



1 **Forecasting Carbon Monoxide on a Global Scale for the**
2 **ATom-1 Aircraft Mission: Insights from Airborne and**
3 **Satellite Observations and Modeling**

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17 **Abstract** GEOS-5 forecasts and analyses show considerable skill in predicting and simulating the CO
18 distribution and the timing of CO enhancements observed during the ATom-1 aircraft mission. Using
19 tagged tracers for CO, we find a dominant contribution from non-biomass burning sources along the ATom
20 transects except over the tropical Atlantic, where African biomass burning makes a large contribution to the
21 CO concentration. One of the goals of ATom is to provide a chemical climatology over the oceans, so it is
22 important to consider whether August 2016 was representative of typical summer conditions. Using
23 satellite observations of 700 hPa and column CO from the Measurement of Pollution in the Troposphere
24 (MOPITT) instrument, 215 hPa CO from the Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS), and aerosol optical
25 thickness from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS), we find that CO
26 concentrations and aerosol optical thickness in Aug. 2016 were within the observed range of the satellite
27 observations, but below the decadal median for many of the regions sampled. This suggests that the
28 ATom-1 measurements may represent relatively clean but not exceptional conditions for lower
29 tropospheric CO.



30 1 Introduction

31 The first phase of the NASA Atmospheric Tomography Mission (ATom-1) took place in July-August
32 2016. The aircraft completed a circuit beginning in Palmdale, California and traversing the remote Pacific
33 and Atlantic oceans, providing an unprecedented picture of the chemical environment at a wide range of
34 latitudes over the remote oceans. Chemical forecasts from the GEOS-5 model provided insight into the
35 chemical environments and sources of pollution for the diverse regions sampled during the ATom-1
36 campaign.

37 ATom provides an observation-based climatology of important atmospheric constituents and their
38 reactivity in the remote atmosphere. *Prather et al.* (2017) examined the ability of observations from a
39 single path to represent the variability of a broader geographic region, but noted that year-to-year and El
40 Nino/Southern Oscillation (ENSO) variability could also be important. Here we show how the time and
41 place of ATom-1 measurements fit into a global, multi-year climatology of CO.

42 Year to year variability in meteorology and emissions both contribute to interannual variability in
43 trace gases and aerosols. For example, ENSO is a major driver of variability in ozone distributions (*Ziemke
44 and Chandra, 2003*), and large biomass burning events during El Nino years increase concentrations of
45 trace gases including CO and CO₂ (*Langenfelds et al., 2002*). Biomass burning plays a particularly strong
46 role in driving the interannual variability of CO (e.g. *Novelli et al., 2003; Kasischke et al., 2005; Duncan
47 and Logan, 2008; Strode and Pawson, 2013; Voulgarakis et al., 2015*). The impacts of large biomass
48 burning events during El Nino events are visible in satellite observations of CO (e.g. *Edwards et al., 2004;
49 Edwards et al., 2006; Logan et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2013*).

50 *Pfister et al.* (2010) used a chemistry transport model (CTM) as well as satellite data to examine
51 the CO sources and transport over the Pacific during the INTEX-B mission compared to previous years.
52 They found biomass burning to be the largest contributor to interannual variability, despite its lower
53 emissions compared to fossil fuel sources.

54 In this study, we place the August 2016 ATom observations in the context of interannual variability
55 and assess the contributions of different emission sources to the various regions sampled during the
56 campaign. We focus on CO, a tracer of incomplete combustion whose lifetime of 1-2 months allows long-
57 range transport to the remote oceans. Section 2 describes the model and observations used in this analysis.
58 Section 3 compares the GEOS-5 CO to observations. Section 4 discusses the global distribution of CO, and
59 presents the relative CO source contributions to the regions sampled by ATom. Section 5 presents an
60 analysis of the interannual variability in CO and aerosol optical thickness seen in satellite observations to
61 assess how well August 2016 observations represent climatological August conditions. Section 6
62 summarizes our conclusions.



63 2 Observations and Model

64 2.1 ATom Observations

65 ATom-1 flew transects through the Pacific, Southern, Atlantic and Arctic oceans with the NASA
66 DC8 aircraft in August 2016. Each of the 11 flights included sampling from the boundary layer to the top
67 of the aircraft range (39 kft). We use the ATom-1 data (July-August 2016) [*Atom Science Team*, 2017] for
68 comparison with the model forecasts and analyses.

69 We take ATom-1 CO observations from the Harvard QCLS instrument (*Santoni et al.*, 2014), which
70 has a history of successful measurements during the HIAPER Pole-to-Pole Observations (HIPPO)
71 campaign. Briefly, the instrument uses a pulsed quantum cascade laser at 2160 cm^{-1} to measure absorption
72 of CO through an astigmatic multi-pass sample cell (with 76 m path length), with detection using liquid
73 nitrogen cooled HgCdTe detector. A separate laser and detector are used to measure methane and nitrous
74 oxide in the same cell. Inflight calibrations were conducted with gases traceable to the NOAA WMO
75 (X2014) scale, with calibration of tanks before ATom1 and after ATom2 (February 2017) showing no
76 significant change in the CO concentration in the gas standards. The inlet for the instrument was specially
77 designed for the DC-8 aircraft.
78

79 2.2 Satellite Observations

80 We use satellite observations that cover more than a decade to examine the interannual variability
81 of CO and aerosols. The Measurement of Pollution in the Troposphere (MOPITT) instrument, which flies
82 on the Terra satellite, provides CO observations beginning in 2000 (*Edwards et al.*, 2004). We use the
83 version 6 thermal infrared (TIR) level 3 product (*Deeter et al.*, 2014). The MOPITT TIR averaging kernels
84 show high sensitivity to CO between 700 and 500 hPa (*Emmons et al.*, 2007).

85 The Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS) (*Waters et al.*, 2006), which flies on the Aura satellite,
86 provides useful observations of CO down to 215 hPa (*Livesey et al.*, 2008) beginning in 2004. We use the
87 Version 4.2 level 2 data with the recommended quality, status, precision, and convergence criteria.
88 Although MLS data overlap with ATom only at the highest flight levels, both it and MOPITT provide
89 complementary views of CO in the lower troposphere and upper troposphere/lower stratosphere (UTLS),
90 respectively.

91 The Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) instrument on the Aqua satellite
92 provides column aerosol optical thickness (AOT) data beginning in 2002. We use the Collection-6 level 2
93 (MYD04_L2) [*Levy et al.*, 2015] 550 nm AOT data over oceans aggregated into 0.5 degree grid boxes, and
94 then take monthly means with the daily data weighted according to the QA.

95 2.3 Model Description

96 We use chemical forecasts and analyses from the GEOS-5 Forward Processing (FP) system. The FP
97 stream from the Global Modeling and Assimilation Office (GMAO) generates GEOS-5 forecast products as



98 well as assimilation products using the most current system approved for near-real-time production. The
99 GEOS-5 model (*Molod et al.*, 2015) is a global general circulation model (GCM) with 72 vertical levels
100 reaching from the surface to 1 Pa. The assimilation system is described in (*Rienecker et al.*, 2008;
101 *Rienecker et al.*, 2011), and includes assimilation of ozone measurements from the Ozone Monitoring
102 Instrument (OMI) and MLS, and aerosol optical depth as well as meteorological variables. The forward
103 processing system produces output on 72 model levels or 42 pressure levels with 5/16 by 1/4 degree
104 horizontal resolution. Our study uses the pressure level output.

105 The GEOS-5 FP system (*Lucchesi*, 2017) simulates the transport of CO as well as tagged CO tracers
106 from specific regions and sources, which helps track the transport of pollution outflow. Tagged tracers are
107 available for biomass burning (BB) globally as well as biomass burning from Eurasia, North America,
108 Africa, and Central and South America; and for non-BB sources globally and from Europe, Asia, and North
109 America. Non-BB sources include fossil fuels, biofuels, CO from oxidation of biogenic VOCs, and CO
110 from methane oxidation, as described in *Ott et al.* (2010). *Bian et al.* (2013) used observations of
111 dichloromethane and acetonitrile from the ARCTAS mission to validate the anthropogenic and biomass
112 burning CO tracers, respectively.

113 Daily-varying biomass burning emissions come from the Quick Fire Emission Dataset (QFED)
114 version 2 [*Darmenov and da Silva*, 2015], which is based on fire radiative power from the MODIS
115 instrument. Thus the BB emissions include day-to-day and interannual variability, but the non-BB sources
116 and the OH fields use monthly means and lack daily-scale variability and interannual variability. Table 1
117 presents the August emission inputs for the major regions considered. CO emissions are then scaled up by
118 20% for fossil fuels and 11% for biomass burning to account for CO production from co-emitted VOCs.
119 CO from methane oxidation is included in the non-BB tagged tracers for the regions in which oxidation
120 occurred. The monthly mean methane fields come from a GMI Chemistry and Transport Model (CTM)
121 simulation, which uses prescribed zonal mean surface concentrations. CO is lost by reaction with OH
122 using fixed monthly OH fields archived from the GMI CTM. Supplemental Figure S1 shows the methane
123 and OH fields included in the FP system.

124 3 GEOS-5 Chemical Forecasting for ATom

125 During the ATom mission, the GEOS-5 model is engaged to provide chemical forecasts for each
126 flight that include the major chemical species and, for CO, tagged tracers for different sources. The
127 chemical forecasts are used together with meteorological forecasts for day-to-day flight planning, although
128 flight tracks were intentionally not altered to chase specific chemical features to avoid a highly biased
129 sampling of pollution.

130 We examine the performance of the GEOS-5 forecasts by comparing the simulated CO to the QCLS
131 observations. The forecasts provided during the mission used forecast wind fields, with the forecast lead
132 time varying depending on the timing of the flight. For consistency, the results shown here use the CO
133 simulated with the assimilated wind fields, but we note that similar features were seen for the CO simulated



134 with the forecast winds, as further discussed in section 3.1.2. For the model results, we do not apply
135 temporal interpolation between the model output frequency (6 hours). Instead, we sample the model
136 forecasts at the time closest to the mid-point of each flight segment. To compare with observations, the 3D
137 model forecast was interpolated to the longitude, latitude and pressure given in the 10-second merges of the
138 ATom measurements.

139 3.1 Analysis of CO along the Meridional Flight Tracks

140 We compare CO from GEOS-5 to the QCLS CO observations for specific flights, using the 10-
141 second merge files. The GEOS-5 CO is taken from the 3D field at the time closest to the mid-point of the
142 flight and interpolated in space to the flight track. We focus on two sections of the ATom-1 circuit: the
143 North to South flights through the Pacific, and the South to North flights through the Atlantic, although we
144 briefly discuss the other flights as well. These two transects allow us to examine the transition from
145 northern hemispheric to tropical to southern hemispheric influence.

146 3.1.1 Pacific legs

147 Figure 1 shows CO from the three Pacific flights spanning Anchorage, Alaska to Christchurch,
148 New Zealand. The top panels show the GEOS-5 curtain of CO along the flight track, with the QCLS
149 observations overplotted in circles. The observations show higher values of CO in the first half of the
150 Anchorage-Kona flight compared to the other portions of the Pacific, and this feature is reproduced in
151 GEOS-5 as well. GEOS-5 agrees well with the observed mean value for CO on this flight (Table 2).
152 Tagged tracers (Fig. 1 bottom panels) show that non-BB sources, especially from Asia, are the dominant
153 contributor to CO levels throughout the Pacific, and the decrease in Asian non-BB CO explains the
154 observed decrease in CO as the flights move south.

155 The observations show plumes of enhanced CO scattered throughout all three Pacific flights,
156 although they are most intense in the north Pacific, as seen in the Anchorage-Kona flight. GEOS-5
157 typically reproduces the timing of these plumes, but the magnitude is usually underestimated, particularly
158 for the strongest plumes. This leads to an underestimate of the observed standard deviation of the CO on
159 the Palmdale-Anchorage (Fig. S2) and Anchorage-Kona flights (Table 2). In addition to biases in
160 emissions, observations often show fine-scale structures too small for the model to resolve (Hsu et al.,
161 2004), and underestimating the concentrations in strong plumes is a common problem for global models
162 (e.g. Heald et al., 2003). An exception is in the tropical Pacific (Kona-Pago Pago flight), in which GEOS-5
163 predicted some enhancements, driven by fossil fuels, not seen in the observations. Tagged tracers indicate
164 that Asian non-BB CO drove many of the observed enhancements, while others were due to biomass
165 burning.

166 In the south Pacific (Pago Pago to Christchurch segment), the flight sampled the stratosphere three
167 times, with CO levels decreasing to approximately 30 ppb, as shown in Fig. 1c. As expected from the basic
168 chemistry and seen in previous observations, both ATom-1 and GEOS-5 show a strong decrease in CO as
169 the flight rises above the tropopause, with GEOS-5 underestimating the observed decrease. Both the model



170 and measurements show tropospheric CO less than 90 ppbv along the flight route with slightly elevated CO
171 above 600 hPa around T22:00 and T24:00. For this flight and the subsequent flight to Punta Arenas, all
172 observations are in the Southern Hemisphere and the mean values for both ATom-1 and GEOS-5 agree
173 within the range 54-57 ppb (Table 2, Fig S3).

174 3.1.2 Atlantic Legs

175 The ATom flights traversed the Atlantic from South to North, beginning in Punta Arenas, Chile
176 and ending in Kangerlussuaq, Greenland. Figure 2 shows the Atlantic flights from Punta Arenas to
177 Ascension Island to the Azores to Kangerlussuaq. GEOS-5 has an excellent simulation of background CO
178 values seen on these flights, with the mean values falling within 2 ppb of the observations (Table 2) while
179 the mean observed values for each flight shift from 69 to 101 to 88 ppb. The observations show plumes of
180 high CO intersecting the flight track on all three flights. GEOS-5 also shows plumes of enhanced CO at
181 these locations, but the magnitude is often underestimated (Fig. 2d-f), especially for the Azores-
182 Kangerlussuaq flight. Supplemental Figure S4 shows the CO results for the Azores-Kangerlussuaq flight
183 using forecast wind fields, and illustrates the temporal evolution of CO plumes along the flight track.
184 Comparison of Fig. S4 with Fig. 2f shows the small impact of using analysis versus forecast wind fields.

185 Non-BB sources dominate the background CO levels on all three flights. However, biomass
186 burning plays a dominant role in the plumes of high CO (Fig. 2g-i). South American biomass burning
187 leads to CO enhancements between T14 and T16 of the Punta Arenas to Ascension flight. In the later
188 portion of that flight, biomass burning from Africa leads to strong CO plumes. Strong plumes of African
189 biomass burning are also seen at the beginning of the Ascension to Azores flight. GEOS-5 shows a strong
190 plume around 800 hPa for the first hour of the flight, which agrees well with observations (Fig. 2b,d). The
191 observations show additional strong plumes in the next hour between 600 and 700 hPa. These plumes are
192 present but underestimated in GEOS-5, possibly due to errors in the magnitude of the emissions or the
193 placement of the plumes.

194 The non-BB contribution to CO in the Atlantic reflects a mixture of global sources. Asian sources
195 make a notable contribution to the non-BB CO variability in the tropics (first half of the Ascension to
196 Azores flight), but as expected N. American sources become more dominant in the second half. In the
197 northern (later) portion of the Azores to Kangerlussuaq flight (Fig. 2), GEOS-5 attributes the observed
198 plumes to Eurasian biomass burning, but underestimates their magnitude. This flight also crosses the
199 tropopause, and both ATom-1 and GEOS-5 show a corresponding dip in CO concentrations. GEOS-5
200 predicts a plume of enhanced CO due to N. American emissions around 11Z of the Azores to
201 Kangerlussuaq flight that is not seen in the observations (Fig. 2f,i). A similar error is made in the
202 Kangerlussuaq to Minneapolis flight (Fig. S3). This could be due to either an error in the assumed N.
203 American sources, or to misplacement of the plume by the model. A large overestimate of CO at the end of
204 the Minneapolis to Palmdale flight also points to a potential error in North American emissions from either
205 fossil fuels or biomass burning.



206 3.2 Model Evaluation Summary

207 We summarize the comparison between the CO simulated by the GEOS-5 analyses and the QCLS
208 observations in Figure 3. The majority of points lie near the one-to-one line, indicating good overall
209 agreement between the GEOS-5 and observed CO distributions. The higher concentrations in the tropical
210 Atlantic compared to the tropical Pacific are evident in both the observations and model. Fig. 3 also
211 reveals occasional model overestimates of CO on flights over North America (green triangles), as well as
212 underestimates of high CO plumes over the North Pacific and Tropical Atlantic. An underestimate of
213 Eurasian biomass burning contributes to the model underestimates in the North Pacific and North Atlantic,
214 and has implications for ozone production in aged BB plumes [Liu *et al.*, in prep]. Globally, the correlation
215 of simulated and observed CO with 5-minute binning is $r=0.69$. Correlations for the Pacific, Atlantic, and
216 North America are 0.72, 0.80, and 0.80, respectively, while the correlation for the southern ocean is 0.053.
217 The poor correlation for the southern ocean reflects the very low variability of CO in this region. The
218 model performs far better at capturing the larger gradients present in the other regions. In general, the good
219 agreement between model outputs and observations testify the model forecasting skill and suggest the
220 suitability of using GEOS-5 forecast products to guide the design and execution of aircraft campaigns.

221 4 Source Contributions to the Global CO Distribution

222 4.1 Global CO Distribution

223 Figure 4 compares CO from GEOS-5 to the QCLS CO observations for the ATom-1 circuit including
224 the 11 total flight segments. The GEOS-5 CO is taken from the analysis closest to the mid-point of the
225 flight time and interpolated to the flight track following the longitude, latitude and pressure given in the
226 observations. We average both model CO and ATom measurements into one point per 360-seconds for
227 easier visualization.

228 Both model simulations and measurements show polluted air with higher CO mixing ratios in the
229 northern hemisphere than that in the southern hemisphere in August 2016. Over the northern hemispheric
230 polar region, the observations indicate highly polluted air with CO maxima occurring over Alaska and
231 northwest Canada, features also seen in the GEOS-5 simulation. Over the Atlantic section, CO maxima
232 with slightly lower values occur around the same latitude over west Greenland as shown both in
233 observations and model simulation. CO over the northern most locations along the ATom-1 circuit see
234 some low values both in model and observations, particularly north of 30°N and south of 40°S, due to the
235 measurements occurring in the stratosphere or occurring in the upper troposphere with stratospheric
236 influence. Both model and observations indicate that the air is relatively clean over the Pacific south of 30N
237 with CO less than 70 ppb and the CO minimum around 60S over the southeast Pacific. Over the Atlantic
238 section, both model and observations show low CO concentration south of 30S, but show a strong CO
239 maximum over the tropical Atlantic (5S-5N) with CO greater than 120 ppb. This high CO is mainly driven
240 by southern hemisphere BB. CO is slightly lower between 30N and 60N compared to that over tropical



241 Atlantic and the Greenland. The similarity between GEOS-5 and ATom-1 variability in neighboring points
242 is due in part to the vertical profiling which places horizontally extensive biomass burning layers in both
243 model and presumably the atmosphere at the same point along the track.

244 **4.2 CO Source Contributions**

245 We calculate the contribution of different CO sources to the total simulated CO using the GEOS-5
246 tagged CO tracers sampled along the ATom flight tracks. This analysis provides a picture of the dominant
247 sources affecting the constituent concentrations observed during ATom-1 for different regions of the
248 atmosphere. The tagging of CO sources includes both biomass burning (BB) and non-biomass burning
249 (non-BB) from four continental areas, with all other sources put into the “other” bin. Other BB sources are
250 small, but other non-BB sources are quite large as they include all natural sources as well as atmospheric
251 photochemical sources such as methane oxidation.

252 Figure 5 shows the contribution of each tagged tracer over the Pacific Ocean from 120°E to 110°W,
253 averaged over 5 degree latitude bins. Non-biomass burning sources dominate at all latitudes, due in part to
254 the inclusion of CO from methane oxidation in addition to fossil fuel sources in these tracers. The
255 oxidation of methane over the remote oceans contributes to the large magnitude of “other non-BB” sources
256 over the southern latitudes of the Pacific. Asian non-BB sources make the largest contribution to middle
257 and upper tropospheric CO (Fig. 5a) at the mid-latitudes of the North Pacific, with smaller contributions
258 from N. American and European non-BB sources. The largest biomass burning contribution comes from
259 Africa in the Southern Hemisphere and Tropics, switching to Eurasia in the northern latitudes.

260 Figure 5b shows the relative contributions in the lower troposphere, including the marine boundary
261 layer and defined here as pressures greater than 850 hPa. Missing bars indicate latitudes where no ATom-1
262 measurements were made in the lower troposphere. Asian non-BB CO makes a smaller contribution in the
263 lower troposphere than in the middle and upper troposphere. A strong CO maximum around 30°N is more
264 pronounced in the lower troposphere than above. This bin is not representative of the remote Pacific as it
265 includes Palmdale, California, with large contributions from local North American BB and non-BB
266 sources.

267 The Atlantic flights (0°-60°W) show a large contribution from other non-BB sources in the
268 Southern Hemisphere with increasing contributions from Asian, N. American, and European non-BB CO
269 as the flight moves northward (Fig. 6), similar to the picture over the Pacific. However, the Atlantic
270 receives a larger contribution from biomass burning, particularly from Africa, over the Tropics. The
271 contribution from African BB is strong throughout the troposphere, but is particularly pronounced in the
272 lower troposphere, where it exceeds 100 ppb in the bins centered at 10°S and 5°N.

273 We also examine the tagged tracer contributions for each flight, including all altitudes sampled by
274 the flight (Fig. 7, Supp. Table S1). Flights occurring in the tropics and southern hemisphere (Flt. 1, 4-8)
275 receive 44-75% of the total CO from other non-BB sources. Other non-biomass burning sources include all
276 non-biomass burning sources located outside North America, Europe, and Asia. The contribution from



277 methane oxidation in addition to southern hemisphere emissions explains this large contribution. Flight 8
278 has a somewhat lower percent contribution from other non-BB sources than the other southern hemisphere
279 and tropical flights due to the higher percent contribution from African biomass burning. In contrast, the
280 Northern Hemisphere flights have a larger contribution from northern hemisphere source regions. Asian
281 non-BB explains over a third of the total CO for the northern Pacific flights (Flt. 2-3), while Asian and N.
282 American non-BB sources make comparable contributions to the North Atlantic and N. American flights
283 (Flt. 9-11).

284 Since Figs. 5 and 6 reveal differences in source contributions between the lower troposphere and the
285 middle and upper troposphere, we also examine the source contributions to each flight for the lower
286 troposphere (Pressure > 850 hPa) only (Supp. Fig. S5). Asian sources make a larger percent contribution to
287 the Pacific flights (Flt. 0-4) when all flight altitudes are considered rather than the lower troposphere alone.
288 Regional sources such as African biomass burning for flights 6 and 7 and N. American sources for Flights 9
289 and 10 make a larger percent contribution in the lower troposphere.

290 **5 August 2016 in the Context of Interannual Variability (IAV)**

291 One of the major goals for the ATom campaign is to produce a climatology based on un-biased,
292 representative samples (Prather *et al.*, 2017). It is therefore important to consider whether August 2016 is
293 a “typical” summer month. We focus here on the temporal representativeness of the ATom-1 campaign.
294 Spatial representativeness is investigated in Liu *et al.* [in prep]. August of 2016 was ENSO neutral, with a
295 multivariate ENSO index (MEI) (Wolter and Timlin, 1993); (<https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/enso/mei>) of
296 0.175 for July/August. However, it was preceded by strong El Nino conditions in 2015 and early 2016
297 (Blunden and Arndt, 2016). We therefore consider whether the CO concentrations in August 2016 are
298 typical or anomalous.

299 Multi-year satellite records provide a valuable tool for determining how CO concentrations in the
300 regions of the ATom-1 flights compare to previous years. We focus our analysis of CO interannual
301 variability on several regions traversed by the ATom flights. Figure 8 shows these regions in black squares
302 overplotted on the MOPITT CO column for August 2016. We also examine the IAV in BB sources from
303 nearby regions, outlined in red on Fig. 8. Figure 9 shows box-and-whisker plots of the mean, minimum,
304 25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles, and maximum in monthly mean August CO for each region over the 2000-
305 2016 period for MOPITT (CO column and CO at 700 hPa) and 2004-2016 for MLS (CO at 215 hPa). The
306 corresponding time series are shown in Fig. 10. The variability in CO BB emissions from GFEDv4 for
307 2000-2016 is also shown for BB regions that may affect the ATom flights. The BB emissions are averaged
308 over June through August to account for the persistence of CO in the atmosphere.

309 Among the regions mapped here, the tropical Atlantic shows the highest average CO values, as
310 well as the highest 2016 CO values, in both MOPITT and MLS observations (Fig. 9). This is consistent
311 with large biomass burning emissions from southern hemisphere (SH) Africa transported into the tropical
312 Atlantic. While SH Africa has the largest magnitude of biomass burning, its relative variability is smaller



313 than for the other regions (Fig. 9b). Similarly, the IAV in the MOPITT CO column and 700 hPa level over
314 tropical Atlantic is smaller than that of the North Atlantic and Alaska regions. Although the variability of
315 CO over tropical Atlantic is relatively small, the MOPITT CO column shows a statistically significant anti-
316 correlation between the MOPITT CO column over the tropical Atlantic and the MEI ($r=-0.52$). This
317 relationship is not significant for the MOPITT 700 hPa level.

318 The time series of August MOPITT CO columns for both the North Atlantic and Alaska, regions
319 that show high variability, show a small but significant temporal correlation with summertime Siberian
320 biomass burning ($r=0.52$ for the North Atlantic and $r=0.59$ for Alaska). Slightly lower values are seen for
321 the 700 hPa MOPITT level. The time series of August MOPITT 700 hPa CO shows an increase in 2003
322 for the North Atlantic and in 2002 and 2003 for Alaska (Fig. 10b,c). Previous studies attribute peaks in
323 these years to the presence of large forest fires in western Russia and Siberia, respectively (Edwards et al.,
324 2004; Yashiro et al., 2009; van der Werf et al., 2006). MOPITT CO values were below average in 2016 for
325 both the North Atlantic and Alaska even though Siberian biomass burning was above average in 2016 (Fig.
326 9a, b).

327 Since ENSO is known to drive large biomass burning variability in Indonesia (*van der Werf et al.*,
328 2006), we consider whether it may influence CO concentrations over the New Zealand region. Although
329 the MOPITT CO column over the Indonesia region does correlate with the MEI ($r=0.64$), there is no
330 significant correlation between June-Aug biomass burning in Indonesia and MOPITT CO over New
331 Zealand. However, August is not the peak season for Indonesian biomass burning (*Duncan et al.*, 2003b).
332 The large Indonesian fires that occurred during the strong 1997/1998 El Nino peaked during September to
333 November (*Duncan et al.*, 2003a) and active fire detections for the 2015 Indonesian fires peaked in
334 September and October (*Field et al.*, 2016). Thus we might expect Indonesian biomass burning variability
335 to have a greater influence on CO variability during the autumn season, which was sampled in ATom-3.

336 How does 2016 compare to previous years? The MOPITT CO column shows tropical Atlantic CO
337 was near the 75th percentile, while the 700 hPa MOPITT level shows it close to the median. This difference
338 arises because the MOPITT column also includes information from the upper troposphere, and the
339 MOPITT 200 hPa level (not shown) suggests CO levels for 2016 were near the 75th percentile. In contrast,
340 MLS shows that 2016 CO in the upper troposphere was much lower than average, near the 25th percentile.
341 The MOPITT v6 TIR product has a small positive bias drift in the upper troposphere of 0.78 % yr⁻¹ for the
342 200 hPa level (*Deeter et al.*, 2014), which may contribute to the higher rank of 2016 in the MOPITT upper
343 tropospheric data compared to MLS. It is therefore hard to argue that 2016 was outside of the normal IAV
344 for this region.

345 2016 CO in the North Atlantic and Alaska regions was below average in both the MOPITT
346 column and the 700 hPa level, and is in fact the lowest August value in the MOPITT record for the 700 hPa
347 level over Alaska. MLS also shows moderately low CO in the upper troposphere over Alaska in Aug.
348 2016. Combined, this data suggests that the ATom-1 CO is not typical for the region. August 2016 CO
349 column values are also below the median over New Zealand and the eastern and central tropical Pacific, but



350 the relatively low variability of these regions makes this less of a concern for the representativeness of the
351 ATom measurements. The IAV of these regions is larger for the MOPITT 700 hPa level, and 2016 lies
352 slightly below the 25th percentile for this level.

353 The regionally-averaged 500 nm AOT from MODIS (Fig. 11) shows similar features to the
354 MOPITT column. The highest values are found for the tropical Atlantic, followed by the Alaska and North
355 Atlantic regions. However, the difference between the tropical Atlantic and the other regions is larger in
356 the aerosol case, while the difference between the North Atlantic and the Pacific regions is smaller. There
357 is also greater relative year-to-year variability over the tropical Atlantic for the aerosols than for CO. The
358 shorter lifetime of aerosols compared to CO, as well as the large contribution from biomass burning, likely
359 explains the greater prominence of the tropical Atlantic in the aerosol case. Furthermore, AOD (Fig. 12)
360 shows a clear peak in 2009 in several of the regions, whereas MOPITT data is missing for Aug. 2009, but
361 MLS shows a minimum (Tropical Atlantic) or no anomaly (other regions).

362 In summary, the multi-year satellite record shows considerable variability in CO, particularly over the
363 North Atlantic and Alaska. Concentrations during August 2016 were on the low end of the distribution for
364 most regions, especially in the lower troposphere. *Worden et al.* (2013) showed negative trends in the
365 MOPITT CO column significant at the one-sigma level for both the Northern and Southern hemispheres for
366 2000-2012. In addition, *Deeter et al.* (2014) report a small negative bias drift in the MOPITT V6 TIR
367 product in the lower troposphere, although drift in the column is almost negligible. Decreasing MOPITT
368 CO over time is also visible in some regions in Fig. 10. This negative trend may be contributing to the low
369 values in 2016. Overall, the year 2016 shows anomalies for some regions, but does not appear to be an
370 extreme year.

371 6 Conclusions

372 We place the observations from the ATom-1 campaign in the context of interannual variability and
373 global source distributions using satellite observations and tagged tracers from GEOS-5, respectively.
374 GEOS-5 gives a reasonable reproduction of the background CO levels for most flights despite the use of
375 climatological fossil fuel and biofuel emissions, and captures the global distribution of CO observed during
376 ATom-1. Simulations with both forecast and analysis winds capture the timing of many of the enhanced
377 CO plumes encountered during the flights, although the magnitude of the enhancements was often
378 underestimated, which is not unexpected given the difference in resolution between the observations and
379 model. The strong performance of GEOS-5 with regards to the overall CO distribution and the timing of
380 the enhancements gives us confidence in using tagged tracers to identify the sources affecting the air
381 sampled in ATom-1.

382 We find that for most flights the dominant contribution to total CO is from non-biomass burning
383 sources, which include both fossil fuels and biofuels and oxidation of hydrocarbons including methane. An
384 exception to this is in the lower troposphere of the tropical Atlantic, where biomass burning from Africa
385 makes the largest contribution, exceeding 100 ppb in some locations. The non-BB source includes a large



386 fraction from Asia for flights over the North Pacific and from both Asia and North America for the North
387 Atlantic and North American flights, while other regions dominate in the Southern Hemisphere. Plumes of
388 elevated CO from both biomass burning and non-BB sources led to observations of enhanced CO during
389 ATom-1.

390 We use satellite observations of CO from MOPITT and MLS and AOT from MODIS to assess
391 whether August 2016, the period sampled by ATom-1, is typical or atypical in the context of IAV in the
392 satellite record (2000-2016). MOPITT and MLS show that CO in the lower and upper troposphere,
393 respectively, were below average in August 2016 compared to the satellite record for August for most of
394 the regions sampled by ATom-1, but not usually the minimum year. CO concentrations in the North
395 Atlantic and Alaskan regions show a positive correlation with Siberian biomass burning and large
396 interannual variability. In contrast, both MODIS AOT and the MOPITT CO column show above average
397 values for the Tropical Atlantic in 2016. This suggests that the high values of CO and aerosols from
398 biomass burning encountered during the tropical Atlantic portions of ATom may have been especially
399 pronounced during this particular year.

400 The seasonality of biomass burning, the OH distribution, and atmospheric transport pathways can
401 alter the source contributions from season to season. Thus, the next three ATom campaigns, which occur
402 in different seasons, will likely show variations in the relative source contributions to each region.

403

404 **Data Availability**

405 Data from ATom-1 is available on the ESPO archive
406 (<https://espo.nasa.gov/home/atom/archive/browse/atom>). MOPITT data is available at
407 <https://eosweb.larc.nasa.gov/datapool>. MLS data is available from <https://mls.jpl.nasa.gov/>. MODIS
408 aerosol data are available from
409 <https://ladsweb.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/api/v1/productGroupPage/name=aerosol>.

410

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413 NASA Earth Venture Suborbital Program, ESPO, and the pilots, crew and support staff of the DC-8.

414

415

416 **References**

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543



544 **Table 1 : Regional August 2016 CO Emission Totals in the GEOS-5 FP Simulations**

	Fossil Fuel¹	Biogenic¹	BB¹
North America	6.7	5.8	2.4
Europe	4.9	2.4	
Asia	26	7.9	
Eurasia ²			3.0
Africa			24
South America	13	17	11
Other ³			2.9
Global	50	34	43

545 ¹Emissions are in units of Tg.

546 ²The Eurasian tagged tracer for BB CO includes emissions from Europe and northern Asia, but excludes
 547 southern Asia.

548 ³Other fossil fuel emissions includes emissions from Africa and South America, while other BB emissions
 549 excludes those regions since they are tagged separately.

550

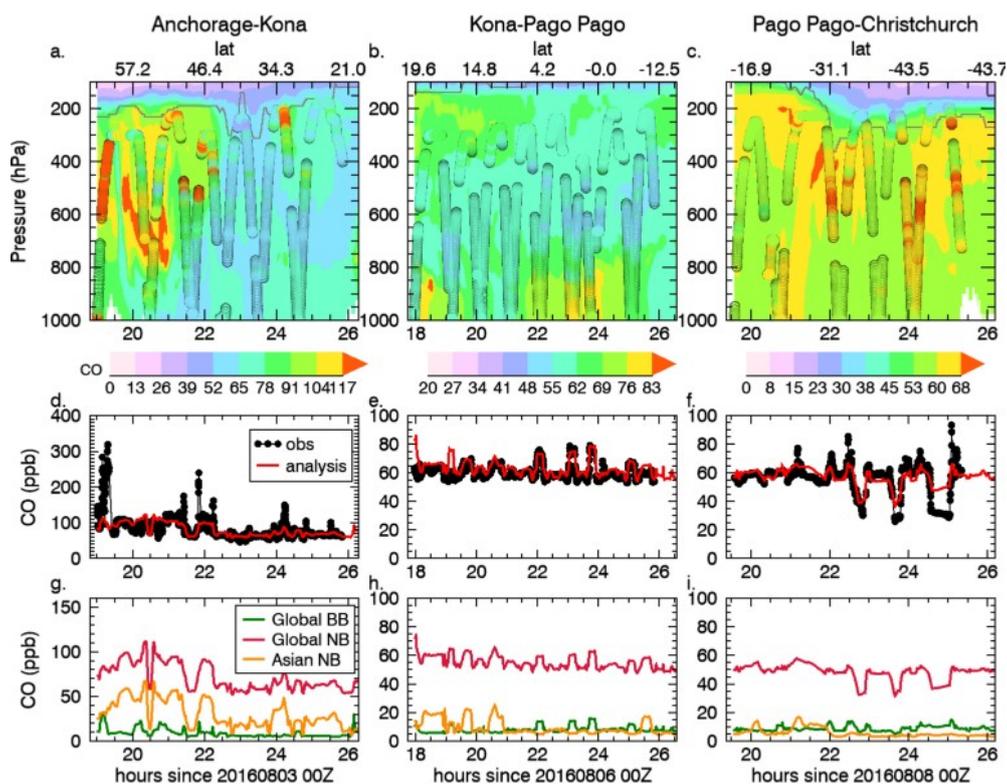
551 **Table 2: Mean and Standard Deviations in CO along Atlantic and Pacific Flight Tracks**

Region	Flight	Obs Mean (ppb)	Obs Stdev (ppb)	Model Mean (ppb)	Model Stdev (ppb)
Eastern Pacific	1. Palmdale – Palmdale	75	14	77	19
	2. Palmdale - Anchorage	100	40	88	16
Pacific	3. Anchorage-Kona	85	36	81	18
	4. Kona –Pago Pago	61	5.1	63	5.5
	5. Pago Pago – Christchurch	55	11	57	6.1
Southern Ocean	6. Christchurch – Punta Arenas	56	6.4	54	4.7
Atlantic	7. Punta Arenas – Ascension	69	17	71	26
	8. Ascension – Azores	101	36	103	27
	9. Azores – Kangerlussuaq	88	32	87	19



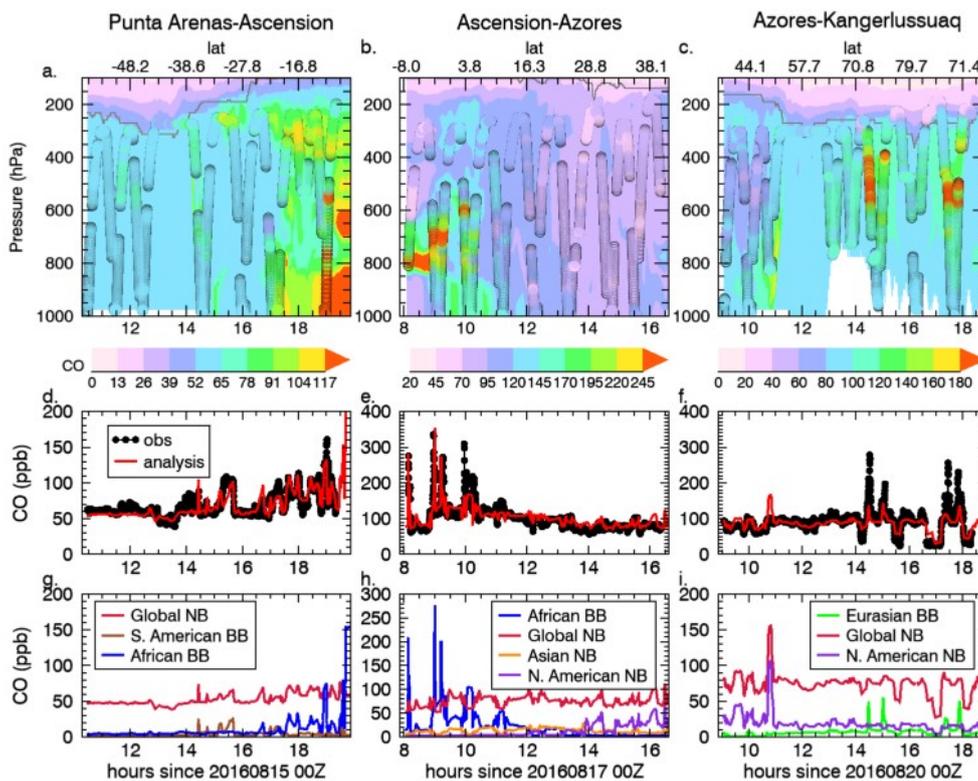
N. America	10. Kangerlussuaq – Minneapolis	90	26	91	22
	11. Minneapolis – Palmdale	84	38	107	78

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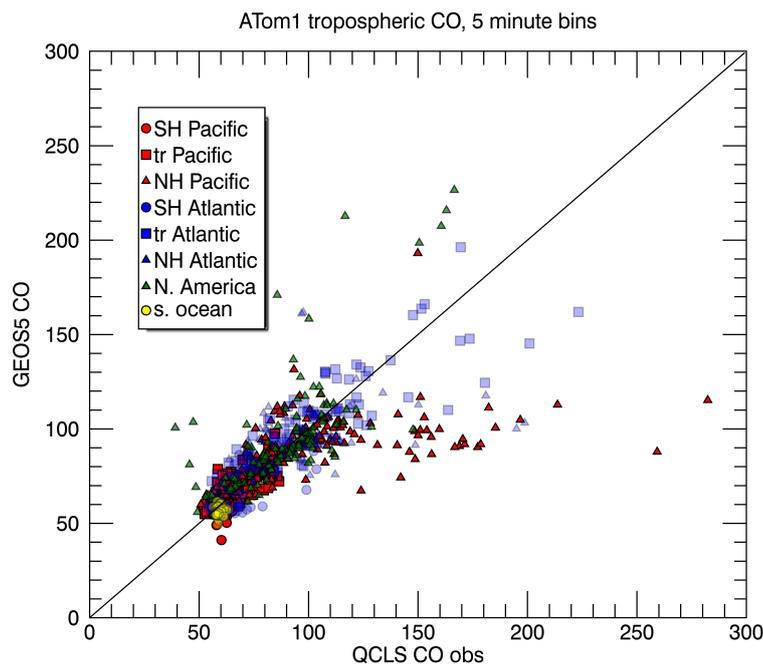
556

557 **Figure 1:** Curtain plot of CO (ppb) from the GEOS-5 analysis as a function of time and pressure overplotted
 558 with the model tropopause (gray line) and QCLS CO observations (circles) (top row) for the a) Anchorage to
 559 Kona flight, b) Kona to Pago Pago flight, and c) Pago Pago to Christchurch flight. Axis ranges vary between
 560 panels due to the large range of concentrations encountered. The top x-axis indicates the latitudes of the flight
 561 track. d-f) The GEOS-5 CO interpolated to the flight track (red line) is compared to the observations (black
 562 circles). g-h) Tagged tracer contributions to the GEOS-5 CO.



563

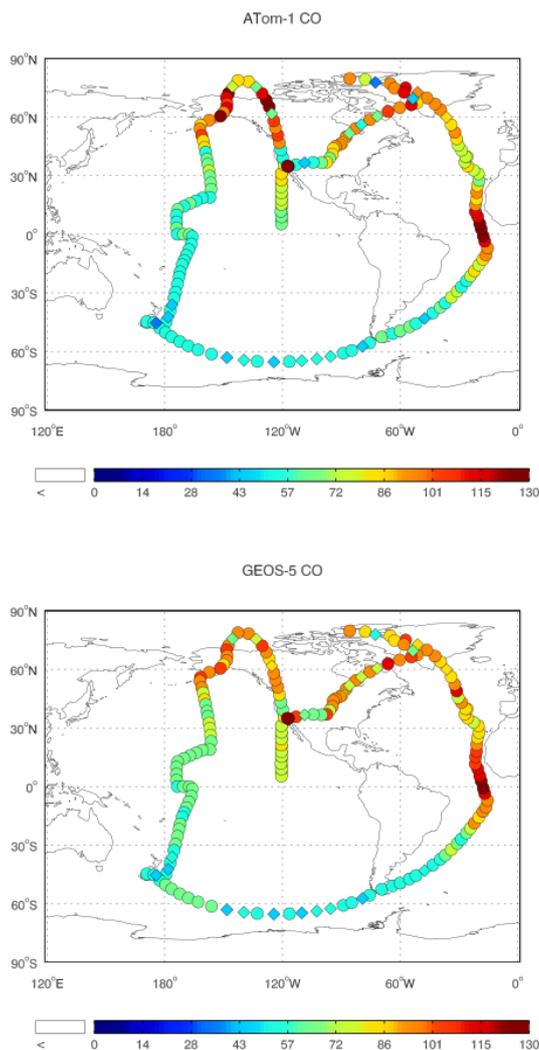
564 Figure 2: As in Fig. 1, but for the Atlantic flights: a,d,g) Punta Arenas-Ascension Island, b,e,h) Ascension Island
565 to the Azores, and c,f,i) Azores to Kangerlussuaq.



566

567 **Figure 3: GEOS-5 simulated CO versus QCLS CO observations for all ATom-1 flights averaged into 5 minute**
568 **bins. CO is in units of ppb. Pacific flights are shown in red, Atlantic flights in blue, N. American flights in**
569 **green, and southern ocean flights in yellow. Circles indicate Southern Hemisphere points, triangles indicate**
570 **Northern Hemisphere points, and squares indicate tropical points. The one-to-one line is overplotted in black.**

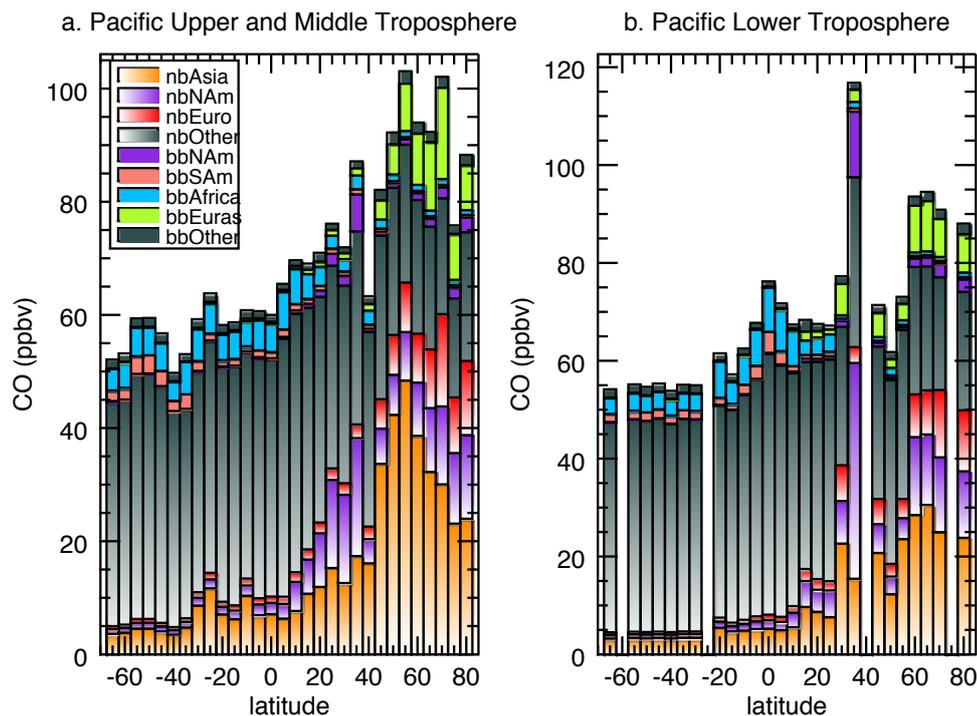
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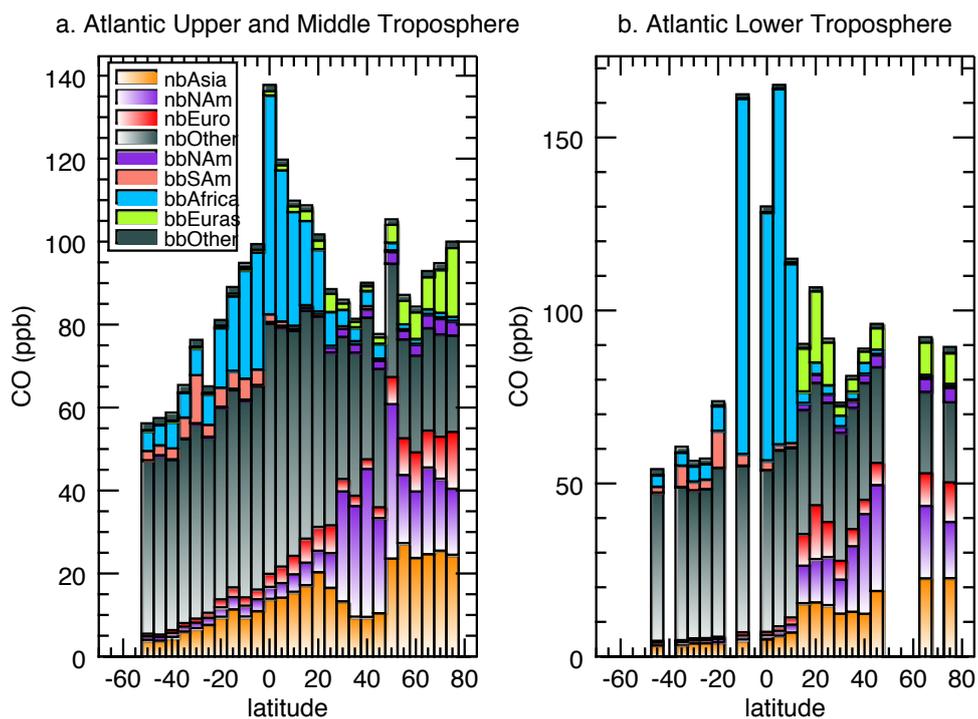
573 **Figure 4: CO (ppb) from the QCLS observations (top) and GEOS-5 analysis (bottom) for the ATom-1 circuit**
574 **including all 11 research flight segments. The GEOS-5 CO is taken from the analysis closest to the mid-point of**
575 **the flight time and interpolated to the flight track following the longitude, latitude and pressure given in**
576 **the observations. Both model forecast and ATom measurements are averaged into a sample rate of one per 360-**
577 **second. Data in the troposphere are plotted in a circle, while data in the stratosphere are plotted in a diamond,**
578 **based on the GEOS-5 tropopause.**

579



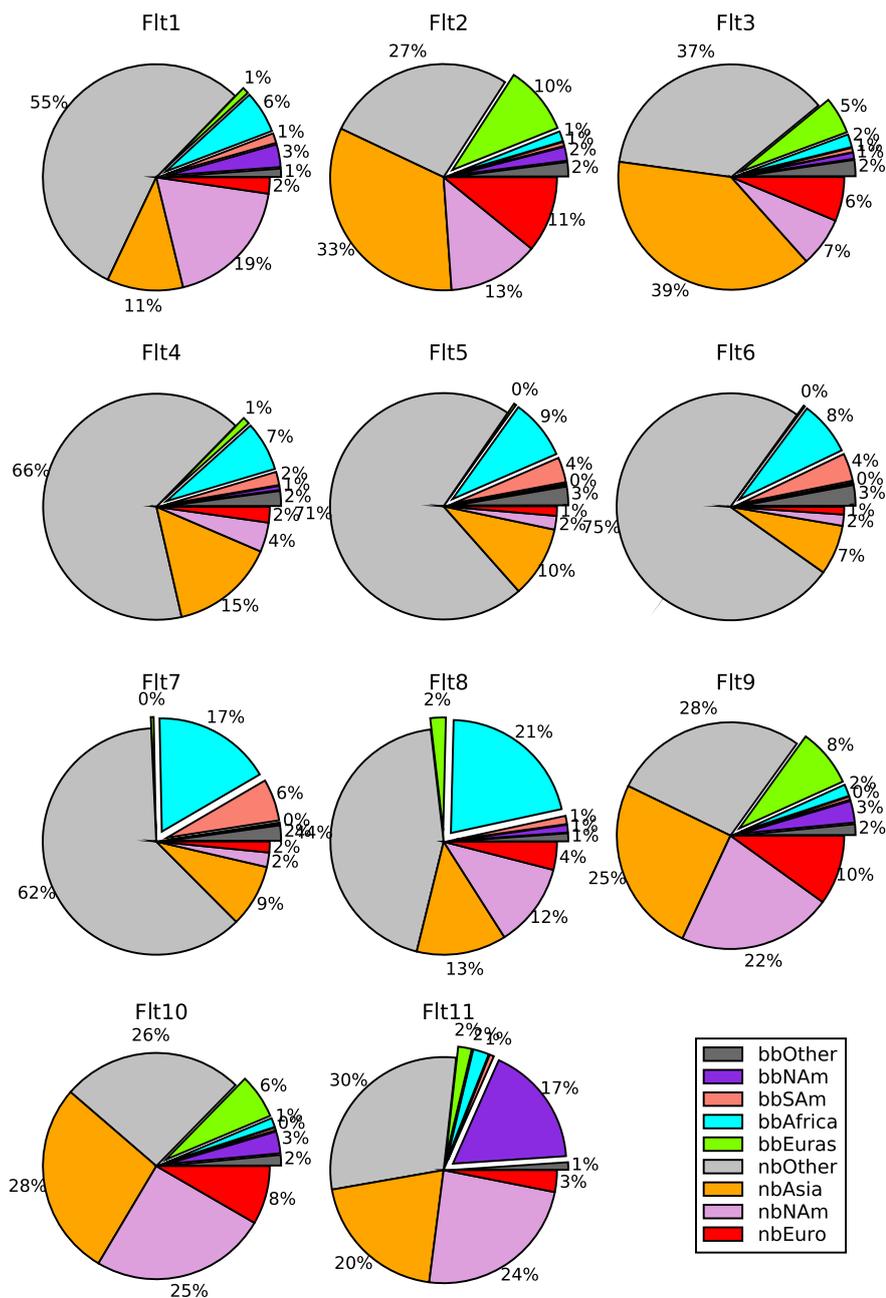
580

581 **Figure 5:** The contribution of each tagged CO tracer over the Pacific in the (a) upper and middle troposphere
582 (pressure ≤ 850 hPa) and (b) lower troposphere (pressure > 850 hPa). Data from multiple flights over the
583 region between 120°E and 110°W is included, with each bar representing data averaged over a 5 degree latitude
584 bin. Shaded bars represent non-BB CO from Asia (orange), N. America (purple), Europe (red), and the rest of
585 the world (gray). Solid bars represent BB CO from N. America (purple), S. America (pink), Africa (cyan),
586 Eurasia (green), and the rest of the world (gray).



587

588 **Figure 6:** As in Fig. 5, but for the Atlantic. Data from multiple flights over the region 0-60°W is included, with
589 each bar representing data averaged over a 5 degree latitude bin.



590

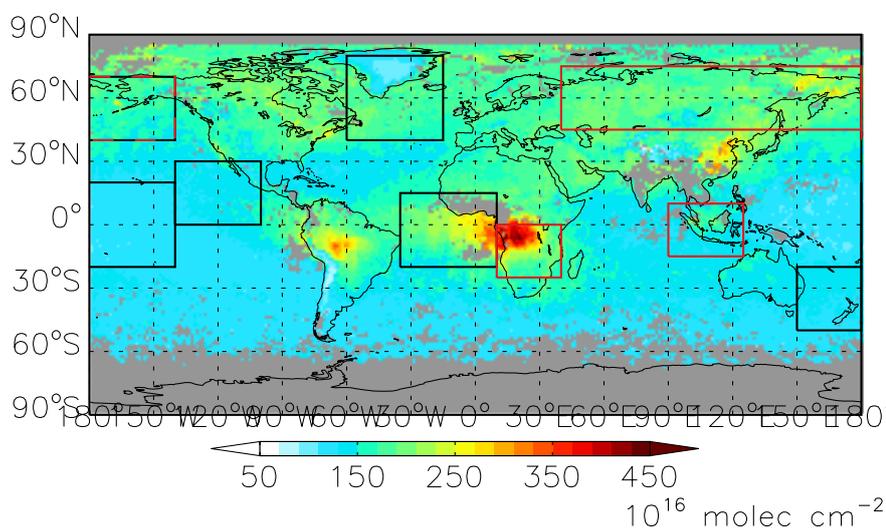
591 **Figure 7: Percent contributions of tagged tracers to total CO for each flight. Exploded slices represent the**
 592 **biomass burning tracers: North American (purple), S. American (salmon), African (cyan), Eurasian (green), and**



593 **Other (dark gray). The non-biomass burning (nb) tracers are for Asia (orange), N. America (lavender), Europe**
594 **(red), and other (light gray).**

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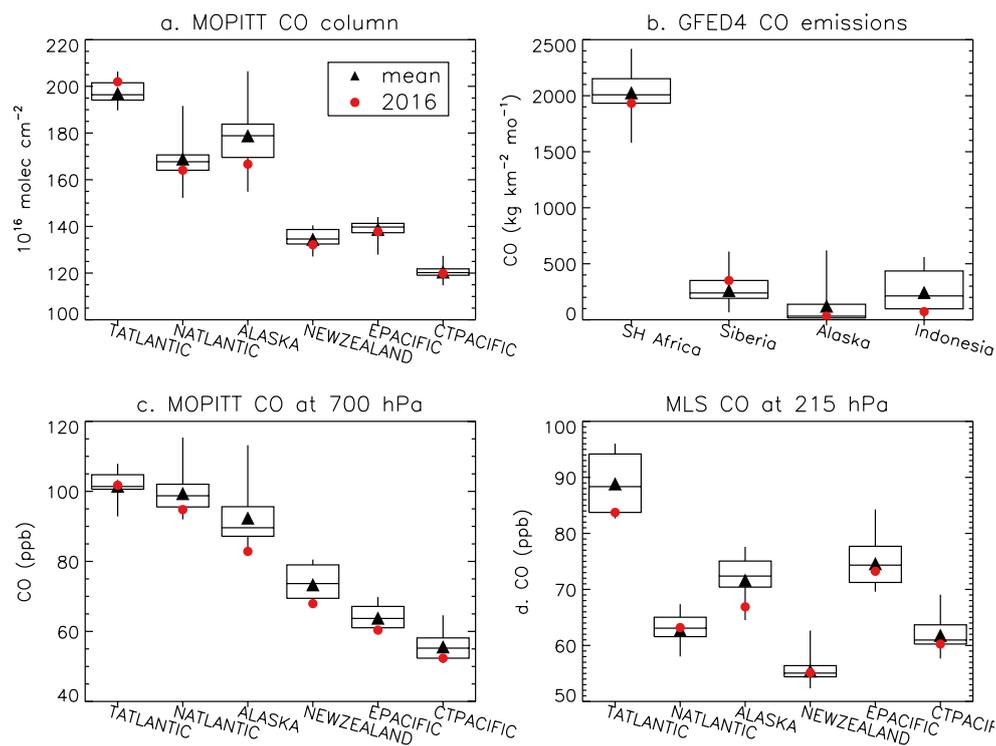
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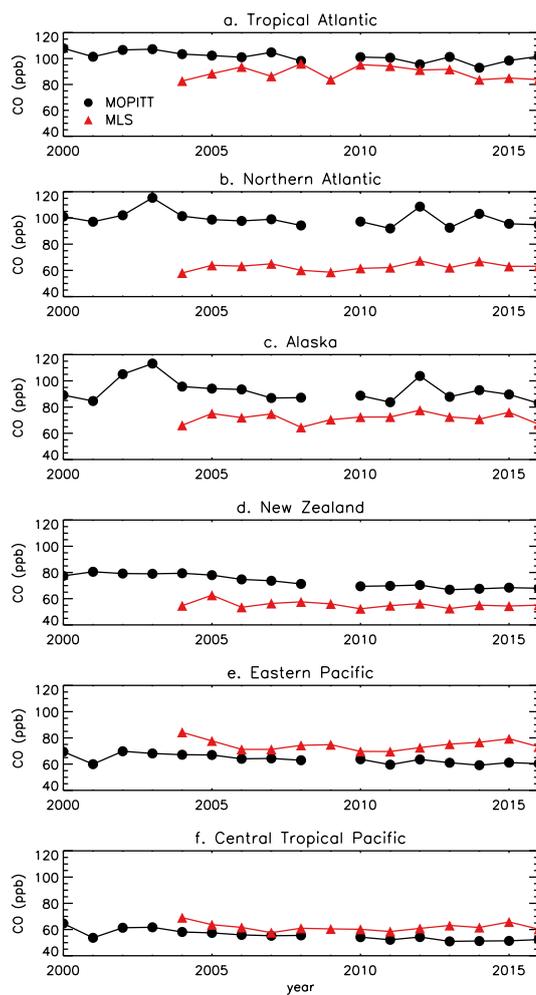
598

599 **Figure 8: MOPITT CO column for August 2016 overplotted with the regions shown in Fig. 10. Black rectangles**
600 **indicate the regions where we analyze CO concentrations, and red rectangles indicate the regions used for**
601 **biomass burning.**



602

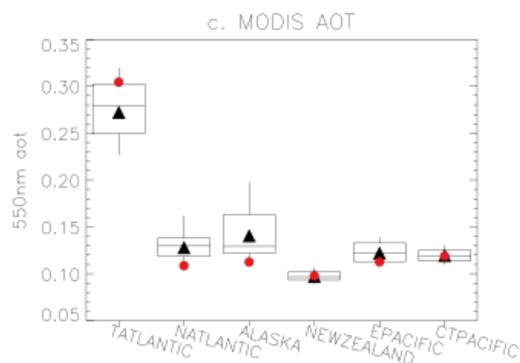
603 **Figure 9:** Boxes show the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentile values; whiskers show the minimum and maximum
 604 values; black triangles show the mean value, and red circles show the 2016 value for a) the MOPITT CO
 605 column, b) the GFED4 CO emissions, c) MOPITT CO at 700 hPa, and d) MLS CO at 215 hPa. Statistics for
 606 MOPITT are for 2000-2016, statistics for GFED4 are for 2000-2015, and statistics for MLS are for 2004-2016.
 607 MOPITT and MLS values are for August, while the GFED4 emissions are averaged over June through August.



608

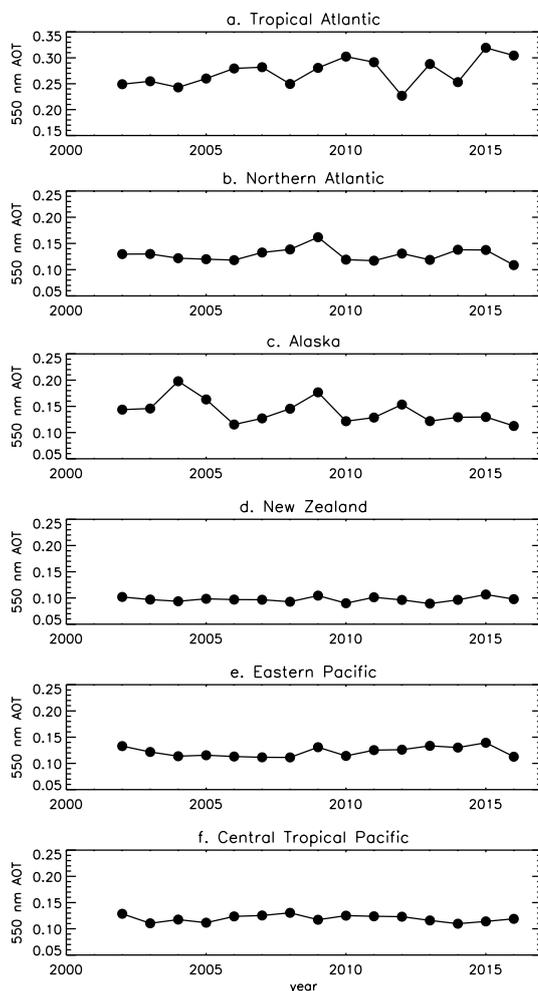
609

610 **Figure 10: Time series of August MOPITT CO at the 700 hPa level (black circles) and MLS CO (red triangles)**
611 **at the 215 hPa level for the 6 regions shown in black in Fig. 8.**



612

613 **Figure 11:** As in Figure 9, but for the MODIS 550 nm AOT. Only values over oceans are included in the
 614 regional averages.



615
 616

Figure 12: Time series of regionally averaged MODIS 550 nm AOT. Only values over oceans are included in the



617 regional averages. The y-axis range for panel a differs from the other panels due to the higher AOT values in
618 that region.