



An evaluation of IASI-NH₃ with ground-based FTIR 1

2 measurements

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- 27 Abstract. Global distributions of atmospheric ammonia (NH₃) measured with satellite instruments such as the
- 28 Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI) contain valuable information on NH3 concentrations and
- 29 variability in regions not yet covered by ground based instruments. Due to their large spatial coverage and daily
- 30 observations, the satellite observations have the potential to increase our knowledge of the distribution of NH₃
- 31 emissions, and associated seasonal cycles. However the observations remain poorly validated, with only a
- 32 handful of available studies often using only surface observations without any vertical information. In this study,
- 33 we present the first validation of the IASI-NH₃ product using ground-based Fourier Transform InfraRed (FTIR)
- 34 observations. Using a recently developed consistent retrieval strategy, NH₃ concentration profiles have been
- 35 retrieved using observations from nine Network for the Detection of Atmospheric Composition Change
- 36 (NDACC) stations around the world between 2008- 2015. We demonstrate the importance of strict spatio-
- 37 temporal collocation criteria for the comparison. Large differences in the regression results are observed for
- 38 changing intervals of spatial criteria, mostly due to terrain characteristics and the short lifetime of NH3 in the
- 39 atmosphere. The seasonal variations of both datasets are consistent for most sites. Correlations are found to be
- 40 high at sites in areas with considerable NH₃ levels, whereas correlations are lower at sites with low atmospheric
- 41 NH₃ levels close to the detection limit of the IASI instrument. A combination of the observations from all sites
- 42 $(N_{obs} = 547)$ give a MRD of -32.4 ± (56.3) %, a correlation r of 0.8 with a slope of 0.73. These results indicate
- 43 that the IASI-NH₃ product performs better than previous upper bound estimates (-50% - +100%).

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45 1. Introduction

46 47 Humankind has increased the global emissions of reactive nitrogen to an unprecedented level (Holland et al., 48 1999; Rockström et al., 2009). The current global emissions of reactive nitrogen are estimated to be a factor four 49 larger than pre-industrial levels (Fowler et al., 2013). Consequently atmospheric deposition of reactive nitrogen 50 to ecosystems has substantially increased as well (Rodhe et al., 2002; Dentener et al., 2006). Ammonia (NH₃) 51 emissions play a major role in this deposition with a total emission of 49.3Tg in 2008 (Emission Database for 52 Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR), 2011). Although NH3 emissions are predominantly from agriculture in 53 the Northern Hemisphere, wildfires also play a role, with biomass burning contributing up to 8% of the global 54 emission budget (Sutton et al., 2013). NH₃ has been shown to be a major factor in the acidification and 55 eutrophication of soil and water bodies, which threatens biodiversity in vulnerable ecosystems (Bobbink et al., 56 2010; Erisman et al., 2008, 2011). Through reactions with sulphuric and nitric acid, NH₃ also contributes to the 57 formation of particulate matter which is associated with adverse health effects (Pope et al., 2009). Particulate 58 ammonium salts contribute largely to aerosol loads over continental regions (Schaap et al., 2004). Through its 59 role in aerosol formation, NH3 also has an impact on global climate change as hygroscopic ammonium salts are 60 of importance for the aerosol climate effect and thus the global radiance budget (Adams et al., 2001). 61 Furthermore increased NH₃ concentrations in the soil also enhance the emission of nitrous oxide (N₂O) which is 62 an important greenhouse gas and an ozone-depleting substance (Ravishankara et al., 2009). Finally nitrogen 63 availability is a key factor for the fixation of carbon dioxide (CO₂) and thus it is an important factor in climate 64 change. 65 Despite the fact that NH₃ at its current levels is a major threat to the environment and human health, relatively 66 little is known about its total budget and global distribution (Sutton et al., 2013; Erisman et al., 2007). Surface 67 observations are sparse and mainly available for north-western Europe, the United States and China (Van 68 Damme et al., 2015a). At the available sites, in situ measurements are mostly performed with relatively poor 69 temporal resolution due to the high costs of performing reliable NH₃ measurements with high temporal 70 resolution. These measurements of NH₃ are also hampered by sampling artefacts caused by the reactivity of NH₃ 71 and the evaporation of ammonium nitrate (Slanina et al., 2001; von Bobrutzki et al., 2010; Puchalski et al., 72 2011). As the lifetime of atmospheric NH_3 is rather short, on the order of hours to a few days, due to efficient deposition and fast conversion to particulate matter, the existing surface measurements are not sufficient to 73 74 estimate global emissions without inducing large errors. The lack of vertical profile information further hampers 75 the quantification of the budget, with only a few reported airborne measurements (Nowak et al., 2007, 2010, 76 Leen et al., 2013, Whitburn et al., 2015). 77 Advanced IR-sounders such as the Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI), the Tropospheric

78 Emission Spectrometer (TES), and the Cross-track Infrared Sounder (CrIS) enable retrievals of atmospheric

NH₃ (Beer et al., 2008; Coheur et al., 2009; Clarisse et al., 2009; Shephard et al., 2011, 2015a). The availability

80 of satellite retrievals provide a means to consistently monitor global NH₃ distributions. Global distributions

81 derived from IASI and TES observations have shown high NH₃ levels in regions not covered by ground-based

 $82 \qquad data. \ In this way, more insight was gained into known and unknown \ NH_3 \ sources \ worldwide \ including \ biomass$

83 burning, industry and agricultural areas. Hence, satellite observations have the potential to improve our





- 84 knowledge of the distribution of global emissions and their seasonal variation due to their large spatial coverage
- and (bi-) daily observations (Zhu et al., 2013; Van Damme et al., 2014b, 2015b; Whitburn et al., 2015; Luo et
- 86 al., 2015). However, the satellite observations remain poorly validated with only a few dedicated campaigns
- 87 performed with limited spatial, vertical or temporal coverage (Van Damme et al., 2015a; Shephard et al., 2015b,
- 88 Sun et al., 2015).
- 89 Only a few studies have explored the quality of the IASI-NH₃ product. A first evaluation of the IASI
- 90 observations was made over Europe using the LOTOS-EUROS model and has shown the respective consistency
- 91 of the measurements and simulations (Van Damme et al., 2014b). A first comparison using ground-based and
- 92 airborne measurements to validate the IASI-NH₃ data set were made in Van Damme et al. (2015a). They
- 93 confirmed consistency between the IASI-NH₃ data set and the available ground-based observations and showed
- 94 promising results for validation by using independent airborne data from the CalNex campaign. Nevertheless,
- 95 that study was limited by the availability of independent measurements and suffered from representativeness
- 96 issues for the satellite observations when comparing to surface concentration measurements. One of the key
- 97 conclusions was the need for vertical profiles (e.g. ground-based remote sensing products or upper-air in situ
- 98 measurements to compare similar quantities). Recently, Dammers et al. (2015) developed a retrieval
- 99 methodology for Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR) instruments to obtain remotely sensed
- 100 measurements of NH₃ and demonstrated the retrieval characteristics for four sites located in agricultural and
- 101 remote areas. Here we explore the use of NH₃ total columns obtained with ground based FTIR at nine stations
- 102 with a range of NH₃ pollution levels to validate the IASI-NH₃ satellite product by Van Damme (2014a).
- 103 First, we concisely describe the ground based FTIR retrieval and IASI-NH₃ product datasets in Sections 2.1 and
- 104 2.2. Next we describe the methodology of the comparison in Section 2.3 followed by the presentation of the
- 105 results in Section 3, which are then summarized and discussed in Section 4.

106





107 2. Description of the satellite and FTIR data sets and validation methodology

108 2.1 IASI-NH₃ product

- $109 \qquad \text{The first global NH}_3 \text{ distribution was obtained by a conventional retrieval method applied to IASI spectra}$
- 110 (Clarisse et al., 2009), followed by an in depth case study, using a more sophisticated algorithm, of the
- 111 sounder's capabilities depending on the thermal contrast (defined in Van Damme et al. (2014a) as the
- temperature differences between the Earth surface and the atmosphere at 1.5 km altitude, Clarisse et al., 2010).
- 113 In this study we use the NH₃ product developed by Van Damme et al. (2014a). Their product is based on the
- 114 calculation of a dimensionless spectral index (Hyperspectral Range Index: HRI), which is a quantity
- 115 representative of the amount of NH₃ in the total atmospheric column. This HRI is then converted into NH₃ total
- 116 columns using look-up-tables based on numerous forward simulations for various atmospheric conditions.
- 117 These look-up-tables relate the HRI and the thermal contrast to a total column of NH_3 (Van Damme et al.,
- 118 2014a). The product includes an error characterization of the retrieved column based on errors in the thermal
- 119 contrast and HRI. Important advantages of this method over the method by Clarisse (2009) is the relatively

120 small computational cost, the improved detection limit and the ability to identify smaller emission sources and

- 121 transport patterns above the sea. One of the limitations of this method is the use of only two NH_3 vertical
- 122 profiles: a "source profile" for land cases and a "transported profile" for sea cases (Illustrated in Van Damme et
- 123 al., 2014a, fig. 3). Another limitation of the product is that it does not allow the calculation of an averaging
- 124 kernel to account for the vertical sensitivity of the instrument sounding to different layers in the atmosphere. In
- 125 this paper we will use NH₃ total columns retrieved from the IASI-A instrument (aboard of the MetOp-A
- 126 platform) morning overpass (AM) observations (i.e. 09:30 local time at the equator during overpass) which have
- 127 a circular footprint of 12 km diameter at nadir and an ellipsoid shaped footprint of up to 20 km x 39 km at the
- 128 outermost angles. We will use observations from January 1st 2008 to December 31st 2014. Figure 1 shows the
- $129 \qquad \text{mean IASI-NH}_3 \text{ total column distribution (all observations gridded to a 0.1° x 0.1° grid) using observations}$
- 130 above land for the years 2008-2014. The mean columns are obtained through a weighting with the relative error
- 131 (see Van Damme et al., 2014). The bottom left inset shows the corresponding relative error.
- 132
- 133





134 2.2 FTIR- NH₃ retrieval

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136 The FTIR-NH₃ retrieval methodology used here is described in detail in Dammers et al. (2015) and a summary 137 is given here. The retrieval is based on the use of two spectral micro-windows, which contain strong individual NH₃ absorption lines. The two spectral windows [930.32-931.32 cm⁻¹, MW1] and [962.70-970.00 cm⁻¹, MW2] 138 139 or the wider version for regions with very low concentrations [929.40-931.40 cm⁻¹, MW1 Wide] and [962.10-140 970.00 cm⁻¹, MW2 Wide] are fitted using SFIT4 (Pougatchev et al., 1995; Hase et al., 2004, 2006) or a similar 141 retrieval algorithm (Hase et al, 1999) based on the optimal estimation method (Rodgers et al., 2000) to retrieve 142 the volume mixing ratios (in ppbv) and total columns of NH₃ (in molecules cm⁻²). Major interfering species in 143 these windows include H₂O, CO₂ and O₃. Minor interfering species are N₂O, HNO₃, CFC-12 and SF₆. For the 144 line spectroscopy, the HITRAN 2012 (Rothman et al., 2013) database is used with a few adjustments for CO2 145 (ATMOS, Brown et al., 1996), and sets of pseudo-lines generated by NASA-JPL (G.C. Toon) are used for the 146 broad absorptions by heavy molecules (i.e. CFC-12, SF₆). The *a-priori* profiles of NH₃ are based on balloon 147 measurements (Toon et al., 1999) and scaled to fit common surface concentrations at each of the sites. An 148 exception is made for the a-priori profile at Reunion Island where a modelled profile from the MOZART model 149 is used (Louisa Emmons, personal communication, 2014). There, the profile peaks at a height of 4-5km, as NH₃ 150 are expected to be due to transport of biomass burning emissions on the island and Madagascar. For all stations, 151 the a-priori profiles for interfering species are taken from the Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model 152 (WACCM, Chang et al., 2008). Errors in the retrieval are typically ~30% (Dammers et al., 2015), which are 153 mostly due to uncertainties in the spectroscopy in the line intensities of NH₃ and the temperature and pressure 154 broadening coefficients (HITRAN 2012).

155

156 An effort has been made to gather observations from most of the station part of the Network for the Detection of 157 Atmospheric Composition Change (NDACC) which have obtained relevant solar spectra between 1st of Jan 158 2008 and 31st of Dec 2014. We excluded stations which have only retrieved or are believed to have, NH3 total 159 columns smaller than 5x10¹⁵ (molecules cm⁻²) during the study interval (i.e. Arctic and Antarctic and other stations with concentrations below the expected limits of the IASI-NH₃ product, at best $\sim 5 \times 10^{15}$ for observations 160 161 with high thermal contrast). Figure 1 shows the positions of the FTIR stations used in this study. The retrieved 162 NH₃ total columns (molecules cm⁻²) for each of the stations are shown in Figure 2. The number of available observations per station varies as does the range in total columns with high values of ~100x10¹⁵ (molecules cm⁻ 163 ²) observed at Bremen and low values of about 1x10¹⁵ (molecules cm⁻²) at St Denis Reunion. The following 164 165 provides a short description of each of the sites used in this study and retrieved NH₃ columns (molecules cm⁻²). 166 Additionally, a short summary can be found in Table 1: 167 The Bremen site operated on the university campus by the University of Bremen in the northern part of the city 168 (Velazco et al., 2007). Bremen is located in the northwest of Germany, which is characterized by intensive 169 agriculture. It is most suitable for comparisons with IASI given the very high observed concentrations (Fig. 2, 170 blue) and flat geography surrounding the station. NH₃ sources near the measurement station include manure 171 application to fields, livestock housing and exhaust emissions of local traffic. The retrieved NH₃ total columns 172 peak in spring due to manure application and show an increase in summer due to increased volatilization of NH₃

173 from livestock housing and fields when temperatures increase during summer.





174 The Toronto site (Wiacek et al., 2007) is located on the campus of the University of Toronto, Canada. The city 175 is next to Lake Ontario with few sources to the south. NH₃ sources are mainly due to agriculture as well as local 176 traffic in the city. Occasionally, NH₃ in smoke plumes from major boreal fires to the north and west of the city 177 can be observed (Lutsch et al., 2016). The retrieved columns (Fig. 2, green) show increased values during 178 summers as well as peaks in spring. 179 The Boulder observation site is located at the NCAR Foothills Lab in Boulder, Colorado, United States of 180 America, about 60km northwest of the large metropolitan Denver area. It is located at 1.6 km a.s.l. on the 181 generally dry Colorado Plateau. Directly to the west are the foothills of the Rocky Mountain range and to the 182 east are rural grasslands, farming and ranching facilities. Among them are large cattle feed lots to the northeast 183 near Greeley approximately 90km distant. The area is subject to occasional seasonal local forest fires and also 184 occasionally sees plumes from fires as distant as Washington or California. The retrieved columns (Fig. 2, grey) 185 show the largest increase during summers. 186 The Tsukuba site (Ohyama et al., 2009) is located at the National Institute for Environmental Studies (NIES), 187 in Japan. The region is a mixture of residential and rural zones with mountains to the north. NH₃ sources near 188 the measurement site include manure and fertilizer applications and exhaust emissions of local traffic in the 189 surrounding city with a large part originating from the from the Tokyo metropolitan area. The retrieved columns 190 (Fig 2, red) show a general increase during the summers due to increased volatilization rates. 191 The Pasadena site lies on the Northern edge of the Los Angeles conurbation in the United States of America, at 192 the foot of the San Gabriel mountains which rise steeply to the north to over 1.5 km altitude within 5 km 193 distance. Local sources of NH₃ include traffic, livestock, and occasional fires. FTIR observations typically take 194 place around local noon to avoid solar obstruction by nearby buildings and morning stratus cloud that is 195 common May-July. The highest retrieved columns (Fig.2, cyan) are observed during the summers. 196 The Mexico City site is located on the campus of the National Autonomous University of Mexico (UNAM) at 197 2280 m a.s.l., south of the metropolitan area. Surface NH₃ concentrations were measured by active open-path 198 FTIR during 2003 with typical values between 10 - 40 ppb (Moya et al. 2004). The megacity is host to more 199 than 22 million inhabitants, over 5 million motor vehicles and a wide variety of industrial activities. Low 200 ventilation during night and morning causes an effective accumulation of the NH₃ and other pollutants in 201 Mexico City, which is located in a flat basin surrounded by mountains. The concentration and vertical 202 distribution of pollutants are dominated by the large emissions and the dynamics of the boundary layer which is 203 on average 1.5 km height during the IASI morning overpass (Stremme et al., 2009, 2013). The retrieved 204 columns (Fig.2, orange) show an increase during the summers as well as a large daily variation. 205 The measurement site on the university campus of St.-Denis (Senten et al., 2008) is located on the remote 206 Reunion Island in the Indian Ocean. Observed NH₃ columns (Fig. 2, purple) are usually low due to the lack of 207 major sources nearby the site but increases are observed during the fire season (Sept.-Nov.) with possible fire 208 plumes originating from Madagascar, as already observed in another study involving short-lived species 209 (Vigouroux et al., 2009). Local NH₃ emissions include fertilizer applied for sugar cane production and local 210 biomass burning. 211 The Wollongong site is located on the campus of the University of Wollongong. The city of Wollongong is on 212 the south east coast of Australia with the University only about 2.5 km from the ocean. The measurement site is 213 also influenced by a 400m escarpment 1 km to the West, and the city of Sydney 60 km to the north. NH₃





- 214 sources come mainly from city traffic, as well as seasonal forest fires that can produce locally high amounts of
- 215 smoke and subsequent NH₃ emissions (Paton-Walsh et al., 2005). The retrieved columns (Fig.2, brown) peak
- 216 during the summer season due to the higher temperatures and seasonal forest fires.
- 217 The Lauder (Morgenstern et al., 2012) National Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research (NIWA) station
- 218 in Central Otago, New Zealand, is located in a hilly region with NH₃ emissions in the valley surrounding the
- 219 station mostly due to livestock grazing and fertilizer application. The observed columns (Fig. 2, black) show a
- 220 general increase during summers due to increased volatilization rates.
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- 222





223 2.3 FTIR and satellite comparison methodology

224 2.3.1 Co-location & data criteria

- 225
- NH₃ is highly variable in time and space which complicates the comparison between the IASI and FTIR
 observations. Therefore collocation criteria were developed to investigate and mitigate the effect of the spatial
- and temporal differences between the FTIR and IASI observations on their correlation. So far, there is no model
- to describe the representativeness of a site for the region so a simple criterion was initially derived by analyzing
- the terrain around each site and comparing the correlation of the IASI and FTIR observations for multiple time
- and spatial differences to find the best correlation. To illustrate the differences between the representativeness of
- the sites we take the stations at Bremen, Lauder and Wollongong as examples. Around Bremen the terrain is flat with high reported NH₃ emissions (Kuenen et al., 2014) in the region surrounding the city. In contrast, Lauder is
- 234 located in a hilly region with low NH₃ emissions mostly due to local livestock grazing and fertilizer application
- in the surrounding valleys (EDGAR, 2011). Owing to the flat terrain, the region around Bremen should, in
- 236 principle, have more homogeneous concentrations than Lauder. A more extreme case for geographical
- 237 inhomogeneity is Wollongong. Wollongong is located at the coast near a 400m escarpment without major
- 238 nearby NH₃ sources. Hence increasing distances between the satellite measurement pixel center and the station
- 239 may negatively impact the comparison due to the short lifetime of NH₃, and the limitation on transport of NH₃
- 240 to the site by the terrain (i.e. representativeness problems). Because no uniform criterion was found that would
- enable a good comparison for all stations, multiple criteria with a maximum difference of between 10 km and 50km will be used to analyze the optimal setting for each of the sites.
- 243

244 Topography

- Any hill or mountain range located between the satellite pixel and the FTIR station may inhibit transport and decrease their comparability. To account for the topography we only used observations which have at maximum an altitude difference of 300 m between the location of the FTIR and the IASI pixel position. The 300 m criterion was chosen based on tests using the FTIR and satellite observations from Lauder. For the calculation of the height differences we used the Space Shuttle Radar Topography Mission Global product at 3 arc second resolution (SRTMGL3, Farr et al., 2007).
- 251

252 Temporal variation

253 NH₃ concentrations can vary considerably during the day, with lifetimes as short as a few hours not being 254 uncommon (Dentener and Crutzen, 1994; Bleeker et al., 2009). The variability of the concentrations mainly arises from the variability in emission strengths as influenced by agricultural practices, meteorological, and 255 256 atmospheric conditions such as temperature, precipitation, wind speed and direction, the development of the 257 boundary layer (which is important as the IASI satellite observations take place around 9.30 local time and thus 258 the boundary layer has not always been fully established), pollution level, and deposition rates. To minimize the 259 effects of this variability on the comparability of the IASI and FTIR observations, satellite observations with a 260 time difference to FTIR observation of no more than 90 minutes were used. 261

262 Product error





- 263 The error of the IASI-NH₃ columns derives from errors on the HRI and the thermal contrast (Van Damme et al.,
- 264 2014a). Applying relative error filters of 50, 75 and 100% showed that mostly lower concentrations are removed
- 265 from the comparison. Consequently, introducing any criteria based on the associated (relative) error will bias
- any comparison with FTIR columns towards the higher IASI total columns. Therefore, we decided not to filter
- $267 \qquad \text{based on the relative error as it skews the range of NH_3 column totals.}$
- 268

269 Meteorological factors

- 270 The lowest detectable total column of the retrieval depends on the thermal contrast of the atmosphere (Van
- $\label{eq:271} \text{Damme et al., 2014a}. \text{ For example, the retrieval has a minimum detectable NH}_3 \text{ column of around } 5 \times 10^{15}$
- 272 molecules cm⁻² at a thermal contrast of about 12 Kelvin (K) for columns using the "transported" profile. A
- $273 \qquad \text{thermal contrast of 12 K is chosen as the threshold to ensure the quality of the IASI observations, which}$
- 274 represents a lapse rate of around 8K/km altitude, near standard atmospheric conditions. We excluded data for
- T_{skin} temperatures below 275.15 K to introduce a basic filter for snow cover and conditions with frozen soils.
- Finally, only IASI observations with a cloud cover below 10% are used.
- 277

278 The complete list of selection criteria is summarized in Table 2.

279

280 Quality of the FTIR observations

No filters were applied to maximize the number of observations usable in the comparison. The resolution and detection limit of the FTIR instruments is usually better than that of the IASI instrument, leading to retrieved columns with, in principle, less uncertainty. Overall the FTIR retrievals show an error of ~30% or less with the largest errors due to the spectroscopic parameters (Dammers et al., 2015). While artefacts are possible in the data we did not investigate for specific artefacts and possible impacts.

286

287 2.3.2 Application of averaging kernels

288 When performing a direct comparison between two remote sensing retrievals, one should take into account the 289 vertical sensitivity and the influence of a-priori profiles of both methods. One method to remove the influence of 290 the a-priori profile and the vertical sensitivity is the application of the averaging kernels of both retrievals to the 291 retrieved profiles of both products. The IASI-NH3 HRI-based product scheme however, does not produce 292 averaging kernels thus it is not possible to account for the vertical sensitivity of the satellite retrieval. The effect 293 of the lack of the satellite averaging kernel is hard to predict. Nonetheless following the method described in 294 Rodgers and Connor (2003), the FTIR averaging kernel A is applied to the IASI profile x_{sat} to account for the effects of the a-priori information and vertical sensitivity of the FTIR retrieval (the assumed profiles, called 295 "land" and "sea" are described in Van Damme et al., 2014a). The IASI profile is first mapped to the altitude grid 296 of the FTIR profile by using interpolation, forming x_{sat}^{mapped} . Applying Eqn. (1), the smoothed IASI profile 297 298 \hat{x}_{sat} is calculated indicating what the FTIR would retrieve when observing the satellite profile, which is then used to compute a total column. This profile can then be compared with the FTIR profile. 299

300
$$\hat{x}_{sat} = x_{ftir}^{apriori} + A(x_{sat}^{mapped} - x_{ftir}^{apriori})$$

9

(1)



(2)



- 301 After the application of the averaging kernel, for each FTIR observation, all satellite observations meeting the
- 302 coincident criteria are averaged into a single mean total column value to be compared with the FTIR value. If
- 303 multiple FTIR observations match a single satellite overpass, taking into account the maximum time difference,
- 304 the FTIR observations are also averaged into a single mean total column value.
- 305

308

306 3. Results

- 3.1 The influence of spatial differences between observations 307
- 309 Following the approach of Irie et al. (2012) we will first show the correlation r, the slope as well as the mean 310 relative difference (MRD) and the mean absolute difference (MAD) between satellite (y-axis) and FTIR NH₃ 311 total columns (x-axis) for each of the sites, as a function of the maximum allowable spatial difference between 312 the observations (xdiff). The relative difference (RD) is defined here as, 313

314
$$RD = \frac{(IASI \ column - FTIR \ column) \ x \ 100}{FTIR \ column}$$

315

316 A maximum relative difference of 200% was used to remove extreme outliers from the data, typically 317 observations under wintertime conditions. The left side of Figure 3 shows the correlation coefficients (blue 318 lines) and slope (red lines) for a selection of sites as a function of xdiff using a maximum allowed sampling time 319 difference of 90 minutes. The right side of Figure 3 shows the MRD and MAD between the satellite and FTIR 320 observations as a function of xdiff. The numbers on the bottom of each of the subfigures show the number of 321 observations used in the comparison. The values in bold beside the title of each subplot give the mean 322 concentrations of the IASI and FTIR observations. The bars indicate the standard deviation of the slope (left 323 side figures) and the relative and absolute differences (right side figures). 324 325 For most stations an increasing xdiff (Figure 3) means a decreasing correlation (blue lines) and a changing slope 326 (either decreasing or increasing with distance, red lines). This can be explained by the local character and high 327 variation of NH₃ emissions/concentration in combination with the locations of the stations. Moving further away 328 from a source will then generally decrease the relation between the concentration in the air and the emission 329 source. The same is true for satellite observations of the air concentrations, which have a large footprint 330 compared to the local character of a point measurement (FTIR) and the emissions. The steepness of this 331 decrease (or increase) tells us something about the local variation in NH₃ concentrations, which can be large for 332 sites near heterogeneous emission sources or in cases with low transport/turbulence and thus overall relatively 333 low mixing. 334 335 Overall the highest correlations are seen at the Bremen site, which can partially be explained by the overall high 336 number of observations with high concentrations (more than 15-20e15 molecules cm⁻²) which generally favours 337 the correlations. The mean column totals as well as the MRD and MAD do not change much except for the

- smallest xdiff criteria. The larger changes for observations within 15 km are probably due to the smaller number 338
- 339 of observations (which follows from the relatively few IASI observations directly above or near the stations).
- 340 The results show an underestimation of observed columns by IASI with the "all stations" slopes in between





341	\sim 0.6-0.8. The stations with a lower mean FTIR column totals, such as Toronto and Boulder (as well as
342	Pasadena, Mexico City, and Lauder shown in the Appendix Figure A1) show lower correlations with most
343	having slopes below one. The correlations decreasing with mean column totals point towards the product
344	detection limits of the IASI-NH ₃ product. The Toronto site has lower correlation coefficients for the smallest
345	xdiffs, but this seems to be due to the large drop in number of observations for a xdiff of <15 km. For higher
346	xdiff criteria the correlations of the Toronto site shows results similar to Bremen. The observations at Boulder
347	also show large differences when including more observations further away from the station. This can be
348	explained by the land use surrounding the Boulder site. Immediately west of the measurement site is a mountain
349	range which together with our elevation filter leads to rejection of the observations to the west. To the northeast
350	there are some major farming areas surrounding the river banks. Correlations do increase with a decreasing
351	xdiff, suggesting that IASI is able to resolve the large gradients in the NH ₃ concentrations near the site.
352	
353	From the correlation analysis as function of spatial coincidence, we conclude that a xdiff value of 25 km is
354	recommended to make a fair comparison between IASI-NH $_3$ and FTIR. Any criteria smaller than 15 km greatly
355	reduces the number of observations and statistics. xdiff beyond 25 km further decrease the correlations for the

- 356 combined set. From this point onward a xdiff value of 25km will be used.
- 357

358 3.2 Comparison of FTIR and IASI NH3 data

359 Observations from multiple years are used to show the coincident seasonal variability of the FTIR and IASI-360 NH₃ products for each of the sites (Figure 4, FTIR: blue, IASI: red). Observations are grouped together into a typical year as there are insufficient collocated observations to show an inter-annual time series. Note the 361 different scales on the y-axis. Similar seasonal cycles are clearly observed in both datasets for most stations. 362 Enhanced concentrations in spring are observed for Bremen and Toronto as well as Boulder due to manure 363 application. Most of the sites show an increase of NH₃ during the summer months which is likely due to the 364 increased volatilization of NH₃ as an effect of higher temperatures. Fire events that were earlier captured by 365 366 FTIR at St.-Denis in November, as well as in the IASI data, are not observed in the collocated sets, which is due 367 to a lack of coincident observations. Furthermore, there is a lack of observations in wintertime for most of the 368 stations either due to low thermal contrast or due to overcast conditions. Tsukuba has observations above the 369 detection limit but only one year of infrequent observations which is insufficient to show an entirely clear 370 seasonal cycle. A similar thing can be said for Pasadena where the number of coincident observations are too 371 few to make meaningful conclusions about the seasonal cycle. In conclusion, IASI reflects similar pollution 372 levels and seasonal cycles as deduced from the FTIR observations.

373

Figure 5 and 6 show a direct comparison of the FTIR and IASI NH₃ total columns for each station as well as a combination of all the observations. Correlations, number of observations and slope are shown in the figures. The MRD and these statistics are also summarized in Table 3. The comparison shows a variety of results. As before, of all 9 stations Bremen shows the best correlation with a coefficient of determination of r = 0.83 and a slope of 0.60. The intercept is not fixed at zero. The stations with overall lower observed totals columns (less than 10×10^{15} molecules cm⁻²) show lower correlations. Stations with intermediate concentrations like Toronto and Boulder show correlations $r = \sim 0.7$ -0.8. The figure also shows the relatively low number of high





381	observations for both the FTIR and IASI values as a result of the relatively few FTIR observations during
382	events. The few outliers can have a disproportional effect on the slope as most of the lower observations are less
383	accurate due to the detection limits of the instruments. Overall most stations, except StDenis and Boulder and
384	Mexico City, indicate an underestimation by IASI of the FTIR columns ranging from 10-50%. The mean
385	relative differences for most stations are negative with most showing values in between -22.5 \pm (54.0) % for
386	Bremen down to a -61.3 \pm (78.7) % for StDenis. The bias shows some dependence on the total columns with
387	the underestimation being higher at stations with high mean total columns and lower at stations with low mean
388	total columns. An exception to this are stations with the lowest mean total columns (i.e. StDenis and
389	Wollongong). The differences at StDenis might be explained by the fact that most IASI observations are
390	positioned above water due to restrictions for terrain height differences. A similar thing can be said for
391	Wollongong which is situated on the coast with hills directly to the inland. Most observations are on the border
392	of water and land which might introduce errors in the retrieval. The combination of all observations gives a
393	MRD of -32.4 ± (56.3) %.

394

395 4. Discussion and conclusions

396

397 Recent satellite products enable the global monitoring of atmospheric concentrations of NH₃. Unfortunately, the 398 validation of the satellite products of IASI (Van Damme et al., 2014a), TES (Shephard et al., 2011) and CrIS 399 (Shephard et al., 2015a) is very limited and, so far, only based on sparse in-situ and airborne studies. Dammers et 400 al. (2015) presented FTIR total column measurements of NH3 at several places around the world and demonstrated 401 that these data can provide information about the temporal variation of the column concentrations, which are more 402 suitable for validation than ground-level concentrations. Ground-based remote sensing instruments have a long 403 history for validation of satellite products. FTIR observations are already commonly used for the validation of 404 many satellite products, including carbon monoxide (CO), methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O) (Wood et al., 405 2002; Griesfeller et al., 2006; Dils et al., 2006; Kerzenmacher et al., 2012). Furthermore, MAX-DOAS systems 406 are used for the validation of retrievals for reactive gases (e.g. Irie et al., 2012), whereas AERONET is widely used to validate satellite-derived aerosol optical depth (e.g. Schaap et al., 2008). The successful comparison 407 408 between FTIR and IASI NH₃ column reported here can be seen as a first step in the validation of NH₃ satellite 409 products.

410

In this study, we collected FTIR measurements from nine locations around the world and followed the retrieval described by Dammers et al. (2015). The resulting datasets were used to quantify the bias and evaluate the seasonal variability in the IASI-NH₃ product. Furthermore, we assessed the colocation criteria for the satellite evaluation. Additional selection criteria based on thermal contrast, surface temperature, cloud cover and elevation differences between observations, were applied to ensure the quality of the IASI-NH₃ observations. The FTIR averaging kernels were applied to the satellite profiles to account for the vertical sensitivity of the FTIR and the influence of the a-priori profiles.

418

419 To optimally compare the satellite product to the FTIR observations it is best to reduce the spatial collocation

420 criterion to the size of the satellite instrument's footprint and allow for a time difference as short as possible.





421	These considerations are to reduce effects of transport, chemistry and boundary layer growth but limit the
422	number of coinciding observations significantly. We have shown that the spatial distance between the IASI
423	observations and the FTIR measurement site is of importance: the larger the distance in space, the lower the
424	correlation. When there is no exact match in the position of both observations the variations in the spatial
425	separation lead to correlation coefficients that can greatly change even when changing the spatial criteria (xdiff)
426	from 10 to 30 km. Reasons for the changes are the local nature of NH_3 emissions, the surrounding terrain
427	characteristics and their influence on local transport of NH ₃ . The small values for spatial and temporal
428	coincidence criteria show the importance of NH ₃ sources near the measurement sites when using these
429	observations for satellite validation. For the validation of the IASI observations, we used a xdiff of less than 25
430	km, which still showed high correlations while a large number of observations is retained for comparison.
431	
432	Overall we see a broad consistency between the IASI and FTIR observations. The seasonal variations of both
433	datasets look similar for most stations. Increased column values are observed for both IASI and FTIR during
434	summers as the result of higher temperatures, with some sites showing an increase in concentrations due to
435	manure application and fertilization events in spring (Bremen, Toronto). In general our comparison shows that
436	IASI underestimates the NH3 total columns, except for Wollongong. The Wollongong site has persistent low
437	background columns, i.e. observations with a low HRI, to which IASI is not very sensitive, which results in an
438	overestimation of the observed columns. Overall, correlations range from $r \sim 0.8$ for stations characterised by
439	higher NH ₃ column totals (with FTIR columns up to 80e15 molecules cm ⁻²) to low r ~ 0.4-0.5 correlations for
440	stations, which only have a few to no FTIR observations above $5x10^{15}$ molecules cm ⁻² . Hence, the detection
441	limit or sensitivity of the IASI instrument largely explain the lower correlation values. The combination of all
442	sites (N _{obs} = 547) give a MRD of -32.4 \pm (56.3) %, a correlation r of 0.8 with a slope of 0.73.
443	
444	In comparison to ground-based in situ systems, the FTIR observations have the big advantage to provide coarse
445	vertical profiles, from which a column can be derived, which are more similar to what the satellite measures and
446	therefore more useful for validation. Dedicated NH ₃ validation datasets are needed that better match the
447	overpass times of satellite instruments like IASI, TES and CrIS. This could be achieved by the addition of NH_3
448	to the NDACC measurement protocols and matching the overpass time of these satellites over these
449	measurement stations by using of the right spectral filters for detecting NH ₃ . Furthermore, the low number of
450	NDACC stations and their locations are not optimal for a dedicated validation of NH ₃ satellite products.
451	Although these provide a starting point, the small set of stations does not cover the entire range of climate
452	conditions, agricultural source types and emission regimes. Hence, our validation results should be seen as
453	indicative. Additional stations or dedicated field campaigns are needed to improve this situation. New stations
454	should be placed in regions where emissions and geography are homogenous to ensure that stations are
455	representative for the footprints of the satellites. For validation of satellite products using FTIR measurements a
456	monitoring and measurements strategy needs to be developed with a representative mixture of locations in
457	addition to ground level data. The later can cover the spatial variation and different temporal measurements can
458	be used. The use of IASI and FTIR observations to study NH_3 distributions at ground level requires a
459	combination of model calculations and observations (e.g. Erisman et al., 2005a; 2005b). Such techniques are
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462 The direct comparison of the IASI and FTIR columns is an addition to earlier efforts by Van Damme et al. 463 (2015a) to validate IASI column observations with surface in situ and airborne observations. Our results 464 presented here indicate that the product performs better than the previously upper bound estimate of a factor 2 465 (i.e. -50 to +100%) as reported in Van Damme et al. (2014a). Although we tried to diminish any effect of 466 sampling time and position it cannot be ruled out completely that these impacts the comparison statistics as the number of stations is small. Still the picture arising from the different stations is rather consistent, which hints at 467 468 other issues that may explain the observed bias. A number of important issues concerning the retrieval 469 techniques may explain the observed difference. First, the HRI based retrieval used for IASI is intrinsically 470 different to the optimal estimation based approach used for the FTIR retrieval. An IASI optimal estimation 471 retrieval for NH3 called FORLI does exist but is not fully operationally used as it is computationally much 472 slower than the HRI method. Surprisingly a first comparison between the FORLI and HRI based retrieval (see 473 figure 9, Van Damme et al., 2014a) shows ~30% lower retrieved columns by the HRI scheme, which is very 474 close to the systematic difference quantified here. Do note that the results are not be fully comparable as the 475 reported HRI-FORLI comparison was for a limited dataset and no quality selection criteria were applied. We 476 recommend to further explore the use of the optimal estimation based IASI-NH3 retrieval in comparison to the 477 FTIR observations. Second, the IASI and FTIR retrievals incorporate the same line spectroscopy database 478 (HITRAN 2012; Rothman et al., 2013) which removes a possible error due to different spectroscopy datasets. 479 The spectroscopy is the largest expected cause of error in the FTIR observations with measurement noise being 480 the close second for sites with low concentrations. An improvement to the line parameters (i.e. line intensity, 481 pressure and temperature effects) would greatly benefit both the FTIR and IASI retrievals. Thirdly, the HRI 482 based scheme uses the difference between spectra with and without the spectral signature of NH₃. A plausible 483 cause for error in this scheme is the influence and correlation of interfering species in the same spectral 484 channels. H₂O lines occur near most of the NH₃ spectral lines and interfere with the NH₃ lines at the resolution 485 of the IASI instrument. Humidity levels vary throughout the year with an increase amount of water vapour in 486 summer conditions. The HRI based scheme uses a fixed amount of water vapour and varying amounts of water 487 vapour may interfere with the HRI value attributed fully to the NH₃ columns. As there is a seasonality in the 488 water vapour content of the atmosphere (Wagner et al., 2006), any error attributed to water vapour should show 489 a seasonality in the difference between the IASI and FTIR observations. A seasonality was, however, not visible 490 although it may be that the number of coincident observations was too small to recognize it. This again shows 491 the need for dedicated NH₃ validation data (e.a. dedicated FTIR observations). Finally, another possible cause of 492 error is the lack of a varying NH₃ profile and the proxy used for thermal contrast to describe the state of the 493 atmosphere. The sensitivity of the scheme to the concentrations of NH₃ in the boundary layer is described by 494 using a fixed profile for land and sea observations in combination with a thermal contrast based on two layers 495 (surface and 1.5km) as it is expected that most of the NH₃ occurs in the boundary layer. In reality the NH₃ 496 profile is highly dynamic due to a varying boundary layer height and changing emissions as well as temperature 497 changes (e.g. inversions etc) occurring throughout the planetary boundary layer. Not accounting for this can 498 introduce an error and future HRI based schemes should focus on estimating the possible effects of using only a 499 specific profile. The use of multiple NH₃-profiles in combination with multiple temperature layers would be a 500 better approximation of state of the atmosphere, although computationally more expensive. The sharp difference





- 501 between the sea and land retrieval introduces strong variability in observations near the coast. Furthermore,
- 502 observations that are directly on the transition between water and land can introduce problems due to the
- 503 varying emissivity. Similar issues have been reported for aerosol retrievals (e.g. Schaap et al., 2008).
- 504
- 505 Although the FTIR observations offer some vertical information, studies combining this technique with tower or
- 506 airborne observations are needed to further improve knowledge and sensitivity of the FTIR and satellite
- 507 observations to the vertical distribution of NH₃. Without this knowledge, it is not possible to use the
- 508 observations for quantitative emission estimates and modelling purposes as no uncertainty on the new estimate
- 509 can be given. Approaches similar to the recent study by Shepherd et al. (2015b) using an airborne instrument,
- 510 possibly in combination with an FTIR system focused on the overpass of multiple satellite systems for an
- 511 extended period of time should be used to establish the sensitivities and biases of the different retrieval products
- 512 available from satellite instruments as well as the bias between the satellite and surface instruments. The use of
- 513 IASI and FTIR observations to study NH₃ distributions at ground level requires a combination of model
- calculations and observations. Such techniques are required to provide all the necessary details to describe the
 high spatial and temporal variations in NH₃.
- 516

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Tables

Table 1 FTIR stations used in the analysis. The location, longitude, latitude and altitude are given for each station as well as the instrument used for the measurements. Typical emission sources are mentioned in the station specifics tab. The topography described the typography of the region surrounding the site. N gives the number of observations made during the period of interest. Time period gives the period from which data is used. The last columns describes the used algorithm for the retrieval.

Station	Lon	Lat	Altitude	Instrument	Station specifics	Topography	Time period	Ν	Retrieval
Location			(m.a.s.l.)						type
Bremen, Germany	8.85E	53.10N	27	Bruker 125 HR	City, fertilizers, livestock	Flat	2008-2015	278	Normal
Toronto, Canada	79.60W	43.66N	174	ABB Bomem DA8	City, fertilizers, biomass burning	On the edge of lake Ontario	2008-2015	1167	Normal
Boulder, United States	105.26W	39.99N	1634	Bruker 120 HR	Fertilizers, biomass burning, livestock	Mountain range to the west	2010-2015	440	Normal
Tsukuba, Japan	140.13E	36.05N	31	Bruker 125 HR	Fertilizers, city	Mostly flat, hills to the north	2014-2015	66	Normal
Pasadena, United States	118.17W	34.20N	460	MKIV_JPL	City, fertilizers, biomass burning	Mountain range to the east	2010-2015	695	Normal
Mexico City, Mexico	99.18W	19.33N	2260	Bruker Vertex 80	City, fires, fertilizers	In between mountain ranges	2012-2015	3980	Normal
StDenis, Reunion	55.5E	20.90S	85	Bruker 120 M	Fertilizers, biomass burning, remote	Volcanic	2008-2012	948	Wide
Wollongong, Australia	150.88E	34.41S	30	Bruker 125 HR	Fertilizers, biomass burning, low emissions	Coastal, hills to the west	2008-2015	3641	Wide
Lauder, New Zealand	169.68E	45.04S	370	Bruker 120 HR	Fertilizers, livestock	Hills	2008-2015	1784	Normal

Table 2 Applied data filters to the IASI-NH₃ product.

Filter	Filter Criteria
Elevation	FTIRstation - IASI_Observation < 300 m
Thermal Contrast	Thermal contrast >12 K
Surface Temperature	T > 275.15 K
IASI-NH ₃ retrieval Error	None
Cloud cover fraction	<10%
Spatial sampling difference	50km \rightarrow 10km, $\Delta x=5$ km
Temporal sampling difference	<90 minutes





Table 3. Summarized results of the comparison between FTIR-NH₃ and IASI-NH₃ total columns within the coincidence criteria threshold (xdiff < 25 km, tdiff < 90minutes). N is the number of averaged total columns, **MRD** is the Mean Relative Difference (in %), **r** and **slope** are the correlation coefficient and slope of the linear regression.

Sites	N MRD in %		r	slope	
		(rms 1o)			
Bremen	53	-22.5±(54.0)	0.83	0.60	
Toronto	170	-46.0±(47.0)	0.79	0.84	
Boulder	38	-38.2±(43.5)	0.76	1.11	
Tsukuba	15	-28.3±(35.6)	0.67	0.57	
Pasadena	16	-47.9±(30.1)	0.59	0.83	
Mexico	65	-30.8±(43.9)	0.64	1.14	
StDenis	20	-61.3±(78.7)	0.65	1.26	
Wollongong	62	6.0±(74.3)	0.47	0.92	
Lauder	108	-29.7±(57.3)	0.55	0.77	
Combined	547	-32.4±(56.3)	0.80	0.73	







Figure 1. Mean IASI-NH₃ total column distribution for the period between January 2008 and January 2015. The total columns are a weighted average of the individual observations weighted with the relative error. Red circles indicate the positions of the FTIR stations.







Figure 2. FTIR retrieved NH₃ Total Columns (in *molecules cm*⁻²). Note, the labels on the vertical axis vary for each site.







Figure 3. Correlation r (Blue lines, left figures), slope (Red lines, left figures) regression results, Mean Relative Difference (MRD, green lines, right figures) and Mean Absolute Difference (MAD, black lines, right figures) between IASI and FTIR observations as a function of xdiff for a selection of sites. Bars indicate the standard deviation of the slope of the individual regression results. The numbers in the bottom of each subfigure show the number of matching observations. The numbers on the left and right side of the stations name give the mean FTIR and IASI total columns for a xdiff <25km.







Figure 4. Time series of NH_3 for IASI and FTIR datasets with xdiff < 25km and tdiff < 90minutes (FTIR: Blue and IASI: Red). Scattered values are the observations for each day of year (multiple years of observations). The lines show the monthly mean total columns of the respective sets.



Figure 5. Correlations between the FTIR and IASI total columns with filters thermal contrast > 12K, tdiff < 90min, xdiff < 25km. The trend line shows the results of the regression analysis.







Figure 6. Correlations between the FTIR and IASI total columns with filters thermal contrast > 12, tdiff < 90min, xdiff < 25km. The trend lines show the results of the regression analysis.





Appendix A



Figure A1. Correlation r (Blue lines, left figures), slope (Red lines, left figures) regression results, Mean Relative Difference (MRD, green lines, right figures) and Mean Absolute Difference (MAD, black lines, right figures) between IASI and FTIR observations as a function of xdiff for all sites. Bars indicate the standard deviation of the slope of the individual regression results. The numbers in the bottom of each subfigure show the number of matching observations. The numbers on the left and right side of the stations name give the mean FTIR and IASI total columns for a xdiff < 25km.

This section further covers the other stations, in addition to the sites covered by section 3.1. The results for Mexico City show an overall constant correlation coefficient except for small criteria <20km. The slope also decreases towards values seen at other stations. This effect could be due to a large number of sources inside the city, i.e. automobile and agricultural emissions in and near the city, increasing the heterogeneity of the found column totals. Reunion and Tsukuba have few coincident observations leading to only a few significant comparisons. This, combined with the low concentrations measured at Reunion leads to large differences in the mean and standard deviations of the subsequent xdiff sets. The Reunion and Wollongong observations are at the sensitivity limit of the IASI-NH₃ retrieval which limits the usefulness of the sites for the validation. As there are only a few observations for Tsukuba it is hard to make meaningful conclusions for the variability around the site.