

Dear Dr. Frank Dentener,

Please find below our itemized responses to the referees' comments. We have addressed all the comments, and incorporated the comments/suggestions in the revised manuscript.

Thank you very much for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Xiuying Zhang

On behalf of all co-authors

## Response to Referee #1

Received and published: 3 May 2019

This manuscript estimated global surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration based on satellite retrievals and the temporal variation of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration was also presented. The study was well designed and the results are also important for evaluate  $\text{NH}_3$  pollution in the world. The major comments to the manuscript are as follows.

The authors appreciate the valuable suggestions given by Referee #1 for improving the overall quality of the manuscript. In this document, we describe how we addressed the reviewer's comments. Detailed responses to each comment are given below (in blue).

1 Lines 278-280, for comparing the satellite-derived and measured surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations, are there any criterions to choose the sites which measured surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations? This is because satellite-derived surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration in a grid ( $0.25^\circ$  latitude  $\times$   $0.25^\circ$  longitude) is a reflection of the averaged  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration in this grid area, but the  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration measured at a site may only represent a limited area. For a grid with different sources of  $\text{NH}_3$  (e.g., cropland, animal house or feedlot), the  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration in this grid may have large spatial heterogeneity, then how to find a site with the surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration to represent a grid area?

A point-to-grid verification strategy is adopted here, i.e. comparing the measurements at the monitoring stations with the grid values of satellite-derived estimates. We have to admit that this is the uncertainty of our analysis for comparing the satellite-derived and measured surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations since the monitoring site may not be representative of a given grid cell for an average retrieved value. We have added the following text to discuss this potential uncertainty in the section of "Validation of satellite-derived surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations":

"Notably, we compared the surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations at the monitoring stations with

the grid values of satellite-derived estimates directly. This point-to-grid verification strategy may cause uncertainty since the monitoring site location may not be representative of a given grid cell for an average retrieved value.”.

2 Lines 282-284, for comparing NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations with different methods, the information on how many measuring sites, and where the sites located should be given for each country or region.

Thanks very much for this good suggestion. We have added the number of measuring sites in each region by the following text:

“IASI-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations gained higher consistency with the ground-based measurements in China ( $R^2=0.71$  and  $RMSE=2.6 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  for 43 sites) than the US ( $R^2=0.45$  and  $RMSE=0.76 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  for 67 sites) and Europe ( $R^2=0.45$  and  $RMSE=0.86 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  for 43 sites) at a yearly scale”.

The sites locations have been given for each region in Fig. 2 in the manuscript .

3 Lines 284-286, as mentioned in comment 1, the spatial heterogeneity of NH<sub>3</sub> concentration in a grid and the measuring sites location may also cause the differences between satellite-derived and ground-based NH<sub>3</sub> concentration. Thus, this discussion should be added here.

This concern has been addressed in the response to comment 1. Please refer to it.

Besides, the detection limit and precision for deriving NH<sub>3</sub> concentration using the satellite should be given.

Thanks very much for this good suggestion. We have added the following text for clarifications:

“The satellite-derived NH<sub>3</sub> has a detection limit of  $0.0025 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  (2.5 ppb) (Graaf et al., 2018; Van Damme et al., 2014).”.

4 Lines 318-320, More details of the location of NH<sub>3</sub> hotspots should be given. In China, where is the eastern China? It seems that there were also NH<sub>3</sub> hotspots in Shannxi, Shanxi, Gansu and Hubei provinces, and there were no hotspot ( $> 8 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ) in Xinjiang province in Fig. 4?

Thanks very much for this good comment. We have revised the “eastern China” as

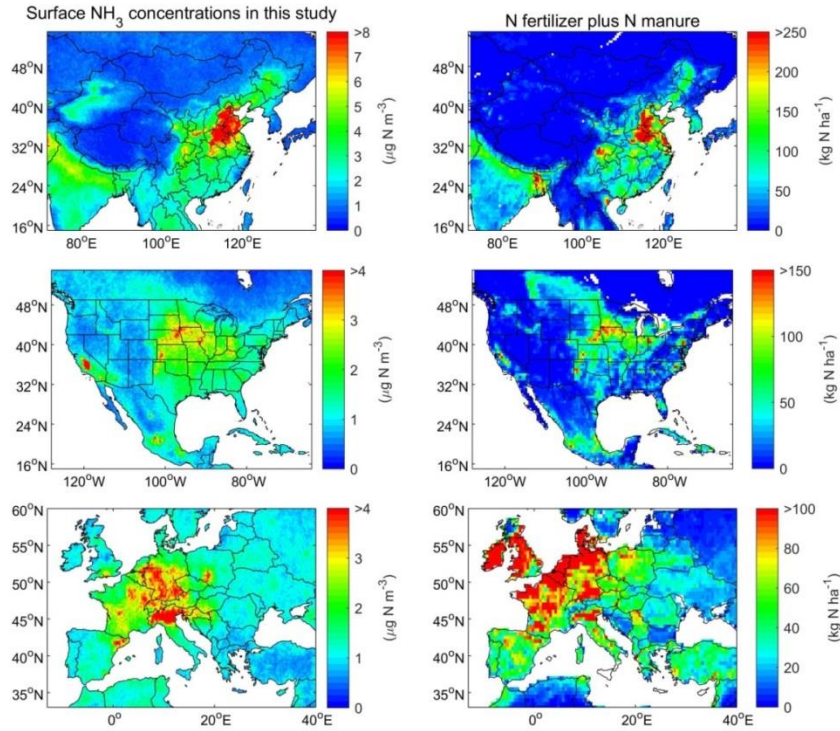
“eastern China (109-122° E, 28-41° N)”.

To show more details of the locations of NH<sub>3</sub> hotspots, we have revised the descriptions by the following text:

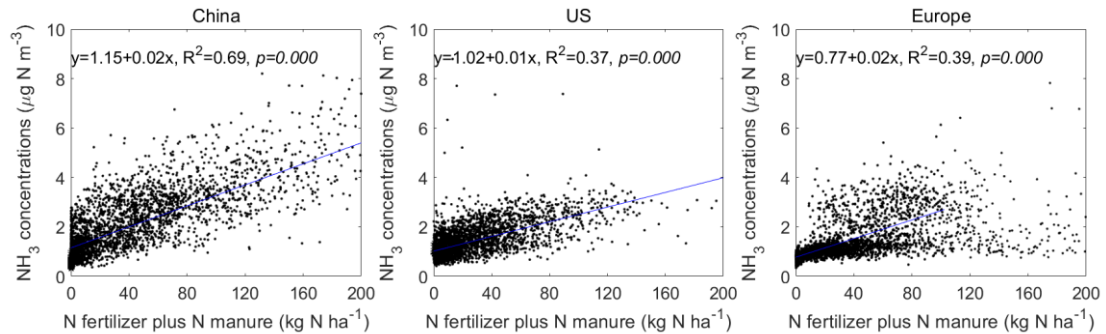
“We found large areas in eastern China (109-122° E, 28-41° N), Sichuan Basin, Hubei (including Wuhan, Xiangyang and Yichang), Shaanxi (including Xi’an, Baoji, Hanzhong, Weinan), Gansu (Lanzhou and its surrounding areas), Shanxi (including Yuncheng and Changzhi) and northwestern Xinjiang with surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations greater than 8 μg N m<sup>-3</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>.”.

5. Lines 321-324, in fact, more than half the NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in China is caused by animal production. The higher NH<sub>3</sub> concentration in eastern China can also be caused by animal production. More discussion and supporting data should be provided to strengthen the contribution of animal production on NH<sub>3</sub> concentration. This is also true for US and Europe.

Thank you very much for this suggestion. We have carefully checked the NH<sub>3</sub> emissions. In addition to N fertilization, N manure is another major source of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in China, and the percentage of N manure to NH<sub>3</sub> emissions exceeds 50% (Kang et al., 2016). So we have added the N manure into our analysis in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5 and revised related text in the discussion.



**Fig. 4** Spatial distribution of IASI-derived surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations, and N fertilizer plus N manure in China, Europe and US.



**Fig. 5** Comparison of satellite-derived surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations, and N fertilizer plus N manure in China, US and Europe. The spatial resolution of satellite-derived surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations and N fertilizer plus N manure is  $0.25^\circ$  and  $0.5^\circ$ , respectively. We firstly resampled the satellite-derived surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations to  $0.5^\circ$  grids, and then compared it with N fertilizer plus N manure by each grid cell. We obtained the N fertilizer and N manure data produced from McGill University (Potter et al., 2010).

6. Lines 398-402, are there any differences for the seasonal variation of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration in different regions?

Yes. We take a case study on the seasonal  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration in two hotspots of eastern China and Guangdong. The maximum surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration in eastern China occurred in June and July, which coincided with the planting, fertilization

time and higher temperature of the main crops in the region (Van Damme et al., 2015). The maximum surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentration appeared in March in Guangdong, which was also closely related to crop fertilization in these areas (Shen et al., 2009; Van Damme et al., 2014). We have added the following text for clarifications:

“Notably, there is a difference in the seasonal variations of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations between ECH (peaking in June and July) and GD (peaking in March), which was likely related to different crop planting, N fertilization time as well as meteorological factors (Van Damme et al., 2015; Shen et al., 2009; Van Damme et al., 2014).”.

7. Lines 486- 488, which sector (crop or animal production) did cause the increase of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in China in 2008-2015?

We have added the following text to explore the potential reasons:

“The increase of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in eastern China was consistent with the trend of NH<sub>3</sub> emission estimates by a recent study (Zhang et al., 2017). Approximately 85% of the inter-annual variations was due to the changes of human activities, and the remaining 15% resulted from air temperature changes. Agricultural activities is the main drive of NH<sub>3</sub> emission increase, of which 43.1% and 36.4% were contributed by livestock manure and fertilizer application (Zhang et al., 2017).”.

## Response to Referee #2

We thank the reviewer very much for the detailed and valuable comments. We believe that addressing the issues raised by the reviewer will considerably improve the quality of our manuscript. Please see our response to each comment below (in blue).

Received and published: 13 May 2019

This is a useful, but also rather coarse and preliminary, study using IASI satellite retrievals to provide information about surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations and trends. The study uses coarse resolution GEOS-Chem vertical profile information with column information retrieved from IASI. Overall there is convincing correspondence of the IASI retrievals with surface concentrations, although more robust statistical analysis beyond showing correlation and bias is precluding understanding how good (or bad) the correspondence really is. How many observations were within a factor of two of the satellite derived values, is there a difference between rural, semi-urban, urban values, etc.

Thanks very much for this comment. We have added the following text for clarifications in the section of “Validation of satellite-derived surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations”:

“Overall, 72.85% of observations (including China, the US and Europe) were within a factor of two of the satellite-derived surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations. In China, there is approximately 71.43% and 77.27% of observations were within a factor of two of the satellite-derived surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations in urban and rural land uses, respectively. There is no big difference in the accuracy of satellite-derived surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations between urban and rural land uses. In the US, the monitoring sites were generally distributed at rural sites (<http://www.radiello.com>) (Li et al., 2016), and, in Europe, there is no information to indicate the land use of each site (<https://projects.nilu.no//ccc/>) (Tørseth et al., 2012).”

One of the issues that have always remained a bit of mystery to me with regard to the satellite retrievals is the importance of using a-priori profile information for the

retrievals, given the lack of sensitivity close to the surface and possibly also saturation effects where concentrations are high. This paper adds another question mark: when on the one hand the retrieval uses profile information, and in a second step the method uses the same model to calculate surface information is there a potential for using twice the same information?

We have added the following text for more clarifications (the purposes of using the profiles twice were different) in Sect. “IASI NH<sub>3</sub> measurements”:

“The ANNI-NH<sub>3</sub>-v2.2R-I datasets used the ANNI algorithm and took account of the influence of the NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles, pressure, humidity and temperature profiles, which was to make the columns accurate. There is no information on NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles in the ANNI-NH<sub>3</sub>-v2.2R-I datasets. The NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles used in this paper was to convert the columns to surface concentrations and to make the surface NH<sub>3</sub> estimates accurate.”.

Also unclear to me how the vertical resolution of GEOSCHEM can resolve the strong vertical gradients that are likely to exist in source regions. The authors should indicate 1) the vertical structure of the model, 2) the measurement characteristics of the surface observation (including height), 3) how this information is used to calculate surface concentrations. Even if the authors will not resolve all issues, a thorough discussion and way-forward discussion are needed about this.

Thanks very much for this good comment. We have added the following text for clarifications:

“The IASI NH<sub>3</sub> data we gained are column data, and there is no information on the vertical information. To convert this columns to surface concentrations, we used the widely used modelled vertical profiles from GEOS-Chem. The GEOS-Chem outputs include 47 layers, which are not continuous in the vertical direction. To gain the continuous vertical NH<sub>3</sub> profile, we used the Gaussian function to fit the 47 layers’ NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations. The main advantage to simulate the vertical profiles is that the NH<sub>3</sub> concentration at any height indicated by satellite can be obtained. On the other hand, the simulated profile function has a general rule, which can convert the columns



indicated by satellite to surface concentration simply and quickly.”

The GEOS-Chem can simulate the NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles at 47 layers, and can simulate NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations at each layer (from approximately 50 m to 20000 m). Most of all the sites in China, US and Europe were set a height of 1-50 m above the ground (Xu et al., 2015; Li et al., 2016). Please note that the height that we mean here is the height to the ground rather than the height above sea level.

For these reasons I recommend major revisions to his paper.

I would ask the authors to already put on-line the vertical model information for use by other readers.

Thanks very much for this good suggestion. We added the NH<sub>3</sub> vertical model information (Matlab code) as the supporting materials in this revision.

## **Detailed comments**

l. 24 Not only for dry deposition, also for modelling of the formation of ammonium nitrate.

We have added it as suggested.

l. 32: I am wondering what a high correlation of satellite/surface obs taken all regions together is really telling? I think it mostly depends on getting the levels of the ‘high’ concentrations correct, which is confirmed by the numbers given later. Consider removing this statement.

This indicates the overall accuracy assessment of satellite-based estimates compared with all observations, which include not only “high” concentrations but also “low” concentrations.

l. 65. They have not been established to measure NH<sub>3</sub> by itself, but as one of the parameters of a larger range of pollutants.

We have changed it as suggested.

l. 110 -116. It seems a selling point to suggest that vertical profile information for NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> have been useful for modelling, and therefore also for NH<sub>3</sub>. The issues is more complex for NH<sub>3</sub>, with sources almost entirely close to the surface, and a

complex mix of source and sinks, which will make the model profile more dependent on the mixing characteristics of the CTM. For NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> the sources and locations are better known, most of SO<sub>2</sub> is nowadays emitted also well above the surface, which makes interference with the dry deposition process less sensitivity to errors.

We agree with you that there are different sources and sinks between NH<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>. There is no causal relationship of using vertical profile information for NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub> as well as for NH<sub>3</sub>. IASI-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations combining NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles from CTMs in China and Europe were evaluated previously (Liu et al., 2017; Graaf et al., 2018). Following these studies, the aim of this paper is to determine for the applicability and the assessment of using IASI retrievals and the vertical profile for global surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations. Our results shows that the satellite-based approach achieved a high predictive power for annual surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations compared with the measurements of all sites in China, US and Europe ( $R^2=0.76$  and  $RMSE=1.50 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ).

l. 134: GEOSCHEM vertical profiles were used in the retrieval and subsequently used to derive surface concentrations=>explain

We have added the following text for more clarifications in Sect. “IASI NH<sub>3</sub> measurements”:

“The ANNI-NH3-v2.2R-I datasets used the ANNI algorithm and took account of the influence of the NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles, pressure, humidity and temperature profiles, which was just to make the columns accurate. There is no information on NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles in the ANNI-NH3-v2.2R-I datasets. The NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles used in this paper was to convert the columns to surface concentrations and to make the surface NH<sub>3</sub> estimates accurate.”.

l. 147. Please summarize some characteristics. E.g. error statistics, characteristic of sites (urban, rural, vicinity to direct sources) height of observations.

We have added the following text for clarifications in the section of “Surface NH<sub>3</sub> measurements”:

“In China, we used the national measurements from the Chinese Nationwide Nitrogen

Deposition Monitoring Network (NNDMN) including 10 urban sites, 22 rural sites, and 11 background sites.

The precision for monthly measurements at a site using DELTA systems is as below approximately 10% (Sutton et al., 2001), the correlation between the ALPHA and DELTA measurements was highly significant ( $R^2=0.919$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) (Xu et al., 2015).

Surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations in the AMoN-US were measured by the radiello diffusive sampler (<http://www.radiello.com>) as a simple diffusion-type sampler collected every 2 weeks, and these sites were generally distributed at rural sites (Li et al., 2016).

The overall bias of the different instruments in EMEP varied from -30 to 10% for all sites (Bobruzki et al., 2010). Most of all the sites in China, US and Europe were set a height of 1-50 m above the ground (Xu et al., 2015;Li et al., 2016;Puchalski et al., 2011).”.

1. 153 Need to explain why temporal averaging to 2 weeks is done.

We have added the following text for clarification:

“Surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations in the AMoN-US were measured by the radiello diffusive sampler (<http://www.radiello.com>) as a simple diffusion-type sampler collected every 2 weeks (Li et al., 2016). We calculated annual surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations by averaging all the measurements since we compared the measured surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations with satellite-derived surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations on a yearly scale.”.

1. 157 measured systems=>measurement systems

We have replaced “measured systems” with “measurement systems”.

1. 164 Please give the characteristic heights of the layers in the boundary (mixing) layer.

We have added the following text in the caption of Fig. S4 to show more information:

“The middle height of 1, 10, 20, 30 and 40 layer was approximately 60, 700, 2000, 6000 and 10000 m, respectively.”.

1. 160 Any spin-up considered?

Yes, we have added the following text for clarifications:

“We have done the spin up for 5 months, which well exceed the typical lifetime of atmospheric NH<sub>3</sub> (typically within 24 hours) and aerosol ammonium ions (typically within a week) (Pye et al., 2009).”.

l. 174: how does this compare to the widely used HTAP2 emissions for 2010? What changes to EDGAR result from substituting with regional inventories. Any seasonality applied and what would be the reference for it?

HTAP v2.2 is constructed by harmonizing regional emission inventories from USA, Canada, Europe and Asia, and gap-filling the rest of the world by EDGAR v4.3 (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2015), which is methodologically consistent with our emission configuration. We compared the emissions from EDGAR v4.2 with HTAP v2.2 at 2008, which have differences in global total NH<sub>3</sub> within 10% (Crippa et al., 2018). The main difference between the regional inventories and EDGAR is that seasonality of emissions is included in regional inventories,. The seasonality of the regional emissions inventories is embedded as integral part of the inventory except EMEP (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2015;Crippa et al., 2018;Lenhart and Friedrich, 1995). We have added the above explanations in the section of “GEOS-Chem model”.

l. 186 some clarification is need as regards the use of ‘local’ times, which I think are not considering any shift in legal times (i.e. winter/summertime).

We have added the following text for more clarification, and there is no need to consider shift in legal times:

“The local time is the time in a particular region or area expressed with reference to the meridian passing through it.”.

l. 206. It is not clear why this more complex fitting procedure is needed. What was the problem, and how is solved by this new fitting. In figure S2 vertical profiles are shown but I do not have the information to understand if GEOSCHEMs vertical resolution would be able to resolve such profiles.

Please refer to the first paragraph in the section of “Estimation of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations. The IASI NH<sub>3</sub> data we gained are column data, and there is no information on the vertical information. To convert the columns to surface

concentrations, we used the widely used modelled vertical profiles from GEOS-Chem. The GEOS-Chem outputs include 47 layers, which are not continuous in the vertical direction. To gain the continuous vertical  $\text{NH}_3$  profile, we used the Gaussian function to fit the 47 layers'  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations. The main advantage to simulate the vertical profiles is that the  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration at any height indicated by satellite can be obtained. On the other hand, the simulated profile function has a general rule, which can convert the columns indicated by satellite to surface concentration simply and quickly.

I. 223 like mentioned earlier, the correlation is merely due to the fact of having very high concentrations in one region, versus low in other regions. If one would compare the low concentration range a factor of 5 or so difference in concentrations belong to a single column value would be found. And maybe in reality even more, depending on a whole lot of things.

We agree with you that, on a local scale, the relationship of surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations and  $\text{NH}_3$  columns may be affected by many factors. Here we show the overall accuracy assessment on a global scale between the surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations and  $\text{NH}_3$  columns based on the GEOS-Chem outputs, which include not only “high” concentrations but also “low” concentrations.

I. 234 also this seems to be a rather error sensitive approach. I am mostly concerned about possible co-variance between the intra-day emission variations and the limited sampling at 9 O'clock. Are there observations that can be used to explore this issue?

No, we donot have observations to validate the intra-day emission variations.

L 242 Something wrong with reference E et al. And Van et al. And maybe other references as well.

We have corrected all these references.

I. 241-249 I am confused about the Figure S1 (with typical maxima of about 20-40 meter) and the statement that models and aircraft measurements can be used to verify them. I think that high towers like the one at Cabouw (NL), and observations at several levels, are probably the more reliable verification, but unfortunately there are

not many of these.

Fig. S1 just show an example of a possible  $\text{NH}_3$  vertical profile, and the typical maxima can be any height such as 20 m, 200 m or other values. In the future we hope to have more aircraft measurements to validate the simulations.

L 250 I have no idea what heights the first and fifth layer are corresponding to.

We have added the following text in the caption of Fig. S3 to show more information:

“The middle height of first and fifth layer was approximately 60 m and 340 m, respectively.”.

l. 284 It is true that  $\text{NH}_3$  can be more accurately be retrieved in one region than another depending on the thermal contrast. But it is not clear to me why this would be so much better in China than e.g. in the US? I guess it is also just a matter of detection limits? It could also be related to more reliable simulation of mixing, depending on sufficient observational input into the parent weather model.

We agree with you that the accuracy of IASI-retrieved surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations in different regions is highly linked with the thermal contrast (TC) and the simulation of  $\text{NH}_3$  mixing from GEOS-Chem. We have added the following text to discuss the potential reasons.

“The accuracy of IASI-retrieved surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations in different regions is highly linked with the thermal contrast (TC) and atmosphere  $\text{NH}_3$  abundance (Whitburn et al., 2016). The lowest uncertainties occurred when high columns and high TC coincide. In case either of them decrease, the uncertainty will gradually increase. In case both the TC and column are low, all sensitivity to  $\text{NH}_3$  is lost. When high TC and high  $\text{NH}_3$  columns (high HRI) occurs, the major contribution to the uncertainty results from the thickness of the  $\text{NH}_3$  layer, the surface temperature as well as the temperature profile (Whitburn et al., 2016). In addition, the simulation of  $\text{NH}_3$  mixing from GEOS-Chem may have different accuracy in different regions, and thus can cause uncertainty to the different accuracy of IASI-retrieved surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations in different regions.”.

l. 296 the fixed profiles=>fixed profiles (language)

We have corrected it as suggested.

l. 304-312 I believe that there can be a large difference between 40-60 meters, but as the authors explain this is all in the same geos-chem layer. I fail to understand how this information is then used to interpret geos-chem profiles.

We used the equation (2) to fit NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles at each grid box by the following equation (Liu et al., 2017):

$$\rho = \sum_{i=1}^n \rho_{max,i} e^{-\left(\frac{z-z_{0,i}}{\sigma_i}\right)^2} \quad (2)$$

Once the NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles were determined at each grid box, we can extrapolate NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations at any height from the GEOS-Chem ( $G_{GEOS-Chem}$ ).

Then we can calculate the IASI-derived NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations any height using the NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles and IASI NH<sub>3</sub> columns:

$$\overline{G_{IASI_{9-10}}} = \frac{G_{GEOS-Chem}}{\Omega_{GEOS-Chem}} \times \overline{\Omega_{IASI_{9-10}}} \quad (3)$$

where  $\overline{G_{IASI_{9-10}}}$  is the satellite-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations at a GEOS-Chem grid size at 9-10am;  $\frac{G_{GEOS-Chem}}{\Omega_{GEOS-Chem}}$  is the ratio of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations to NH<sub>3</sub> columns calculated from GEOS-Chem;  $\overline{\Omega_{IASI_{9-10}}}$  is the average IASI NH<sub>3</sub> columns at a GEOS-Chem grid at 9-10am.

All the information has been described in detail in the method section.

l. 323 this is mostly a confirmation that crop mask used by the regional and global emission inventories correspond to the MODIS one. And that the fertilizers used in those countries indeed end up on these fields.

Yes, it is.

l. 355 According to inventories, in Europe about 20 % of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions is related to the use of mineral fertilizer, and 80 % to manure managements. So it would be more relevant to determine the correspondence of those emissions (mineral is often used to top up what wasn't provided by manure).

Thank you very much for this suggestion. We have carefully checked the NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in Europe. According to Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR), in western Europe, manure management accounts for 53% and

the share of emissions from agricultural soils for 43% of the ammonia emissions. So we have added the N manure into our analysis in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5 and revised related text in the discussion.

364 Van et al. Please check this reference. It seems to be a problem of your reference manager.

We have checked this reference, and revised it.

370 It is probably opportune to refer to the paper by Pozzer et al, a 1x1 model study that has more extensively studied the role of NH<sub>3</sub> emission for aerosol. It is also important to critically assess ammonium nitrate measurements, which are notoriously difficult at higher concentrations. Would it be an option to use the model to estimate (equilibrium) ammonium sulfate and nitrate concentrations associated with the ‘retrieved’ surface ammonia?

We have carefully read the suggested paper on the the role of NH<sub>3</sub> emission for aerosol (Pozzer et al., 2012). We agree with the reviewer that it is important to assess ammonium nitrate measurements associated with the retrieved surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations. However, this has been out of the scope of this paper, and this paper focuses on the estimates of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations inferred from satellite retrievals. It is more appropriate to estimate ammonium sulfate and nitrate concentrations in another paper in the future.

421-430 Biomass burning can be an important source of NH<sub>3</sub>, especially in the smoldering phase. Therefore, I have some doubts that active fire products are the best proxy for NH<sub>3</sub> emission. Did you consider burnt area products instead?

We here compared the monthly variations of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations and biomass burning. The MODIS active fires are considered to be more accurate than the burnt area products on the timing of burning. Please see the temporal intercomparison of burned area products with Active Fire data set (Humber et al., 2019).

activity leaded=>led?

We have replaced “leaded” with “led”.

504: why inconsistent? It could be rather consistent, as you explain in the following



sentences.

We have added the following text to explain this inconsistency:

“This inconsistency between  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{NO}_x$  trends in the US was mainly due to different emission control policies. Over the past two decades, due to the implementation of effective regulations and emission reduction measures for  $\text{NO}_x$ , the  $\text{NO}_x$  emission in the US decreased by nearly 41% between 1990 and 2010 (Hand et al., 2014). However, this  $\text{NH}_3$  increase in eastern US is likely due to the lack of  $\text{NH}_3$  emission control policy as well as the decreased  $\text{NH}_3$  removal due to the decline in acidic gases ( $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{SO}_2$ ) (Warner et al., 2017; Li et al., 2016).”.

## **Supplementary**

Figure S3: Please indicate what heights approximate correspond with the first and fifth layer boundaries.

We have added the following text in the figure caption:

“The middle height of first and fifth layer was approximately 60 m and 340 m, respectively.”.

Figure S4: no idea what heights these layer correspond to.

We have added the following text in the figure caption:

“The middle height of 1, 10, 20, 30 and 40 layer was approximately 60, 700, 2000, 6000 and 10000 m, respectively.”.

Figure S5: the figure caption is not self-explaining.

We have revised the figure caption by the following text to better describe the figure:

“Difference of surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations between 40m and 60m.”.

Figure S6: first  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  and then  $\text{NO}_2$  in caption.

We have corrected it in the caption to match it with the figure.

Figure S9: describe upper panel as well.

We have added the following text to describe the panel:

“The upper panel is the annual raw fire counts in 2014.”.

Figure S10: trends of what (annual concentrations?) and for what period

Yes, it is annual concentration during 2008-2016. We have changed the original descriptions by the following text:

“...trends of annual surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations during 2008-2016”.

## Reference

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1 **Estimating global surface ammonia concentrations inferred**  
2 **from satellite retrievals**

3 Lei Liu <sup>a, b, c</sup>, Xiuying Zhang <sup>b, \*</sup>, Anthony Y.H. Wong <sup>c</sup>, Wen Xu <sup>d</sup>, Xuejun Liu <sup>d</sup>, Yi Li  
4 <sup>e</sup>, Huan Mi <sup>c, f</sup>, Xuehe Lu <sup>b</sup>, Limin Zhao <sup>b</sup>, Zhen Wang <sup>b</sup>, Xiaodi Wu <sup>b, g</sup>, Jing Wei <sup>h</sup>

5 <sup>a</sup> College of Earth and Environmental Sciences, Lanzhou University, Lanzhou 730000,  
6 China

7 <sup>b</sup> International Institute for Earth System Science, Nanjing University, Nanjing,  
8 210023, China

9 <sup>c</sup> Department of Earth and Environment, Boston University, Boston, Massachusetts,  
10 USA

11 <sup>d</sup> College of Resources and Environmental Sciences, Centre for Resources,  
12 Environment and Food Security, Key Lab of Plant-Soil Interactions of MOE, China  
13 Agricultural University, Beijing, 100193, China

14 <sup>e</sup> Sunset CES Inc., Beaverton, OR, 97008, USA

15 <sup>f</sup> College of Surveying and Geo-Informatics, Tongji University, 1239 Siping Road,  
16 Shanghai, China

17 <sup>g</sup> Jiangsu Center for Collaborative Innovation in Geographical Information Resource  
18 Development and Application, Nanjing, 210023, China

19 <sup>h</sup> College of Global Change and Earth System Science, Beijing Normal University,  
20 Beijing, China,

21 \* Correspondence to Xiuying Zhang (zhangxy@nju.edu.cn).

22 **Abstract**

23 Ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>), as an alkaline gas in the atmosphere, can cause direct or indirect  
24 effects on the air quality, soil acidification, climate change as well as human health.  
25 Estimating surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations is critically important for modelling the dry  
26 deposition of NH<sub>3</sub> and for modelling the formation of ammonium nitrate, which have  
27 important impacts on the natural environment. However, sparse monitoring sites make

28 it challenging and difficult to understand the global distribution of surface  $\text{NH}_3$   
29 concentrations both in time and space. We estimated the global surface  $\text{NH}_3$   
30 concentrations for the years of 2008-2016 using the satellite  $\text{NH}_3$  retrievals combining  
31 its vertical profiles from the GEOS-Chem. The accuracy assessment indicates that the  
32 satellite-based approach has achieved a high predictive power for annual surface  $\text{NH}_3$   
33 concentrations compared with the measurements of all sites in China, US and Europe  
34 ( $R^2=0.76$  and  $\text{RMSE}=1.50 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ). The satellite-derived surface  $\text{NH}_3$   
35 concentrations had higher consistency with the ground-based measurements in China  
36 ( $R^2=0.71$  and  $\text{RMSE}=2.6 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ) than the US ( $R^2=0.45$  and  $\text{RMSE}=0.76 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ )  
37 and Europe ( $R^2=0.45$  and  $\text{RMSE}=0.86 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ) at a yearly scale. Annual surface  
38  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations higher than  $6 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  are mainly concentrated in the North  
39 China Plain of China and Northern India, followed by  $2\text{-}6 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  mainly in  
40 southern and northeastern China, India, western Europe and eastern United States  
41 (US). High surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations were found in the croplands in China, US and  
42 Europe, and surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations in the croplands in China were approximately  
43 double than those in the croplands in the US and Europe. The linear trend analysis  
44 shows that an increase rate of surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations ( $>0.2 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3} \text{y}^{-1}$ )  
45 appeared in the eastern China during 2008-2016, and a middle increase rate ( $0.1\text{-}0.2$   
46  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3} \text{y}^{-1}$ ) occurred in northern Xinjiang over China.  $\text{NH}_3$  increase was also found  
47 in agricultural regions in middle and eastern US with an annual increase rate of lower  
48 than  $0.10 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3} \text{y}^{-1}$ . The satellite-derived surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations help us to  
49 determine the  $\text{NH}_3$  pollution status in the areas without monitoring sites and to  
50 estimate the dry deposition of  $\text{NH}_3$  in the future.

## 51 **Introduction**

52 Ammonia ( $\text{NH}_3$ ), emitted primarily by agricultural activities and biomass burning, is  
53 an important alkaline gas in the atmosphere (Van Damme et al., 2018; Warner et al.,  
54 2017). Excessive surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations can cause chronic or acute damage to  
55 the plant (such as reduced growth and bleached gray foliage) when its capacity of  
56 detoxification is exceeded (Eerden, 1982; Sheppard et al., 2008). Estimation of surface

57 NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations is critically important in modelling the dry deposition of NH<sub>3</sub>,  
58 which may comprise a large part of atmospheric nitrogen (N) deposition, and could  
59 cause acidification in the soil, eutrophication in the aquatic ecosystems, and  
60 contamination in drinking water (Basto et al., 2015;Kim et al., 2014;Lamarque et al.,  
61 2005;Larssen et al., 2011;Reay et al., 2008). In addition, NH<sub>3</sub> can also react with  
62 nitric acid and sulfuric acid to form ammonium salts (Li et al., 2014;Li et al., 2017b),  
63 which are important components of particulate matters (PM), and have negative  
64 impacts on air quality and human health (Xu et al., 2017;Schaap et al., 2004).

65 Several national monitoring programs [can measure](#) surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations,  
66 including the Chinese Nationwide Nitrogen Deposition Monitoring Network  
67 (NNDMN) established in 2004, the Ammonia Monitoring Network in China  
68 (AMoN-China) established in 2015 in China, the Ammonia Monitoring Network in  
69 the US (AMoN-US) as well as the European Monitoring and Evaluation Programme  
70 (EMEP). However, there are still relatively large uncertainties of estimating global  
71 surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations, resulting from the sparse monitoring sites as well as the  
72 limited spatial representativeness (Liu et al., 2017b;Liu et al., 2017a). Satellite NH<sub>3</sub>  
73 retrievals are an important complement to gain the global distribution of NH<sub>3</sub>  
74 concentrations with a high spatial resolution (Van Damme et al., 2014c). NH<sub>3</sub> can be  
75 measured by several satellite instruments including the Infrared Atmospheric  
76 Sounding Interferometer (IASI), Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS), Cross-track  
77 Infrared Sounder (CrIS) and Tropospheric Emission Spectrometer (TES). TES using  
78 the thermal infrared spectral range has sparser spatial coverage compared to IASI,  
79 CrIS and AIRS (Shephard et al., 2011;Zhang et al., 2017a). A recent study (Kharol et  
80 al., 2018) reported the dry NH<sub>3</sub> depositions in North America, and found -15%  
81 underestimation in CrIS surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations (using three fixed NH<sub>3</sub> profiles  
82 considering unpolluted, moderate and polluted conditions) compared with the  
83 measurements from the AMoN-US during the warm months (from April to  
84 September). Warner et al. reported the global AIRS NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations at 918hPa  
85 (approximately 700-800 m) at 1° latitude × 1° longitude grids, and found NH<sub>3</sub>  
86 concentrations increased in the major agricultural regions during 2003-2015 (Warner



87 et al., 2017). The IASI NH<sub>3</sub> measurements have been validated with NH<sub>3</sub> columns  
88 measured by the Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), ground-based NH<sub>3</sub>  
89 measurements, NH<sub>3</sub> emissions and atmospheric chemistry transport models (CTMs)  
90 (Dammers et al., 2016; Van Damme et al., 2014c; Van Damme et al., 2014a; Whitburn  
91 et al., 2016).

92 Apart from satellite retrievals, CTMs are also powerful tools to investigate  
93 spatiotemporal variability of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in the atmosphere. Schiferl et  
94 al. evaluated the modelled NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations during 2008-2012 from GEOS-Chem,  
95 and found an approximately 26% underestimation compared with the ground-based  
96 measurements, which can be related to the relatively large uncertainties in NH<sub>3</sub>  
97 emissions used for driving GEOS-Chem (Schiferl et al., 2015). Zhu et al. used the  
98 GEOS-Chem constrained by TES measurements to estimate surface NH<sub>3</sub>  
99 concentration during 2006-2009, and found an improvement in comparison with the  
100 ground-based measurements in the United States (Zhu et al., 2013). Schiferl et al.  
101 used the airborne observations to validate the simulated NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in 2010  
102 from GEOS-Chem, and revealed reasonably simulated NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles compared  
103 with the aircraft measurements but with an underestimation in surface NH<sub>3</sub>  
104 concentrations in California (Schiferl et al., 2014). A number of previous studies have  
105 used satellite NO<sub>2</sub> columns to estimate the surface NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations combining  
106 NO<sub>2</sub> vertical profiles from CTMs (Geddes et al., 2016; Lamsal et al., 2013; Nowlan et  
107 al., 2014; Liu et al., 2017c). The methods of using the vertical profiles to convert  
108 satellite-retrieved columns to surface concentrations have been proven successful for  
109 SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> (Geddes et al., 2016; Geng et al., 2015; Lamsal et al., 2008; Nowlan et al.,  
110 2014). CTMs can provide valuable information of NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles (Whitburn et  
111 al., 2016; Liu et al., 2017b), and IASI-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations combining  
112 NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles from CTMs in China and Europe were evaluated previously (Liu  
113 et al., 2017b; Graaf et al., 2018). This study followed these studies to estimate the  
114 satellite-derived global surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations using IASI NH<sub>3</sub> retrievals and the  
115 vertical profiles from GEOS-Chem, and the present study aims to estimate the global  
116 surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentration from a satellite perspective.

## 117 **Data and Methods**

### 118 **IASI NH<sub>3</sub> measurements**

119 The Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI) is a passive instrument  
120 measuring infrared radiation within the spectral range of 645-2769 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The IASI-A  
121 instrument is on board of the MetOp-A satellite launched in 2006 covering the globe  
122 twice a day with an elliptical spatial resolution of approximately 12 by 12 kilometers,  
123 and cross the equator at 09:30 and 21:30 local times (Van Damme et al., 2014b). We  
124 used the daytime IASI NH<sub>3</sub> measurements due to the larger positive thermal contrast  
125 detected by satellite instruments leading to smaller errors compared to the nighttime  
126 data (Van Damme et al., 2014b). In this work, we used the IASI NH<sub>3</sub> columns  
127 products (ANNI-NH3-v2.2R-I) during 2008-2016 (Van Damme et al., 2017) to  
128 estimate the global surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations. The ANNI-NH3-v2.2R-I datasets  
129 were developed by converting spectral HRI (hyperspectral range index) to NH<sub>3</sub>  
130 columns through an Artificial Neural Network for IASI (ANNI) algorithm (Whitburn  
131 et al., 2016). This algorithm considered the influence of the NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles,  
132 pressure, humidity and temperature profiles. The NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profile information  
133 used to generate the ANNI NH<sub>3</sub> columns were retrieved from GEOS-Chem, which  
134 integrates H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>-HNO<sub>3</sub>-NH<sub>3</sub> aerosol thermodynamics mechanism (Whitburn et al.,  
135 2016;Van Damme et al., 2017). [The ANNI-NH3-v2.2R-I datasets used the ANNI  
136 algorithm and took account of the influence of NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles, pressure,  
137 humidity and temperature profiles, which was to make the columns accurate. There is  
138 no information on NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles in the ANNI-NH3-v2.2R-I datasets. The NH<sub>3</sub>  
139 vertical profiles used in this paper was to convert the columns to surface  
140 concentrations and to make the surface NH<sub>3</sub> estimates accurate.](#) The IASI NH<sub>3</sub>  
141 columns used in this study were processed into the monthly data at 0.25 ° latitude ×  
142 0.25 ° longitude grids by the arithmetic averaging method (Van Damme et al.,  
143 2017;Whitburn et al., 2016;Liu et al., 2017a).

## 144 **Surface NH<sub>3</sub> measurements**

145 To evaluate our satellite-derived global surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations, we collected  
146 available surface NH<sub>3</sub> measurements on a regional scale in 2014. In China, we used  
147 the national measurements from the Chinese Nationwide Nitrogen Deposition  
148 Monitoring Network (NNDMN) including 10 urban sites, 22 rural sites, and 11  
149 background sites. Surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in the NNDMN were measured by both  
150 ALPHA (Adapted Low-cost, Passive High Absorption) and DELTA (Denuder for  
151 Long-Term Atmospheric sampling) systems. The bias for monthly measurements at a  
152 site using DELTA systems is as below approximately 10% (Sutton et al., 2001), and  
153 the correlation between the ALPHA and DELTA measurements was highly significant  
154 ( $R^2=0.919$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) (Xu et al., 2015). The detailed descriptions on the NNDMN have  
155 been described in a previous study (Xu et al., 2015). In the US, we used the  
156 measurements of 67 sites from the AMoN-US, downloaded from the website:  
157 <http://nadp.sws.uiuc.edu/AMoN/>. Surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in the AMoN-US were  
158 measured by the radiello diffusive sampler (<http://www.radiello.com>) as a simple  
159 diffusion-type sampler collected every 2 weeks, and these sites were generally  
160 distributed at rural sites (Li et al., 2016). We calculated annual surface NH<sub>3</sub>  
161 concentrations by averaging all the measurements since we compared the measured  
162 surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations with satellite-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations at a  
163 yearly scale. In Europe, we used the measurements of 43 sites from the EMEP  
164 network (<https://www.nilu.no/projects/ccc/emepdata.html>). The EMEP is composed of  
165 multiple national networks in Europe, thus the measurement systems differs among  
166 different national networks. The overall bias of the different instruments in EMEP  
167 varied from -30 to 10% for all sites (Bobruzki et al., 2010). Most sites in China, US  
168 and Europe were set a height of 1-50 m above the ground (Xu et al., 2015;Li et al.,  
169 2016;Puchalski et al., 2011).

## 170 **GEOS-Chem model**

171 We used GEOS-Chem version 11-01 as the chemical transport model to calculate

172 global NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles (using the year of 2014 as a case study in the results and  
173 discussion). We did the spin up for 5 months, which well exceed the typical lifetime  
174 of atmospheric NH<sub>3</sub> (typically within 24 hours) and aerosol ammonium ions (typically  
175 within a week) (Pye et al., 2009). It has a spatial resolution of 2° latitude × 2.5°  
176 longitude × 47 vertical layers spanning over Earth's surface and about 80 km above it.  
177 It is driven by the meteorological field data of the GEOS-FP (forward-processing)  
178 products, which were produced by NASA GMAO (Global Modelling and  
179 Assimilation Office) (<https://gmao.gsfc.nasa.gov/>). Here we modelled the NH<sub>3</sub>  
180 vertical profiles using GEOS-Chem, and used the monthly averages for analysis. The  
181 global NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in GEOS-Chem are based on the EDGAR (Emissions Database  
182 for Global Atmospheric Research) v4.2  
183 (<http://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/overview.php?v=42>), while the regional emissions are  
184 replaced with MIX inventory for East Asia (Li et al., 2017a)  
185 (<http://www.meicmodel.org/dataset-mix.html>), EMEP inventory for Europe  
186 (<http://www.emep.int/>), NEI (National Emissions Inventory, 2011) for the US  
187 (<https://www.epa.gov/air-emissions-inventories>) and CAC (Criteria Air Contaminant)  
188 inventory for Canada  
189 (<https://www.canada.ca/en/services/environment/pollution-waste-management/national-pollutant-release-inventory.html>). The main difference between the regional  
190 inventories and EDGAR is that seasonality of emissions is included in regional  
191 inventories. The seasonality of regional emissions inventories is embedded as integral  
192 part of the inventory except EMEP (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2015;Crippa et al.,  
193 2018;Lenhart and Friedrich, 1995). The biomass burning emissions are from Global  
194 Fire Emissions Database (GFED4) including agricultural fires, wildfire and  
195 pre-scribed burning (Giglio et al., 2013). The GEOS-Chem simulates a  
196 comprehensive atmospheric NO<sub>x</sub>-O<sub>3</sub>-VOC-aerosol system (Mao et al., 2013). The  
197 thermodynamic equilibrium of NH<sub>3</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>-HNO<sub>3</sub> system is simulated by the  
198 ISORROPIA II model (Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007;Pye et al., 2009). The modelling  
199 of wet deposition is described by a previous study (Liu et al., 2001) with updates from  
200 the studies (Amos et al., 2012;Wang et al., 2011). Dry deposition of particles follows  
201

202 the size-segregated treatment (Zhang et al., 2001) and gaseous dry deposition follows  
203 the framework (Wesely, 1989) with updates from a previous study (Wang et al., 1998).  
204 We archive the output daily averages of NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations as well as the averages  
205 between 9 and 10 am, which corresponds to the local crossing time of IASI (9:30 am).  
206 The local time is the time in a particular region or area expressed with reference to the  
207 meridian passing through it. The relationship between NH<sub>3</sub> concentration at 9-10 am  
208 and the daily averages derived from the GEOS-Chem was used to convert the satellite  
209 observed NH<sub>3</sub> column to daily averages (Nowlan et al., 2014).

## 210 **Estimation of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations**

211 We estimated global surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations using the IASI NH<sub>3</sub> columns as well  
212 as the GEOS-Chem. We took into account the advantages of IASI NH<sub>3</sub> columns with  
213 high spatial resolutions and the GEOS-Chem with vertical profiles. The IASI NH<sub>3</sub>  
214 data we gained are column data, and there is no information on the vertical  
215 information. To convert the columns to surface concentrations, we used the widely  
216 used modelled vertical profiles from GEOS-Chem. The GEOS-Chem outputs include  
217 47 layers, which are not continuous in the vertical direction. To gain the continuous  
218 vertical NH<sub>3</sub> profile, we used the Gaussian function to fit the 47 layers' NH<sub>3</sub>  
219 concentrations. The main advantage to simulate the vertical profiles is that the NH<sub>3</sub>  
220 concentration at any height indicated by satellite can be obtained. On the other hand,  
221 the simulated profile function has a general rule, which can convert the columns  
222 indicated by satellite to surface concentration simply and quickly for many years. The  
223 height of each grid box used here was calculated at the middle height of each layer  
224 rather than the top height of each layer. A three-parameter Gaussian function was used  
225 to fit NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles at each grid box from the GEOS-Chem in the previous  
226 studies (Whitburn et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2017b) :

$$227 \quad \rho = \rho_{max} e^{-\left(\frac{Z-Z_0}{\sigma}\right)^2} \quad (1)$$

228 where  $\rho$  is NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations at the layer height  $Z$ ;  $\rho_{max}$  is the maximum NH<sub>3</sub>  
229 concentrations at the height  $z_0$ ;  $\sigma$  is an indicator for the spread or thickness of the

230 NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations.

231 This study expanded the equation (1) to fit NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles at each grid box by  
232 the following equation (Liu et al., 2017b):

$$233 \quad \rho = \sum_{i=1}^n \rho_{max,i} e^{-\left(\frac{z-z_{0,i}}{\sigma_i}\right)^2} \quad (2)$$

234 where n ranges from 1 to 6. If n equals 1, the equation (2) is the same as the equation  
235 (1); if n is greater than 1, the equation (2) is the multiple three-parameters Gaussian  
236 items. We determined the value of n that can simulate the NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles with  
237 best performance at each grid box using the determining coefficients of R-Square (R<sup>2</sup>).  
238 Once the NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles were determined at each grid box, we can extrapolate  
239 NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations at any height from the GEOS-Chem ( $G_{GEOS-Chem}$ ).

240 We then aggregated the IASI NH<sub>3</sub> columns  $\Omega_{IASI}$  (0.25 ° latitude × 0.25 ° longitude)  
241 to the GEOS-Chem grid size  $\overline{\Omega_{IASI}}$  (2 ° latitude × 2.5 ° longitude) by the averaging  
242 method. We have the following equation (Lamsal et al., 2008):

$$243 \quad \overline{G_{IASI_{9-10}}} = \frac{G_{GEOS-Chem}}{\Omega_{GEOS-Chem}} \times \overline{\Omega_{IASI_{9-10}}} \quad (3)$$

244 where  $\overline{G_{IASI_{9-10}}}$  is the satellite-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations at a GEOS-Chem  
245 grid size at 9-10am;  $\frac{G_{GEOS-Chem}}{\Omega_{GEOS-Chem}}$  is the ratio of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations to NH<sub>3</sub>  
246 columns calculated from GEOS-Chem;  $\overline{\Omega_{IASI_{9-10}}}$  is the average IASI NH<sub>3</sub> columns  
247 at a GEOS-Chem grid at 9-10am.

248 We found a high correlation (R=0.96 and p=0.000) between the surface NH<sub>3</sub>  
249 concentrations and NH<sub>3</sub> columns based on the GEOS-Chem outputs (**Fig. S1**). Then  
250 we used the satellite-derived scaling factor to downscale the satellite-derived surface  
251 NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations at a GEOS-Chem grid by using the following ratio:

$$252 \quad R_{IASI} = \frac{\Omega_{IASI}}{\overline{\Omega_{IASI}}} \quad (4)$$

$$253 \quad G_{IASI_{9-10}} = \overline{G_{IASI_{9-10}}} \times R_{IASI} \quad (5)$$

254 where  $R_{IASI}$  is the scaling factor.  $G_{IASI_{9-10}}$  is the satellite-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub>  
255 concentrations at a satellite IASI grid size (0.25 ° latitude × 0.25 ° longitude) at 9-10am.  
256 To convert the instantaneous satellite-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations  $G_{IASI}$  to

257 daily average surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations, we followed the methods (Nowlan et al.,  
258 2014):

$$259 \quad G_{IASI}^* = \frac{G_{GEOS-Chem}^{1-24}}{G_{GEOS-Chem}^{9-10}} \times G_{IASI_{9-10}} \quad (6)$$

260 where  $G_{IASI}^*$  is the daily average surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations, and  $\frac{G_{GEOS-Chem}^{1-24}}{G_{GEOS-Chem}^{9-10}}$  is the  
261 ratio of the GEOS-Chem surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations at the daily average to the  
262 average of 9-10 am.

## 263 **Results and Discussion**

### 264 **NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles from GEOS-Chem**

265 NH<sub>3</sub> emitted from the surface can be transported horizontally or vertically, and its  
266 concentrations may show a certain gradient in the vertical and horizontal directions  
267 (Preston et al., 1997; Rozanov et al., 2005). There are generally two types of shapes of  
268 NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles (**Fig. S2**) from aircraft measurements (Li et al., 2017b; Tevlin et  
269 al., 2017) and CTMs (Whitburn et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2017b). One is representative  
270 for the vertical profile with maximum NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations at a certain height ( $z_0 > 0$ )  
271 and the other is representative for the vertical profile with maximum NH<sub>3</sub>  
272 concentrations near the earth surface ( $z_0 = 0$ ). In this study, the vertical profiles of NH<sub>3</sub>  
273 were fitted based on the 47 layers' outputs by GEOS-Chem in 2014 at a monthly scale.  
274 **Fig. S3** shows the spatial distribution of NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in the first and fifth  
275 layers simulated by GEOS-Chem in January 2014. NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in the fifth  
276 layer are significantly lower than those in the first layer, suggesting that NH<sub>3</sub>  
277 concentrations decrease with increasing layers (or altitude), especially in NH<sub>3</sub> hotspot  
278 regions (such as eastern China, India, western Europe and eastern US). The average  
279 difference of NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations between the first and fifth layers on the land is 0.34  
280  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ . The average NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in the first and fifth layers in eastern China,  
281 India, western Europe and eastern US were 2.76, 7.28, 0.55 and 0.31  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ,  
282 respectively.

283 To more vividly depict the vertical profiles of NH<sub>3</sub>, we show NH<sub>3</sub> vertical

284 concentrations with cross-section drawn at 37°N in January, 2014 (**Fig. S4**). High NH<sub>3</sub>  
285 concentrations are mainly concentrated in the 1-10 layers, and show a significant  
286 decrease trend with the increasing altitude, which is consistent with the aircraft  
287 measurements (Preston et al., 1997;Lin et al., 2014;Levine et al., 1980;Shephard and  
288 Cady-Pereira, 2015;Li et al., 2017b;Tevlin et al., 2017). NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles were  
289 fitted by Gaussian function (2-6 terms) based on the 47 layers' NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations  
290 from the GEOS-Chem, and the fitting accuracy was determined by R<sup>2</sup>. We found that  
291 the NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles on the land between 60°N and 55°S can be well modelled  
292 using Gaussian function (R<sup>2</sup> higher than 0.90) (**Fig. 1**). Previous studies also found  
293 high accuracy using the Gaussian function to simulate the NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles in  
294 China and globally (Whitburn et al., 2016;Liu et al., 2017b).

### 295 **Validation of satellite-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations**

296 NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles were used to convert IASI NH<sub>3</sub> columns to surface NH<sub>3</sub>  
297 concentrations. **Fig. 2** shows the IASI-derived global surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations on  
298 the land at 0.25° latitude × 0.25° longitude grids in 2014. IASI-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub>  
299 concentrations capture the general spatial pattern of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations fairly  
300 well in 2014 in regions with relatively intensive monitoring sites (R<sup>2</sup>=0.76 and  
301 RMSE=1.50 μg N m<sup>-3</sup> in **Fig. 2 and Fig. 3**). Overall, 72.85% of observations  
302 (including China, the US and Europe) were within a factor of two of the  
303 satellite-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations. In China, there is approximately 71.43%  
304 and 77.27% of observations were within a factor of two of the satellite-derived  
305 surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in urban and rural land uses, respectively. There is no big  
306 difference in the accuracy of satellite-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations between  
307 urban and rural land uses. In the US, the monitoring sites were generally distributed at  
308 rural sites (<http://www.radiello.com>) (Li et al., 2016), and, in Europe, there is no  
309 information to indicate the land use of each site (<https://projects.nilu.no//ccc/>)  
310 (Tørseth et al., 2012a). The overall mean of satellite-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub>  
311 concentrations in 2014 at the measured sites was 2.52 μg N m<sup>-3</sup> and was close to the  
312 average of measured surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations (2.51 μg N m<sup>-3</sup>) in 2014.



313 IASI-derived surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations gained higher consistency with the  
314 ground-based measurements in China ( $R^2=0.71$  and  $\text{RMSE}=2.6 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  for 43 sites)  
315 than the US ( $R^2=0.45$  and  $\text{RMSE}=0.76 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  for 67 sites) and Europe ( $R^2=0.45$   
316 and  $\text{RMSE}=0.86 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  for 43 sites) at a yearly scale. This might be due to the fact  
317 that for high concentrations in a region (associated with high thermal contrast) can be  
318 more reliably detected by IASI (Van Damme et al., 2014a). The accuracy of  
319 IASI-retrieved surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations in different regions is highly linked with  
320 the thermal contrast (TC) and atmosphere  $\text{NH}_3$  abundance (Whitburn et al., 2016).  
321 The lowest uncertainties occur when high columns and high TC coincide. In case  
322 either of them decrease, the uncertainty will gradually increase. In case both the TC  
323 and column are low, all sensitivity to  $\text{NH}_3$  is lost. When high TC and high  $\text{NH}_3$   
324 columns (high HRI) occurs, the major contribution to the uncertainty results from the  
325 thickness of the  $\text{NH}_3$  layer, the surface temperature as well as the temperature profile  
326 (Whitburn et al., 2016). The simulation of  $\text{NH}_3$  mixing from GEOS-Chem may also  
327 have different accuracy in different regions, and thus can cause uncertainty to the  
328 different accuracy of IASI-retrieved surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations in different regions.  
329 Notably, we compared the surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations at the monitoring stations with  
330 the grid values of satellite-derived estimates directly. This point-to-grid verification  
331 strategy may cause uncertainty since the monitoring site location may not be  
332 representative of a given grid cell for an average retrieved value. The satellite-derived  
333  $\text{NH}_3$  has a detection limit of  $0.0025 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  (2.5 ppb) (Graaf et al., 2018; Van  
334 Damme et al., 2014a). Similarly, we also compared the surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations (at  
335 the first layer) simulated by GEOS-Chem with the monitoring results ( $R^2=0.54$  and  
336  $\text{RMSE}=2.14 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  in **Fig. 3**). In general, IASI-derived surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations  
337 had better consistency with the ground-based measurements than those from  
338 GEOS-Chem over China, the US and Europe. The relatively low accuracy from  
339 GEOS-Chem was likely due to the coarse model resolutions as well as the poor  
340 spatiotemporal representations of  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions, as suggested by a previous study  
341 (Zhang et al., 2018).  
342 A known limitation of IASI  $\text{NH}_3$  retrievals is lack of the vertical profile information.

343 A previous study (Van Damme et al., 2014a) used fixed profiles on the land to convert  
344 the IASI NH<sub>3</sub> columns to surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations. Using the fixed profiles can  
345 cause large uncertainties for estimating surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations. In this work, we  
346 utilized the advantages of CTMs and considered the spatial variability of the vertical  
347 profiles, and proves that IASI NH<sub>3</sub> columns are powerful to predict the surface NH<sub>3</sub>  
348 concentrations combining the vertical profiles simulated by Gaussian function.  
349 Through the Gaussian simulation of NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles, we are able to evaluate the  
350 sensitive regions of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations with respect to different heights. **Fig.**  
351 **S5** shows the spatial distribution of the difference of NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations between  
352 40m and 60m (about the middle height of the first layer in GEOS-Chem). In general,  
353 in strong NH<sub>3</sub> emission regions, there is a relatively large difference in surface NH<sub>3</sub>  
354 concentrations such as, for instance, in eastern China and northwestern India (can be  
355 up to 3 μg N m<sup>-3</sup>); subsequently, a middle difference (2-3 μg N m<sup>-3</sup>) occurs in eastern  
356 and middle China, northern India and northern Italy. Except above mentioned regions,  
357 the difference of NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations between 40m and 60m is generally lower 0.5 μg  
358 N m<sup>-3</sup>.

### 359 **Spatial distributions of satellite-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations**

360 **Fig. 4** shows the spatial distributions of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in China, US and  
361 Europe in 2014. The overall mean surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations over China were 2.38  
362 μg N m<sup>-3</sup>, with the range of 0.22-13.11 μg N m<sup>-3</sup>. We found large areas in [eastern](#)  
363 [China \(109-122° E, 28-41° N\)](#), Sichuan Basin, [Hubei \(including Wuhan, Xiangyang](#)  
364 [and Yichang\)](#), [Shaanxi \(including Xi'an, Baoji, Hanzhong, Weinan\)](#), [Gansu \(Lanzhou](#)  
365 [and its surrounding areas\)](#), [Shanxi \(including Yuncheng and Changzhi\)](#) and  
366 northwestern Xinjiang with surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations greater than 8 μg N m<sup>-3</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>,  
367 which were in agreement with the spatial distributions of the croplands in China (**Fig.**  
368 **S6**). It is not surprising that high surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations occurred in eastern  
369 China and Sichuan Basin because the major Chinese croplands are distributed there,  
370 as the major source of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions with frequent N fertilizer applications. [In](#)  
371 [addition, N manure is another major source of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in China, and the](#)

372 percentage of N manure to NH<sub>3</sub> emissions exceeds 50% (Kang et al., 2016). Overall,  
373 there was a significant linear correlation between surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentration and N  
374 fertilization plus N manure in China ( $R^2=0.69$ ,  $p=0.000$  in **Fig. 5**). The hotspots also  
375 occurred in northwestern Xinjiang surrounding the cropland areas, which may be  
376 related to the dry climate that can maintain NH<sub>3</sub> in the gaseous state for a longer time,  
377 providing climate conditions for the long distance transmission of NH<sub>3</sub>. Recent  
378 national measurement work (Pan et al., 2018) also revealed high surface NH<sub>3</sub>  
379 concentrations in northwestern Xinjiang, confirming the rationality of the  
380 IASI-derived estimates.

381 In the US, the overall mean surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations were  $1.52 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3} \text{ y}^{-1}$ , with  
382 the range of  $0.14\text{-}10.60 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ . The surface NH<sub>3</sub> hotspots were generally  
383 distributed in the croplands in the central and eastern US (such as Ohio, Illinois, South  
384 Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Minnesota and North Dakota), as well as in some small  
385 areas in western coastal regions (such as California and Washington). In particular, the  
386 San Joaquin Valley (SJV) in California (an agricultural land) had the highest surface  
387 NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations greater than  $4 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ . The NH<sub>3</sub> source in SJV was from  
388 livestock and mineral N fertilizer, which accounted for 74% and 16% of total NH<sub>3</sub>  
389 emissions, respectively (Simon et al., 2008). Except the SJV in California, the annual  
390 surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in the croplands were mostly within the range of  $1\text{-}3 \mu\text{g N}$   
391  $\text{m}^{-3}$ , which were much lower than those in eastern China (mostly within the range of  
392  $4\text{-}10 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ). Compared with the spatial distribution of N fertilization plus N  
393 manure, the hotspots of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentration can basically reflect the  
394 distribution of high N fertilization ( $R^2=0.37$ ,  $p=0.000$  in **Fig 4 and Fig. 5**).

395 In Europe, the overall mean surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations were  $1.8 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ , with the  
396 range of  $0.04\text{-}9.49 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ . High surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations were distributed  
397 widespread in the croplands, especially in the western regions with values greater than  
398  $4 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ , such as Northern Italy (Milan and its surrounding areas), Switzerland,  
399 central and southern Germany, Eastern France (Paris and its surrounding areas) and  
400 Poland. According to Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research  
401 (EDGAR), N manure and N fertilization accounts for 53% and 43% of the NH<sub>3</sub>

402 emissions in western Europe. Overall, there was also a significant linear correlation  
403 between surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentration and N fertilization plus N manure (R<sup>2</sup>=0.39,  
404 p=0.000) in Europe, reflecting the importance of N fertilization on surface NH<sub>3</sub>  
405 concentration.

406 NH<sub>3</sub> is the most abundant alkaline gas in the atmosphere, and has implications to  
407 neutralize acidic species (such as H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and HNO<sub>3</sub>) to form ammonium salts (such as  
408 (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>). Ammonium salts are the important inorganic N  
409 components in PM<sub>2.5</sub>, which can reduce regional visibility and contribute to human  
410 disease burden (Van et al., 2015; Yu et al., 2007). Comparing surface NH<sub>3</sub>  
411 concentrations with PM<sub>2.5</sub> can benefit the understanding of the sources and the  
412 mixture of air pollution. The spatial distribution of satellite-derived PM<sub>2.5</sub> (dust and  
413 sea-salt removed) in 2014 (**Fig. S7**) gained from a previous study (Van et al., 2016)  
414 was compared with the satellite-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in 2014. On the  
415 other hand, NO<sub>2</sub> is also an important precursor of nitrate salts in PM<sub>2.5</sub>. We also  
416 included the satellite-derived surface NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (**Fig. S7**) from a previous  
417 study (Geddes et al., 2016) to compare with surface NH<sub>3</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations.

418 The hotspots of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations were highly linked with the hotspots of  
419 PM<sub>2.5</sub>. The most severe pollution occurred in the eastern China with annual average  
420 PM<sub>2.5</sub> exceeding 50 µg m<sup>-3</sup> (much higher than 35 µg m<sup>-3</sup> as the level 2 annual PM<sub>2.5</sub>  
421 standard set by World Health Organization Air Quality Interim Target-1), and annual  
422 average surface NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations greater than 8 µg N m<sup>-3</sup> and 4 µg N m<sup>-3</sup>,  
423 respectively. A previous study (Xu et al., 2017) reported that the secondary inorganic  
424 aerosols of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> can account for 65% of PM<sub>2.5</sub> based on the measurements  
425 in three sites in Beijing. NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> are the most important precursors of nitrate  
426 salts and ammonium salts, and certainly contribute to the severe pollution in the  
427 eastern China. The second severe pollution occurred in the northern India with annual  
428 average PM<sub>2.5</sub> and surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations exceeding 40 µg m<sup>-3</sup> and 4 µg N m<sup>-3</sup>  
429 respectively (surface NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations less than 1 µg N m<sup>-3</sup>). The major source of  
430 NH<sub>3</sub> in northern India was from agricultural activities and livestock waste  
431 management (Warner et al., 2016). The hotspots of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in the

432 central and eastern US were highly related to the hotspots of PM<sub>2.5</sub>. The annual  
433 average PM<sub>2.5</sub> is less than 10 µg m<sup>-3</sup> (the first level set by World Health Organization)  
434 in the most areas of the US, and only small areas had PM<sub>2.5</sub> greater than 10 µg m<sup>-3</sup>.  
435 Similarly, in western Europe, the hotspots of high surface NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>  
436 concentrations (greater than 3 µg N m<sup>-3</sup>) were consistent with the hotspots of PM<sub>2.5</sub>  
437 (greater than 20 µg m<sup>-3</sup>).

### 438 **Seasonal variations of satellite-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations**

439 To investigate the seasonal variations of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations, we took the  
440 monthly surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in 2014 as a case study (**Fig. 6**), and analyzed the  
441 seasonal surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in hotspot regions including East China (ECH),  
442 Sichuan and Chongqing (SCH), Guangdong (GD), Northeast India (NEI), East US  
443 (EUS) and West Europe (WEU) (**Fig. 7**).

444 Seasonal mean IASI-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations vary by more than 2 orders  
445 of magnitude in hotspot regions, such as the eastern China and eastern US. In China,  
446 high surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations occurred in spring (March, April and May) and  
447 summer (June, July and August) in East China (ECH), Sichuan and Chongqing (SCH),  
448 Guangdong (GD). This may be due to two major reasons. First, the timing of the  
449 mineral N fertilizer or manure application occurred in summer or spring in the  
450 croplands (Paulot et al., 2014). A previous study (Huang et al., 2012) also suggested a  
451 summer peak in NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in China, which was consistent with the summer peak  
452 in surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations. Second, the temperature in warm months is highest in  
453 one year, which favors the volatilization of ammonium ( $\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{NH}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ ).  
454 [Notably, there is a difference in the seasonal variations of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations](#)  
455 [between ECH \(peaking in June and July\) and GD \(peaking in March\), which was](#)  
456 [likely related to different crop planting, N fertilization time as well as meteorological](#)  
457 [factors \(Van Damme et al., 2015; Shen et al., 2009; Van Damme et al., 2014a\).](#) In the  
458 eastern US (EUS), high surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations appeared in warm months (from  
459 March to August, **Fig. 7**) with the maximum in May due to higher temperature and  
460 emissions in vast croplands, where the agricultural mineral N fertilizers dominate the

461 NH<sub>3</sub> emissions. A previous study also implied a spring peak in NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in the  
462 eastern US (Gilliland et al., 2006). Since the spatial patterns of high surface NH<sub>3</sub>  
463 concentrations are highly linked with the spatial distributions of croplands, seasonal  
464 surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations mainly reflects the timing of N fertilizers in the croplands.  
465 In western Europe, surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations is low in January and February, rising  
466 in March and reaching its maximum, keeping high from March to June, then declining  
467 from June to December (**Fig. 7**). High NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations appeared from March to  
468 June, mainly affected by higher temperature and frequent N fertilization (Van Damme  
469 et al., 2014b;Paulot et al., 2014;Van Damme et al., 2015;Whitburn et al., 2015).

470 To identify the major regions of biomass burning that may affect the spatial  
471 distribution of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations, we used the fire products from the  
472 moderate resolution imaging spectroradiometer (MODIS) on board the NASA Aqua  
473 and Terra. The MODIS climate modeling grid (CMG) global monthly fire location  
474 product (level 2, collection 6) developed by the University of Maryland included  
475 geographic location of fire, raw count of fire pixels and mean fire radiative power  
476 (Giglio et al., 2015). We used the Aqua and Terra CMG fire products on a monthly  
477 scale at a spatial resolution of 0.5 °latitude × 0.5 °longitude in 2014, and the fire pixel  
478 counts were used to identify the hotspot regions of biomass burning. In the major  
479 hotspots with frequent fires (mostly in the southern hemisphere), the biomass burning  
480 controlled the seasonal surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations (**Fig. S8 and Fig. S9**), such as, for  
481 instance, Africa north of equator, Africa south of equator and central South America.  
482 Apart from the large areas with frequent fires in the southern hemisphere, we also  
483 demonstrated the relationship of biomass burning and surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in  
484 China, US and Europe, and selected six typical regions in China (CH1 and CH2), US  
485 (US1 and US2) and Europe (EU1 and EU2) (**Fig. 8**) to analyze the monthly variations  
486 of fire counts and surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations.

487 In China, the first region (CH1) covers the major cropland areas in northern China  
488 including Shandong, Henan and northern Jiangsu Provinces. The fires counts  
489 were mainly from the crop straw burning, which contributes large to surface NH<sub>3</sub>  
490 concentrations. Both surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations and fire counts were found in June

491 likely related to the crop straw burning in this agricultural regions. Notably, despite a  
492 decline in fire counts in July, the surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations in July did not decrease,  
493 probably due to mineral N fertilization for new planted crops (CH1 is typical for  
494 spring and summer corn rotations) as well as the high temperature favoring  $\text{NH}_3$   
495 volatilization in July. The second region (CH2) is typical for the rice cultivation area  
496 in the southern China, where the rice was normally planted in June or July with  
497 frequent mineral N fertilization. Thus, the highest surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations  
498 occurred in June and July. This region is also typical for the winter wheat and summer  
499 rice rotations, and the wheat is normally harvested from May to July, which can lead  
500 to frequent fire counts there. Despite the more frequent fires in the second region than  
501 the first region, the surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations in CH2 were much lower than those in  
502 CH1. This may be due to the wetter climate and more frequent precipitation events in  
503 CH2 than in CH1, resulting in higher scavenging of surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations into  
504 water.

505 US1 is a region typical for forest land in the US, and the fire counts are certainly from  
506 the forest fires or anthropogenic biomass burning. The monthly variations of surface  
507  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations were consistent with the monthly variations of MODIS fire counts,  
508 which peaked in August with high temperature. Instead, US2 is a region typical for  
509 mixed agricultural and forest lands, which can be influenced by both potential mineral  
510 N fertilization and anthropogenic biomass burning or forest fires. It is clear to see that  
511 there is a peak in surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations in October resulting from the biomass  
512 burning because of the same peak in fire counts in October. However, there is also an  
513 apparent peak in surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations in May, which may result from the  
514 mineral N fertilization in this region. In Europe, the selected two regions of EU1 and  
515 EU2 are mainly covered by crops, vegetables as well as forests. For EU2, the monthly  
516 variations of surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations were consistent with the monthly variations  
517 of MODIS fire counts, which peaked in August with high temperature, implying that  
518 the biomass burning may control the seasonal surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations. For EU1,  
519 there were two peaks of surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations including April and August. The  
520 August peak can be related to the biomass burning because of the high fire counts,

521 while the April peak may be related to the agricultural fertilizations for the spring  
522 crops.

### 523 **Trends in surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in China, the US and Europe**

524 Time series of nine years' (2008-2016) IASI-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations have  
525 been fitted using the linear regression method (Geddes et al., 2016;Richter et al., 2005)  
526 for all grids on the land. The annual trend (the slope of the linear regression model) is  
527 shown in **Fig. 9**. A significant increase rate of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations (>0.2 μg N  
528 m<sup>-3</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>) appeared in eastern China, and a middle positive trend (0.1-0.2 μg N m<sup>-3</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>)  
529 occurred in northern Xinjiang, corresponding to its frequent agricultural activities for  
530 fertilized crops and dry climate (Warner et al., 2017;Liu et al., 2017b;Xu et al.,  
531 2015;Huang et al., 2012). The large increase in eastern China was consistent with the  
532 results revealed by AIRS NH<sub>3</sub> data (Warner et al., 2017). [The increase of surface NH<sub>3</sub>  
533 concentrations in eastern China was consistent with the trend of NH<sub>3</sub> emission  
534 estimates by a recent study \(Zhang et al., 2017b\)](#). China's NH<sub>3</sub> emissions increased  
535 significantly from 2008 to 2015, with an increase rate of 1.9% y<sup>-1</sup>, which was mainly  
536 driven by eastern China (Zhang et al., 2017b). [Approximately 85% of the inter-annual  
537 variations was due to the changes of human activities, and the remaining 15% resulted  
538 from air temperature changes. Agricultural activities is the main drive of NH<sub>3</sub>  
539 emission increase, of which 43.1% and 36.4% were contributed by livestock manure  
540 and fertilizer application \(Zhang et al., 2017b\)](#). In addition, the increase in surface  
541 NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in eastern China may be also linked with the decreased NH<sub>3</sub>  
542 removal due to the decline in acidic gases (NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>) (Liu et al., 2017a;Xia et al.,  
543 2016). NH<sub>3</sub> can react with nitric acid and sulfuric acid to form ammonia sulfate and  
544 ammonia nitrate aerosols. The reduction of acidic gases leads to the reduction of NH<sub>3</sub>  
545 conversion to ammonia salts in the atmosphere, which may lead to the increase of  
546 NH<sub>3</sub> in the atmosphere (Liu et al., 2017a;Li et al., 2017b). China's SO<sub>2</sub> emissions  
547 decreased by about 60% in 2008-2016, which [led](#) to a 50% decrease in surface SO<sub>2</sub>  
548 concentrations simulated by WRF model, and then resulted in a 30% increase in  
549 surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations (Liu et al., 2018).



550 In the US, the NH<sub>3</sub> increase was found in agricultural regions in middle and eastern  
551 regions with an annual increase rate of lower than 0.10 μg N m<sup>-3</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>, which was  
552 consistent with the results of AIRS NH<sub>3</sub> data for a longer time period (2003-2016)  
553 (Warner et al., 2017), while we concerned the timespan of 2008-2016 from IASI  
554 retrievals. Based on the simulation data of CMAQ model, it is also found that NH<sub>3</sub>  
555 increased significantly in the eastern US from 1990 to 2010, which is inconsistent  
556 with the significant downward trend of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions (Zhang et al., 2018). This  
557 inconsistency between NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> trends in the US was mainly due to different  
558 emission control policies. Over the past two decades, due to the implementation of  
559 effective regulations and emission reduction measures for NO<sub>x</sub>, the NO<sub>x</sub> emission in  
560 the US decreased by nearly 41% between 1990 and 2010 (Hand et al., 2014).  
561 However, this NH<sub>3</sub> increase in eastern US is likely due to the lack of NH<sub>3</sub> emission  
562 control policy as well as the decreased NH<sub>3</sub> removal due to the decline in acidic gases  
563 (NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>) (Warner et al., 2017; Li et al., 2016). As NH<sub>3</sub> is an uncontrolled gas in  
564 the US, NH<sub>3</sub> emissions have continuously increased since 1990, and by 2003 NH<sub>3</sub>  
565 emissions had begun to dominate the inorganic N emissions (NO<sub>x</sub> plus NH<sub>3</sub>) (Zhang  
566 et al., 2018). For the western Europe, the trend was close to 0 in most regions  
567 although we can observe the NH<sub>3</sub> increase in many points with small positive trend of  
568 lower than 0.1 μg N m<sup>-3</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>. Compared with the trend of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations  
569 in China and the US, the change of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in western Europe is  
570 more stable, which may be related to the mature NH<sub>3</sub> reduction policies and measures  
571 in Europe. Since 1990, Europe has implemented a series of agricultural NH<sub>3</sub> emission  
572 reduction measures, and NH<sub>3</sub> emissions decreased by about 29% between 1990 and  
573 2009 (Tørseth et al., 2012b). For example, due to serious N eutrophication, the  
574 Netherlands has taken measures to reduce NH<sub>3</sub> emissions by nearly two times in the  
575 past 20 years, while maintaining a high level of food production (Dentener et al.,  
576 2006). The N fertilizer use in Europe has decreased widespread according to the data  
577 from the World Bank (<http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/AG.CON.FERT.ZS>) with  
578 an annual decrease of -8.84~-17.7 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> y<sup>-1</sup> in fertilizer use in Europe (Warner et al.,  
579 2017).

## 580 **Conclusions**

581 The IASI-derived global surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations during 2008-2016 were inferred  
582 based on IASI NH<sub>3</sub> column measurements as well as NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles from the  
583 GEOS-Chem in this study. Global NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles on the land from the  
584 GEOS-Chem can be well modelled by the Gaussian function between 60 °N and 55 °  
585 S with R<sup>2</sup> higher than 0.90. The IASI-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations were  
586 compared to the in situ measurements over China, the US and Europe. One of the  
587 major findings is that a relatively high predictive power for annual surface NH<sub>3</sub>  
588 concentrations was achieved through converting IASI NH<sub>3</sub> columns using modelled  
589 NH<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles, and the validation with the ground-based measurements shows  
590 that IASI-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations had higher accuracy in China than the  
591 US and Europe. High surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations were found in the croplands in  
592 China, US and Europe, and surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in the croplands in China  
593 were approximately double than those in the US and Europe. Seasonal mean  
594 IASI-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations vary by more than 2 orders of magnitude in  
595 hotspot regions, such as the eastern China and eastern US. The linear trend analysis  
596 shows that a significant positive increase rate of above 0.2 μg N m<sup>-3</sup> y<sup>-1</sup> appeared in  
597 the eastern China during 2008-2016, and a middle increase trend (0.1-0.2 μg N m<sup>-3</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>)  
598 occurred in northern Xinjiang Province. In the US, the NH<sub>3</sub> increase was found in  
599 agricultural regions in middle and eastern regions with an annual increase rate of  
600 lower than 0.10 μg N m<sup>-3</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>.

## 601 **Author contributions**

602 LL and XZ designed the research; WX and XL's group conducted the field work in  
603 China; LL prepared IASI NH<sub>3</sub> products; LL and AW conducted model simulations;  
604 LL, WX, LZ, XW and ZW performed the data analysis and prepared the figures; LL,  
605 AW and XZ wrote the paper, and all coauthors contribute to the revision.

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## 614 **Data availability**

615 The IASI NH<sub>3</sub> satellite datasets are available at: <http://iasi.aeris-data.fr/NH3>. The  
616 ground-based NH<sub>3</sub> measurements in Chinese Nationwide Nitrogen Deposition  
617 Monitoring Network (NNDMN) can be requested from Prof. Xuejun Liu in China  
618 Agricultural University. The ground-based NH<sub>3</sub> measurements from the AMoN-US  
619 can be downloaded from the website: <http://nadp.sws.uiuc.edu/AMoN/>. The  
620 ground-based NH<sub>3</sub> measurements from the EMEP network can be gained from  
621 <https://www.nilu.no/projects/ccc/emepdata.html>. The IASI-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> used  
622 in this study are available from the corresponding author upon request.

## 623 **Notes**

624 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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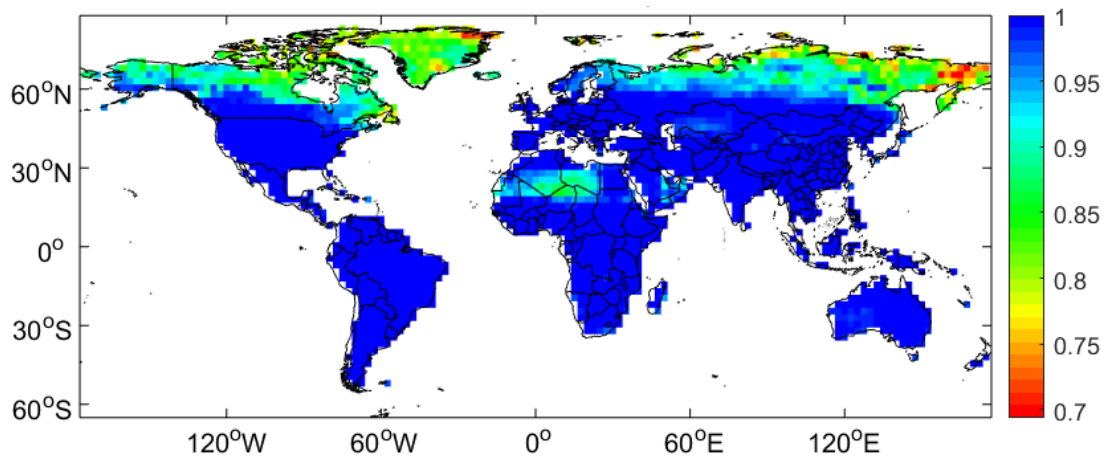
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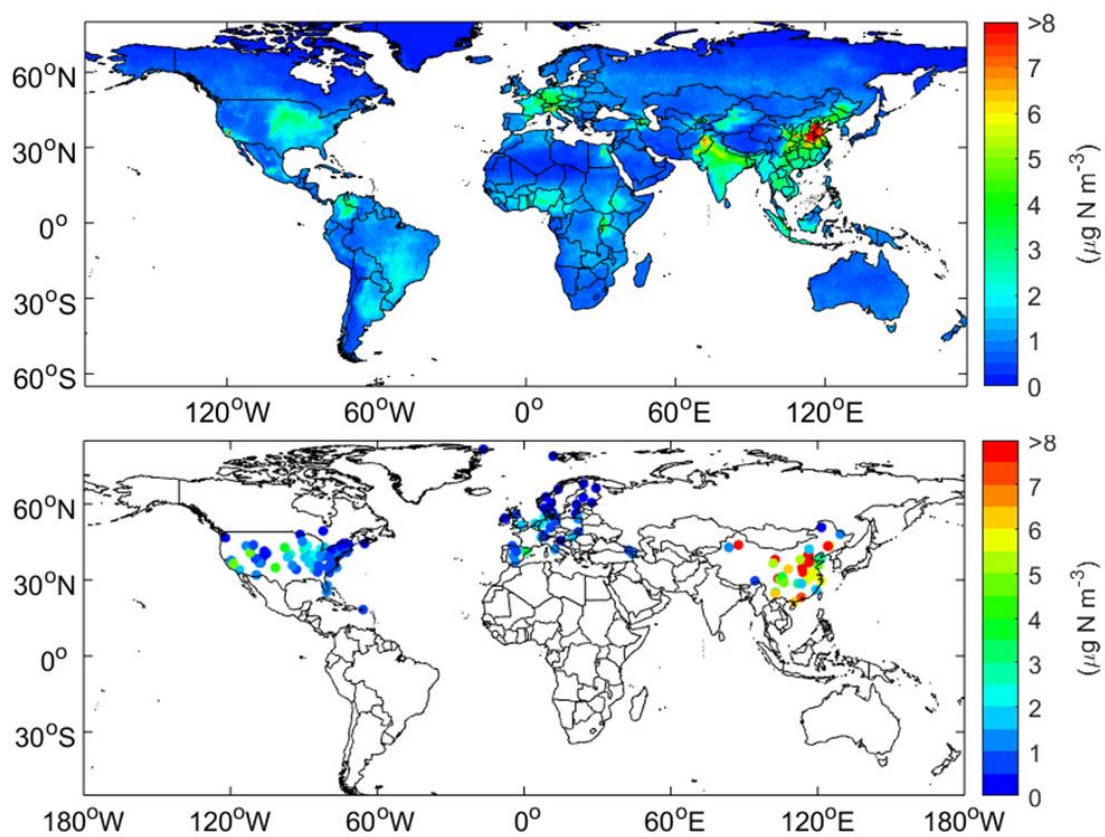
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**Fig. 1**  $R^2$  of Gaussian fit for  $\text{NH}_3$  vertical profiles.

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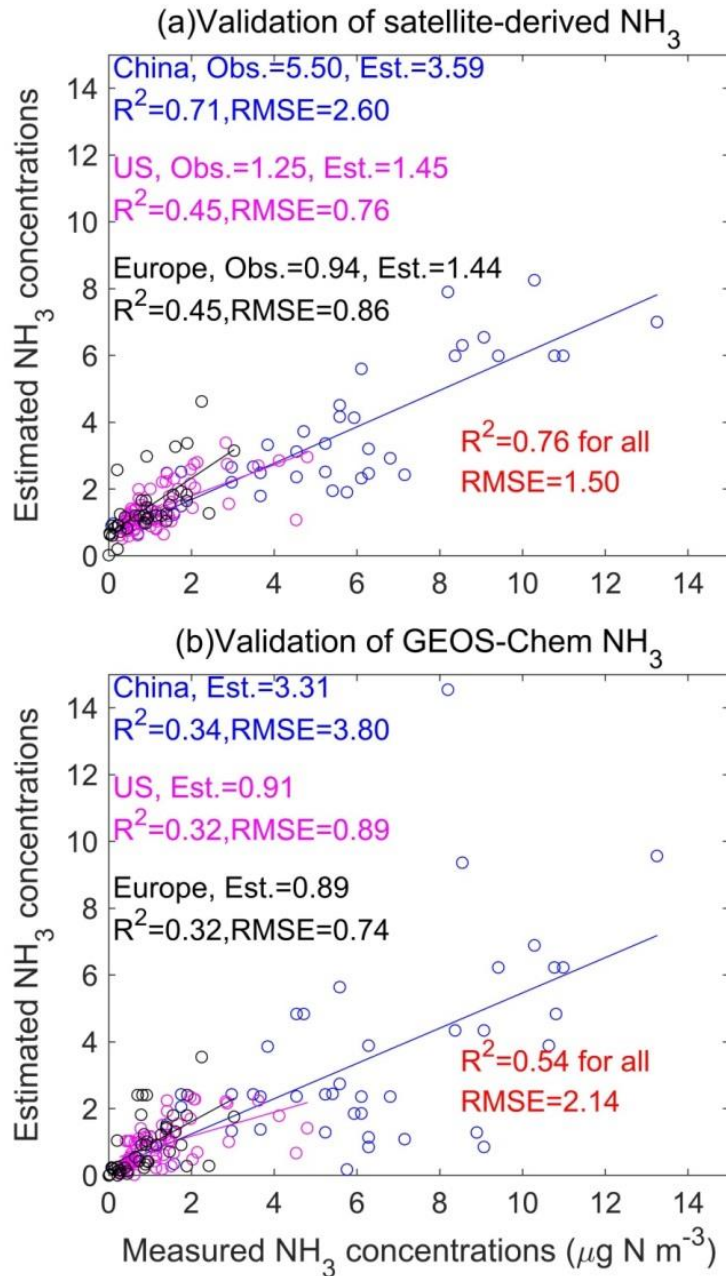


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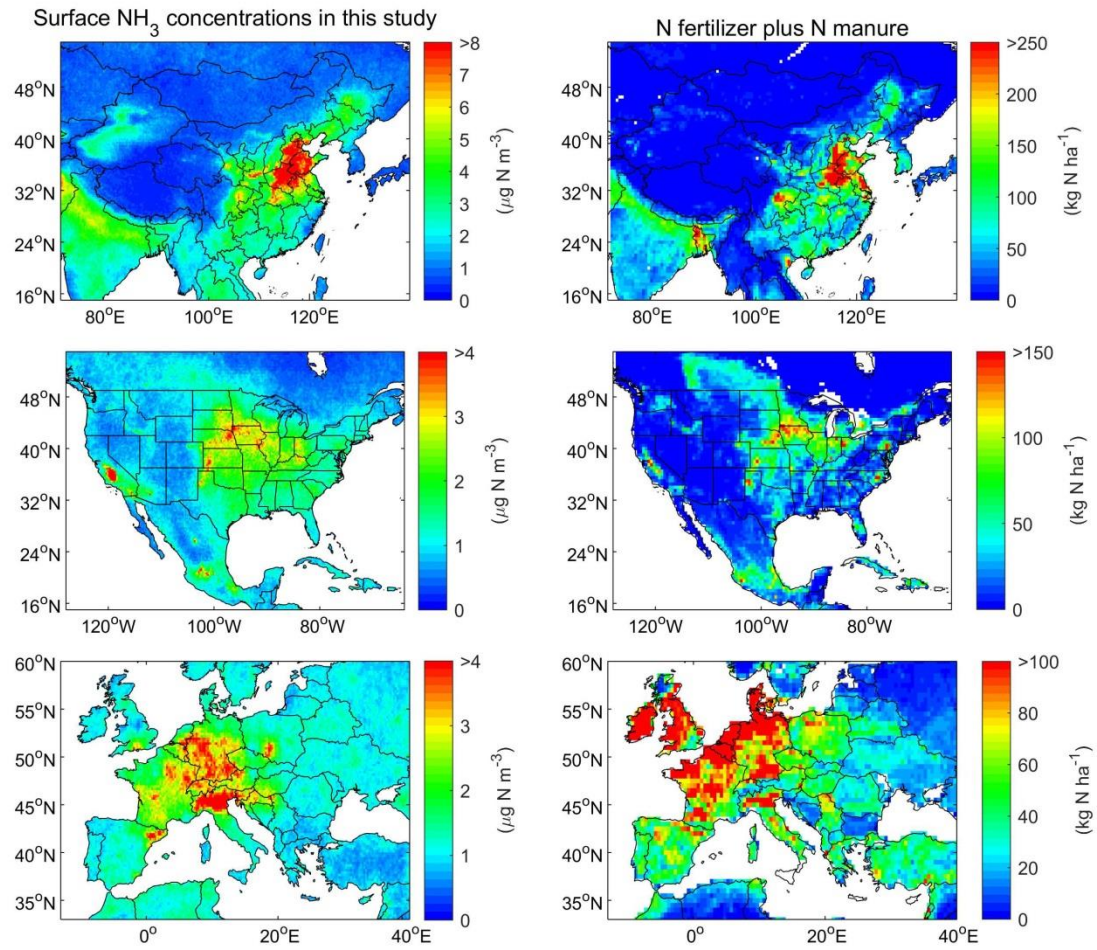
**Fig. 2** Spatial distribution of satellite-derived and measured surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations in 2014.





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**Fig. 3** Comparison of satellite-derived and GEOS-Chem modelled surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations with measured concentrations in China, US and Europe.

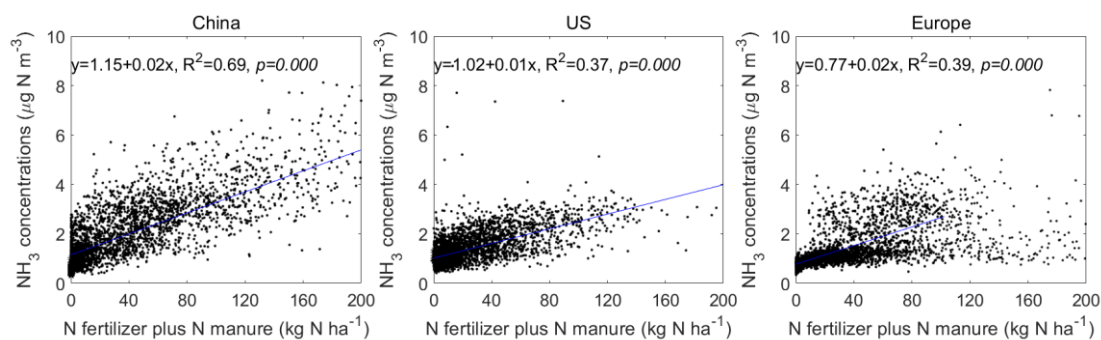


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**Fig. 4** Spatial distribution of IASI-derived surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations, and N fertilizer plus N manure in China, Europe and US.

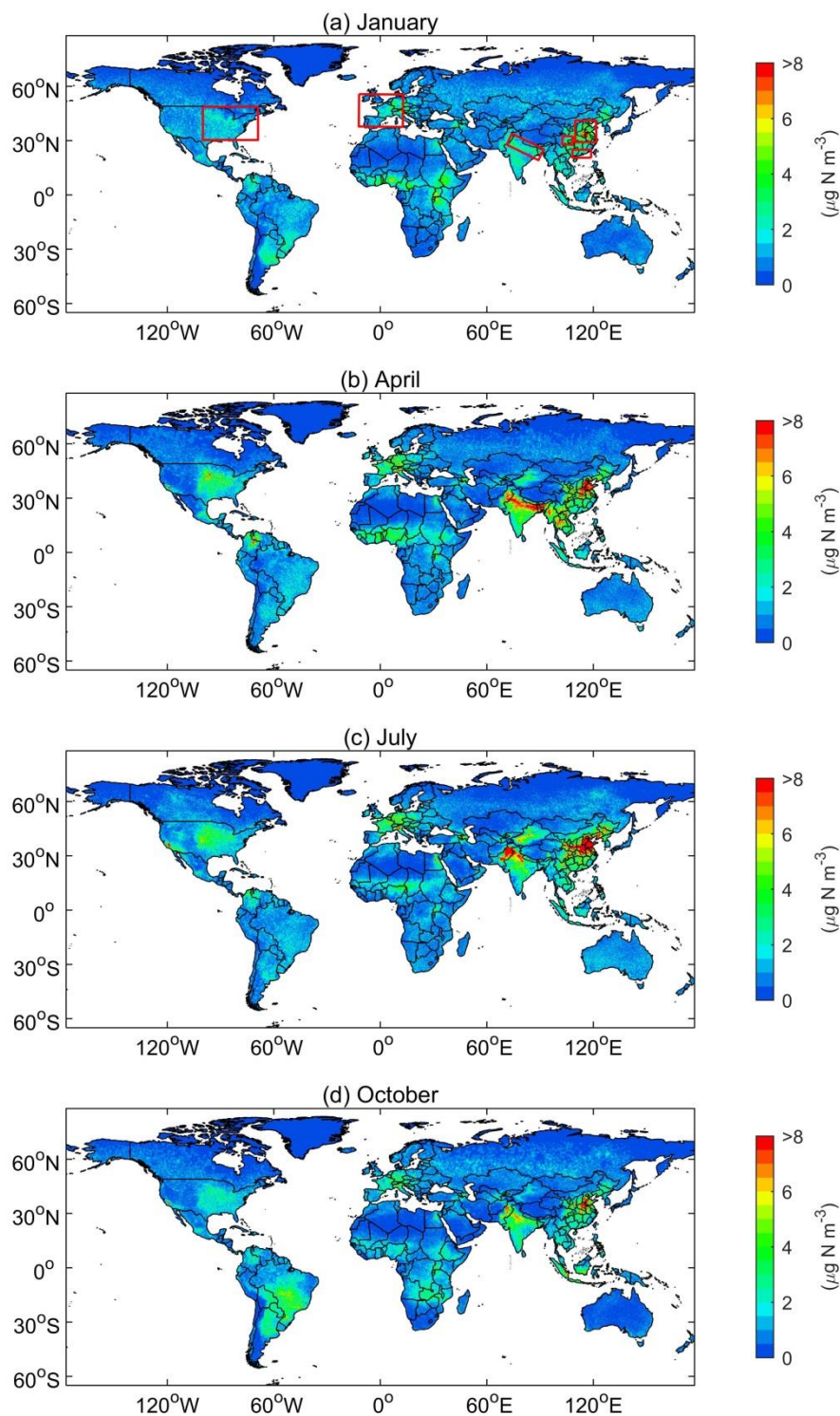
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956 **Fig. 5** Comparison of satellite-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations and N fertilizer plus N manure in  
957 China, US and Europe. The spatial resolution of satellite-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations and N  
958 fertilizer plus N manure is 0.25° and 0.5°, respectively. We firstly resampled the satellite-derived  
959 surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations to 0.5° grids, and then compared it with N fertilizer plus N manure by each  
960 grid cell. We obtained the N fertilizer and N manure data produced from McGill University (Potter et  
961 al., 2010).



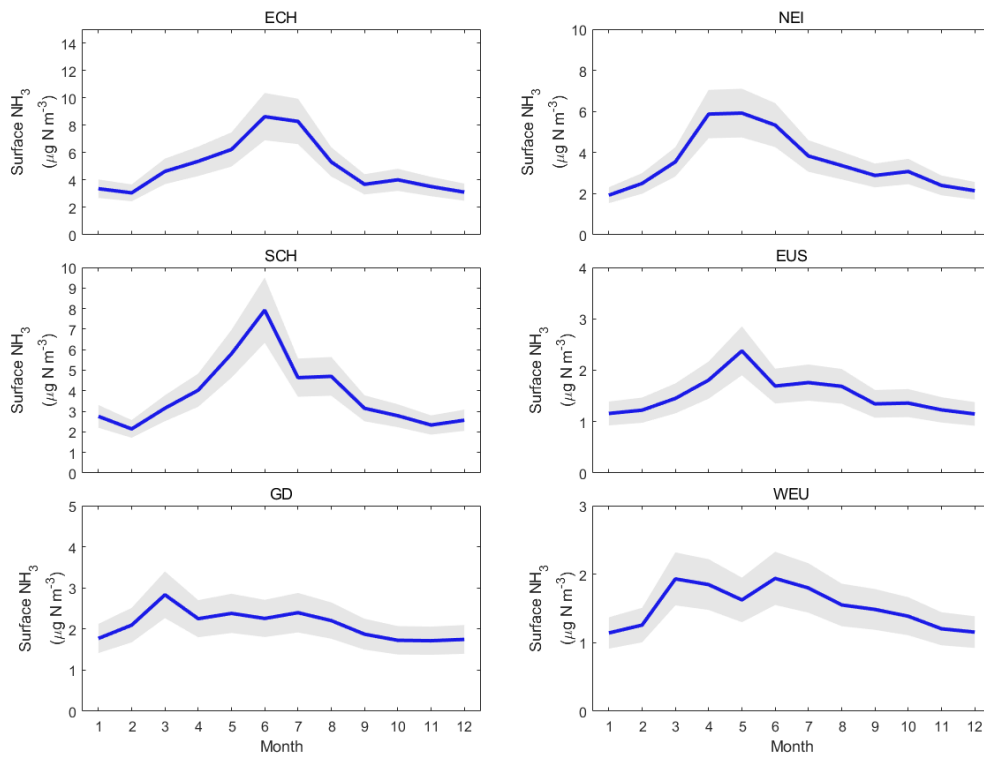
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**Fig. 6** Global surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in January, April, July and October in 2014. The red rectangular regions include East China (ECH), Sichuan and Chongqing (SCH), Guangdong (GD), Northeast India (NEI), East US (EUS) and West Europe (WEU).



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967 **Fig. 7** Monthly variations of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in hotspot regions including East China (ECH),

968 Sichuan and Chongqing (SCH), Guangdong (GD), Northeast India (NEI), East US (EUS) and West

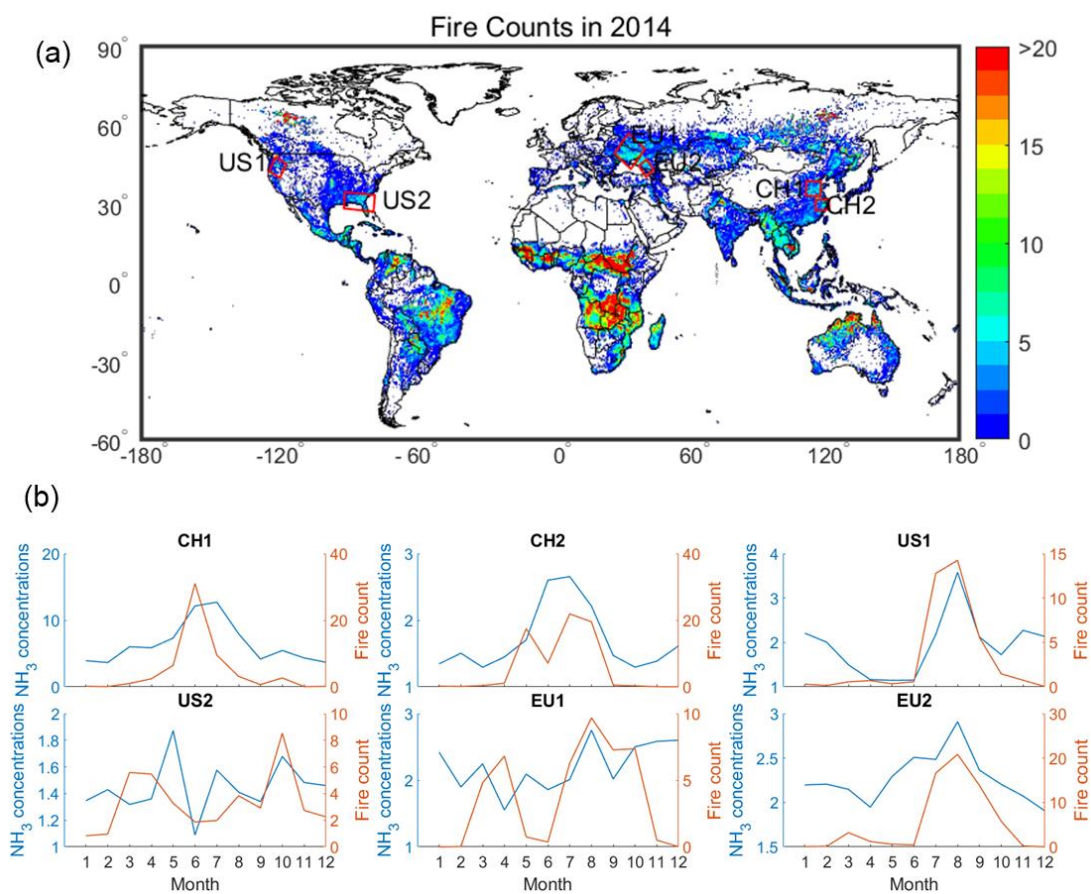
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Europe (WEU).

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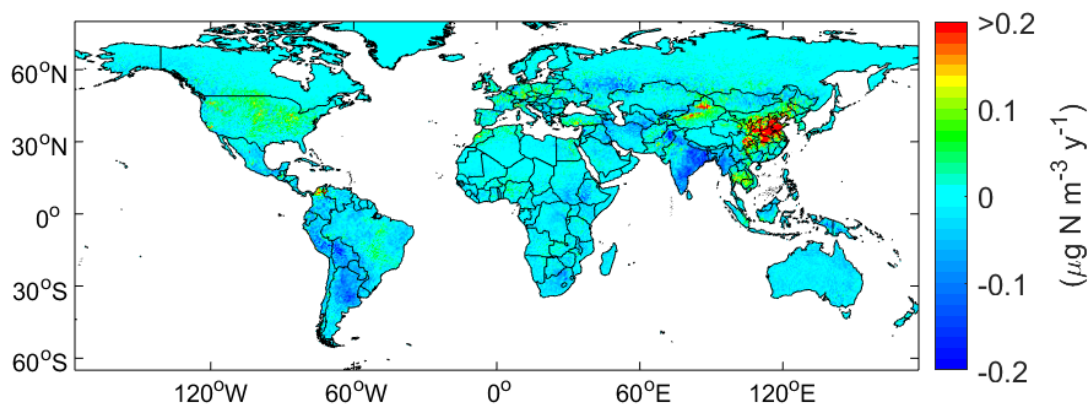
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973 **Fig. 8.** Total raw fire count from the MODIS in 2014 (a), and monthly variations of fire counts and  
974 surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in biomass burning regions in China, the US and Europe (b).

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979 **Fig. 9** Trends of IASI-derived surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations between 2008 and 2016. A linear regression  
980 was performed to calculate the trends. The significance value ( $p$ ) and  $R^2$  for the trends can be found in  
981 **Fig. S10**.

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