An evaluation of the interaction of morning residual layer and afternoon mixed layer ozone in Houston using ozonesonde data

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ABSTRACT

The Tropospheric Ozone Pollution Project (TOPP) launched >220 ozonesondes in Houston (July 2004–June 2008) providing examples of pollution transported into, re-circulated within, and exported from the Houston area. Fifty-one launches occurred during the Texas Air Quality Study (TexAQS II) and the summer portion of IONS-06 (INTERcontinentaL transport EXPERiment) ozonesonde Network Study. On 11 days during TexAQS II and on 8 other occasions, ozonesondes were launched both at dawn and in the afternoon. Analysis of these “intensive” launch sequences shows that morning residual layer (RL) ozone concentrations ([O3]), explained 60–70% of the variability found in the afternoon mixed layer (ML). Furthermore, maximum RL [O3] is nearly identical to the mean ML [O3] from the previous afternoon (morning minus afternoon = −16 ± 8 ppbv). During TexAQS II, mean [O3] below 1.3 km (the mean ML height from ozonesonde data) increased from 37 ± 22 ppbv in the morning to 74 ± 18 ppbv in the afternoon, suggesting an average net local daily O3 production of ~500–900 tons over the metropolitan Houston area.

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1. Introduction

Because exposure to ozone (O3) leads to numerous health problems, the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) in 1977 set a National Ambient Air Quality Standard (NAAQS) of a 1-h average <125 ppbv (parts per billion on a volume basis). A more rigorous standard, implemented in 1997, requires the three-year average of the 4th highest daily maximum 8-h average be <85 ppbv. Houston regularly exceeds both standards from March–November, a period longer than most other U.S. metropolitan areas. The EPA recently revised the 8-h standard to 75 ppbv, making it more difficult for Houston to achieve compliance.

A variety of factors contribute to Houston’s O3 pollution. 1) The 4th largest urban population in the U.S., much of which commutes from remote suburbs, results in broad NOx emissions throughout the Houston–Galveston–Brazoria Region (HGBR, note that Brazoria County is adjacent to Houston and Galveston), 2) One of the largest petrochemical production sectors in the world often produces co-located, concentrated hydrocarbon (HC) and nitrogen oxide (NOx) emissions, with HC reactivities in the Houston ship channel area 2–5 times higher than those over other U.S. urban locations (Kleiman et al., 2002; Daum et al., 2003), 3) The Parish power plant in Thompsons, TX (<50 km SW of downtown), one of the top 5 U.S. CO2 emitters (Center for Global Development, 2007), produces NOx (>5300 tons year−1, 2nd in HGBR, data from the Texas Commission for Environmental Quality, TCEQ). 4) Widespread forests in East Texas are a source of biogenic volatile organic compounds (VOCs), 5) Persistent high pressure and fair weather during summer and a location near Galveston Bay and the Gulf of Mexico frequently lead to stagnant air over the HGBR and/or recirculation of pollution via a land–sea breeze circulation (e.g., Banta et al., 2005), 6) Long-range transport of O3 and precursors from remote locations can exacerbate local pollution levels (e.g., Pierce et al., 2009). Past efforts to predict O3 exceedances in Houston were hampered by the lack of information on the O3 profile and the extent of vertical mixing (Davis and Speckman, 1999). From July 2004–June 2008, more than 220 ozonesondes were launched from Rice University or the University of Houston (Rice and UH respectively, see Table 1) as part of the Tropospheric Ozone Pollution Project (TOPP) and have provided some of the missing data.

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Tropp is the largest O₃ profile data set over a polluted urban area and has been a key component in IONS during the summers of 2004 and 2006 (Thompson et al., 2007). In addition to their use in satellite data validation studies (e.g., Worden et al., 2007; Jiang et al., 2007), the TOPP data have demonstrated the influence of remote forest fires on Houston pollution (Morris et al., 2006; McMillan et al., submitted for publication), found evidence for lightning influence on upper tropospheric O₃ (Cooper et al., 2007), examined the coupling between Mexico City and Houston pollution (Thompson et al., 2008), and linked frontal passages with surface O₃ variations in Houston (Rappenglück et al., 2008).

Most launches occur from 12 to 3 pm local time (“pm” launches) to coincide both with the afternoon O₃ pollution peak and with the ∼13:30 local solar time overlap of NASA’s Aura satellite (Schoeberl et al., 2006). Some launches occur prior to 11 am local time (“am” launches) on “intensive days,” chosen during the 2006 Texas Air Quality (TexAQS) II when high O₃ was forecast but otherwise made without regard to the O₃ forecast. Morning launches allow assessment of the impacts on peak afternoon O₃ concentrations (hereafter, [O₃]) of O₃ remaining aloft overnight in a residual layer (RL) that has been transported to Houston or, during stagnant conditions, is a remnant of the previous day’s pollution. This paper presents data from 19 “am” launches and 31 “pm” launches occurring on the same or previous afternoon (see Table 2).

Section 2 reviews boundary layer (BL) structure and O₃ data quality. Section 3 outlines our approach to RL and mixed layer (ML) classification. Section 4 describes four case studies that illustrate the role of RL O₃ in high-O₃ events. Finally, Section 5 provides preliminary analyses of the relationships among RL, ML, and surface O₃. Although our data set remains too small and temporally homogenous for firm general conclusions, it nevertheless provides evidence for the utility of soundings in forecasting HGBR O₃.

### Table 1
Site information for balloon launches and surface monitors in this study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Site</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Latitude</th>
<th>Longitude</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>University of Houston</td>
<td>8/5/2006 – present</td>
<td>29.72</td>
<td>95.33 W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAMS-81</td>
<td>5/3/2000 – present</td>
<td>29.74</td>
<td>95.32 W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAMS-235</td>
<td>10/24/1996 – present</td>
<td>29.67</td>
<td>95.13 W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAMS-411</td>
<td>3/30/2001 – present</td>
<td>29.75</td>
<td>95.34 W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAMS-603</td>
<td>5/16/1998 – present</td>
<td>29.77</td>
<td>95.18 W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LaPorte Wind Profiler</td>
<td>7/6/2005 – present</td>
<td>29.70</td>
<td>95.10 W</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2
Launch data for the 50 launches included in this study. Residual layer (RL) heights are provided for “am” launches while mixed layer (ML) heights are provided for “pm” launches. “X” indicates that a determination of RL or ML height was not possible.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Launch time (GMT)</th>
<th>Burst altitude (km)</th>
<th>RL/ML Height (km)</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Launch time (GMT)</th>
<th>Burst altitude (km)</th>
<th>RL/ML Height (km)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004/07/29</td>
<td>17:15</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>2006/06/19</td>
<td>18:01</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004/07/30</td>
<td>11:45</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>2006/06/20</td>
<td>12:03; 18:01</td>
<td>26.8; 27.9</td>
<td>1.1; 1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004/08/04</td>
<td>19:00</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>2006/06/25</td>
<td>12:00; 18:03</td>
<td>27.2; 27.2</td>
<td>0.8; 1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004/08/05</td>
<td>12:00; 19:00</td>
<td>23.0; 24.1</td>
<td>1.3; 2.0</td>
<td>2006/06/26</td>
<td>15:40; 19:16</td>
<td>27.3; 27.7</td>
<td>1.2; 1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005/08/02</td>
<td>18:46</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>2006/06/27</td>
<td>18:01</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>11:40; 19:00</td>
<td>22.5; 23.8</td>
<td>1.0; 1.3</td>
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<td>12:01; 18:02</td>
<td>27.9; 26.8</td>
<td>1.3; 1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005/08/17</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1.1; 1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1.0; 1.7</td>
<td>2007/08/10</td>
<td>18:32</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
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<td>27.9</td>
<td>1.7</td>
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<td>12:06; 16:31</td>
<td>22.6; 24.0</td>
<td>1.3; 1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>12:02; 18:38</td>
<td>26.2; 28.1</td>
<td>0.9; 2.1</td>
<td>2008/03/07</td>
<td>19:34</td>
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<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006/09/13</td>
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<td>27.6</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>2008/03/08</td>
<td>13:41; 19:25</td>
<td>17.8; 28.7</td>
<td>X; 0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006/09/14</td>
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<td>28.5; 27.1</td>
<td>1.8; 1.1</td>
<td>2008/05/22</td>
<td>12:08; 18:41</td>
<td>21.7; 22.0</td>
<td>1.3; 1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006/09/15</td>
<td>12:12; 18:04</td>
<td>28.3; 29.1</td>
<td>X; 1.7</td>
<td>2008/06/13</td>
<td>19:28</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006/09/19</td>
<td>18:01</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>2008/06/14</td>
<td>06:54; 13:57; 19:24</td>
<td>21.0; 19.1; 20.3</td>
<td>X; 0.8; 1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006/09/20</td>
<td>12:03; 18:01</td>
<td>26.8; 27.9</td>
<td>1.1; 1.2</td>
<td>2008/06/15</td>
<td>06:43; 12:04; 20:12</td>
<td>20.8; 20.9; 27.9</td>
<td>X; 0.6; 1.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 1. Data from CAMS-81 (see Table 1) shows increases in surface O₃ at night during periods of higher surface wind speeds. Eddies near the surface grow with the wind speed, entraining material from the residual layer (RL) aloft. The Figure shows surface [O₃] (asterisks) and wind speeds (dots) as well as local sunrises (gray dott-dash lines) and sunsets (gray dashed lines). The solid black vertical lines are at midnight. All data are plotted on Central Standard Time.

### 2. Background

#### 2.1. Meteorology

With sunset solar heating of the ground ceases, turbulence decays, the surface layer rapidly decouples from air aloft, and radiational cooling at the surface leads to the formation of a stable nocturnal boundary layer (NBL) a few hundred meters thick (Stull, 1988). The quick collapse of the ML after sunset traps O₃ in an RL, which in Houston can result in near total loss by dawn. RL isolation from the NBL is strongest with clear skies and weak, non-turbulent surface winds, conditions often found in post-frontal regions or areas with anticyclonic influences (Chung, 1977).

Fig. 1 depicts an example of the impact of RL O₃ on the NBL during the period 30 Aug.–3 Sept. 2006 with data from the Continuous Air Monitoring System #81 (CAMS-81, see Table 1, data courtesy of TCEQ) near downtown Houston. A front passed through Houston on 29 Aug. (see Rappenglück et al., 2008; Day et al., in this issue for detailed meteorological analyses). On both the 30th and 31st, [O₃] drops to <10 ppbv just before midnight as the hourly mean wind speeds drop to <1 m s⁻¹; just after midnight, wind speeds increase to 3–6 m s⁻¹ and [O₃] increases to >20 and >40 ppbv through downward mixing of RL O₃ by eddies. The night...
of 1 Sept, by contrast, has calm winds and almost no surface O3 from midnight through dawn.

Houston’s geographical location also plays an important role its O3 pollution. Close to the Gulf of Mexico (~80 km) and Trinity and Galveston Bays (~35 km), Houston meteorology is frequently influenced by a land–sea breeze. The importance of this local atmospheric circulation has been examined in previous studies (e.g., Banta et al., 2005; Darby, 2005), and a good example (1 Sept. 2006) is depicted in a TCEQ animation (TCEQ, 2006).

2.2. Ozonesondes

TOPP O3 profiles are measured using the electrochemical concentration cell (ECC) type (Komhyr, 1986) En-Sci 2Z ozonesonde instruments with 0.5% buffered KI cathode solution. The Jülich Ozone Sonde Intercomparison Experiment (JOSIE) found biases <5%, a precision of 3–5%, and an accuracy of 5–10% up to 30 km for such sondes (Smits et al., 2007).

Pressure, temperature, and relative humidity (RH) measurements are recorded by Vaisala RS80-15N radiosondes. Flights with global positioning systems (GPS) provide latitude, longitude, altitude, wind speed, and wind direction data. Pressure readings are validated through comparisons of pressure altitude with GPS altitude. For flights without GPS instruments, comparisons are made validated through comparisons of pressure altitude with GPS altitude, wind speed, and wind direction data. Pressure readings are interpolated to the launch time. One-minute resolution UHMT [O3] data are averaged over the 10 min around launch time for comparison with mean ozonesonde data between 85 m a.s.l. (the top of the UHMT) and 210 m a.s.l. (to account for the 20–25 s ozonesonde response time). Fig. 2 also shows a comparison between the readings at the two CAMS stations (~4 km apart) to evaluate geographic variability in Houston. Regression analyses of the relationships between these variables appear in Table 4. Both CAMS sites and the UHMT site show excellent agreement with the ozonesonde readings: all comparisons yield correlation coefficients >0.97 with slopes of nearly 1.00, consistent with Morris et al. (2006). Differences between the sondes and the CAMS sites can be explained by temporal and spatial variability of O3 in the HGBR.

### Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Rice</th>
<th>UH</th>
<th>CAMS-81</th>
<th>CAMS-411</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Distance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(km)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UH</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAMS-81</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAMS-411</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationship</th>
<th>Slope</th>
<th>Intercept</th>
<th>r</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CAMS-411 vs. Sonde</td>
<td>0.98 +/- 0.18</td>
<td>-0.5 +/- 1.2</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAMS-81 vs. Sonde</td>
<td>0.95 +/- 0.19</td>
<td>-1.8 +/- 1.3</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UHMT vs. Sonde</td>
<td>1.008 +/- 0.036</td>
<td>1.1 +/- 1.8</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAMS-81 vs. CAMS-411</td>
<td>0.98 +/- 0.17</td>
<td>-0.8 +/- 1.2</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the morning, solar heating generates turbulent eddies that blend the NBL upwards, forming an ML that by early afternoon is 1–2 km deep (Stull, 1988). Conserved and quasi-conserved trace species (like O3) are well mixed, and potential temperatures (θ) show constant values in the ML. The entrainment zone (EZ) sits above the ML and serves as the boundary between the turbulent ML below and the non-turbulent lower free troposphere (LFT) above.

Determining the depth and evolution of the ML and its impact on air pollution can be complicated (e.g., Berman et al., 1997). Instead of lidar data or wind profiler data (e.g., Davis et al., 2000; Cohn and Angevine, 2000; Grimsdell and Angevine, 1998), we use 4 sonde variables to assess ML heights in this study (similar to Day et al., in this issue ). First, a temperature inversion that traps pollution in the daytime ML occurs in the EZ. Second, θ is nearly constant in a well-mixed BL. Nielsen-Gammon et al. (2008) use microwave temperature profiler data to suggest an ML height defined as the minimum height at which θ is 1.5 K greater than its minimum value. Third, a sharp decrease in RH frequently marks the bottom of the ML (even on cloud-free days) as the sonde enters the drier LFT from the EZ (Stull, 1988). Nielsen-Gammon et al. (2008) suggest the top of the ML is where the dew point first shows a sharp decrease. Fourth, O3 profiles are strongly linked to the growth of the ML: [O3] within the ML is nearly constant (Zhang and Rao, 1999), while a sharp [O3] gradient often occurs above the top of the ML (Athanasiadis et al., 2002). In Houston, a steep negative [O3] gradient frequently occurs at the top of the ML. Positive gradients suggest the transport of O3 from remote regions (e.g., Morris et al., 2006). The example of Fig. 3 shows all four variables point to an ML height of ~1.7 km for the pm sounding on 1 Sept. 2006.

3.2. Residual layer identification

The top of the RL, much like the daytime ML, is marked by a capping inversion and sharp RH gradients, while the RL itself

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often retains properties of the prior day’s ML (e.g., [O3]), with nearly constant q. Fig. 4 shows an example for an am sounding on 5 Aug. 2004. The base of the RL is found near 0.5 km (as indicated by the temperature, q, RH, and O3 data). More difficult to define, the top of the RL likely is just above 1.5 km where the temperature profile shows an inversion, the RH drops off sharply, and [O3] reaches values that remain nearly constant up to w 4.0 km. Complicating this identification is the fact that [O3] within the RL often shows variability due to wind shear and horizontal [O3] gradients.

3.3. Other resources

Three additional tools aid in ozonesonde data analysis. First, data from the radar wind profiler at the LaPorte Municipal Airport (Table 1, courtesy TCEQ, see Day et al., in this issue) are used to identify stagnant conditions. Second, surface analyses from Unisys (weather.unisys.com) provide meteorological context. Third, 24-h back trajectories from three models aid in identifying air mass origins: 1) NOAA’s HYSPLIT model (Draxler and Rolph, 2003); graphical output described by Rolph, 2003) is run using the Eta Data Assimilation System with 40-km resolution (EDAS40); 2) the UH Regional Data Assimilation System (UH-RDAS), in which the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) North America Meso Scale Model (NAM) in coarse domain is interpolated to 12-km and 4-km resolution, then adjusted by observations using the objective analysis module in the Fifth Generation Meso Scale Model (MMS) (Grell et al., 1994), hereafter referred to as the CMAQ (Community Multiscale Air Quality) trajectories (Byun et al., 2004). (The CMAQ and HYSPLIT trajectories, therefore, are not completely independent since they use the same base model for their winds); and 3) the wind profiler trajectory tool (WPTT, White et al., 2006) which uses hourly data from wind profilers in SE Texas to compute trajectories at fixed altitudes.

4. Case studies


4.1. Case study #1: 4–5 Aug. 2004

Fig. 5 shows O3 profiles from this three-launch sequence. Ozonesondes in 2004 do not have GPS winds, and the LaPorte wind profiler was not operating, so Fig. 6 shows winds from the Goddard Earth Observing System version 4 (GEOS-4) model (Bloom et al., 2005) interpolated to the ozonesonde profiles. Wind speeds in the HGBR during this 2-day period were <5 m s⁻¹ below 1.7 km with a minimum <1 m s⁻¹ at ~1.0 km on the morning of 5 Aug.

The 4 Aug. pm data (Fig. 5) indicate a ~1.5 km ML depth with peak [O3] > 95 ppbv. The 5 Aug. am data show a distinct RL from 0.6 to 1.3 km, with a peak [O3] > 85 ppbv. The HYSPLIT and CMAQ back trajectories for the air mass sampled at 0.5-km in the am sounding are nearly identical and show the air mass over the Gulf of Mexico 12 h previously (Fig. 7), likely bringing cleaner air in the NBL into the HGBR overnight. In the middle of the RL, however, stagnant winds

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prevalled, as indicated by both the GEOS-4 wind speed profile at 1 km (Fig. 6) and the HYSPLIT 1.25-km back trajectory, which shows air mass recirculation over the HGBR for the previous 24 h (Fig. 7). (Note that this 1.25-km back trajectory suggests that stagnant air was present in a vertical layer near that altitude – inherent uncertainties in trajectories make the exact determination impossible. The appearance of the O₃ peak at ~0.9 km, therefore, is consistent with the stagnant layer predicted by the trajectory model.)

Afternoon ML O₃ on 5 Aug. peaked at ~90 ppbv in an ML ~2.1 km deep. The 0.5-km HYSPLIT back trajectory indicates air mass origins along the Texas Gulf Coast SW of Houston, while the 2-km trajectory was over east central Texas 24 h previously (not shown). The 1.25-km trajectory, however, remained within the HGBR for the entire 24-h period. Thus, polluted air from 4 Aug. likely remained in the RL over the HGBR overnight, became re-entrained in the ML on 5 Aug., and contributed to the high O₃ seen in the HGBR on the afternoon of 5 Aug.

4.2. Case study #2: 1–2 Sept. 2006

This period is the subject of several studies (e.g., Day et al., in this issue; McMillan et al., submitted for publication; Pierce et al., 2009). After a cold front passed through the HGBR on 29 Aug. 2006, winds shifted from SW to W to N, and background O₃ transported into the HGBR increased by ~30 ppbv (Rappenglück et al., 2008). Subsidence and generally fair weather behind the cold frontal passage provide ideal conditions for further O₃ production. The subsequent three-day period saw “elevated” to “unhealthy” surface O₃ in the HGBR.

Fig. 8 shows the mean of the 8-h ozone maxima from the ~40 operating CAMS sites in the HGBR (hereafter referred to as the 8-h mean) for the period of 26 Aug.–5 Sept. 2006. The maximum 8-h average surface O₃ at 11 CAMS sites in the HGBR exceeded 100 ppbv on 1 Sept., peaking at 121 ppbv at Deer Park (CAMS-235, see Table 1), with an 8-h mean for the HGBR of 91 ± 14 ppbv, the highest day in this study. One-hour ozone values reached 161 ppbv at the CAMS-603 site (Table 1) and exceeded 125 ppbv at 10 CAMS sites. Fig. 8 also shows the daily maximum UHMT O₃ and the mean ML O₃ from the pm soundings. All three data sets show a sharp increase in O₃ after the frontal passage.

Fig. 9 shows the O₃ profiles from the three-sonde sequence. O₃ aloft was highest on 1 Sept., peaking at ~115 ppbv in an ML that was ~1.7 km deep. The next morning, the RL had a maximum O₃ of ~65 ppbv near 0.7 km. The decrease in O₃ in this RL from the previous day may be the result of sporadic rain events that occurred 5–8 pm (CDT) on 1 Sept. (Moody Tower rain gauge data and www.wunderground.com: KHOU station report). The LaPorte wind profiler observed a layer of weak winds, generally < ~2.5 m s⁻¹, from 0.5 to 1.5 km altitude between the launches, with stagnant winds in a layer at ~0.6 km at 07:00 and at ~1.1 km by 12:00 GMT, the am launch time on 2 Sept. (see Fig. 10). GPS data from the ozonesondes indicate wind speeds ~2.5 m s⁻¹ in the lowest 1.0 km, with winds ~1.25 m s⁻¹ at 1.0 km (not shown). Below this stagnant layer, winds turned clockwise from SE to S to
W, bringing in cleaner air from the Gulf of Mexico during the evening. Just above the layer, flow was NE to E overnight, with stronger winds (>12.5 m s^-1) aloft.

HYSPLIT back trajectories for the morning of 2 Sept. show that below 0.5 km, air arrived from the SW from just off Galveston coast 18–24 h earlier. Above 0.5 km, air comes from the E, with higher-level air masses (0.75 and 1.0 km) in Arkansas 24 h prior. Near 0.5 km, where the [O₃] maximum in the dawn RL is found and stagnation is shown by the LaPorte profiler overnight, both the HYSPLIT and CMAQ trajectories show the air remaining in the HGBR for the entire previous 24-h. (The re-circulating layer is seen at ~0.75 km by the WPTT.) The importance of re-circulated O₃ in this event also can be seen in the TCEQ animation (TCEQ, 2006). The air mass with low O₃ near 1.0 km passed through the petrochemical/industrial sector along Galveston Bay en route to Houston and may represent an artifact of SO₂ interference in the sondes method (Rappenglück et al., 2008).

As the ML grew between the 2 Sept. am and pm launches, entrainment of elevated RL O₃ occurred. The afternoon ML height reached 2.1 km, below which [O₃] is a nearly constant ~80 ppbv. Surface [O₃] measured by the sondes increased from 4 to 74 ppbv in the 6.5 h between launches. The decrease in ML [O₃] from 1 to 2 Sept. may be due in part to higher ML heights and wind speeds that provided a larger mixing volume for Houston's pollution. A more appropriate comparison is the horizontal O₃ flux (OF), which we define as

\[ OF = \left( [O₃]_{\text{Hou}} - [O₃]_{\text{back}} \right) \times z_{\text{ML}} / v_{\text{ML}} \]

where \([O₃]_{\text{Hou}}\) is the mean pm ML O₃ in Houston, \([O₃]_{\text{back}}\) is the background O₃, as suggested on these days by the 3–4 km mean [O₃], \(z_{\text{ML}}\) is the height of the ML and \(v_{\text{ML}}\) is the mean ML wind speed. Using ozonesonde measurements of all three factors, we find

1 Sept: \((165 \pm 73) \times 10^3\) ppbv m² s⁻¹

2 Sept: \((210 \pm 130) \times 10^3\) ppbv m² s⁻¹

a change of \((50 \pm 150) \times 10^3\) ppbv m² s⁻¹. While this result is not statistically significant, such a calculation may be useful for future studies.

To summarize, a number of factors enhanced O₃ in Houston during this event: 1) the cold frontal passage increased background O₃ by changing flow from maritime to continental (Pierce et al., 2009); 2) the higher background interacted with locally generated pollution leading to enhanced surface O₃; 3) generally stagnant winds ~0.7 km allowed at least some of the HGBR pollution to be recycled; and 4) descending air and fair weather behind the cold front provided ideal conditions for local O₃ production for several consecutive days.

4.3. Case study #3: 5 Oct. 2006

This case is shown in Fig. 11, with the am [O₃] < 5 ppbv and \(\theta\) nearly constant (~295 K) below 125 m. From 125 to 600 m, \(\theta\)
increases rapidly up to a negative gradient at ~600 m, marking the RL bottom. \([O_3]\) peaks at ~60 ppbv, then decreases above ~1.3 km, the RL top. TCEQ data indicate the maximum 8-h \(O_3\) on 4 Oct. was 81 ppbv with an 8-hr mean of 53 \(/C_6\) 11 ppbv, consistent with the peak morning RL \([O_3]\). The pm \([O_3]\) is nearly constant at ~73 ppbv from 0.3 to 1.2 km (the latter being the ML top) with nearly constant \(\theta\) below (~305 K) and steadily increasing \(\theta\) above 1.2 km.

LaPorte wind profiler data between the am and pm launches shows persistently light but increasing wind speeds (<2.5 m s\(^{-1}\) before 15:00 GMT increasing to 5 m s\(^{-1}\) by 16:30 GMT, not shown) < 1 km with evening winds on 4 Oct. SE off the Gulf of Mexico and morning winds on 5 Oct. NE, a typical land–sea breeze circulation for Houston. HYSPLIT and CMAQ back trajectories for both soundings show air arriving in the HGBR from East Central Texas and/or Central Louisiana 24 h earlier (not shown). The WPTT shows more Gulf influences for the am sounding and transport from the Beaumont–Port Arthur region (BPAR) 24 h previously near 500 m for the pm sounding (not shown).

### 4.4. Case study #4: 10–11 Aug. 2007

High pressure over the Gulf of Mexico resulted in several successive days of fair weather and light winds, creating conditions favorable to the recirculation of the Houston plume. LaPorte wind profiler data for this period (Fig. 12) indicate persistent light winds below 2 km, with a layer of winds generally < 2.5 m s\(^{-1}\) from 0.5 to
1.0 km from the afternoon of 10 Aug. to the afternoon of 11 Aug. The turning of the winds in the lowest 500 m is evidence of the land-sea breeze circulation.

Fig. 13 shows the O3 and $q$ for the three launches. The 10 Aug. pm ML is 2.0 km thick, with nearly constant $q$ (295 K). [O3] in the ML increases steadily from the surface (60 ppbv) to 1.6 km (75 ppbv), then decreases slightly up to the ML top (60–65 ppbv) where air with less O3 may be entrained from the LFT.

The 11 Aug. am RL is well defined by $q$, with nearly constant values (295 K) from 0.6 to 1.3 km. Morning RL [O3] peaked at 58 ppbv near 0.75 km. The 11 Aug. pm $\theta$ shows a well-defined ML, with nearly constant values (297 K) up to 1.7 km. Afternoon O3 peaks at 75 ppbv near 1.6 km, as on the previous afternoon.

GPS wind data from the ozonesondes (not shown) indicate weak and variable winds throughout the ML on both pm launches, with E winds aloft below 4 km. For the am sounding, WNW winds in the boundary layer (<400 m) increased with altitude up to a peak of 8 m s$^{-1}$ at 250 m; in the RL, N winds were <5 m s$^{-1}$. From 1.0 to 1.75 km, winds were light (<5 m s$^{-1}$) and variable, while above 2 km, E winds were 5–10 m s$^{-1}$.

Both pm launches occurred at ~1:30 pm local time, with surface O3 only marginally higher on the 11th (65 ppbv) than on the 10th (60 ppbv). As with the pm profile on the 10th, O3 steadily increased from the surface to the top of the ML, where the two profiles are nearly identical. O3 in the RL (2–3 km) decreased (10th: 55–70 ppbv; 11th: 35–40 ppbv).

The pm 10 Aug. trajectories (all models) arrived in the HGBR after moving W across the Louisiana Gulf Coast and SE Texas, introducing elevated continental O3 background values. The pm WPTT back trajectory at 2.0 km for 11 Aug. shows an air mass that arrived in the HGBR via the Gulf of Mexico, potentially resulting in the advection of lower [O3]. The 0.5-km CMAQ trajectory (Fig. 14) moved from the BPAR along the Texas Gulf Coast, across Galveston Bay, and into Houston through Galveston Bay by the am launch on 11 Aug., suggesting a possible influence of the Beaumont plume on Houston for 11 Aug. The 8-h mean of the surface O3 monitors in the BPAR on 11 Aug. was 60.6 ± 3.4 ppbv (TCEQ data), consistent with [O3] at the top of the ML over Houston that day. (The pm 11 Aug. WPTT 0.6–0.9 km trajectories, however, suggests a stagnant air mass over the HGBR rather than a BPAR source.)

5. General analysis

Although the set of 50 soundings in this analysis is relatively small, it still demonstrates the utility of soundings in forecasting O3. The data suggest that the Houston plume interacts with the LFT and provide an initial assessment of the importance of local production on HGBR O3.
5.1. Mean profiles during TexAQS II

Fig. 15 summarizes the O₃ profiles from eight am-launches and eleven pm-launches occurring either the same day or the previous afternoon from 17 Aug.–5 Oct. 2006. The mean am [O₃] below 1.3 km (the mean pm ML height) is 37 ± 22 ppbv, while the mean pm [O₃] is 74 ± 18 ppbv, a mean daily enhancement of 37 ± 28 ppbv. Enhancements at the surface are much higher, averaging >65 ppbv.

For the 7 days with both am and pm flights, integrating the am and pm profiles to the top of the pm ML, we find a mean am O₃ column of 4.5 ± 2.3 DU and a mean pm column of 8.2 ± 4.1 DU, an enhancement of 3.7 ± 4.7 DU, consistent with the mixing ratio increases above. Such changes, if assumed to occur in stagnant air over the entire HGBR (with a 40 km radius), result in a mean net daily local O₃ production of ~400 tons. Alternatively, we use the mean wind speed over Houston (4.3 ± 2.9 m s⁻¹ from 0.1 to 1.0 km from 23 soundings during TexAQS II) to compute the volume of air in which O₃ production has occurred. This approach yields a mean net local production of ~900 tons. Such O₃ production estimates are reasonable given stationary source emission inventory data (from TCEQ for 2006) of ~160 ton day⁻¹ of NOₓ in the HGBR and an episodic worst-case estimate of 340 ton day⁻¹ of NOₓ (all sources in Harris County only; S. Kim, personal communication, 2008).

While the mean am and pm profiles in Fig. 15 agree well above 3 km, enhancements in the pm profile (though not statistically significant) are observed at altitudes of up to ~2.8 km. The highest ML observed by the sondes in this study was 2.1 km on 2 Sept. 2006 (see also Fig. 5d in Thompson et al., 2008), so these enhancements suggest possible export pathways in both the ML and the LFT for Houston pollution. More days with multiple ozonesonde launches are clearly needed to further investigate the impact of the Houston plume on the LFT.

5.2. RL content

Fig. 16 examines the relationship between the maximum RL O₃ in the am soundings and O₃ measured the previous day on the 10 occasions for which the back trajectories from 0.5 to 2.0 km associated with the am launch and those associated with the previous pm launch show similar origins and for which no rainfall was observed between the two launches (2004/07/29–30, 2004/08/04–05; 2006/08/30–31; 2006/09/13–14; 2006/09/19–20, 2006/09/25–26, 2007/08/10–11, 2008/03/07–08, 2008/06/13–14, and 2008/06/14–15). Two data sets are used for comparison: the 8-h mean and the mean ML O₃ observed by the previous pm ozonesondes. Both data sets show a strong correlation with the maximum am RL [O₃] (see Table 5 for statistical data). The mean differences are: (am RL [O₃] − 8-h mean) = 3.2 ± 8.0 ppbv; (am RL [O₃]–pm ML [O₃]) = −1.6 ± 8.4 ppbv.

5.3. Impact of RL on afternoon BL

Fig. 17 shows the relationship among three possible predictive variables for pm O₃: 1) The 8-h mean from CAMS data is compared with the maximum RL [O₃] from the same day’s am sounding; 2) mean ML [O₃] as determined from the pm sounding is compared with the maximum RL [O₃] from the same day’s am sounding; and 3) the 8-h mean from CAMS is compared to its value from the previous day. The statistical data in Table 6 indicates that while correlation coefficients are similar, the sounding information results in a slope closer to 1.00. Furthermore, the am RL data explain ~60% of the variability found in the pm data, consistent with Neu et al. (1994), Kleinman et al. (1994), and Millan et al. (2000), all of which suggest that re-entrainment of RL O₃ can account for 50–100% of the day’s maximum surface [O₃].

6. Summary and future work

The ozonesonde data presented in this work demonstrate the impact that O₃ stored in the RL overnight can have on HGBR surface
O₃ the following day. A strong correlation was found between the maximum am RL [O₃] with the subsequent afternoon’s surface [O₃], the former explaining 60–70% of the latter. Furthermore, the maximum RL [O₃] is consistent with the HGBR 8-h mean [O₃] and the mean pm BL [O₃] from the previous day (absent rain and with similarly back trajectories or a stagnant air mass). Differences between the pm and am profiles from the same day during TexAQS II suggest local production increased ML O₃ from 37 ± 22 ppbv to 74 ± 18 ppbv, a daily enhancement of 37 ± 28 ppbv, or ~400–900 tons of O₃. Data from intensive launch days may be useful for quantifying the O₃ flux out of the HGBR in the ML and in the LFT where it can be transported over great distances and affect air quality in regions remote from Houston. The case studies suggest impacts from pollution transported within Southeast Texas and re-circulated within the HGBR. Statistically stronger conclusions would be achieved through intensive launches conducted throughout the year, allowing insights into seasonal differences in local O₃ production and transport. Regular am soundings, particularly during the spring and summer high-O₃ seasons, could prove valuable in forecasting afternoon HGBR [O₃].

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