

1 A Multi-Resolution Assessment of the Community Multiscale Air
2 Quality (CMAQ) Model v4.7 Wet Deposition Estimates for 2002 –
3 2006

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13
14 **Abstract**

15 This paper examines the operational performance of the Community Multiscale Air Quality
16 (CMAQ) model simulations for 2002 – 2006 using both 36-km and 12-km horizontal grid
17 spacing, with a primary focus on the performance of the CMAQ model in predicting wet
18 deposition of sulfate (SO_4^-), ammonium (NH_4^+) and nitrate (NO_3^-). Performance of the wet
19 deposition estimates from the model is determined by comparing CMAQ predicted
20 concentrations to concentrations measured by the National Acid Deposition Program (NADP),
21 specifically the National Trends Network (NTN). For SO_4^- wet deposition, the CMAQ model
22 estimates were generally comparable between the 36-km and 12-km simulations for the eastern
23 U.S., with the 12-km simulation giving slightly higher estimates of SO_4^- wet deposition than the
24 36-km simulation on average. The result is a slightly larger normalized mean bias (NMB) for
25 the 12-km simulation; however both simulations had annual biases that were less than $\pm 15\%$ for
26 each of the five years. The model estimated SO_4^- wet deposition values improved when they
27 were adjusted to account for biases in the model estimated precipitation. The CMAQ model

1 underestimates NH_4^+ wet deposition over the eastern U.S, with a slightly larger underestimation
2 in the 36-km simulation. The largest underestimations occur in the winter and spring periods,
3 while the summer and fall have slightly smaller underestimations of NH_4^+ wet deposition. The
4 underestimation in NH_4^+ wet deposition is likely due in part to the poor temporal and spatial
5 representation of ammonia (NH_3) emissions, particularly those emissions associated with
6 fertilizer applications and NH_3 bi-directional exchange. The model performance for estimates of
7 NO_3^- wet deposition are mixed throughout the year, with the model largely underestimating NO_3^-
8 wet deposition in the spring and summer in the eastern U.S., while the model has a relatively
9 small bias in the fall and winter. Model estimates of NO_3^- wet deposition tend to be slightly
10 lower for the 36-km simulation as compared to the 12-km simulation, particularly in the spring.
11 The underestimation of NO_3^- wet deposition in the spring and summer is due in part to a lack of
12 lightning generated NO emissions in the upper troposphere, which can be a large source of NO
13 in the spring and summer when lightning activity is the high. CMAQ model simulations that
14 include production of NO from lightning show a significant improvement in the NO_3^- wet
15 deposition estimates in the eastern U.S. in the summer. Overall, performance for the 36-km and
16 12-km CMAQ model simulations is similar for the eastern U.S., while for the western U.S. the
17 performance of the 36-km simulation is generally not as good as either eastern U.S. simulation,
18 which is not entire unexpected given the complex topography in the western U.S.

19

20 **1 Introduction**

21 Atmospheric deposition of sulfur and nitrogen cause deleterious impacts on terrestrial and
22 aquatic ecosystems due to acidification and excess nutrients (Lovett and Tear; 2008, Driscoll et
23 al., 2001; Driscoll et al., 2003; Fenn et al., 2003). Sulfur deposition from SO_2 and SO_4^-
24 emissions contributes to acidification and nitrogen deposition from nitrogen oxide (NO_x) and
25 ammonia (NH_3) emissions contribute to acidification and excess nitrogen nutrients. Estimates of
26 wet and dry deposition of nitrogen and sulfur are needed for sensitive ecosystems, as total
27 deposition estimates are used to assess whether current or projected pollutant levels exceed a
28 point where significant harmful effects on sensitive elements of the environment are likely to
29 occur (Geiser et al., 2010). Monitoring of wet deposition is relatively sparse and monitoring of
30 dry deposition is extremely sparse, contributing to significant interpolation errors when these

1 data are used to estimate deposition in unmonitored areas. Thus, a regional air quality model like
2 the Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ; Byun and Schere, 2006) model can be used to
3 provide a more spatially complete estimate of total deposition to the sensitive ecosystems.
4 However, the model estimates must first be evaluated to establish the credibility of the model in
5 replicating the observed wet deposition.

6

7 Evaluating the ability of the air quality model to replicate observed net (wet + dry) deposition is
8 difficult. The National Atmospheric Deposition Program (NADP; <http://nadp.sws.uiuc.edu>)
9 monitoring sites provide the most complete spatial coverage of observed wet deposition across
10 the U.S. on a temporal scale suitable for air quality model evaluations. Evaluation of dry
11 deposition is even more challenging because monitoring network (e.g. Clean Air Status and
12 Trends Network) dry deposition levels are based on modeled values of deposition velocity and
13 hence are not a true measure of dry deposition. Therefore, this work focuses on wet deposition
14 to provide a test of the ability of the model to mix, transport, transform and scavenge the
15 pollutant emissions at the regional scale. Many sensitive ecosystems are in complex terrain
16 where orographic effects influence the precipitation patterns and consequently wet deposition.
17 Thus, quantifying precipitation biases as part of the wet deposition evaluation is critical.

18

19 This paper examines the performance of the CMAQ model sulfate (SO_4^-), nitrate (NO_3^-) and
20 ammonium (NH_4^+) wet deposition estimates for the 2002 – 2006 period over the continental
21 United States (CONUS) using two model grid-spacing options, namely 12-km and 36-km grid
22 spacing. The performance of the CMAQ model estimates is examined temporally using various
23 averaging periods (i.e. monthly, seasonal, annual and multi-annual) and spatially across different
24 regions, as the model performance can vary significantly in space. In cases where deficiencies in
25 model performance are identified, model improvements, such as the production of NO_x from
26 lightning and inclusion of bi-directional flux of NH_3 , are tested and their impacts on model
27 performance assessed. Together, these analyses provide insight into the strengths and
28 weaknesses of the CMAQ model in estimating wet deposition of sulfur and nitrogen to sensitive
29 ecosystems.

30

1 **2 Input Data and Model Configuration**

2 **2.1 Meteorology**

3 The CMAQ model requires gridded meteorological data to provide estimates of various
4 meteorological parameters such as temperature, wind speed and direction, relative humidity and
5 planetary boundary layer (PBL) height. The 5th generation Mesoscale Model (MM5; Grell et al.,
6 1994) is an Eulerian meteorological model that provides estimates of the meteorological
7 parameters required by the CMAQ model, and has been used and tested extensively with the
8 CMAQ model over the past 15 years. For this work, the MM5 version 3.7.4 was used for both
9 the 36-km and 12-km simulations. The 36-km MM5 domain consists of 165 by 129 grid cells
10 covering the entire CONUS, and includes portions of Canada and Mexico. The 12-km domain
11 consists of 290 by 251 grid cells covering the eastern two-thirds of the U.S., southern Canada
12 and northern Mexico.

13

14 Boundary conditions for the 2002 – 2005 36-km and 12-km MM5 simulations were provided by
15 the 40-km Eta Data Assimilation System (EDAS) data; while the 12-km North American Model
16 (NAM) data were used as boundary conditions for the 2006 36-km and 12-km MM5 simulations,
17 with any missing data filled in using the 32-km North American Regional Reanalysis data
18 (<http://www.emc.ncep.noaa.gov/mmb/rreanl/>). The 12-km NAM data are preferred for the
19 boundary conditions, but were not available for years prior to 2006. The MM5 simulations
20 utilized the Kain-Fritsch 2 (KF2) cumulus parameterization (Kain, 2004); the asymmetric
21 convective model version 2 (ACM2) PBL scheme (Pleim, 2007a,b); the Reisner 2 explicit
22 microphysics scheme (Reisner et al., 1998); the Dudhia shortwave radiation scheme (Dudhia,
23 1989); the RRTM longwave radiation scheme (Mlawer et al., 1997); and the Pleim-Xiu land
24 surface model (LSM; PX; Xiu and Pleim, 2001; Pleim and Xiu, 1995). Both the 36-km and 12-
25 km MM5 simulations utilized 34 vertical layers, with the surface layer set at approximately 36
26 meters. The meteorological outputs from both sets of MM5 simulations were processed to create
27 model-ready inputs for CMAQ using the Meteorology-Chemistry Interface Processor (MCIP;
28 Otte et al., 2005) version 3.4.

29

1 **2.2 Emissions**

2 The 2002 National Emissions Inventory (NEI) version 3 was used as the primary basis for the
3 2002 – 2006 emissions inputs. Version 3 of the 2002 NEI is documented at
4 <http://www.epa.gov/ttn/chief/net/2002inventory.html#documentation>. For the major point
5 sources, namely electric generating units, year specific continuous emission monitoring systems
6 data were used. Year specific updates to mobile emissions were done using the MOBILE6
7 model, and daily estimates of fire emissions based on satellite detection of fires were included as
8 well. NH₃ emissions from agricultural cropping practices in CMAQ are provided by a separate
9 model based on the Carnegie Mellon University ammonia emission model (Goebes et al. 2003),
10 which are then combined with the NEI. Monthly NH₃ emissions from livestock were adjusted
11 according to the inverse-modeling recommendations of Gilliland et al. (2006). For inventories
12 outside of the U.S., which include Canada, Mexico and offshore emissions, the latest available
13 base year inventories were used. The CMAQ model-ready emissions were created using the
14 Sparse Matrix Operator Kernel Emissions (SMOKE) modeling system (Houyoux et al., 2000).

15

16 **2.3 CMAQ Model Configuration**

17 The CMAQ simulations were performed at the 36-km horizontal grid spacing for the CONUS,
18 while for the eastern two-thirds of the U.S. a CMAQ simulation using 12-km horizontal grid
19 spacing was performed. Chemical boundary conditions for the 12-km simulation were provided
20 by the 36-km simulation, while boundary conditions for the 36-km CMAQ simulation were
21 obtained from a 2.0 degree by 2.5 degree (latitude-longitude), 24-vertical layer 2002 GEOS-
22 Chem (Bey et al., 2001) simulation. Since only a single GEOS-Chem simulation was available
23 and boundary data were needed for the 2002-2006 period, the median value of the 2002 GEOS-
24 Chem simulation output were extracted to create “profile” boundary conditions for the CMAQ
25 simulations. The median values were then averaged to create monthly values which were used
26 as boundary conditions for the 36-km CMAQ simulations. As such, the GEOS-Chem data used
27 for the boundary conditions represent non-year specific static monthly values.

28

1 The air quality simulations utilized CMAQv4.7 (Foley et al., 2010), the latest version of the
2 model available at that time. The simulations included a 10-day spin-up period for the 36-km
3 simulations, while a 3-day spin-up period was used for the 12-km simulations. The CMAQ
4 simulations were performed using the same horizontal dimensions as their respective
5 meteorology simulation except that the horizontal dimensions were reduced by five grid cells on
6 each of the four lateral boundaries to avoid artifacts that can appear along the domain boundaries
7 in the meteorological simulations. However, unlike the meteorological simulations which
8 utilized 34-vertical layers, the CMAQ simulations used 24-vertical layers. The CMAQ model
9 simulations used the AERO5 aerosol module (Carlton et al., 2010), the Carbon-Bond 05 (CB05)
10 chemical mechanism with chlorine chemistry extensions (Yarwood et al., 2005) and the ACM2
11 PBL scheme (Pleim, 2007a,b).

12

13 **2.4 Assessing Model Performance**

14 Assessment of the CMAQ model's wet deposition estimates is accomplished by comparing the
15 simulated wet deposition estimates to observed wet deposition values available from the NADP's
16 National Trends Network (NTN). The NTN measures total weekly wet deposition of several
17 atmospheric pollutants, including SO_4^- , NH_4^+ and NO_3^- . Since all of the SO_2 in rainwater is
18 oxidized to SO_4^- by the time the samples are analyzed for the NTN (high prevalence of
19 oxidants), the CMAQ estimates of SO_4^- wet deposition include 150% (based on the ratio of the
20 molecular weights of SO_2 and SO_4^-) of the model estimated SO_2 wet deposition to account for
21 the SO_2 captured in the observations. Because in solution the favored phase of NH_3 is NH_4^+ at
22 the pH of rainwater, the CMAQ estimates of NH_4^+ wet deposition include 106% of the model
23 estimated NH_3 wet deposition to account for reduced nitrogen (both NH_4^+ and NH_3) captured in
24 the NTN observations. Likewise, because in solution HNO_3 reacts with water and dissociates to
25 NO_3^- as the favored phase, the CMAQ estimates of NO_3^- wet deposition include 98.4% of the
26 model estimated nitric acid wet deposition to account for NO_3^- captured as nitric acid and
27 converted to NO_3^- in the NTN measurements.

28

29 The NTN consists of approximately 185 sites in the eastern U.S. (east of 110°W longitude) and
30 38 sites in the western U.S. (west of 110°W longitude). Only observations that were flagged as

1 valid in the NTN data file were used in the performance analysis. The NTN measures deposition
2 from rain, snow and sleet through a continuously operating wet deposition collector. The
3 collector opens during wet weather to allow precipitation to fall into the bucket, which is later
4 removed for analysis and replaced with a clean collector bucket. Each NTN site is also equipped
5 with a weighing-bucket rain gauge to provide a continuous record of rainfall (recorded to the
6 nearest 0.01 in).

7
8 Observations and model estimates are paired in time and space using the EPA's Site Compare
9 program, which is available for download as a tool from the Community Modeling and Analysis
10 System (CMAS) website (<http://www.cmascenter.org>). Visualization of observations and model
11 estimates, and computation of model performance statistics is accomplished through the use of
12 the Atmospheric Model Evaluation Tool (AMET; Appel et al., 2010), available for download
13 through the CMAS website. It should be noted that observations represent point measurements,
14 while the model values represent grid cell averages. No interpolation or any other type of post-
15 processing has been applied to account for the incommensurability between the observations and
16 the model estimates (e.g. Davis and Swall, 2006).

17

18 **2.5 Precipitation Bias Adjustment**

19 At least some portion of the error present in the CMAQ estimated wet deposition is due to errors
20 in the precipitation estimates from the meteorological model. Since both the NTN observed and
21 MM5 estimated precipitation data are available for each NTN site, the modeled wet deposition
22 can be adjusted to account for the error present in the model estimated precipitation. This
23 adjustment is accomplished here by linearly adjusting the CMAQ estimated wet deposition by
24 the ratio of the observed to estimated precipitation (see equation 1). For example, in the case
25 where the observed precipitation is greater than the model estimated precipitation, the ratio is
26 greater than one, and, therefore, the model estimated wet deposition is increased.

27

$$1 \quad \frac{\sum_{Seasonal / Annual} RT_{Observed}}{\sum_{Seasonal / Annual} RT_{Modeled}} * \sum_{Seasonal / Annual} WD_{Modeled} = Bias \text{ Adjusted } WD_{Modeled} \quad (1)$$

2

3 In equation 1, “RT” represents the seasonal/annual total accumulated precipitation (either
 4 observed or modeled), “WD” represents the seasonal/annual accumulated raw wet deposition
 5 estimate from the model, and the “Bias Adjusted WD” is the precipitation bias adjusted
 6 seasonal/annual wet deposition estimate from the model.

7

8 The precipitation adjustment technique assumes that the observed to modeled precipitation ratio
 9 is well correlated with the observed to modeled deposition ratio. In other words, it is not
 10 assumed that the wet deposition scales linearly with precipitation, but only that the relationship
 11 between the errors in the model precipitation estimates and the error in the CMAQ deposition
 12 estimates is linear. Since the bias adjustment was applied over the aggregated seasonal and
 13 annual totals, there were no instances in which the observed precipitation was greater than zero
 14 while the model estimated precipitation was zero. However, in instances where there is observed
 15 precipitation but no model predicted precipitation, the current method of bias adjustment would
 16 keep the model estimated wet deposition zero for all species. An analysis of the correlation
 17 between the model errors in precipitation and model errors in wet deposition for SO_4^- , NO_3^- and
 18 NH_4^+ for different years, seasons and regions is being documented in a separate manuscript. The
 19 precipitation adjustment has been found to be quite effective as an exploratory evaluation tool to
 20 help identify compensating errors in deposition predictions from the emissions and
 21 meteorological input data. The impact of the precipitation bias adjustment on model performance
 22 will be presented for each of the wet deposition species.

23

24 **3 Assessment of CMAQ Wet Deposition Performance**

25 In order to provide a comprehensive assessment of the CMAQ wet deposition estimates, several
 26 different types of analyses will be presented. The performance of the model estimates are
 27 assessed on several time scales, including monthly, seasonally, annually and finally a multi-

1 annual assessment of model performance. The performance for the 36-km and 12-km CMAQ
2 simulations will be compared to examine how similar or dissimilar the model estimates are for a
3 given time period. Since the 12-km CMAQ domain only covers the eastern two-thirds of the
4 U.S., comparison to the 36-km results will be limited to the same geographic region (herein
5 referred to as 36-km East). Results for the western one-third of the U.S. will be limited to
6 estimates from the 36-km CMAQ simulation (herein referred to as 36-km West) only, since no
7 12-km model data are available for the western U.S. for the current analysis. The model
8 estimates will also be examined spatially to identify regional biases.

9

10 **3.1 Precipitation**

11 Simulated precipitation is a critical driver in the performance of the CMAQ simulated wet
12 deposition estimates, especially since large biases in model estimated precipitation can translate
13 into biases in the CMAQ model estimates. Table 1 presents the seasonal and annual normalized
14 mean bias (NMB) for precipitation for the 12-km, 36-km East and 36-km West domains for the
15 five years simulated (RMSE values can be found in similar tables in the supplemental material).
16 For the eastern U.S., the precipitation bias and error are lowest in the winter (December, January
17 and February) and spring (March, April and May) seasons, when the majority of the precipitation
18 is on the synoptic scale (i.e. large-scale frontal systems) and can generally be well resolved by
19 the model. In the summer (June, July and August) and early fall (September, October and
20 November) a large amount of the precipitation is sub-grid scale convective rain, which
21 meteorological models tend to have difficulty representing accurately through the various
22 parameterizations, which results in higher precipitation biases in those seasons. See Fig. S1 in
23 the supplemental data for spatial plots of the NTN observed and MM5 estimated annual
24 precipitation (12-km simulation only).

25

26 While the precipitation estimates for the 12-km and 36-km East simulations have similar patterns
27 in their bias, the precipitation estimates for the 12-km simulation are consistently higher than
28 those of the 36-km East simulation. This results in a slightly larger bias in the winter, spring and
29 summer and a slightly smaller bias in the fall for the 12-km simulation. The bias and error in
30 precipitation tend to be larger for the western U.S. than for the eastern U.S., which is especially

1 evident in the summer, when precipitation is grossly overestimated in the 36-km West
2 simulation (summer average NMB = 54.5% for the five-year period). Seasonally, precipitation
3 for the eastern U.S. is overestimated in the summer and underestimated in the fall, and relatively
4 unbiased in the winter and spring, while for the western U.S. precipitation is overestimated in the
5 spring and summer and relatively unbiased in the winter and fall. Across the five-year period,
6 the annual NMB for precipitation for the 12-km simulation was typically less than 5% (the
7 exception being 2002 when the bias was significantly higher). The annual NMB for the 36-km
8 simulations tended to be slightly larger than 12-km simulation. Overall for the entire five-year
9 period precipitation is slightly overestimated in the 12-km and 36-km West simulations and
10 slightly underestimated in the 36-km East simulation.

11

12 **3.2 SO₄⁼ Wet Deposition**

13 Model estimates from both the 12-km and 36-km simulations capture the seasonal trends in the
14 observed monthly accumulated SO₄⁼ wet deposition for the 2002 – 2006 period, with the
15 estimates from the 12-km CMAQ simulation consistently higher than those from the 36-km East
16 simulation (Fig. 1). The CMAQ model on average overestimates SO₄⁼ wet deposition in the
17 eastern U.S. However, 88% of the model estimates from the 36-km East simulation and 80% of
18 the estimates from the 12-km simulation have a NMB of less than ±15% (Fig. 2). The largest
19 overestimations of SO₄⁼ wet deposition occur in the late fall and winter, generally between
20 October and March.

21

22 The bias in SO₄⁼ wet deposition estimates for the eastern U.S. was relatively small for both the
23 12-km and 36-km East simulations (Table 2). The bias is highest in the winter, with the annual
24 NMB values ranging from 8.1% to 30.7%, and a five-year average NMB of 17.2% for the 12-km
25 simulation. The bias for the 36-km East simulation was on average about 8% smaller than for
26 the 12-km simulation. The bias is smallest in the summer, with annual NMB values ranging
27 from 1.7% to 14.5% and a five-year average NMB of 5.2% for the 12-km simulation. As was
28 the case in the winter, the bias is slightly smaller for the 36-km East simulation. Bias in the
29 spring and fall periods generally falls between the performance for the summer and winter.

1
2 Sulfate wet deposition in the western U.S. is much lower than the eastern U.S. (Fig 1.). This is
3 primarily due to few large SO₂ sources in the western U.S., while the eastern U.S. has a large
4 number of coal fired power plants that emit large amounts of SO₂. The SO₄⁼ wet deposition
5 performance for the western U.S. is considerably worse than for the eastern U.S., with the NMB
6 exceeding 40% in 18 of the 60 months (Fig. 2). This result is not surprising given the
7 challenging meteorological (recall the large precipitation biases in the western U.S.) and air
8 quality conditions that exist in the western U.S. due to its complex topography. Also note that
9 SO₄⁼ wet deposition in the western U.S. is an order of magnitude less than that in the eastern
10 U.S. (Fig. 1), which may also contribute to the larger normalized bias. As was the case for the
11 eastern U.S., the poorest model performance for the western U.S. was in the winter, which had
12 an average NMB of 31.6% for the five-year period, while the summer had the lowest bias, with a
13 five-year average NMB of just 1.9%. The NMB was slightly higher in the spring (24.3%) than
14 the fall (13.9%). For the entire five-year period the average NMB for the 36-km West simulation
15 was 18.9%. Given the complexity of the terrain over much of the western U.S., a simulation
16 utilizing finer grid spacing (e.g. 12-km) may result in improved performance, as some of the
17 finer details of the topography would be captured in the modeling system.

18
19 Spatially, annual SO₄⁼ wet deposition is highest in the eastern half of the U.S. where the largest
20 SO₂ emissions occur (see Fig. S2 in the supplemental data). The highest amounts of SO₄⁼ wet
21 deposition occur in the Ohio Valley and Great Lakes regions, and stretching into parts of the
22 Northeast. While these spatial features are well captured by the CMAQ model for all five years,
23 the model tends to overestimate annual SO₄⁼ wet deposition in the Ohio Valley region, with
24 some model estimates exceeding 27 kg/ha in areas where observations indicate annual SO₄⁼ wet
25 deposition of 19 – 20 kg/ha. The model also underestimates the SO₄⁼ wet deposition along parts
26 of the coast of the Gulf of Mexico, although to varying degrees throughout the five-year period.
27 Overall the model captures the spatial variations in annual SO₄⁼ wet deposition.

28

29 **3.3 NH₄⁺ Wet Deposition**

1 The pattern of NH_4^+ wet deposition closely follows the seasonal SO_4^{2-} wet deposition pattern,
2 with a peak in NH_4^+ wet deposition in the eastern U.S. in the summer and a minimum in the
3 winter (Fig. 3). Also similar to SO_4^{2-} wet deposition, the NH_4^+ wet deposition bias for the eastern
4 U.S. is largest in the summer. However, unlike the SO_4^{2-} wet deposition, the peak
5 underprediction in NH_4^+ wet deposition in the eastern U.S. typically occurs in late spring and
6 early summer (April – June), whereas the underestimation in SO_4^{2-} wet deposition typically peaks
7 in the mid to late summer period. For the western U.S., NH_4^+ wet deposition is more often
8 underestimated than overestimated (Fig. 3), however there are several months, particularly in the
9 spring and fall seasons, when large biases occur (Fig. 4).

10

11 The largest bias in NH_4^+ wet deposition for the eastern U.S. occurs in the spring, with five-year
12 average NMBs of -19.9% and -23.6% for the 12-km and 36-km East CMAQ simulations
13 respectively (Table 3). Conversely, the spring season has the smallest bias for the western U.S.,
14 with an average NMB of just -3.4%. The winter has a relatively large bias for both the eastern
15 and western domains, with average NMBs of -13.6% and -17.5% for the 12-km and 36-km East
16 simulations, respectively, and -37.1% for the western U.S. The NMB for the summer and fall
17 periods is similar for the eastern U.S. and generally ranges between -2.0% to -20.0% across the
18 five years. Overall for the five-year period NH_4^+ wet deposition is underestimated, with the five-
19 year average NMB ranging from -12.8% to -15.7% for the three simulations.

20

21 Spatially, the highest observed annual NH_4^+ wet deposition occurs in the mid-Atlantic, Great
22 Lakes, Mid-West and portions of Northeast (Fig. S3 in the supplemental data). While the
23 CMAQ model estimates the highest annual NH_4^+ wet deposition over the Great Lakes and Mid-
24 West regions, the model consistently underestimates the spatial extent of the highest NH_4^+ wet
25 deposition in those regions (Fig. S5). The model does well estimating the localized peak in
26 annual NH_4^+ wet deposition in eastern North Carolina, where a large number of confined animal
27 feeding operations contribute to a peak in NH_4^+ wet deposition in that area. Overall, the model
28 reproduces the pattern of annual NH_4^+ wet deposition each year, but consistently underestimates
29 the magnitude of NH_4^+ wet deposition.

30

1 **3.4 NO₃⁻ Wet Deposition**

2 The NO₃⁻ wet deposition performance is dominated by large underestimations in the summer
3 (Fig. 5), which is consistent with the performance of CMAQ model estimates of aerosol fine
4 particulate NO₃⁻ (Appel et al., 2008). The CMAQ model estimates of NO₃⁻ wet deposition for
5 the fall and winter seasons are relatively consistent for the eastern U.S., with the NMB ranging
6 between ±20% for both the 12-km and 36-km East CMAQ simulations (Fig. 6). In the spring,
7 NO₃⁻ wet deposition is underestimated in the eastern U.S., with average NMBs of -14.5% and -
8 22.6% for the 12-km and 36-km East CMAQ simulations, respectively (Table 4). For the
9 western U.S. the NMB is unbiased in the spring. For the summer, the NO₃⁻ wet deposition is
10 largely underestimated for both the eastern and western U.S., with NMBs greater than -40% for
11 all three simulations. It should be noted that NO₃⁻ concentrations are small in the eastern U.S. in
12 the summer. For the entire five-year period the model underestimates NO₃⁻ wet deposition, with
13 a five-year average NMB of -14.9% and -21.4% for the 12-km and 36-km East simulations,
14 respectively, and a NMB of -6.9% for the 36-km West simulation.

15

16 There is a clear downward trend in the NTN observations of NO₃⁻ wet deposition from 2002 –
17 2006, which is also seen in the CMAQ model estimates (Fig. 5). The trend toward lower NO₃⁻
18 wet deposition may be due at least in part to the implementation of rules under the NO_x SIP Call
19 (<http://www.epa.gov/ttn/naaqs/ozone/rto/sip/index.html>) in mid 2003, which greatly reduced the
20 amount of NO_x emissions in 22 states in the eastern U.S. While the CMAQ model generally
21 does well reproducing the overall observed spatial pattern of NO₃⁻ wet deposition, the model
22 consistently underestimates the NO₃⁻ wet deposition in parts of the Northeast and Great Lakes
23 regions, specifically New York, eastern Pennsylvania and Michigan, while overestimating the
24 deposition in western Pennsylvania and West Virginia (Fig. S4).

25

26 **3.5 Corrections Impacting Wet Deposition**

27 **3.5.1 Precipitation Bias Correction**

28 The change in annual SO₄⁼ wet deposition model bias as a result of applying the precipitation
29 bias adjustment described in section 2.5 for the 12-km simulation is shown in Fig. 7. At least

1 some improvement in model bias for each of the five years occurs by applying the precipitation
2 bias adjustment. However, the improvement varies significantly from year to year, with the
3 largest improvement in model performance in 2002, where the annual NMB decreases from 21%
4 to 2%, while for 2003 and 2006 the NMB improves by only 3% or less. Spatially, the largest
5 precipitation bias typically occurs in the Northeast and Great Lakes regions (particularly in
6 2002), and those regions show the largest improvement in bias and error as a result of the
7 adjustment for precipitation bias (see Figs. S5 and S6 in the supplemental data for regional
8 statistics).

9

10 To test the robustness of the precipitation bias adjustment, a bootstrap sampling technique was
11 applied. For each year, the NTN observations were re-sampled with replacement 1000 times.
12 The sample size for each of the 1000 samples matched the number of observations available for
13 that year. The base model SO_4^- wet deposition estimates and precipitation bias corrected model
14 estimates were matched to these pseudo-sets of observations, and the RMSE for each sample was
15 computed. The bootstrap distribution of RMSE values for the base model results and
16 precipitation bias adjusted results is shown in Fig. 8. The largest decrease in RMSE occurs in
17 2002, 2004 and 2005, while the decrease in RMSE is much smaller in 2003 and 2006, which
18 confirms that the precipitation bias adjustment significantly improves the model performance in
19 2002, but provides only a minor improvement in 2003 and 2006. The improvement in model
20 performance gained by applying the precipitation bias adjustment is highly dependent on the
21 performance of meteorological model estimates of precipitation, with greater improvement in
22 model performance when the precipitation estimates are poor (e.g. 2002).

23

24 Unlike for SO_4^- wet deposition, applying the precipitation adjustment to the CMAQ estimated
25 NH_4^+ wet deposition generally results in an increase in bias (Fig. 9) and a slight increase in error
26 (Fig. 10) for each of the five years. The increase in bias is largest in 2002, where the NMB
27 increases from -3% to -19%, while for the other years the increase in bias is smaller, generally
28 ranging from 3% to 7% (Fig. S7). This suggests that the overestimation in model estimated
29 precipitation is at least partially compensating for an underestimation in NH_4^+ wet deposition. It
30 is important to note that the NH_3 emissions used in the CMAQ model simulation are constrained

1 using the results of inverse modeling, so some increase in NH_4^+ wet deposition bias is expected
2 when the model estimates are adjusted for precipitation bias.

3
4 Similar to NH_4^+ wet deposition, applying the precipitation bias adjustment to the NO_3^- wet
5 deposition model estimates generally results in an increase in bias (Fig. 11) and either a slight
6 increase or decrease in error for each of the five years (Fig. 12 and Fig. S8). One of the large
7 sources contributing to the underestimation of NO_3^- wet deposition is a lack of lightning
8 generated NO. Lightning can be a large source of upper tropospheric NO, especially in the
9 summer when lightning activity is high, and can contribute significantly to NO_3^- wet deposition
10 (Fang et al., 2010). The lack of NO produced from lightning is less of a problem in the western
11 U.S., as lightning activity is generally much lower west of the Rocky Mountains as compared to
12 the eastern U.S. In the base simulations performed here, no lightning generated NO emissions
13 were included in the emissions inventory. In order to estimate the impact of lightning generated
14 NO on NO_3^- wet deposition, this source was added to the CMAQ model simulation using the
15 process described in section 3.5.3.

16

17 **3.5.2 Bi-Directional NH_3 Exchange**

18 The underestimation in NH_4^+ wet deposition may be due in large part to the poor temporal and
19 spatial representation of NH_3 emissions, particularly those emissions associated with fertilizer
20 applications and bi-directional exchange of NH_3 from soil and vegetation surfaces. In order to
21 improve the NH_3 emissions, a bi-directional NH_3 exchange mechanism was developed for the
22 CMAQ model which was in turn coupled with an agricultural management tool and a soil
23 nitrogen geochemical cycling model to estimate NH_3 emissions from fertilized croplands (Cooter
24 et al. 2010). The agricultural management tool estimates fertilizer application as a function of
25 crop nutrient demand and the soil geochemical model was used to estimate the nitrification and
26 denitrification processes in the soil column and provided the soil water solution ammonium and
27 hydrogen ion concentrations needed in the bi-directional NH_3 model. Agricultural land use
28 categories and crop profiles were provided by the U.S. Department of Agriculture's 2002 Census
29 of Agriculture (2002 Census of Agriculture, 2004). A slightly more detailed description of the
30 bi-directional exchange mechanism is provided in the supplementary material, while a much

1 more detailed description of the mechanism will be available in a future publication focused
2 entirely on the mechanism.

3

4 To evaluate the impact that bi-directional NH_3 exchange has on the CMAQ estimated NH_4^+ wet
5 deposition, a 2002 12-km eastern U.S. CMAQ simulation that included bi-directional exchange
6 was performed, and the results were corrected for precipitation bias (Fig. 13). Including the bi-
7 directional exchange significantly reduces the bias in the precipitation corrected annual NH_4^+ wet
8 deposition, with the NMB reduced by more than a factor of three (from -19% to -6%). The
9 reduction in the model bias was due to improving the temporal resolution of NH_3 emissions from
10 a monthly profile to an hourly profile, representing grid cell level spatial variability instead of
11 county level, and modeling the soil nitrification, de-nitrification, vegetative uptake, and soil
12 evasion of NH_3 following fertilizer application rather than using state level fertilizer sales as a
13 surrogate for emissions. Note that annual total NO_3^- wet deposition changes little (< 1%) when
14 bi-directional NH_3 exchange is implemented due to offsetting increases in NO_3^- wet deposition in
15 the spring and summertime (~ 2%) and correspondingly large decreases in NO_3^- wet deposition
16 in the fall and winter. It is anticipated that a beta version of the bi-directional NH_3 exchange will
17 be available for the next version of the CMAQ model.

18

19 **3.5.3 Lightning Generated NO**

20 The lightning NO production is calculated using the convective precipitation rate from the
21 meteorological model in order to ensure that the lightning is co-located with clouds, convection,
22 and precipitation. A more complete description is available in Allen et al. (2009), but briefly,
23 first the flash frequency is calculated as a function of the convective precipitation rate. Then, for
24 each grid cell, the flash frequency is normalized such that the monthly sum of the modeled flash
25 counts is equal to the monthly sum of the flashes observed by the National Lightning Detection
26 Network (NLDN). The NLDN cloud-to-ground (CG) flash rates are multiplied by $Z+1$ to
27 account for the contribution of intra-cloud flashes (IC) to the total flash rate, where Z is the
28 climatological IC/CG ratio from Boccippio et al. (2001). This method captures the day-to-day
29 variability in flash rates, while retaining an accurate estimate of the monthly total (Allen et al.,
30 2009). For each flash, it is assumed that 500 moles of NO are produced (DeCaria et al., 2005;

1 Ott et al., 2007), which is a reasonable mid-latitude value. The NO is vertically distributed from
2 the surface to the model layer containing the convective cloud top using climatological vertical
3 flash rate information from the Northern Alabama Lightning Mapping Array (Koshak et al.,
4 2004).

5
6 For the summer of 2004, a CMAQ model simulation using 36-km grid spacing was performed
7 for the CONUS that included lightning produced NO as described above. Over the entire
8 summer, NO produced from lightning was equal to 30% of the anthropogenic NO emissions.
9 Because most of the NO produced from lightning is created in the upper troposphere, the impact
10 to surface concentrations is small, as in Kaynak et al. (2008). However, over the eastern U.S.
11 where lightning flash counts are greatest, the impact to NO_3^- wet deposition is substantial.
12 Figure 14 shows the bias in NO_3^- wet deposition at NADP monitoring sites for the CMAQ
13 simulation without lightning NO, including lightning NO, and including lightning NO and the
14 precipitation bias adjustment. For the monitoring locations east of 100 degrees W longitude, the
15 CMAQ simulation with the lightning NO production has a low bias and captures the range of
16 variability shown at the surface monitors. At the monitors west of 100 degrees W longitude, the
17 impact is small and the bias persists, owing to the low lightning flash counts in this region. An
18 implementation of the method described above for including lightning generated NO will be
19 included in the next release of the CMAQ model.

20

21 **4 Summary**

22 The CMAQ modeling system was used to estimate SO_4^- , NH_4^+ and NO_3^- wet deposition for the
23 years 2002 – 2006 for the CONUS using a 36-km grid spacing and the eastern U.S. using a 12-
24 km grid spacing. The resulting wet deposition estimates from the model were compared with
25 surface based observations of wet deposition species available across the U.S. from the NTN for
26 the five-year period. For SO_4^- wet deposition, the operational performance of the CMAQ model
27 estimates were generally comparable for the 36-km and 12-km simulations for the eastern U.S.,
28 with the 12-km simulation on average yielding slightly higher estimates of SO_4^- wet deposition
29 than the 36-km simulation. When compared to observations from the NTN, the NMB for the
30 CMAQ model estimates was slightly higher for the 12-km simulation; however both simulations

1 had annual NMBs that were less than $\pm 15\%$ each year. Bias and error in the model SO_4^- wet
2 deposition estimates were significantly reduced for three of the five years (smaller improvements
3 for the other two years) when the estimates were adjusted to account for biases in the model
4 estimated precipitation.

5
6 The CMAQ modeling system underestimates NH_4^+ wet deposition in the eastern U.S. in both the
7 36-km and 12-km simulations, with the underestimation tending to be slightly larger in the 36-
8 km simulation. The largest underestimation of NH_4^+ wet deposition occurs in the winter and
9 spring periods, while the summer and fall have slightly lower underestimations. The
10 underestimation is likely due in part to the poor temporal and spatial representation of NH_3
11 emissions, particularly those emissions associated with fertilizer applications and bi-directional
12 exchange of NH_3 flux from the soil and vegetation. Implementation of a bi-directional NH_3 flux
13 mechanism in the CMAQ model, along with improvements in the temporal and spatial
14 representation of fertilizer applications, improved the underestimation of NH_4^+ wet deposition,
15 and these changes will likely be included in the next release of the CMAQ model.

16
17 The performance for model estimates of NO_3^- wet deposition is mixed throughout the year, with
18 the model largely underestimating NO_3^- wet deposition in the spring and summer in the eastern
19 U.S., while the bias in the fall and winter is relatively small. Model estimates of NO_3^- wet
20 deposition tend to be slightly lower for the 36-km simulation as compared to the 12-km
21 simulation, particularly in the spring. One large source of the underestimation of NO_3^- wet
22 deposition is from a lack of NO produced from lightning in the upper troposphere, which can be
23 a large source of NO, particularly in the summer in the eastern U.S. when lightning activity is
24 high. CMAQ model simulations that include production of NO from lightning show a
25 substantial reduction in the NO_3^- wet deposition underestimation in the eastern U.S. in the
26 summer as compared to simulations without lightning NO. There is little impact on bias in the
27 western U.S. when lightning generated NO is included due to the relatively low amount of
28 lightning activity in the western U.S.

29

1 Overall, performance for the 36-km and 12-km CMAQ model simulations was similar for the
2 eastern U.S., while for the western U.S. the performance of the 36-km simulation was generally
3 not as good as either eastern U.S. simulation. On an annual basis, the model performance for all
4 three wet deposition species was relatively consistent (NMB < 30%), with mostly small
5 variations in normalized bias (standard deviation < 3%) over the five-year period for the eastern
6 U.S. Annual variations in NMB were larger for the western U.S., with a standard deviation > 5.5
7 %. This suggests that the modeling system does relatively well handling the year-to-year
8 variability in meteorology and emissions that occur over longer periods of time, particularly for
9 the eastern U.S. As annual air quality model simulations become more routine, it is likely that
10 the five-year performance assessment presented here could be extended to cover a longer time-
11 period (e.g. a decade). Additionally, expanding the 12-km simulation to include the western U.S.
12 may result in improved model performance over the 36-km simulation given the complexity of
13 the terrain in the western U.S.

14

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20

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24

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23
24

1 Table 1. Seasonal and annual NMB (%) for precipitation for the 12-km and 36-km CMAQ model
 2 simulations.
 3

	CMAQ Domain	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	Five-Year Average
Winter	12-km	-0.4	-1.8	-1.4	-1.9	-1.8	-1.5
	36-km East	-2.6	-7.1	-4.8	-4.9	-10.8	-6.0
	36-km West	-10.0	0.6	-3.8	-3.6	-1.4	-3.6
Spring	12-km	20.2	0.5	9.3	4.9	12.8	9.5
	36-km East	8.9	-6.8	-1.6	-5.6	0.8	-0.9
	36-km West	9.7	-1.7	24.2	8.7	20.8	12.3
Summer	12-km	44.8	12.3	20.2	23.9	15.0	23.2
	36-km East	42.2	6.2	8.4	16.3	0.4	14.7
	36-km West	64.3	85.3	43.9	49.5	29.7	54.5
Fall	12-km	-16.9	-15.5	-16.1	-20.7	-15.4	-16.9
	36-km East	-16.6	-20.0	-18.4	-22.1	-22.2	-19.9
	36-km West	-11.6	8.2	-7.8	9.5	14.2	2.5
Annual	12-km	12.9	-0.1	4.1	2.4	2.4	4.3
	36-km East	9.0	-6.0	-3.5	-3.2	-8.4	-2.4
	36-km West	0.5	5.7	5.8	10.7	10.9	6.7

4
5

1 Table 2. Seasonal and annual NMB (%) for SO₄⁼ wet deposition for the 12-km and 36-
 2 kmCMAQ model simulations.

3

	CMAQ Domain	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	Five-Year Average
Winter	12-km	8.1	12.7	26.4	30.7	8.1	17.2
	36-km East	-0.8	5.2	16.3	23.1	1.0	9.0
	36-km West	14.1	49.7	39.4	32.5	22.1	31.6
Spring	12-km	8.1	2.8	7.8	3.5	3.8	5.2
	36-km East	-0.6	-4.5	-1.3	-5.3	-5.8	-3.5
	36-km West	27.7	29.3	38.5	2.5	23.6	24.3
Summer	12-km	14.5	3.9	8.1	1.7	2.1	6.1
	36-km East	9.3	0.0	2.6	-2.4	-3.6	1.2
	36-km West	8.7	-9.8	25.8	11.5	-26.8	1.9
Fall	12-km	11.5	12.2	13.3	-1.8	7.2	8.5
	36-km East	5.9	5.9	5.1	-7.9	-1.4	1.4
	36-km West	-4.8	38.0	13.0	19.1	4.0	13.9
Annual	12-km	11.0	6.4	11.4	6.0	4.6	7.9
	36-km East	4.2	0.5	3.7	-1.5	-3.0	0.8
	36-km West	12.6	29.9	28.4	13.0	10.8	18.9

4

5

1 Table 3. Seasonal and annual NMB (%) for NH₄⁺ wet deposition for the 12-km and 36-km
 2 CMAQ model simulations.
 3

	CMAQ Domain	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	Five-Year Average
Winter	12-km	-19.4	-18.3	-13.3	2.0	-18.9	-13.6
	36-km East	-23.5	-25.0	-18.9	1.5	-21.7	-17.5
	36-km West	-39.0	-41.5	-35.6	-42.2	-27.2	-37.1
Spring	12-km	-13.5	-28.1	-17.7	-20.0	-20.4	-19.9
	36-km East	-16.8	-30.5	-22.1	-24.5	-23.9	-23.6
	36-km West	-2.5	-19.7	0.8	-5.2	9.4	-3.4
Summer	12-km	-7.8	-8.6	-2.2	-7.8	-10.4	-7.4
	36-km East	-8.0	-8.0	-2.2	-8.3	-11.9	-7.7
	36-km West	-19.3	-43.4	10.3	0.3	-41.4	-18.7
Fall	12-km	-8.6	-3.5	-6.5	-20.5	-8.5	-9.5
	36-km East	-11.9	-6.2	-9.7	-20.6	-11.8	-12.0
	36-km West	-42.3	14.6	-9.4	23.0	-22.7	-7.4
Annual	12-km	-11.2	-16.0	-9.8	-13.2	-14.0	-12.8
	36-km East	-13.4	-17.9	-12.5	-15.5	-16.6	-15.2
	36-km West	-25.0	-23.5	-9.6	-5.4	-15.2	-15.7

4

1 Table 4. Seasonal and annual NMB (%) for NO₃⁻ wet deposition for the 12-km and 36-km
 2 CMAQ model simulations.
 3

	CMAQ Domain	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	Five-Year Average
Winter	12-km	12.3	10.1	16.9	20.6	8.8	13.7
	36-km East	3.9	0.5	7.4	12.0	1.8	5.1
	36-km West	5.8	21.6	24.9	11.2	17.2	16.1
Spring	12-km	-8.7	-13.3	-15.3	-15.6	-19.7	-14.5
	36-km East	-16.4	-20.9	-23.6	-24.2	-28.1	-22.6
	36-km West	-7.3	-2.7	-6.6	-1.3	18.1	0.0
Summer	12-km	-38.0	-39.4	-38.7	-39.9	-45.4	-40.3
	36-km East	-40.3	-41.9	-43.2	-43.4	-49.9	-43.7
	36-km West	-49.6	-62.0	-36.2	-26.4	-63.9	-47.6
Fall	12-km	3.7	2.4	11.5	-9.0	-1.1	1.5
	36-km East	-3.4	-4.5	3.0	-14.1	-9.2	-5.6
	36-km West	-29.0	16.3	-6.2	9.2	-16.7	-5.3
Annual	12-km	-12.5	-15.6	-12.8	-14.6	-19.7	-15.0
	36-km East	-18.4	-21.6	-20.1	-23.1	-26.4	-21.9
	36-km West	-18.0	-6.0	-4.7	-1.8	-7.4	-7.6

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 6

1 **Figure Captions**

2

3 Figure. 1. Monthly accumulated (across all sites) SO_4^- wet deposition (kg/ha) for the eastern
4 U.S. NTN observations (black diamonds), 12-km CMAQ simulation (red squares), 36-km East
5 CMAQ simulation (blue triangles), western U.S. NTN observations (dashed; green diamonds)
6 and 36-km West CMAQ (dashed; yellow triangles). The scale for the western U.S. values is
7 given on the right y-axis.

8

9 Figure. 2. SO_4^- wet deposition NMB for the 12-km CMAQ simulation (red diamonds), 36-km
10 East CMAQ simulation (blue squares) and the 36-km West CMAQ simulation (green circles).

11

12 Figure. 3. Box plots of annual modeled – observed SO_4^- wet deposition for model wet deposition
13 estimates without any adjustment for precipitation bias (“Base Model”; blue) and the for model
14 estimates adjusted for precipitation errors (“Precip. Adjusted”; red). The black line within the
15 box represents the median bias, shading represents the range of the 25% to 75% quartile, and the
16 dashed lines represent the range of the 5% to 95% values.

17

18 Figure. 4. Distribution of RMSE based on 1000 bootstrap samples of the modeled and observed
19 SO_4^- wet deposition. Results for model estimates without any adjustment for precipitation bias
20 (“Base Model”) are shown in blue and for model estimates adjusted for precipitation errors
21 (“Precip. Adj.”) are red. The bold lines indicate the RMSE values from the original dataset.

22

23 Figure. 5. Monthly accumulated (across all sites) NH_4^+ wet deposition (kg/ha) for the eastern
24 U.S. NTN observations (black diamonds), 12-km CMAQ simulation (red squares), 36-km East
25 CMAQ simulation (blue triangles), western U.S. NTN observations (dashed; green diamonds)
26 and 36-km West CMAQ (dashed; yellow triangles). The scale for the western U.S. values is
27 given on the right y-axis.

28

1 Figure. 6. NH_4^+ wet deposition NMB for the 12-km CMAQ simulation (red diamonds), 36-km
2 East CMAQ simulation (blue squares) and the 36-km West CMAQ simulation (dashed; yellow
3 triangles).

4

5 Figure. 7. Box plots of annual modeled – observed NH_4^+ wet deposition for model wet
6 deposition estimates without any adjustment for precipitation bias (“Base Model”; blue) and the
7 for model estimates adjusted for precipitation errors (“Precip. Adjusted”; red). The black line
8 within the box represents the median bias, shading represents the range of the 25% to 75%
9 quartile, and the dashed lines represent the range of the 5% to 95% values.

10

11 Figure. 8. Distribution of RMSE based on 1000 bootstrap samples of the modeled and observed
12 NH_4^+ wet deposition. Results for model estimates without any adjustment for precipitation bias
13 (“Base Model”) are shown in blue and for model estimates adjusted for precipitation errors
14 (“Precip. Adj.”) are red. The bold lines indicate the RMSE values from the original dataset.

15

16

17 Figure. 9. Box plots of modeled – observed NH_4^+ wet deposition for the eastern U.S. (12-km
18 CMAQ simulation only) for 2002. Shown are the model NH_4^+ wet deposition biases for the base
19 CMAQ simulation (“Base Model”; light blue), the base simulation with precipitation bias
20 adjustment (“Precip. Adjusted Base”; red), the simulation with bi-directional NH_3 flux only
21 (“Bidi NH_3 ”; dark blue), and the simulation with both precipitation bias adjusted NH_4^+ wet
22 deposition and bi-directional NH_3 flux included (“Precip. Adjusted Bidi NH_3 ”; dark red).

23

24 Figure. 10. Monthly accumulated (across all sites) NO_3^- wet deposition (kg/ha) for the eastern
25 U.S. NTN observations (black diamonds), 12-km CMAQ simulation (red squares), 36-km East
26 CMAQ simulation (blue triangles), western U.S. NTN observations (dashed; green diamonds)
27 and 36-km West CMAQ (dashed; yellow triangles). The scale for the western U.S. values is
28 given on the right y-axis.

1

2 Figure. 11. NO_3^- wet deposition NMB for the 12-km CMAQ simulation (red diamonds), 36-km
3 East CMAQ simulation (blue squares) and the 36-km West CMAQ simulation (dashed; yellow
4 triangles).

5

6 Figure 12. Box plots of annual modeled – observed NO_3^- wet deposition for model wet
7 deposition estimates without any adjustment for precipitation bias (“Base Model”; blue) and the
8 for model estimates adjusted for precipitation errors (“Precip. Adjusted”; red). The black line
9 within the box represents the median bias, shading represents the range of the 25% to 75%
10 quartile, and the dashed lines represent the range of the 5% to 95% values.

11

12 Figure. 13. Distribution of RMSE based on 1000 bootstrap samples of the modeled and observed
13 NO_3^- wet deposition. Results for model estimates without any adjustment for precipitation bias
14 (“Base Model”) are shown in blue and for model estimates adjusted for precipitation errors
15 (“Precip. Adj.”) are red. The bold lines indicate the RMSE values from the original dataset.

16

17 Figure. 14. Box plots of modeled – observed NO_3^- wet deposition for the eastern (left) and
18 western (right) U.S. for the summer of 2004. Shown are the model NO_3^- wet deposition biases
19 for the simulation without lightning NO_x included (“Base Model”; light blue), the simulation
20 with precipitation bias adjustment only (“Precip. Adjusted Base; red), the simulation with
21 lightning NO_x only included (“L NO_x ”; dark blue), and the simulation with both precipitation
22 bias adjusted NO_3^- wet deposition and lightning NO_x included (“Precip. Adjusted L NO_x ”; dark
23 red).