1 # Simulating $\delta^{15}N$ of atmospheric NO_x in CMAQ version 5.2.1, based on
2 ^{15}N incorporated SMOKE version 4.6 and WRF version 4.0 for assessing
3 the role atmospheric processes plays in controlling the isotopic
4 composition of NO_x, NO_y, and atmospheric nitrate

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1   Abstract

2   Nitrogen oxides (NO_x = nitric oxide (NO) + nitrogen dioxides (NO_2)) are important trace gases

3   that affect atmospheric chemistry, air quality, and climate. Despite the importance of NO_x

4   emissions, there are significant uncertainties in NO_x emission inventories. After NO_x from

5   different sources being emitted into the atmosphere, its composition will change due to

6   atmospheric processes. In this study, we used the nitrogen stable isotope composition of NO_x

7   ($\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$) to trace the changes in $\delta^{15}N$ values along the "journey" of atmospheric NO_x, by

8   incorporating ^{15}N into the emission input dataset prepared from the previous companion research

9   (Fang & Michalski, 2020) to run CMAQ (the Community Multiscale Air Quality Modeling

10   System). The simulated spatiotemporal patterns in NO_x isotopic composition were compared with

11   corresponding atmospheric measurements in West Lafayette, Indiana, USA. The results indicate

12   that estimating of atmospheric $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ using CMAQ shows better agreement with observation

13   than using SMOKE (Sparse Matrix Operator Kernel Emissions), due to the consideration of

14   mixing, disperse, transport, and deposition of NO_x emission from different sources.

16   1. Introduction

17   NO_x (NO_x = NO + NO_2) are important trace gases that affect atmospheric chemistry, air

18   quality, and climate. The NO_x could be converted into NO_y (NO_y = NO_x + HONO + HNO_3 +

19   HNO_4 + N_2O_5 + other N oxides) in the atmospheric NO_x cycle. During this process, the ground-

20   level concentration of O_3 is elevated and secondary particles are generated. Secondary aerosols in

21   turn affect cloud physics, enhancing the reflection of solar radiation (Schwartz, S. E., 1996) and

22   are hazardous to human health (Lighty et al., 2000). Due to its impacts on air quality, climate,

23   human health, and the environment understanding the spatial and temporal variation in the sources

24   of NO_x is a vital scientific question. However, there are still a number of significant uncertainties

25   in the NO_x budget despite years of research. These include a). soil NO_x emissions caused by the

26   application of N fertilizers (Shepherd, 1991; Ludwig et al., 2001; Galloway et al., 2004; Hudman,

27   2012; Houlton et al., 2013; Pilegaard, 2013) and the role of vegetation (Johansson, 1987; Jacob &

28   Wofsy, 1990; Hanson & Lindberg, 1991; Yienger & Levy II, 1995; Thoene, Rennenberg & Weber,

29   1996; Slovik et al., 1996; Webber & Rennenberg, 1996; Almaraz et al., 2018); b). emissions from

30   on-road vehicles estimated by different algorithms (Pierson et al., 1996; Singer & Harley, 1996;

31   Cicero-Fernandez et al., 1997; Dreher & Harley, 1998; Dreher & Harley, 1998; Sawyer et al., 2000;

1   Parrish, 2006); and c). power plant NO_x emissions due to the implementation of different NO_x

2   emission control technologies (Felix et al., 2012; Srivastava et al., 2005; Xing et al., 2013).

3   Previous research has shown that there are distinctive differences in $\delta^{15}N$ values for NO_x from

4   different emission sources (Fig. 1), such as soil (Li & Wang, 2008; Felix & Elliott, 2014; Yu &

5   Elliott, 2017; Miller et al., 2018), wastes (Felix & Elliott, 2014), vehicles (Moore, 1977; Heaton,

6   1990; Ammann et al., 1999; Pearson et al., 2000; Savard et al., 2009; Redling et al., 2013; Fibiger,

7   2014; Felix & Elliott, 2014; Walters et al., 2015a; Walters et al., 2015b), and power plants (Heaton,

8   1987; Heaton, 1990; Snape, 2003; Felix et al., 2012; Felix et al., 2015; Walters et al, 2015a; Savard

9   et al., 2017). Thus, the nitrogen stable isotope composition ($\delta^{15}N$) of NO_x could be an effective

10   tracer of atmospheric NO_x sources. The $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ is determined by

11        $$\delta^{15}N(NO_x)\ (‰) = [(^{15}NO_x/^{14}NO_x) / (^{15}N_2/^{14}N_2)\ _{air} -1] \times 1000 \qquad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

12   where $^{15}NO_x/^{14}NO_x$ is the measurement of relative abundance of ^{15}N to ^{14}N in atmospheric NO_x,

13   compared with the ratio of nitrogen in the air, of which has a $^{15}N_2/^{14}N_2 = 0.0036$.
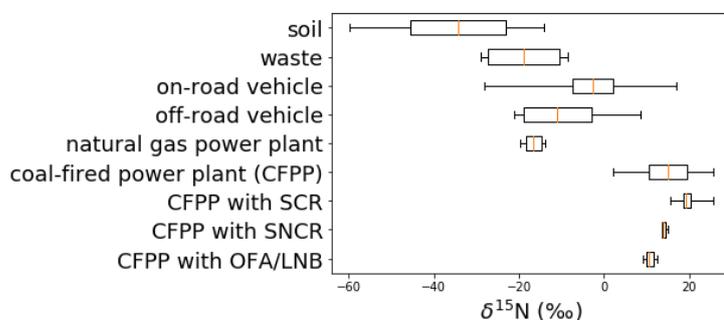
Figure 1: Box (lower quartile, median, upper quartile) and whisker (lower extreme, upper extreme) plot of the distribution of $\delta^{15}N$ values for NO_x emission sources

14   Here we have simulated the $\delta^{15}N$ values of atmospheric NO_x within the Midwestern United

15   States, under different scenarios, and compared with the recent measurements. The factors required

16   to account for the processes that alter $\delta^{15}N$ of atmospheric NO_x during the NO_x chemical lifetime

17   are: a). The variability of the $\delta^{15}N$ values of NO_x emissions in time and space; b). The transport

18   and mixing of tropospheric NO_x by meteorology; c.) The wet and dry deposition of NO_x/NO_y; and

19   d). The isotope effects occurring during the tropospheric photochemistry that transforms NO_x into

20   NO_y. In a companion paper (Fang & Michalski, 2020), we discussed the effects due to the variation

21   of the $\delta^{15}N$ value of different NO_x emission sources and their variation in time and space. In this

1   previous study (Fang & Michalski, 2020), ^{15}N was incorporated into the US EPA trace gas

2   emission model SMOKE (Sparse Matrix Operator Kernel Emissions), in order to simulate the

3   spatiotemporal patterns in the isotopic composition NO_x and compare them with corresponding

4   atmospheric measurements. However, the variability in NO_x emissions over time and space is not

5   sufficient to resolve the spatial and temporal changes in the measured $\delta^{15}N$ values, due to the bias

6   of the static SMOKE output files. For example, NO_x emitted from a single grid cell dominated by

7   a coal-fired power plant would result in a NO_x $\delta^{15}N$ around +12‰. If this grid cell were surrounded

8   by a large array of grid cells dominated by agricultural land-use with a $\delta^{15}N$ of -30‰, the

9   impression is that the region would have a $\delta^{15}N$ value close to -30‰. However, since the power

10   plant emits much more NO_x than the surrounding agricultural fields what would be expected for

11   the actual regional NO_x $\delta^{15}N$ value is biased by the finer emission grid scale. This bias was reduced

12   by weighting each grid cell's NO_x emission relative to the regional total (Fang & Michalski, 2020).

13   In other words, the fine-scale grids were expanded to larger grids, based on assumptions about the

14   NO_x lifetime and transport length scales. This is an unsatisfactory method since the transport of

15   atmospheric NO_x is not controlled by radial diffusion, rather by meteorology/eddy diffusion driven

16   by pressure gradients.

17   In this work, we explore the effects from the second and third factors, the impacts from

18   atmospheric transport and deposition processes, by incorporating an input dataset of ^{15}N emissions

19   used in simulations by the Chemistry-Transport Model (CTM) used in CMAQ (The Community

20   Multiscale Air Quality Modeling System). We have previously explored the isotope effects arising

21   from tropospheric photochemistry using a 0D box model (Michalski et al., 2020). This ^{15}N isotope

22   reaction scheme will be incorporated into CMAQ as a new chemical mechanism in order to use

23   CMAQ to simulate the $\delta^{15}N$ of NO_y compounds in the subsequent research. The goal of this paper

24   is to explore how atmospheric processes alter the $\delta^{15}N$ of atmospheric NO_x in time and space in

25   the Midwestern US in the absence of isotope effects occurring during the photochemical

26   transformation of NO_x (source and mixing hypothesis).

28   ## 2. Methodology

29   In this study, we investigate the role of meteorological transport and removal processes play

30   in the spatiotemporal distribution of NO_x $\delta^{15}N$ values. The ^{15}N emission dataset previously

31   developed (Fang & Michalski, 2020) was used as input for CMAQ to simulate the meteorological

32   transport effects (advection, eddy diffusion, etc). In addition, CMAQ simulated the effect of NO_x

1 (nitrate) removal by dry and wet deposition rate is assessed to determine the role of chemistry and

2 deposition might play in the $\delta^{15}N$ of NO_x and atmospheric nitrate. The isotope effects associated

3 with the photochemical transformation of NO_x into HNO_3 and other higher N oxides are ignored,

4 therefore, this paper only focuses on mixing effects and "lifetime chemistry", which blur the grid

5 specific NO_x $\delta^{15}N$ value across the regional scale. The simulations using the same 2002 National

6 Emission Inventory (NEI) but different meteorology conditions (2002 and 2016) were compared,

7 in order to explore how meteorology condition impacts the atmospheric $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$. Then

8 simulations using the same meteorology condition (2016) but different emission inventories (2002

9 NEI and 2016 NEI) were compared, in order to explore how emission inventory impacts the

10 atmospheric $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$. The simulations cover the full domain and nested domain were conducted,

11 in order to explore and eliminate the bias near the domain boundary.

13 ## 2.1 The domain of the study
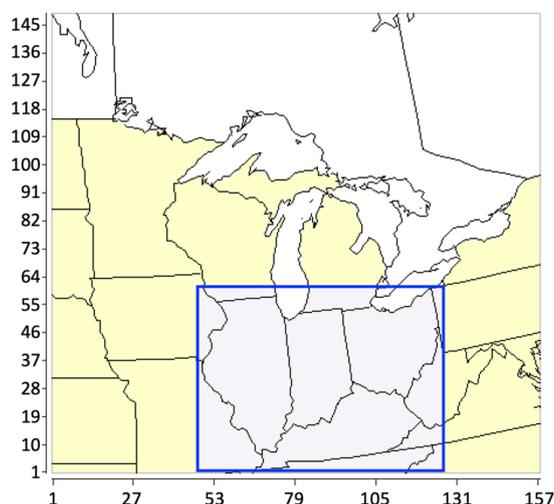
Figure 2: The full geographic domain (yellow) and nested domain (light purple) for the study.

15 Two domains were used, a larger domain encompassing the Midwestern region of the United

16 States and a smaller nested domain of the central portion of the Midwest domain (Fig. 2). The

17 larger Midwestern domain coordinates ranged from 37 N to 45 N in latitudes, and 98 W to 78 W

18 in longitude. This fully covers the states of Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Wisconsin, Illinois,

19 Michigan, Indiana, Kentucky, Ohio, and West Virginia, and partially covers North Dakota, South

1 Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Tennessee, North Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, and

2 New York (Fig. 2, in yellow). A nested domain, which fully covers the states of Indiana, Illinois,

3 Ohio, and Kentucky was extracted (Fig. 2, in light purple), in order to reduce the model bias near

4 the borders that include boundary conditions (details in section 2.6). The horizontal grid resolution

5 for both domains was 12 km x 12 km. The vertical grid resolution is isobaric dependent, which

6 increases with height, from 50 m near the surface (bottom layer) to 600 m near the 50 mb pressure

7 level (top layer).

9 ## 2.2 $^{15}NO_x$ and $^{14}NO_x$ emission input dataset

10 The NO_x emission input dataset used by the CTM in CMAQ was prepared, based on the steps

11 described by Fang & Michalski (2020), and are briefly discussed below. The EPA SMOKE model

12 was used to simulate $^{14}NO_x$ emissions. SMOKE converts the annual NO_x emission from county-

13 level emission data contained in the NEI, into hourly emissions and partitions the emission into

14 the gridded format. The emission input datasets were prepared using both the 2002 and 2016

15 versions of the NEI. The main sources of NO_x emissions in the NEI's are on-road gasoline, on-

16 road diesel, off-road gasoline, off-road diesel, coal-fired power plant, natural gas power plant, soil,

17 and livestock wastes, were categorized into four SMOKE processing categories: Biogenic, Mobile,

18 Point, and Area (Table 1).

19 The ^{15}N was incorporated into SMOKE outputs, based on NO_x emissions from NEI emission

20 sectors and the corresponding $\delta^{15}N$ values previously discussed (Fang & Michalski, 2020; Table

21 1). The $^{15}NO_x$ emitted by each SMOKE processing category was calculated based on the definition

22 of $\delta^{15}N$ (‰).

23 $$^{15}NO_x(i) = {}^{14}NO_x(i) \times {}^{15}R_{NO_x}(i) \qquad \text{Eq. (2)}$$

24 where $^{14}NO_x(i)$ is the NO_x emissions for each category (i) obtained from NEI and $^{15}R_{NOxi}$ is a ^{15}N

25 emission factor ($^{15}NO_{Xi}/^{14}NO_{Xi}$) calculated by:

26 $$^{15}R_{NO_x}(i) = \left(\frac{\delta^{15}N_{NO_x(i)}}{1000} + 1\right) \times 0.0036 \qquad \text{Eq. (3)}$$

27 $\delta^{15}N_{NOx(i)}$ is the $\delta^{15}N$ value of each NO_x source category (i = area, biogenic, mobile, and point)

28 (Table 1) and 0.0036 is the $^{15}N/^{14}N$ of air N_2, the reference point for $\delta^{15}N$ measurements. The $\delta^{15}N$

29 of total NO_x emission was calculated by

30 $$\delta^{15}N_{NO_x(total)} = \left(\frac{\frac{^{15}NO_x(area)+{}^{15}NO_x(biog)+{}^{15}NO_x(mobile)+{}^{15}NO_x(point)}{^{14}NO_x(area)+{}^{14}NO_x(biog)+{}^{14}NO_x(mobile)+{}^{14}NO_x(point)}}{0.0036} - 1\right) \times 1000 \qquad \text{Eq. (4)}$$

1 where

2 $$^{15}NO_x\,(area) = \left(\frac{\delta^{15}N_{NO_x\,(waste)}}{1000} + 1\right) \times 0.0036 \times {}^{14}NO_x\,(waste)$$

3 $$+ \left(\frac{\delta^{15}N_{NO_x\,(off-road\,gas)}}{1000} + 1\right) \times 0.0036 \times {}^{14}NO_x\,(off-road\,gas)$$

4 $$+ \left(\frac{\delta^{15}N_{NO_x\,(off-road\,diesel)}}{1000} + 1\right) \times 0.0036 \times {}^{14}NO_x\,(off-road\,diesel) \quad \text{Eq. (5)}$$

5 $$^{15}NO_x\,(mobile) = \left(\frac{\delta^{15}N_{NO_x\,(on-road\,gas)}}{1000} + 1\right) \times 0.0036 \times {}^{14}NO_x\,(on-road\,gas)$$

6 $$+ \left(\frac{\delta^{15}N_{NO_x\,(on-road\,diesel)}}{1000} + 1\right) \times 0.0036 \times {}^{14}NO_x\,(on-road\,diesel) \quad \text{Eq. (6)}$$

7 where $\delta^{15}N_{NO_x\,(on-road\,gas)} = -12.35 + 3.02 \times \ln(t + 0.455)$

8 Biogenic is NO_x emission from by-products of microbial nitrification and denitrification
9 occurring in the soil; mobile is NO_x emission from the on-road vehicle; the point is NO_x emission
10 from power plants or industry; and the area is all other stationary anthropogenic NO_x emissions,
11 which spread over a spatial extent and individually too small in magnitude to report as point source
12 These include off-road vehicles (utility vehicles for agricultural and residential purposes),
13 residential combustion, industrial processes, agriculture production (livestock waste, fertilizer, etc),
14 etc. Using Eq. (2-6) and $\delta^{15}N$ values from previous research (Table 1), $^{15}NO_x$ emission files were
15 generated from the SMOKE $^{14}NO_x$ output files. The $\delta^{15}N$ of on-road gasoline vehicles was based
16 on the average vehicle travel time (t) within each region with the same zip code (Walters et al.,
17 2015a). The average $\delta^{15}N$ of on-road gasoline vehicles within the study area is -2.7 ± 0.8‰.

SMOKE Category	NEI Sector	δ^{15}N-NO_x (‰) in this study
Biogenic	Soil	-34.3 (Felix & Elliott, 2014)
Area	Livestock Waste	-18.8 (Felix & Elliott, 2014)
	Off-road Gasoline	-11.5 (Walters et al., 2015b)
	Off-road Diesel	-10.5 (Walters et al., 2015b)
Mobile	On-road Gasoline	-2.7 (Walters et al., 2015b)
	On-road Diesel	-2.5 (Walters et al., 2015b)

	Coal-fired EGUs	+15 (Felix et al., 2012)
Point	Natural Gas EGUs	-16.5 (Walters et al., 2015)

1   Table 1: $\delta^{15}N$ values for NO_x emission sources

2   by SMOKE processing category and NEI sector

3   Since the isotope effects associated with the photochemical transformation of NO_x into NO_y

4   are ignored, ^{15}N was not incorporated into the chemical mechanism of CMAQ for the simulations

5   of this research. Therefore, the $^{15}NO_x$ in the emission input dataset acts as a nonreactive chemical.

6   Since $^{14}NO_x$ will go through and be removed in CMAQ's chemical mechanism, the $^{14}NO_x$ in the

7   emission input dataset was replicated and set as a nonreactive chemical. As a result, the mixing

8   effects on the $\delta^{15}N$ of atmospheric NO_x were explored, through the analysis of the time evolution

9   of nonreactive $^{14}NO_x$ and $^{15}NO_x$ concentrations.

11   2.3 Meteorology input dataset

12   To explore the impact of atmospheric processes, the meteorology input datasets for the year

13   2002 and 2016 were prepared and compared. The preparation of the meteorology input datasets

14   for the simulation using CMAQ CTM (CCTM) requires multiple steps. The first step is to generate

15   the input for the CTM meteorological model using the NARR (North American Regional

16   Reanalysis) and NAM (North American Mesoscale Forecast System). Both NARR and NAM

17   Analyses are regional weather model datasets covering North America and were obtained from the

18   National Centers for Environmental Information (2019). NARR and NAM were used to convert

19   the weather observations (every 3 hours for NARR, every 6 hours for NAM Analyses) into gridded

20   meteorological elements, such as temperature, wind field, and precipitation, with the horizontal

21   resolution of 12 km, and 34 vertical layers, with the thickness, increases with height, from 50 m

22   near the surface to 600 m near the 50 mb pressure level. The simulation years were 2002 and 2016

23   and were selected based on the same timeframe as selected NO_y $\delta^{15}N$ measurements. These include

24   measurements of $\delta^{15}N(NO_3^-)$ at 8 NADP (National Atmospheric Deposition Program) sites within

25   Indiana, Illinois, Ohio, and Kentucky in 2001-03, and the direct measurements of $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$

26   between July and August 2016 (Mase, 2010; Riha, 2013).

27   The second step was to generate the gridded meteorology files on an hourly basis, using the

28   Weather Research and Forecasting Model (WRF) using the input files prepared by the NARR and

29   NAM analyses. To maintain consistency between the NO_x emission dataset and the meteorology,

30   the same coordinate system, spatial domain, and grid size used in the SMOKE model were used

1   in the WRF simulation. The same as the emission dataset, the projection type of WRF output is

2   Lambert Conformal, with the standard parallel of 33 N and 45 N, the central meridian of 97 W.

3   The output dataset of WRF has the same spatial domain as the emission dataset with a size of 12

4   km.

5   The last step is to prepare the CMAQ-ready meteorology input dataset based on WRF outputs,

6   by running MCIP (the Meteorology-Chemistry Interface Processor), one of the major components

7   of CMAQ. The MCIP first obtains the necessary parameters (Table S1) from WRF outputs. Then

8   the MCIP extracts the data of the necessary parameters for the appropriate geographic domain,

9   which are slightly smaller than the domain of WRF outputs since the cells near the boundary are

10   inadequate for CMAQ simulation. For example, the geographic domain of WRF outputs for this

11   research is 159 grids in the east-west direction and 150 grids in the north-south direction. Therefore,

12   MCIP extracts the WRF outputs into 157 grids in the east-west direction and 148 grins in the north-

13   south direction, which are exactly the same as the emission input dataset prepared from the

14   previous companion research (Fang & Michalski, 2020), and are adequate for CMAQ simulation.

15   After that, MCIP converts the units of the parameters into the units, which are consistent with the

16   CMAQ simulation. For example, the 10-meter wind is displayed as u (east-west) and v (north-

17   south) component of wind vector in WRF but is displayed as wind speed and wind direction in

18   CMAQ. If the parameters, which are necessary for running CMAQ, are not available from the

19   WRF output, MCIP will diagnose and compute them, such as PBL (planetary boundary layer)

20   parameters and cloud information (cloud top, cloud base, liquid water content, cloud coverage).

21   The MCIP also conducts the interpolation and mass-weighted averaging of data, if the grid

22   resolutions of WRF and CMAQ are different. Finally, MCIP organizes the parameters into seven

23   netCDF files that embedded with I/O API (input/output applications programming interface): 2-D

24   time-independent fields at cell centers, 2-D time-independent fields on domain perimeter, 2-D

25   time-independent fields at cell corners, 2-D time-dependent fields at cell centers, 3-D time-

26   dependent fields at cell centers, 3-D time-dependent fields on domain perimeter, and 3-D time-

27   dependent fields at cell corners (Table S2).

29   2.4 The role of deposition

30   The dry and wet deposition rates of nonreactive $^{14}NO_x$ and $^{15}NO_x$ were varied to assess their

31   role in the spatiotemporal distribution of NO_x $\delta^{15}N$ value. First, the dry and wet deposition rate of

32   $^{14}NO_x$ and $^{15}NO_x$ was set to zero to test the effect of transport and mixing only. This no-deposition

1   simulation was based on 2002 NEI and 2016 meteorology. Next, the dry and wet deposition rate

2   of nonreactive $^{14}NO_x$ and $^{15}NO_x$ was set equal to the CMAQ default (reactive) $^{14}NO_x$ rate in the

3   simulation under the same scenario as the preliminary simulation. An additional simulation under

4   the same scenario, with the amplified dry and wet deposition rate, was conducted, to utilize as the

5   "pseudo tropospheric photochemistry" that removes atmospheric NO_x. To determine the

6   deposition rate of nonreactive $^{14}NO_x$ and $^{15}NO_x$, the initial concentration of NO_x was first

7   magnified to 20 times of the initial concentration derived from the ASCII vertical profiles to

8   represent a relatively polluted atmospheric chemical condition. At the same time, the emission

9   rates of nonreactive $^{14}NO_x$ and $^{15}NO_x$ were set to zero, in order to explore the removal of

10   nonreactive $^{14}NO_x$ and $^{15}NO_x$ by deposition. After the multiple tuning trials, the deposition velocity

11   of nonreactive $^{14}NO_x$ and $^{15}NO_x$ was set to 30 times of the deposition rate of reactive $^{14}NO_x$, of

12   which more than 90% of the nonreactive $^{14}NO_x$ and $^{15}NO_x$ were removed in the simulation period

13   of 2 days. This is in effect the same as simulating the conversion of NO_x into HNO_3, without any

14   isotope effect, without having to alter the chemical mechanism to include ^{15}N. This "pseudo HNO_3"

15   is then removed by wet/dry deposition and the 2-day criteria is the estimated lifetime of NO_x in

16   the atmosphere. By comparing the CMAQ simulation with different settings of NO_x deposition

17   rate, how the removal of atmospheric NO_x by dry and wet deposition impacts the $\delta^{15}N$ of

18   atmospheric NO_x was explored.

20   2.5 Initial condition and boundary condition for the simulation

21   The meteorological fields generated by MCIP were used as the inputs for Initial Conditions

22   Processor (ICON) and Boundary Conditions Processor (BCON), used for running CCTM of

23   CMAQ. The ICON program prepares the initial chemical/isotopic concentrations in each of the

24   3D grid cells for use in the initial time step of the CCTM simulation. For this study, the initial

25   condition was derived from the ASCII vertical profiles to create a "clean" atmospheric chemical

26   condition within the domain at the beginning of the simulation, of which the background

27   concentration of NO_x in each grid is lower than 0.25 ppb. The BCON program prepares the

28   chemical/isotopic boundary condition for throughout the CCTM simulation. Similarly, the

29   boundary condition was derived from the ASCII vertical profiles for this study, which assume a

30   "clean" atmospheric chemical condition (NO_x concentration lower than 0.25 ppb at surface layer)

31   outside the domain.

1   The $^{14}NO_x$ in the outputs of ICON and BCON were replicated and set as nonreactive chemical.

2   The same technique was applied to the emission input dataset as well. The nonreactive $^{15}NO_x$ were

3   added to the outputs of ICON and BCON, with the concentration equals to 0.0036 of the

4   concentrations of reactive $^{14}NO_x$, which assumes $\delta^{15}N = 0$ at the initial time step and outside the

5   domain of the simulation (calculated based on Eq. (1-3)). The nonreactive $^{14}NO_x$ and $^{15}NO_x$ do not

6   go through the chemical mechanism within CMAQ so that the effects from tropospheric

7   photochemistry are excluded, thus only atmospheric processes are explored.

9   ## 2.6 Different versions of the NO_x emission inventory

10   The simulated $\delta^{15}N$ of atmospheric NO_x based on different emission inventories varies. In

11   order to explore how the difference in $\delta^{15}N$ of NO_x emission impacts the simulated atmospheric

12   NO_x, under the same meteorology conditions, and keep the consistency of the simulation at the

13   same time, two different emission input datasets were prepared. The first dataset was solely based

14   on NEI-2002. The ^{15}N was incorporated into the pre-merged SMOKE output, simulated from each

15   sector of NEI-2002 that contains NO_x emission, based on the corresponding $\delta^{15}N$ values, before

16   merging into the emission input dataset for CCTM simulation. The second dataset, as a comparison,

17   directly obtain the emission rates from the first dataset, except for $^{15}NO_x$. The emission rate of

18    $^{15}NO_x$ was determined by the emission rate of $^{14}NO_x$, obtained from the first dataset, and $\delta^{15}N$ of

19   total NO_x emission, simulated from NO_x emissions from each emission sector based on NEI-2016

20   and the corresponding $\delta^{15}N$ values determined by the previous companion research (Fang &

21   Michalski, 2020). Thus, the only difference between the two emission input datasets is the $\delta^{15}N$ of

22   the NO_x emission over each grid within the domain.

24   ## 2.7 The simulation over the nested domain

25   As mentioned in section 2.5, atmospheric NO_x $\delta^{15}N = 0‰$ for initial condition and boundary

26   condition. As a result, the bias occurs near the border of the research area, mainly under the

27   following two circumstances: a). When the air mass transports out of the research area (Fig. S1)

28   since Canada is considered as "emission-free zone", the atmospheric NO_x is diluted, which impacts

29   its $\delta^{15}N$ values, especially for those with extreme $\delta^{15}N$ values ($\delta^{15}N < -15‰$ or $\delta^{15}N > 5‰$); b).

30   When the air mass with $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)=0$ transports from the "emission-free zone" to the research area

31   (Fig. S2), the atmospheric NO_x is flattened. Therefore, to avoid the bias near the border, the nested

32   domain that only covers Indiana, Illinois, Ohio, and Kentucky was determined, where the

1   measurements of δ^{15}N values at NADP sites are available (Mase, 2010; Riha, 2013). The boundary

2   condition for the simulation over the nested domain is extracted from the CCTM output of the full-

3   domain simulation (BCON code available on Zenodo.org (10.5281/zenodo.4311986)).

1   3. Results and Discussion

3   3.1   Simulated spatial variability in $\delta^{15}N$ of atmospheric NO_x
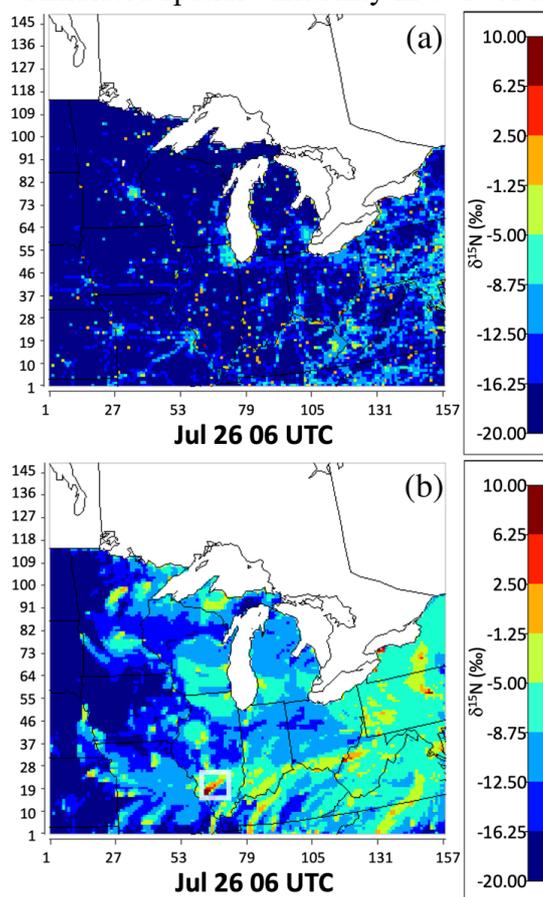
Figure 3: The $\delta^{15}N$ values of NO_x emission, based on NEI-2002 (a: "no transport" scenario) and the $\delta^{15}N$ values of atmospheric NO_x based on NEI-2002 and 2016 meteorology (b: "with transport" scenario), at 06 UTC on July 26, are presented by color in each grid. The warmer the color, the higher $\delta^{15}N$ values of NO_x emission.

1   We first examine the spatial heterogeneity of NO_x $\delta^{15}N$ values at a specific time within the

2   Midwestern domain and explore how atmospheric processes alter the $\delta^{15}N$ values relative to the

3   "no transport" simulation. The "no transport" simulation of NO_x $\delta^{15}N$ values (at 06 UTC on July

4   26) shows that the domain grids ranged from -34.3‰ to 14.9‰ (Figure 3a). The majority of the

5   grids within the domain have NO_x $\delta^{15}N$ values lower than -16.3‰. These low $\delta^{15}N$ values across

6   most of the domain are due to the $\delta^{15}N$ of -34.3‰ for biogenic NO_x emission sources (nitrification

7   and denitrification) in sparsely populated areas where intensive agriculture dominates the land use

8   (Fig. 3a). The $\delta^{15}N$ values of NO_x emitted into grids within big cities mainly ranged between -

9   8.75‰ and -5‰. This is due to the higher fraction of NO_x emission from on-road vehicles having

10   a $\delta^{15}N$ of -2.7 ± 0.8‰. The fraction of NO_x emission from on-road vehicles at the grids resolve

11   major highways is relatively lower, comparing to the grids within big cities, while still higher than

12   most of the grids within the domain. Thus, the $\delta^{15}N$ values along the major highways ranged

13   between -16.25‰ and -8.75‰. The highest value of $\delta^{15}N$ occurs at the grids, where the coal-fired

14   EGUs (+15‰) and hybrid-fired EGUs (using both coal and natural gas (-16.5‰) for combustion)

15   are dominant, showing gold (-1.25‰ ~ +2.5‰) and red/dark red (+2.50‰ and above) on the map

16   (Fig. 3a).

17   The effect of atmospheric mixing and transport on the NO_x $\delta^{15}N$ spatial distribution were then

18   taken into account by coupling the $^{15}NO_x$ emissions (Fang & Michalski, 2020) to the meteorology

19   simulation. There are significant differences between $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ values in the "no transport" (Fig.

20   3a) and the "with transport" (Fig. 3b) simulations. For example, under the "no transport" scenario

21   (Fig. 3a) the map of $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ values clearly shows the locations of big cities, major highways,

22   and power plants, but these features are much less obvious in the "with transport" (Fig. 3b)

23   simulations. The isotopically heavier NO_x emission from big cities, such as Chicago, Detroit,

24   Minneapolis-St Paul, Kansas City, St. Louis, Indianapolis, and Louisville, disperses to the

25   surrounding rural areas so that the $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ values in rural areas are elevated to values similar

26   to nearby big cities. Similarly, the NO_x emitted along major highways is transported to the

27   surrounding grids, so that the atmospheric NO_x at the grids around the major highways become

28   isotopically heavier relative to the "no transport" scenario. The most obvious and interesting

29   example is the influence of grids containing coal-fired EGUs on the surrounding region. For

30   example, the EGU located in the southwestern border of the state of Illinois, Baldwin Energy

31   Complex (marked with a transparent white box on Fig. 3b), using refined coal, subbituminous coal,

32   and bituminous coal as its major energy source. The $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ in the regions is altered as a

1   function of distance away from the EGU and in this time snapshot, the northeastwards propagating

2   plume of NO_x emission from the EGU creates higher $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ over 103 km away. Overall, the

3   "with transport" $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ map is indicating the emission source that impacts each grid the most,

4   after taking atmospheric mixing and transport into account. The domain average $\delta^{15}N$ increases

5   from -20.23‰ under the "no transport" scenario to -11.49‰ under the "with transport" scenario.

6   The overall emission pattern of the $\delta^{15}N$ value shows that the biogenic emission dominates the

7   spatial domain but after considering the atmospheric processes, anthropogenic emission, mainly

8   from on-road vehicles, becomes dominant over most of the grids, especially for the grids located

9   in the suburb of major cities.

11   ## 3.2   Seasonal variation in $\delta^{15}N$ of NO_x
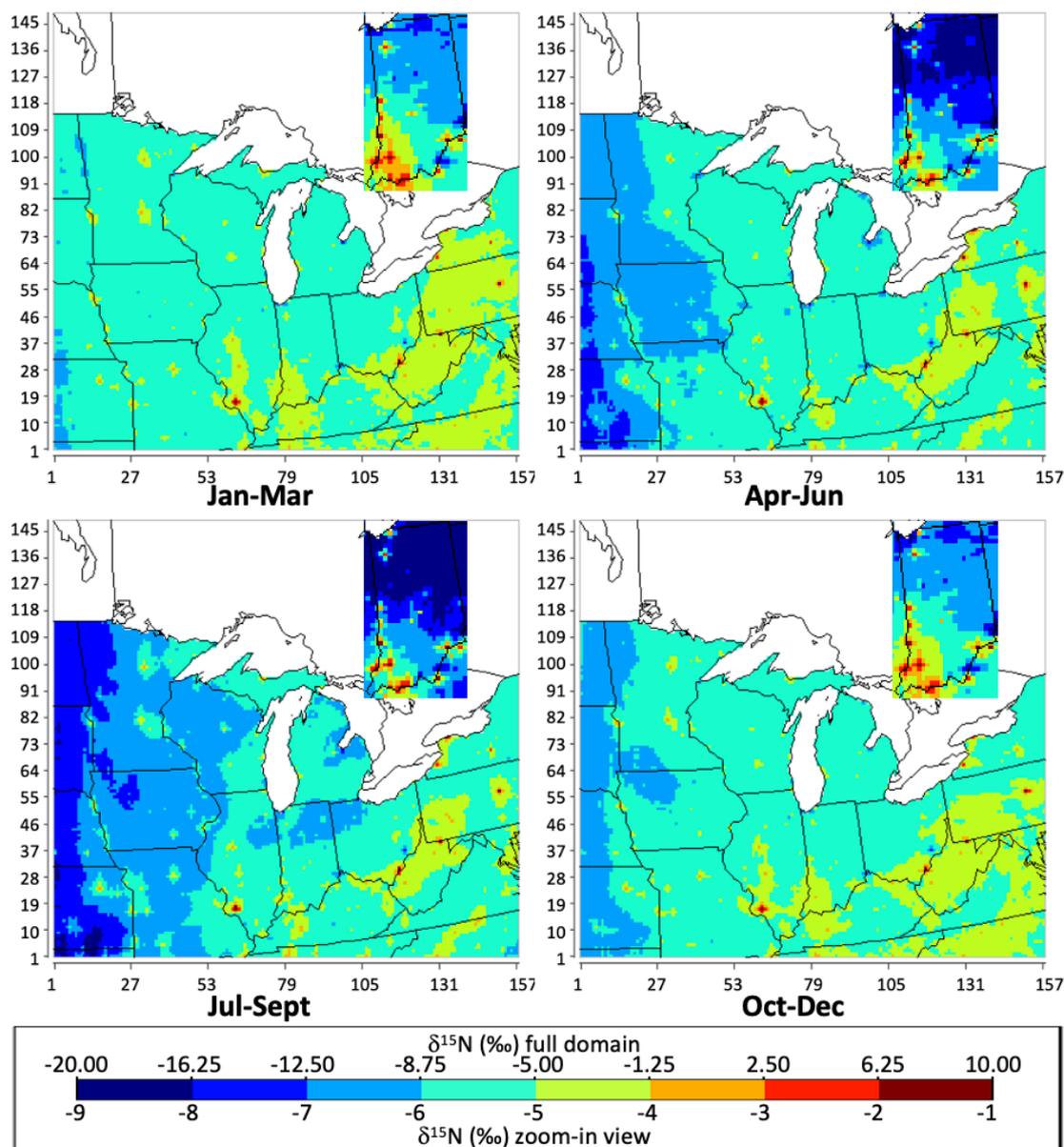
Figure 4: The geographical distribution of the δ^{15}N value of atmospheric NO$_x$ in each season (Winter: Jan-Mar; Spring: Apr-Jun; Summer: Jul-Sep; Fall: Oct-Dec) in per mil (‰) throughout the Midwest (with zoom-in view focusing on Indiana) simulated by CMAQ, based on NEI-2002 and 2016 meteorology.

1   We next examine the temporal heterogeneity of atmospheric δ^{15}N(NO$_x$) under the "with

2   transport" scenario over the domain and interpret them in terms of changes if the propagation of

1   NO$_x$ emission as a function of time. The predicted seasonal average $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ in the Midwest

2   shows significant variations (Fig. 4). On an annual basis, the $\delta^{15}N$ values of NO$_x$ range from -19.2‰

3   to 11.6‰, with the annual average over the Midwest domain of -6.10‰, under the "with transport"

4   scenario. Compared with the seasonal $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ under the "no transport" scenario (Fang &

5   Michalski, 2020), the $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ under the "with transport" scenario has a similar overall average

6   while narrower range, due to the transport and mixing of the air mass driven by the atmospheric

7   processes. This could be clearly shown on the map, of which the color scheme is smoother,

8   comparing with the seasonal $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ under the "no transport" scenario (Fig. S3). The maps for

9   different seasons show the obvious changes in $\delta^{15}N$ values over western regions of the Midwest,

10   from -8.75 ~ -5‰ in Oct-Mar to -16.25 ~ -12.5‰ in Apr-Oct.

11   In addition to the variability of the NO$_x$ emission source, which has been discussed in depth

12   in the previous companion paper (Fang & Michalski, 2020), the significant temporal variation in

13   the $\delta^{15}N$ value of atmospheric NO$_x$ during different seasons is controlled by the transport and

14   mixing of the air mass, under the different meteorology conditions that vary by season. The PBL

15   height is an effective indicator showing whether the pollutant is under the synoptic condition,

16   which is favorable for the disperse, mixing, and transport after being emitted into the atmosphere

17   (Oke, 2002; Shu et al., 2017; Liao et al., 2018; Miao et al., 2019). In order to qualitatively analyze

18   the changes in $\delta^{15}N$ values driven by atmospheric processes, the difference between the $\delta^{15}N$ value

19   of atmospheric NO$_x$ under the "with transport" scenario and "no transport" scenario ($\Delta\delta^{15}N_{transport}$)

20   on the seasonal basis were shown (Fig. 5). The seasonal $\Delta\delta^{15}N_{transport}$ values range from -21.95‰

21   to 31.22‰, with an average of 4.93‰. The overall pattern of the $\Delta\delta^{15}N_{transport}$ values shows that

22   after the NO$_x$ being emitted into the atmosphere, it became isotopically heavier over the majority

23   of the grids within the domain, and isotopically lighter over the grids that contain big cities, major

24   highways, and power plants. This could be explained by the transport and disperse of biogenic

25   emission and anthropogenic emission to the surrounding areas. Among the grids located in rural

26   areas, where the biogenic emission dominates the NO$_x$ budget, the $\delta^{15}N$ values increases from

27   around -30‰ to around -10‰, due to transport and disperse of anthropogenic emission with

28   relatively high emission rates from surrounding cities, highways, or power plants, which brings

29   the isotopically heavier NO$_x$ into the grids. On the other hand, among the grids located in the urban

30   area, highways, or power plants, where anthropogenic emission dominates the NO$_x$ budget, the

31   changes in $\delta^{15}N$ values decrease is much less obvious, showing the $\Delta\delta^{15}N_{transport}$ values ranges

32   between -5‰ and +5‰. This could be explained by the relatively high rates of anthropogenic

1   emission. Thus, the effects of the transport and disperse of biogenic emissions from the
2   surrounding rural area are minimal.

3   Comparing the distributions of the difference in δ15N values (Fig. 5) with the corresponding
4   PBL height (Fig. S4) among the maps of each season, the effects of PBL height on the propagation
5   of the air mass are clearly shown. The PBL height changes significantly among each season within
6   the geographic domain, especially over Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Iowa (Fig. S4). The PBL height
7   over these area increases from less than 250 meters above the ground level to more than 625 meters
8   above the ground level, during spring (Apr-Jun) and summer (Jul-Sep), which creates a more
9   favorable synoptic condition for the disperse, mixing, and transport of the pollutant after being
10 emitted into the atmosphere. As a result, the difference in δ15N values shifts to higher values,
11 showing the stronger effect of atmospheric processes during spring and summer. The positive
12 correlation between PBL height and propagation of air mass, indicated by the evolution of
13 atmospheric δ15N(NO$_x$) in this study, agrees well with the corresponding measurement in
14 megacities in China from the previous studies (Shu et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2018; Liao et al., 2018).
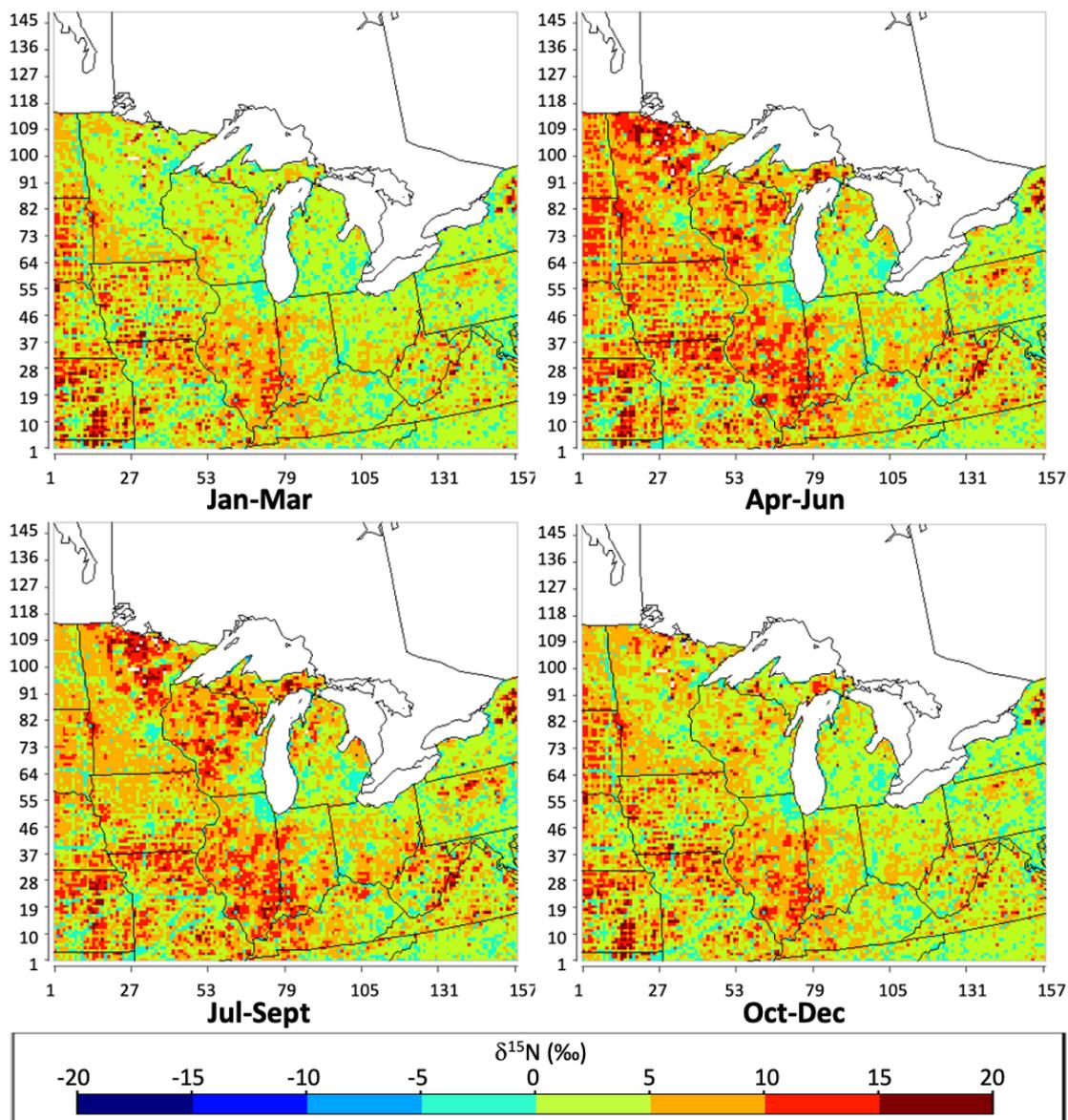
Figure 5: The difference between the $\delta^{15}N$ (‰) value of atmospheric NO_x under the "with transport" scenario and "no transport" scenario ($\Delta\delta^{15}N_{transport}$) during each season (Winter: Jan-Mar; Spring: Apr-Jun; Summer: Jul-Sep; Fall: Oct-Dec), throughout the Midwest simulated by CMAQ, based on NEI-2002 and 2016 meteorology.

1   3.3 Different meteorology conditions
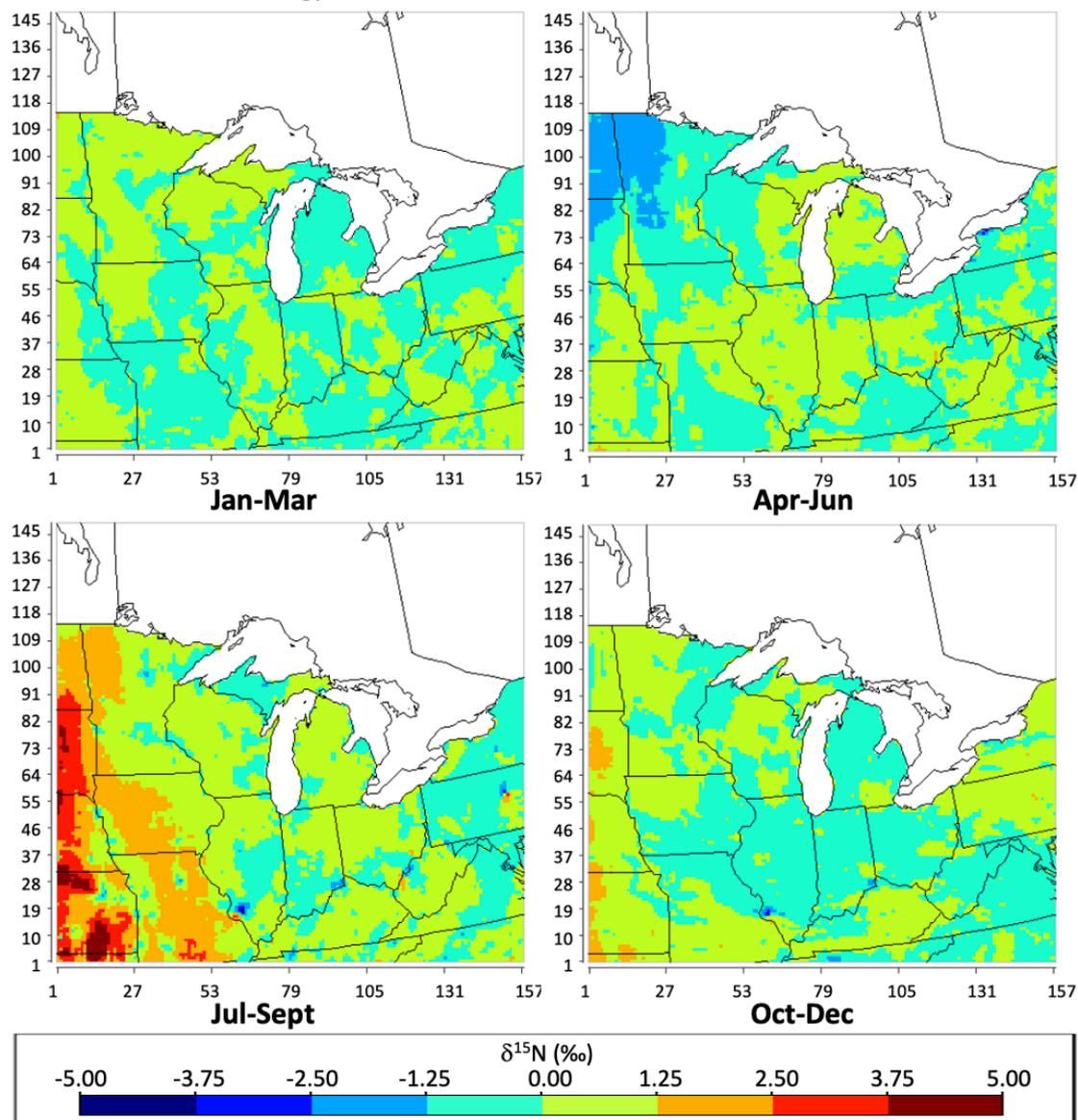
Figure 6: The geographical distribution of the difference between CMAQ simulated $\delta^{15}N$ value of atmospheric NO_x based on 2002 meteorology and 2016 meteorology in each season (Winter: Jan-Mar; Spring: Apr-Jun; Summer: Jul-Sep; Fall: Oct-Dec) in per mil (‰) throughout the Midwest.
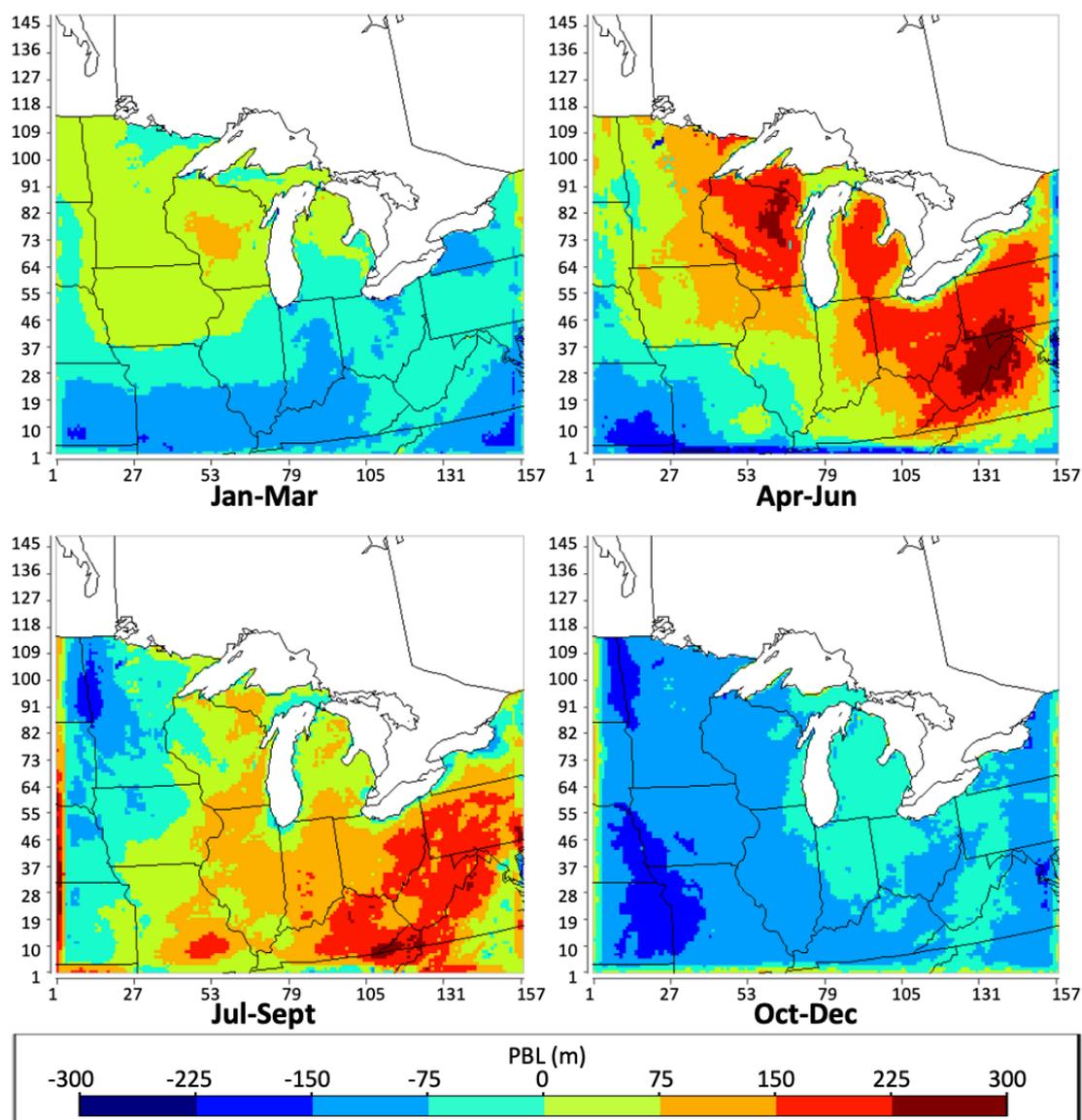
Figure 7: The geographical distribution of the difference between planetary boundary layer (PBL) height in meters based on 2002 meteorology and 2016 meteorology during each season (Winter: Jan-Mar; Spring: Apr-Jun; Summer: Jul-Sep; Fall: Oct-Dec) of 2016 throughout the Midwest.

1   The atmospheric $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ simulated based on different meteorology input dataset varies. In

2   order to compare the spatial heterogeneity of the atmospheric $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ under different

3   meteorology conditions, the same analysis was done on the simulation using 2002 meteorology

1   (Fig. S6). Overall, the simulated atmospheric NO_x under 2002 meteorology is isotopically heavier

2   than under 2016 meteorology, especially in the western part of the domain during summer (Fig.

3   6). The dynamics of PBL height potentially cause the variation in the level of disperse, mixing,

4   and transport of NO_x emission. Due to the significantly higher level of PBL during spring and

5   summer (Fig. 7) comparing to the seasonal PBL height during 2016, the disperse, mixing, and

6   transport of anthropogenic NO_x emission with higher $\delta^{15}N$ values alters the atmospheric $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$

7   over the rural area further, under 2002 meteorology. The videos of atmospheric $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ on an

8   hourly   basis   throughout   the   year   2002   and   2016   are   available   on   Zenodo.org

9   (10.5281/zenodo.4311986).

11   ## 3.4   Different versions of emission inventories

12   There was a dramatic difference in the atmospheric $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ simulated depending on which

13   NEI emission dataset was used. In order to compare the spatial heterogeneity of the atmospheric

14   $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ generating from different NO_x emission budgets, the same analysis was done on the

15   simulation using the emission input dataset prepared from the 2016 version of NEI (Fig. S7). In

16   general, the simulated atmospheric NO_x based on 2016 NEI is significantly isotopically lighter

17   than based on 2002 NEI, especially in the central and eastern parts of the domain (Fig. 8).

18   According to Fang & Michalski (2020), the fraction of NO_x emission from the anthropogenic

19   source in NEI-2016 was lower than in NEI-2002 for most of the grids within the domain. Therefore,

20   the atmospheric $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ based on 2016 NEI was lower. According to US Energy Information

21   Administration (2017b), from 2002 to 2016, 53 Giga Watts coal-fired and 54 Giga Watts natural

22   gas EGU retired in the US. The EGU dominates the NO_x emission at the grids where it is located

23   in, account for up to 90% of the total NO_x emission (Fang & Michalski, 2020). Given the $\delta^{15}N$

24   value of the NO_x emitted from coal-fired EGU is +15‰ (Table 1), the $\delta^{15}N$ values of the

25   atmospheric NO_x over the grids that contain the abandoned coal-fired EGU change dramatically

26   during the period between 2002 and 2016. A similar pattern occurs at the grids that contain the

27   EGU, which uses both coal and natural gas as its energy source ($\delta^{15}N$ = -0.75‰). As a result, the

28   number of "hotspots" with high $\delta^{15}N$ values in 2016 is much less than in 2002. While, the change

29   in $\delta^{15}N$ values of the atmospheric NO_x over the grids that contain the abandoned natural gas EGU

30   is not that obvious under the scenario of "with transport" from 2002 to 2016, since the $\delta^{15}N$ value

31   of the NO_x emitted from natural gas EGU is -16.5‰ (Table 1), which is similar to the $\delta^{15}N$ values

32   at the surrounding grids after the mixture of NO_x emission from biogenic source and on-road

1   vehicles. Besides this, the implementation of NO$_x$ emission control technologies (SCR, SCNR,

2   LNB, OFA) decreases the δ^{15}N of the NO$_x$ emission from power plants and vehicles, thus decrease

3   the atmospheric δ^{15}N(NO$_x$).
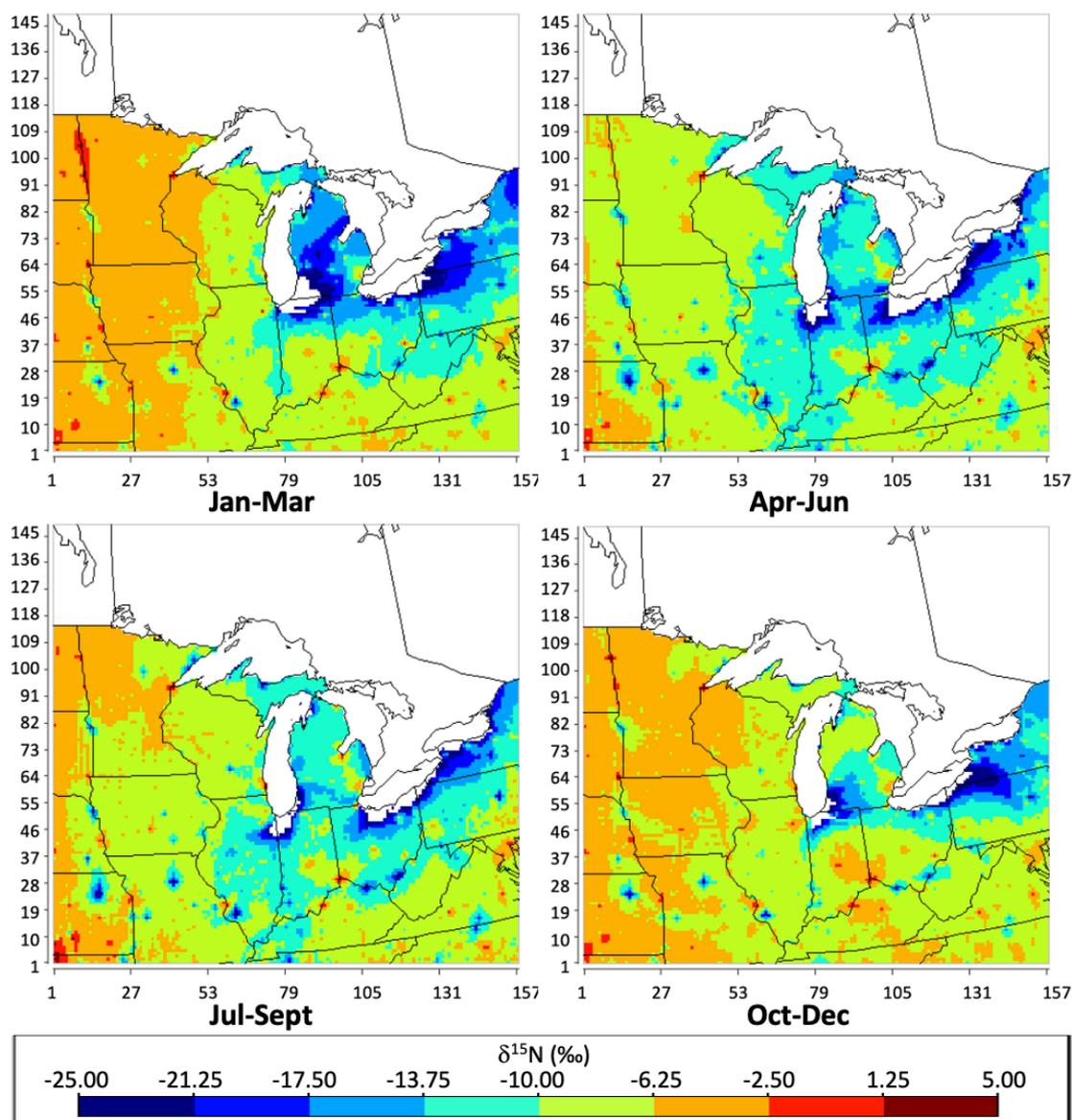
Figure 8: The geographical distribution of the difference between CMAQ simulated δ^{15}N value of atmospheric NO$_x$ based on NEI-2016 and NEI-2002 in each season (Winter: Jan-Mar; Spring: Apr-Jun; Summer: Jul-Sep; Fall: Oct-Dec) in per mil (‰) throughout the Midwest.

2   3.5 The role of deposition

3   The deposition alters the δ^{15}N of atmospheric NO$_x$. In order to compare the spatial

4   heterogeneity of the atmospheric δ^{15}N(NO$_x$) with different settings of NO$_x$ deposition rate, the

5   same analysis was done on the simulation using the amplified dry and wet deposition rates (Fig.

6   S8). In order to explore the impact of dry and wet deposition on the δ^{15}N of atmospheric NO$_x$, the

7   difference between the δ^{15}N values of atmospheric NO$_x$ under the "amplified deposition" scenario

8   and "default deposition" scenario ($\Delta\delta^{15}$N$_{deposition}$) on the seasonal basis were shown (Fig. 9). The

9   seasonal $\Delta\delta^{15}$N$_{deposition}$ values range from -3.67‰ to 5.34‰, with an average of 0.51‰. The overall

10   pattern of the $\Delta\delta^{15}$N$_{deposition}$ values shows that due to the impact of deposition, the atmospheric

11   NO$_x$ became isotopically lighter over the majority of the grids within the domain, and isotopically

12   heavier over the grids, which contain or surround power plants and big cities. The amplified

13   deposition simulation somehow presents the isotope effects associated with the "pseudo

14   photochemical transformation" of NO$_x$ into NO$_y$. The complete isotope effect of tropospheric

15   photochemistry will be addressed in future work, which incorporates ^{15}N into the chemical

16   mechanism of CMAQ for the simulation.
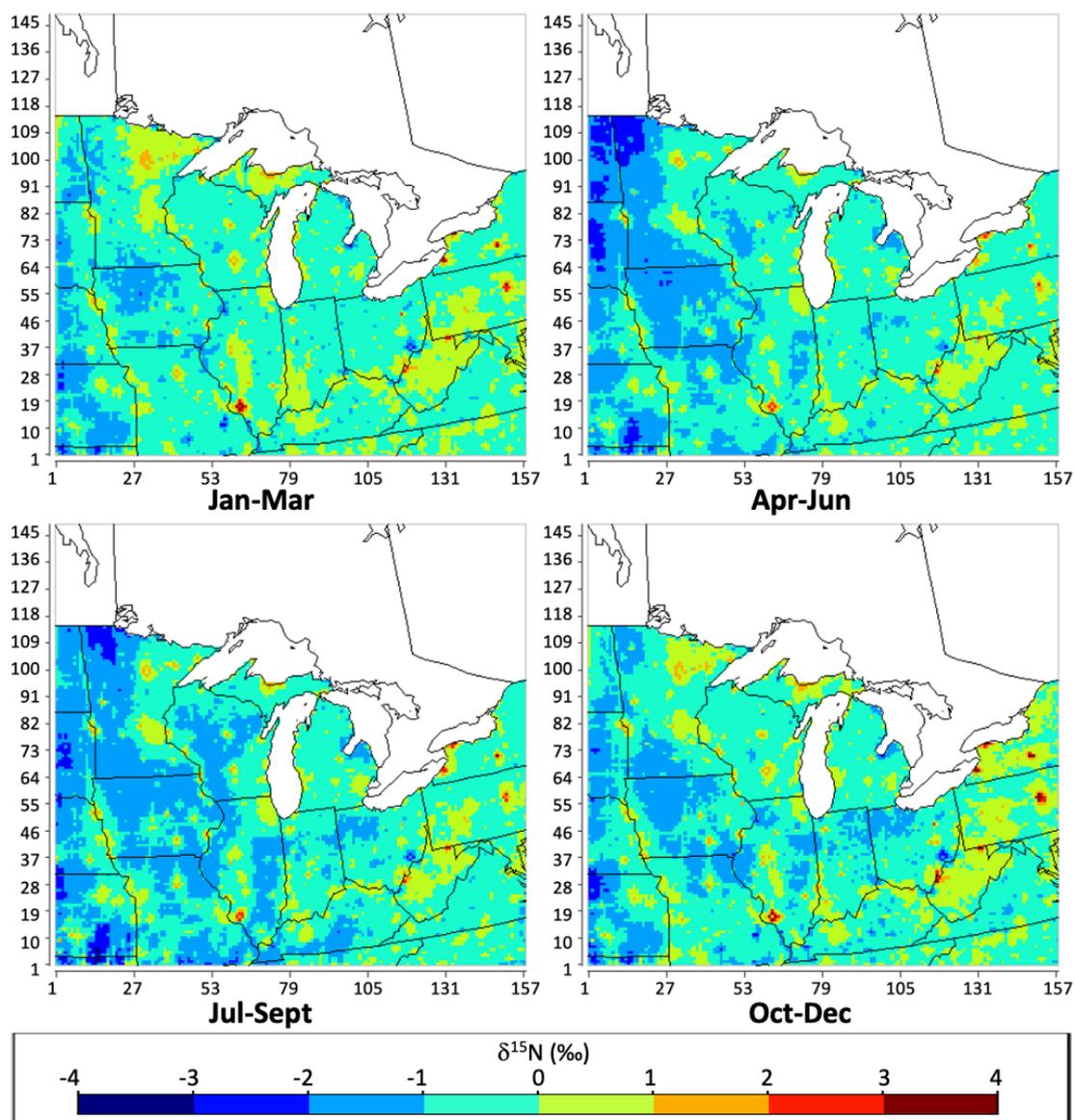
Figure 9: The difference between the $\delta^{15}N$ (‰) value of atmospheric NO_x under the "amplified deposition" scenario and "default deposition" scenario ($\Delta\delta^{15}N_{deposition}$) during each season (Winter: Jan-Mar; Spring: Apr-Jun; Summer: Jul-Sep; Fall: Oct-Dec), throughout the Midwest simulated by CMAQ, based on NEI-2002 and 2016 meteorology.

2   3.6 The simulation over the nested domain

1   We next examine the temporal heterogeneity of difference in atmospheric $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ between

2   nested-domain simulation and full-domain simulation ($\Delta\delta^{15}N_{nested-full}$), to explore the potential bias

3   due to the motion of the air mass across the boundary of the geographic domain of the study (Fig.

4   10). The nested domain covers the states of Indiana, Illinois, Ohio, and Kentucky, where the

5   measurements of $\delta^{15}N$ values at NADP sites are available. The predicted $\delta^{15}N$ of atmospheric NO_x

6   over the nested domain shows a similar overall pattern as the $\delta^{15}N$ within the same domain from

7   the full-domain simulation, except over the southern border of the domain (Fig. S9). In order to

8   qualitatively analyze the effects from the initial boundary condition, the $\delta^{15}N$ of atmospheric NO_x

9   within IN, IL, OH, and KY were extracted from the full-domain simulation (Fig. 4) and compare

10   with the nested-domain simulation within the same region (Fig. 10). The $\Delta\delta^{15}N_{nested-full}$ values

11   ranged between -0.25‰ and +0.25‰ over most of the grids within the nested domain, showing

12   the difference between nested-domain simulation and full-domain simulation of $\delta^{15}N$ values are

13   trivial. However, near the southern border of the nested domain, the obvious $\Delta\delta^{15}N_{nested-full}$ values

14   closed to +0.75‰ during fall and winter, closed to +1.00‰ during spring and summer occur, which

15   indicate the atmospheric NO_x from the nested-domain simulation is isotopically heavier. The

16   values of $\Delta\delta^{15}N_{nested-full}$ become obvious near the southern border, which indicates the dilution of

17   NO_x, after it transports out of the domain since the $\delta^{15}N$ on the boundary was set to zero. Unlike

18   the southern border, the northern, western, and eastern border of the nested domain is located

19   sufficient distance apart from the boundary of the full domain. As a result, the $\Delta\delta^{15}N_{nested-full}$ values

20   are similar over the majority grids within the domain.
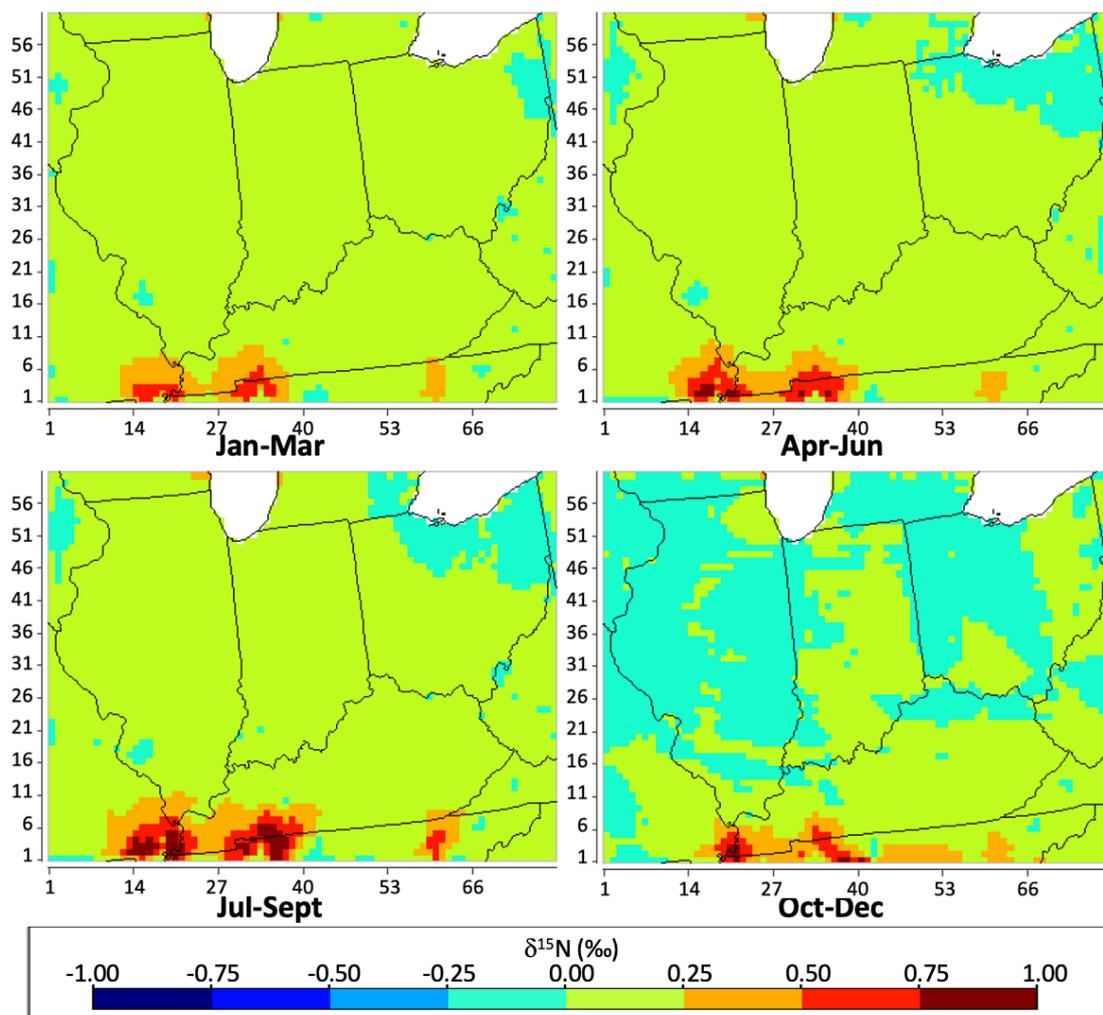
Figure 10: The geographical distribution of the difference between nested-domain simulation and full-domain simulation of $\delta^{15}N$ value of atmospheric NO_x ($\Delta\delta^{15}N_{nested-full}$) in each season (Winter: Jan-Mar; Spring: Apr-Jun; Summer: Jul-Sep; Fall: Oct-Dec) in per mil (‰) within IN, IL, OH, and KY, based on NEI-2002 and 2016 meteorology.

2   3.7   Model-observation comparison
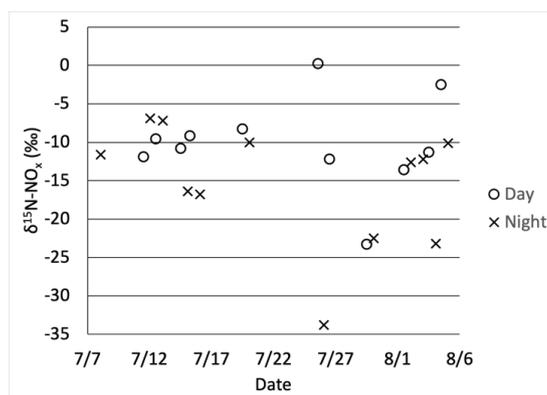
Figure 11: The $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ values measured at West Lafayette, IN between July 9 and August 5, 2016, from 8 am to 4 pm during the daytime (○), and from 9:30 pm to 5:30 am during the nighttime (×)

In order to evaluate the CMAQ simulation of atmospheric $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$, several existing datasets of measurements were utilized to compare with the simulations. As the only direct measurements of $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ within the domain, NO_x samples collected between July 8 and August 5, 2016 (Fig. 11; Walters, Fang, & Michalski, 2018) was first used for the validation of the CMAQ simulation. 30 NO_x samples were collected from 8 am to 4 pm during the daytime, and from 9:30 pm to 5:30 am during the nighttime in West Lafayette, IN, an NADP (National Atmospheric Deposition Program) site in the northwest part of Indiana and home to Purdue University. The measured $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ ranged from -23.3 to 0.2‰ for the daytime samples and -33.8 to -6.9‰ for the nighttime samples.
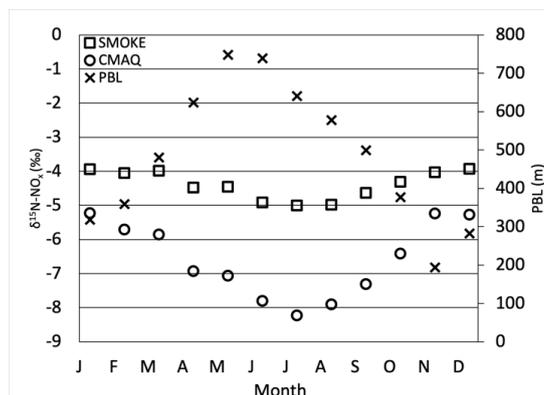
Figure 12: The monthly $\delta^{15}N$ values of total NO_x emission simulated by SMOKE ($\square$) based on NEI-2002, the monthly $\delta^{15}N$ values of atmospheric NO_x simulated by CMAQ ($\circ$) based on NEI-2002 and 2016 meteorology, the monthly average of PBL height ($\times$, right axis) over the 12-km grid that covers West Lafayette, IN.

2   The CMAQ simulated $\delta^{15}N$ values of atmospheric NO_x in West Lafayette show more obvious

3   monthly variations and seasonal trends comparing to the $\delta^{15}N$ values of NO_x emission (Fig. 12, in

4   circle ($\circ$)). The simulation shows that the $\delta^{15}N$ of atmospheric NO_x starts around -5‰ in January,

5   which is about 1‰ lower than $\delta^{15}N$ of NO_x emission (Fig. 12, in square ($\square$)). During winter (Jan-

6   Mar), the $\delta^{15}N$ of atmospheric NO_x decrease slightly, and the difference between the $\delta^{15}N$ of NO_x

7   emission gradually increases. During spring (Apr-June), the more obvious decreasing trend of the

8    $\delta^{15}N$ of atmospheric NO_x occurs, and the difference between the $\delta^{15}N$ of NO_x emission is larger

9   than during winter. The $\delta^{15}N$ value reaches the minimum around -8‰ in July. During summer

10   (Jul-Sept), the $\delta^{15}N$ of atmospheric NO_x starts to increase, and the difference between the $\delta^{15}N$ of

11 NO_x emission decreases. During fall (Oct-Dec), the $\delta^{15}N$ of atmospheric NO_x increases, and the

12 difference between the $\delta^{15}N$ of NO_x emission decreases, but with a slighter trend than during

13 summer. The $\delta^{15}N$ of atmospheric NO_x ends at -5‰, 1‰ lower than $\delta^{15}N$ of NO_x emission. In

14 addition to the change in the fractions of NO_x emission sources from April to September, which

15 has been discussed in the previous companion paper (Fang & Michalski, 2020), the monthly

16 variations and seasonal trend of the simulated atmospheric $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ are mainly driven by the

1 strength of disperse, mixing, and transport of the atmospheric NO_x emitted from different sources,

2 indicated by the PBL height. The PBL height during the period from April to September is 90%

3 higher than during the period from October to March, which is favorable for the mixture of

4 isotopically lighter NO_x from the surrounding area (Fig. 12, in cross (×)). Thus, the $\delta^{15}N$ of

5 atmospheric NO_x diverges further from the $\delta^{15}N$ of NO_x emission.

	measurement	NEI 2002	NEI 2016	NEI-2002 +WRF2016	NEI-2002 +WRF2002	NEI-2016 +WRF2016	NEI-2002 +WRF2016 nested
min	-33.800	-12.180	-18.439	-15.824	-14.779	-31.149	-15.858
max	0.200	-3.753	-4.410	-3.360	-3.726	5.458	-3.187
median	-11.250	-4.993	-7.049	-8.094	-8.355	-13.975	-8.108
stdev	8.023	2.168	2.388	2.081	1.881	4.122	2.099

7 Table 2: Performance of $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ simulation for West Lafayette, IN

9 The CMAQ simulation of the $\delta^{15}N$ of atmospheric NO_x under different scenarios of NEI and

10 WRF was compared with the measurement (Walters, Fang, & Michalski, 2018) from July 8 to

11 August 5, 2016 (Fig. 13). The $\delta^{15}N$ of atmospheric NO_x simulated based on NEI-2002 and 2016

12 meteorology ranges from -15.8‰ to -3.4‰, with the medium of -8.1 ± 2.1‰; the $\delta^{15}N$ of

13 atmospheric NO_x simulated based on NEI-2002 and 2002 meteorology ranges from -14.8‰ to -

14 3.7‰, with the medium of -8.4 ± 1.9‰; the $\delta^{15}N$ of atmospheric NO_x simulated based on NEI-

15 2016 and 2016 meteorology ranges from -31.1‰ to -5.5‰, with the medium of -14.0 ± 4.1‰. The

16 $\delta^{15}N$ of the corresponding measurement ranges from -33.8‰ to 0.2‰, with the medium of -11.2

17 ± 8.0‰. In general, the CMAQ simulations of $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ under most of the scenarios conducted

18 in this study, except the simulation based on NEI-2016 and 2016 meteorology, perform better than

19 the SMOKE simulation of $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$, which only take the variability of NO_x emission source into

20 account (Table 2). On the other hand, the simulation based on NEI-2016 and 2016 meteorology

21 capture the isotopically light NO_x better than the simulations under the other scenarios of emission

22 and meteorology input datasets.
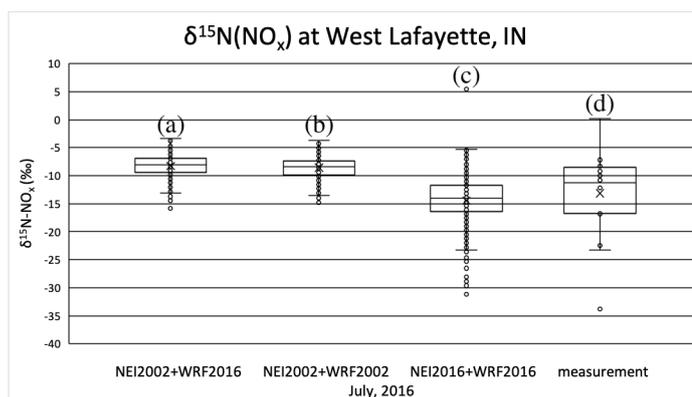
Figure 13: The distributions of $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ values over the 12-km grid that covers West Lafayette, IN from July 8 to August 5, simulated by CMAQ, based on NEI-2002 and 2016 meteorology (a), NEI-2002 and 2002 meteorology (b), NEI-2016 and 2016 meteorology (c), compare with the corresponding measurement (d) taken on July to August in 2016 (box: lower quartile, median, upper quartile; whisker: lower extreme, upper extreme; dots outside the whisker: outliers)

2   Finally, we compared the CMAQ predicted $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$, under the scenario of NEI-

3 2002+WRF2002 at NADP sites within Indiana, Illinois, Ohio, and Kentucky (Table S3) with the

4 measurements of $\delta^{15}N(NO_3^-)$ from 2001 to 2003. The $\delta^{15}N$ values of atmospheric NO_x simulated

5 by CMAQ at these sites show obvious monthly variations and seasonal trends (Fig. 14, top). The

6 monthly boxes are the 1st and 3rd quantiles of the simulated monthly $\delta^{15}N$ of atmospheric NO_x at

7 the NADP sites. The whiskers represent the minimum and maximum values without outliers. There

8 is a wide range of $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ values within each month, with a minimum during January (-7.8~ -

9 4.1‰) and a maximum during August (-11.4~-4.4‰). The seasonal trend shows low $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$

10 during summer, with the median around -7.4‰, and high $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ during winter, with the

11 median around -6.0‰.
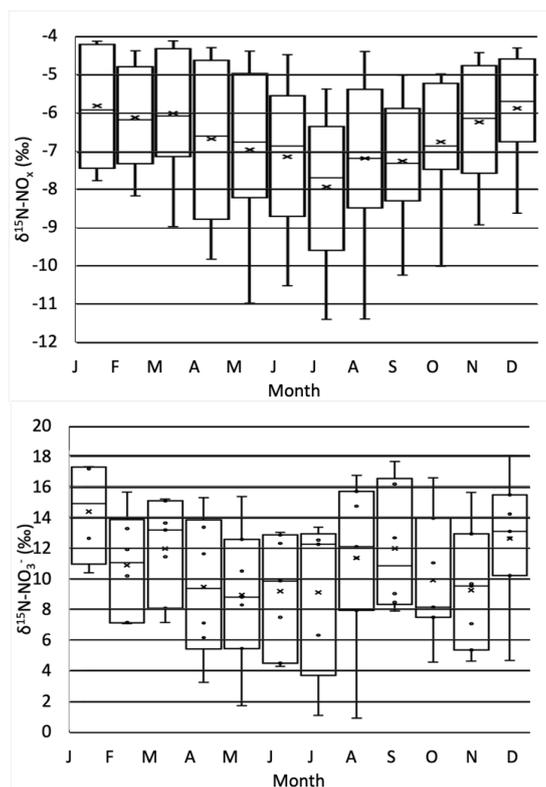
Figure 14: The CMAQ predicted $\delta^{15}N$ value of atmospheric NO_x at NADP sites within IN, IL, OH, and KY (top) using NEI-2002 and 2002 meteorology compared to the measured $\delta^{15}N$ of rain NO_3^- (bottom) from prior studies.

2   Comparing with the CMAQ simulation, the measurements of $\delta^{15}N$ values of NO_3^- at NADP

3   sites from prior studies (Mase, 2010; Riha, 2013) shows the similar monthly variations and

4   seasonal trend (Fig. 14, bottom). There is a wide range of $\delta^{15}N(NO_3^-)$ values within each month,

5   with a minimum during January (10.4~17.2‰) and a maximum during August (1.0~16.7‰). The

6   seasonal trend shows low $\delta^{15}N(NO_3^-)$ during spring, with the median around 9.3‰, and high

7      $\delta^{15}N(NO_3^-)$ during winter, with the median around 13.0‰. The measured $\delta^{15}N$ values of NO_3^- has

8   the same seasonal trend as the CMAQ simulated $\delta^{15}N$ values of NO_x. However, the measured $\delta^{15}N$

9   values of NO_3^- is about 17‰ higher than the CMAQ simulated $\delta^{15}N$ values of NO_x. The difference

10   between CMAQ simulated $\delta^{15}N$ values of NO_x and measured $\delta^{15}N$ values of NO_3^- is caused by the

1 following two factors: a). the mixture of isotopically lighter NO_x from the surrounding area
2 discussed in section 3.2, and b). the net N isotope effect during the conversion of NO_x to NO_3^-,
3 which will be addressed in future work.

5 4. Conclusion

6 The $\delta^{15}N$ of atmospheric NO_x was simulated by CMAQ, based on the emission input datasets
7 prepared from the previous companion research (Fang & Michalski, 2020) and the meteorology
8 input dataset simulated from WRF and MCIP. $\delta^{15}N$ is an effective tool to track the atmospheric
9 NO_x, in term of its evolution of spatial and temporal composition, altered by atmospheric processes.
10 The simulation indicates that the PBL height is the key driver for the mixture of anthropogenic
11 and natural NO_x emission, which deepens the gap between $\delta^{15}N$ of atmospheric NO_x and NO_x
12 emission. Comparing with the measurements of $\delta^{15}N(NO_3^-)$ from NADP sites within Indiana,
13 Illinois, Ohio, and Kentucky, the simulated $\delta^{15}N$ agreed well with the seasonal trend and monthly
14 variation. The performance of CMAQ simulated $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ is better than SMOKE $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$
15 from the previous companion research (Fang & Michalski, 2020), due to the consideration of
16 mixing, disperse, and transport of NO_x emission from different sources.

17 After considering the effects of NO_x emission sources and atmospheric processes, there is
18 still an obvious gap between the simulated $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ and the corresponding measurements.
19 Therefore, before adjusting the NO_x emission inventory, the future work is to explore how
20 tropospheric photochemistry alters $\delta^{15}N(NO_x)$ by incorporating ^{15}N into the chemical mechanism
21 of CMAQ and comparing the simulation with the corresponding measurements. With the
22 validation of our nitrogen isotopes incorporated CMAQ, the NO_x emission inventories could be
23 effectively evaluated and improved.

25 **Data availability:** The in-detail simulation results for $\delta^{15}N$ of atmospheric NO_x under all scenarios
26 discussed in this paper and the CMAQ-based c-shell script for generating BCON for nested domain
27 simulation are achieved on Zenodo.org (10.5281/zenodo.4311986). The source code for CMAQ
28 version 5.2.1 is available at https://github.com/USEPA/CMAQ/tree/5.2.1. The in-detail simulation
29 results for $\delta^{15}N$ of NO_x emission based on 2002 and 2016 versions of National Emission Inventory
30 and the associated python codes are achieved on Zenodo.org (10.5281/zenodo.4048992). The input
31 datasets for WRF simulation are available at https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/data/.

1   **Author contributions:** Huan Fang and Greg Michalski were the investigator for the project and
2   organized the tasks. Huan Fang develops the model codes, reconstruct CMAQ by incorporating
3   ^{15}N and performed the simulation to generated $\delta^{15}N$ values. Greg Michalski helped Huan Fang in
4   interpreting the results. Huan Fang prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

6   **Acknowledgments:** We would like to thank the Purdue Research Foundation and the Purdue
7   Climate Change Research Center for providing funding for the project. We would like to thank
8   Tomas Ratkus from Department of Earth, Atmospheric, and Planetary Sciences, Steven Plite, and
9   Frank Bakhit from Rosen Center for Advanced Computing, Purdue University for setting up
10   CMAQ on Purdue research computing for this project.

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