The pollutants produced in the basin are then transported aloft and southwards by the northerly flow. In the morning (Fig. 12a), the simulated gap flow through the Chalco passage is increased in 3DV3h, while the upper level winds over the mixing layer is slightly weakened in 3DV3h, leading to more accumulation of pollutants in the basin. In the early afternoon (Fig. 12b), the horizontal convergence in 3DV3h is much

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stronger due to the increased gap flow and northerly winds leading to higher O₃ concentrations over the basin. In the late afternoon (Fig. 12c), the horizontal convergence, the vertical mixing, and the upper-level winds are all slightly stronger in 3DV3h. Increased dispersion during this time reduces the O₃ in the 3DV3h case to the levels found in FCST.

The situation on 14 April is different from 16 April (figure not shown). In the morning, besides the horizontal convergence, the vertical mixing and the upper level northerly flow are both stronger in 3DV3h, which result in stronger ventilation in the basin in 3DV3h. In the early afternoon, along with the increased southward and eastward up-slope winds, the gap winds are decreased in 3DV3h. Meanwhile, the vertical mixing and the upper level outflow are enhanced in 3DV3h, and thus the peak ozone area has been pushed further east but at lower concentrations. In the late afternoon, the horizontal convergence is slightly stronger in 3DV3h because of the increased southerly down slope winds, gap winds and northerly winds. The vertical mixing and the upper winds are both stronger in 3DV3h. Overall, the magnitude of the maximum O₃ concentration is similar between 3DV3h and FCST, but its distribution in both the vertical and the horizontal are different because of variations in the dispersion strength.

5 Conclusions

This study investigates the effects of using a 3DVAR data assimilation system in meteorological simulations in improving O₃ simulations in the Mexico City basin during the MCMA-2003 campaign. Both routine and additional meteorological observations during the campaign have been assimilated into the meteorological simulations during the episode of 13–16 April 2003. The simulated large-scale meteorological fields and synoptic patterns over Mexico City have been modified slightly due to the implementation of the data assimilation. The simulated wind circulation, temperature, and humidity fields in the basin have been improved due to data assimilation. As a result, the simulated position of the plume, the magnitude of peak O₃, and the peak O₃ timing are also

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significantly improved on most of the days. The improvement of O₃ simulations is especially prominent during the daytime. The results clearly demonstrate the importance of applying data assimilation in meteorological simulations of air quality in the Mexico City basin.

5 Certain days had reduced improvements in air quality simulations than others. One possible explanation is the use of static background errors in the 3DVAR system, which does not reflect the flow-dependent background error covariance. We plan to use the ensemble-based background error covariance in the MM5 3DVAR system to evaluate the effect of hybrid 3DVAR data assimilation (Hamill and Snyder, 2000) in our future
10 study. In addition, the quality and location of additional observations can also affect the results using the 3DVAR data assimilation system (Morss and Emanuel, 2002).

Since this work focuses only on one episode, comparisons between the simulations with and without data assimilation during a longer period are also necessary. In addition, the surface observations used in this study are limited to the basin scale. The
15 effect of using 3DVAR data assimilation can be better discerned if there are more available observational data over a wider area within the model domain. We plan to apply this simulation to the larger data set obtained from MCMA-2006/MILAGRO Campaign in Mexico City.

Acknowledgements. The authors gratefully acknowledge financial support from the US National Science Foundation (ATM-0528227 and ATM-511803) and the Mexican Metropolitan Environmental Commission. We would like to thank Zhiyong Meng at Texas A and M University for her help in the implementation of MM5 3DVAR system. Acknowledgement is made to the
20 National Center for Atmospheric Research, which is sponsored by the National Science Foundation, for the computing time used in this research.

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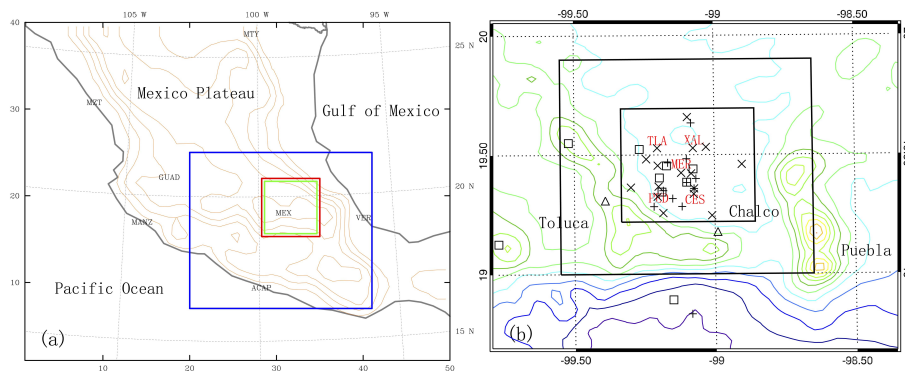


Fig. 1. (a) MM5 domains (black, blue, red box) and radiosonde locations: Mexico City (MEX), Acapulco (ACAP), Veracruz (VER), Monterrey (MTY), Guadalajara (GUAD), Manzanillo (MANZ), and Mazatlan (MZT). (b) CAMx domain (indicated by the green box in Fig. 1a) and surface meteorological measurement locations in the Mexico City basin. The star represents the CENICA supersite. Crosses are surface meteorological stations of the UNAM-CCA high school network. Triangles are two temporary stations operated during the campaign. Multiplication signs are RAMA stations; locations indicated by red characters are the five selected stations used in Fig. 8. Squares are the National Meteorological Service surface stations. Contours in both panels represent terrain height.

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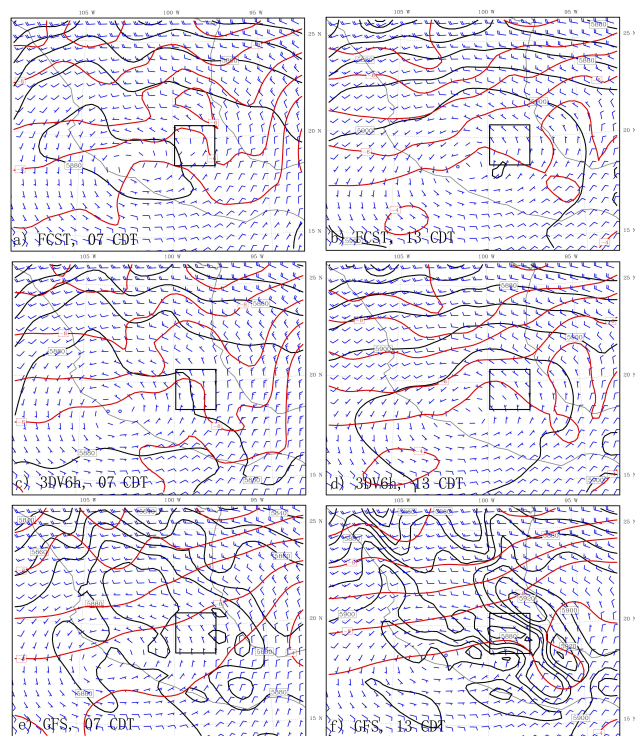


Fig. 2. The 500 hPa geopotential heights, winds and temperature fields at 07:00 CDT and 13:00 CDT 16 April from the simulations of **(a, b)** FCST, **(c, d)** 3DV6h, and **(e, f)** GFS analysis data. Black box indicates domain 3 used in MM5.

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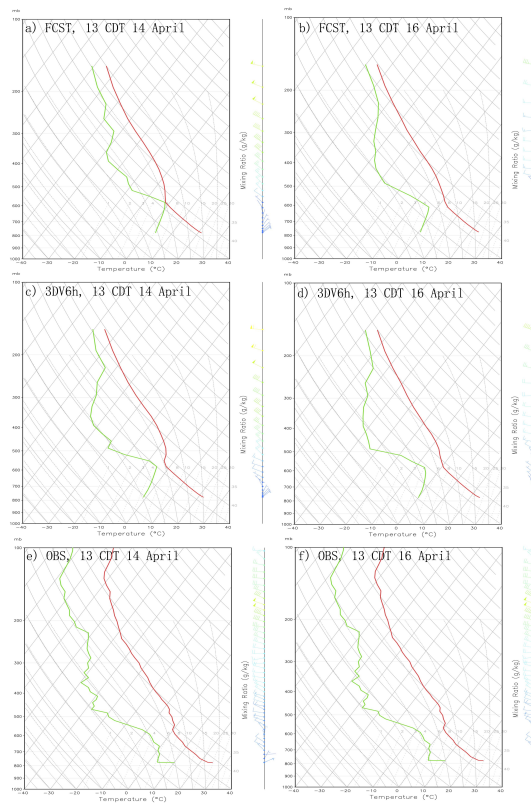


Fig. 3. The simulated soundings in **(a, b)** FCST, **(c, d)** 3DV6h, and the observation **(e, f)** in Mexico City at 13:00 CDT, 14 and 16 April. Red and green curves represent temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) and dew point temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), respectively.

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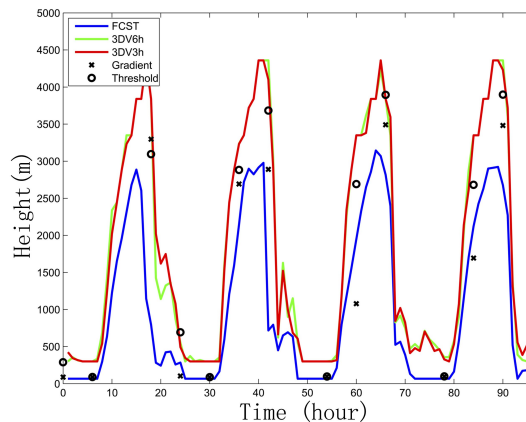


Fig. 4. The modeled hourly mixing layer heights and observed (diagnosed from the sounding observation) mixing layer heights at GSMN during 13–16 April 2003. See text for detail descriptions of the legend.

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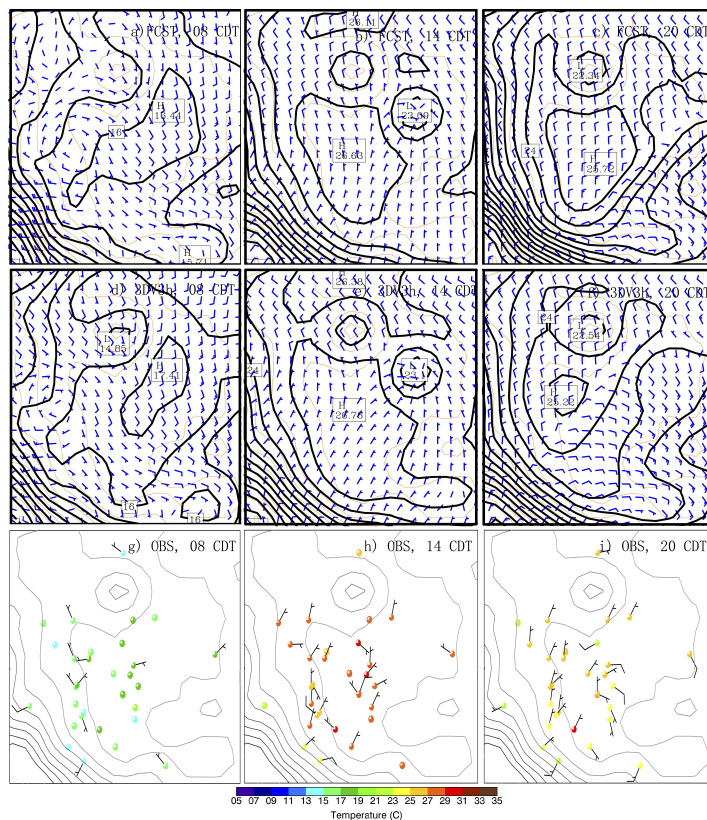


Fig. 5. Surface winds (bar) and temperature (contours in a–f, dots in g–i) in the Mexico City basin valid at 08:00, 14:00, and 20:00 CDT 16 April for simulations in (a–c) FCST and (d–f) 3DV3h and (g–i) observations. Color dots in (g–i) represent temperature observations. Orange contours in (a–f) and gray contours in (g–i) denote terrain. The domain showing here is the inner most domain of Fig. 1b.

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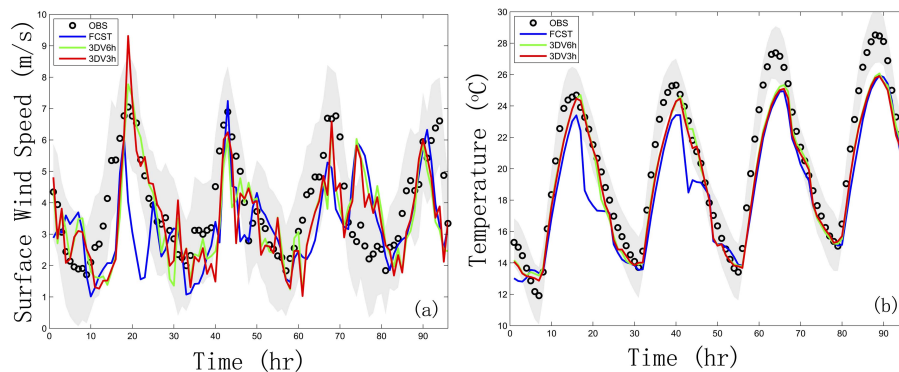


Fig. 6. Temporal evolutions of simulated and observed **(a)** surface wind speed and **(b)** surface temperature averaged over the available observation sites in the Mexico City basin.

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Fig. 7. The RMSE and index of agreement (IOA) calculated in FCST, 3DV6h, and 3DV3h against the measurements in terms of surface wind speed and temperature at the surface monitoring sites during 13–16 April 2003.

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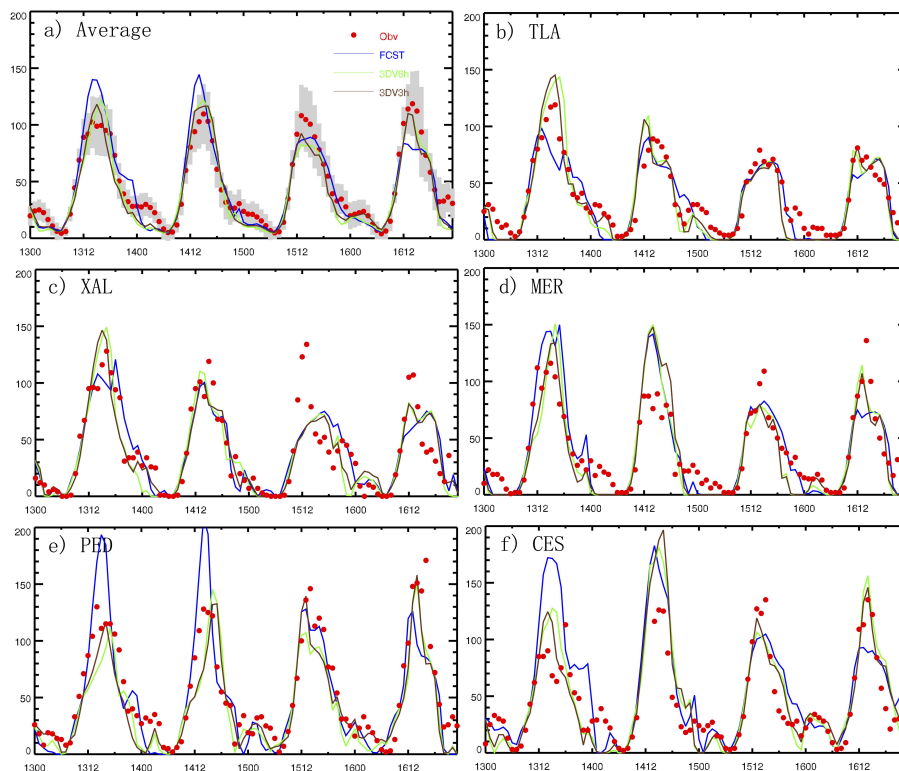


Fig. 8. Temporal evolutions of simulated (solid line) and observed (dots) O_3 concentrations in the Mexico City basin averaged over the 19 sites of RAMA network and the individual temporal evolution of 5 selected stations (TLA, XAL, MER, PED, and CES, shown in Fig. 1b).

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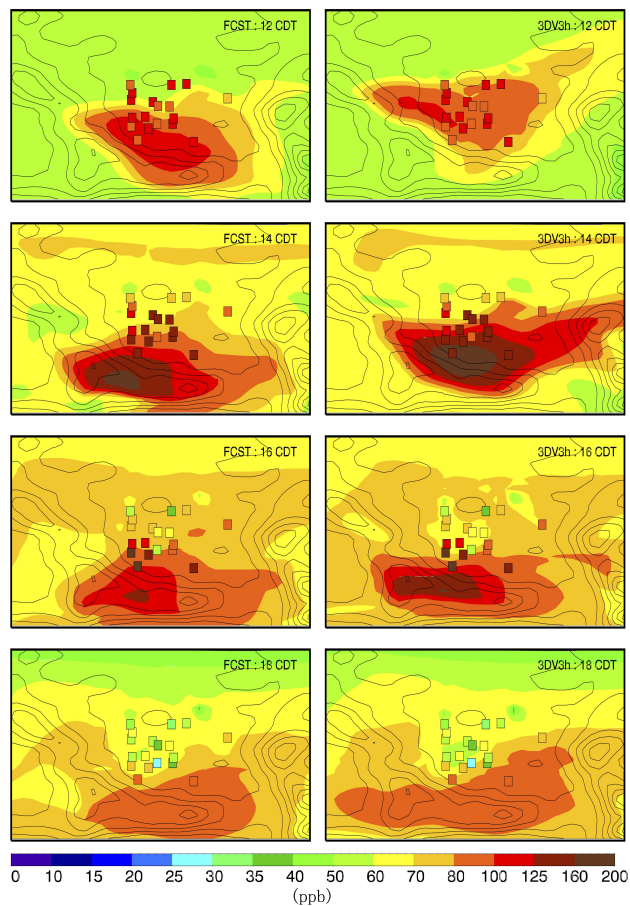


Fig. 9. Horizontal distributions of simulated (colored contours) O₃ concentrations in FCST and 3DV3h versus the measurements (colored squares) from RAMA in the Mexico City basin between 12:00 to 18:00 CDT on 14 April 2003.

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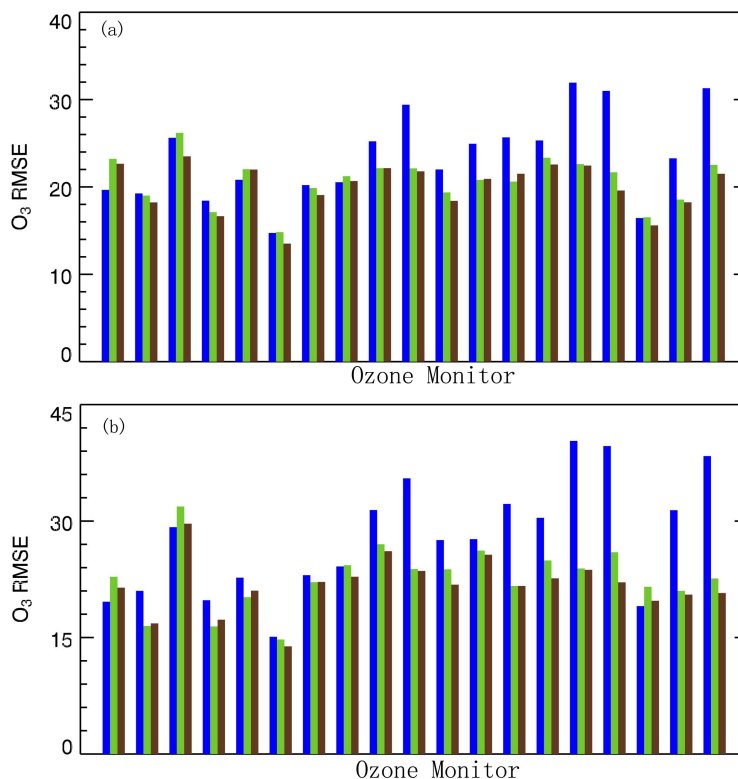


Fig. 10. The RMSE calculated for FCST (blue), 3DV6h (green), and 3DV3h (brown) against the measurements in terms of O₃ concentrations at 19 RAMA monitors. **(a)** is calculated over entire episode and **(b)** is calculated over the daytime of the entire episode.

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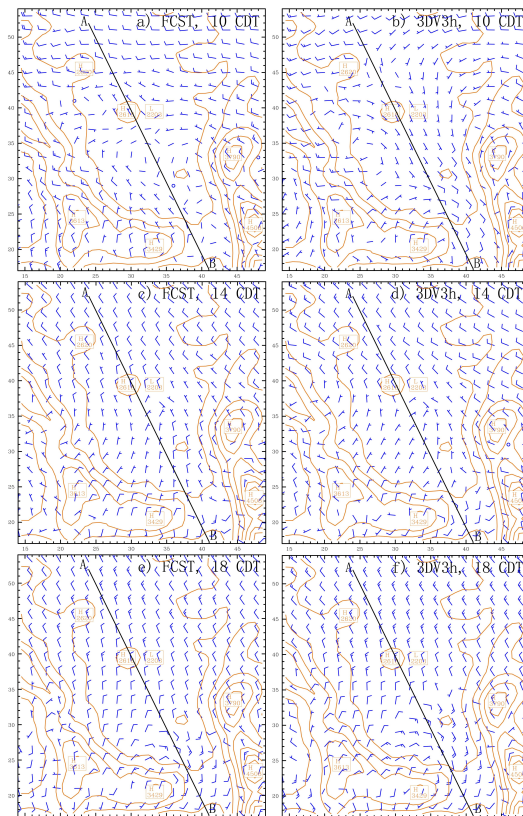


Fig. 11. The simulated surface winds in FCST and 3DV3h over the Mexico City basin from 10:00 CDT to 18:00 CDT on 16 April, 2003. Orange contours denote terrain height. Line AB represents the position of the cross section shown in Fig. 12.

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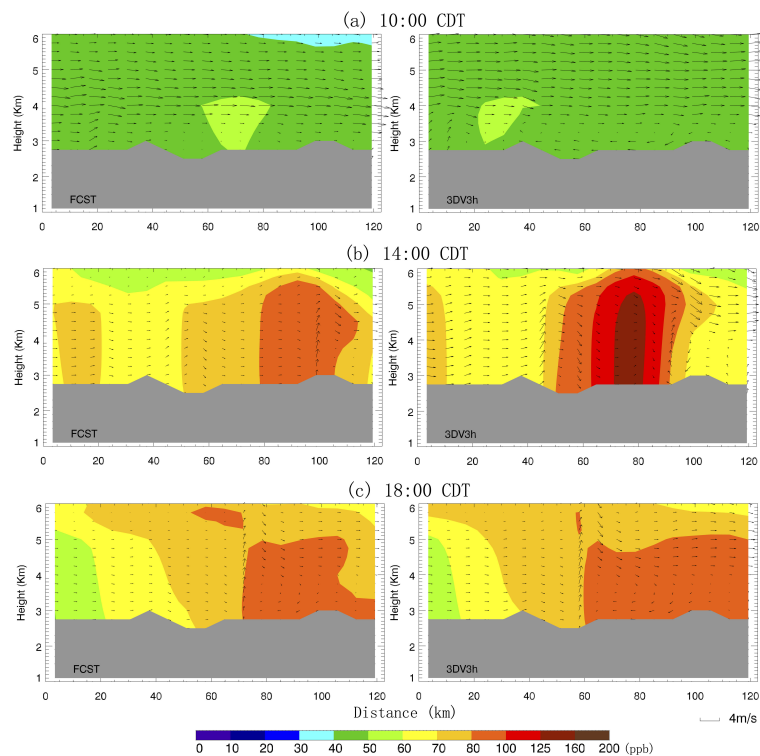


Fig. 12. Vertical distributions of winds and O_3 concentrations along the cross section (shown in Fig. 11) at 10:00 CDT, 14:00 CDT, and 18:00 CDT, 16 April 2003, simulated in FCST and 3DV3h, respectively.

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