



## RESEARCH LETTER

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Tropopause-Level NO<sub>x</sub> in the Asian Summer MonsoonKimberlee Dubé<sup>1</sup> , William Randel<sup>2</sup> , Adam Bourassa<sup>1</sup> , and Doug Degenstein<sup>1</sup>

## Key Points:

- Satellite data show a relative minimum in the NO<sub>2</sub> concentration within the Asian summer monsoon (ASM) in the upper troposphere-lower stratosphere (UTLS)
- Photochemical box model calculations show corresponding maxima in UTLS NO and NO<sub>x</sub>, due to low O<sub>3</sub> and temperature in the monsoon
- NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> from satellite data and a climate model show good agreement within the ASM

## Supporting Information:

Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

## Correspondence to:

K. Dubé,  
[kimberlee.dube@usask.ca](mailto:kimberlee.dube@usask.ca)

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## Author Contributions:

**Conceptualization:** Kimberlee Dubé, William Randel, Adam Bourassa  
**Data curation:** Kimberlee Dubé  
**Formal analysis:** Kimberlee Dubé  
**Methodology:** Kimberlee Dubé  
**Supervision:** Adam Bourassa, Doug Degenstein  
**Visualization:** Kimberlee Dubé  
**Writing – original draft:** Kimberlee Dubé  
**Writing – review & editing:** Kimberlee Dubé, William Randel, Adam Bourassa, Doug Degenstein

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<sup>1</sup>Institute of Space and Atmospheric Studies, University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon, SK, Canada, <sup>2</sup>National Center for Atmospheric Research, Boulder, CO, USA

**Abstract** Deep convection within the Asian summer monsoon (ASM) transports surface level air into the upper troposphere-lower stratosphere (UTLS). This work aims to understand the distribution of NO<sub>2</sub>, NO, and NO<sub>x</sub> in the UTLS ASM anticyclone from satellite measurements. Observations of NO<sub>2</sub> from the Optical Spectrograph and InfraRed Imager System, the Atmospheric Chemistry Experiment - Fourier Transform Spectrometer (ACE-FTS), and the Stratospheric Aerosol and Gas Experiment III on the International Space Station are considered. The PRATMO photochemical box model is used to quantify the NO<sub>x</sub> photochemistry, and to derive the NO<sub>x</sub> concentration using OSIRIS NO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> observations. The satellite data show a relative minimum in NO<sub>2</sub> over the ASM in the summer months, while the corresponding NO and NO<sub>x</sub> anomalies are elevated, mainly due to low O<sub>3</sub> and cold temperatures within the ASM. The observations within the ASM show reasonable agreement to simulations from the Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model.

**Plain Language Summary** Motion within the Asian summer monsoon (ASM) transports air from the Earth's surface to the upper troposphere-lower stratosphere (UTLS), an altitude of around 10–15 km. This provides a pathway for surface level pollutants to influence the chemistry of the UTLS. One such pollutant is NO<sub>x</sub>, which is the sum of NO<sub>2</sub> and NO. Here we consider observations of NO<sub>2</sub> from the Optical Spectrograph and InfraRed Imager System, the Atmospheric Chemistry Experiment-Fourier Transform Spectrometer (ACE-FTS), and the Stratospheric Aerosol and Gas Experiment III on the International Space Station, along with NO<sub>x</sub> derived from OSIRIS NO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> observations. The satellite data show that a relative maximum in NO<sub>x</sub> within the UTLS ASM corresponds to a relative minimum in NO<sub>2</sub>. This is mainly due to low O<sub>3</sub> and cold temperatures within the ASM that alter the NO<sub>x</sub> chemistry. The observations show good agreement with climate model simulations. These findings provide new information on UTLS NO<sub>x</sub> behavior and the chemistry that occurs within the ASM.

## 1. Introduction

The Asian summer monsoon (ASM) is a region of persistent deep convection that appears over the southeast Asian region each summer, driving a planetary-scale anticyclonic circulation in the upper troposphere-lower stratosphere (UTLS). Important aspects of monsoon convection and circulation include the rapid transport of air from the surface into the UTLS and confinement by anticyclonic circulation (e.g., Bian et al., 2020; Bourassa et al., 2012; Brunamonti et al., 2018; Li et al., 2005; Pan et al., 2016; Randel et al., 2010; von Hobe et al., 2021). These processes provide a pathway for near-surface air, including pollutants, to influence UTLS chemical processes.

Measurements from satellite limb and occultation instruments are useful for observing the composition of the monsoon, providing complementary information to nadir-sounding satellite instruments and sparse research aircraft measurements. Numerous studies have used these satellite observations to quantify the chemical composition of the UTLS associated with the ASM, showing enhanced values of chemical constituents that originate in the troposphere, such as CO and HCN (e.g., Li et al., 2005; Park et al., 2008; Randel et al., 2010). On the other hand, O<sub>3</sub> and HNO<sub>3</sub>, which are molecules of stratospheric origin, show decreased concentrations within the monsoon anticyclone (e.g., Park et al., 2007, 2008; Santee et al., 2017). The monsoon anticyclone is also associated with cold temperature anomalies in the UTLS, and warm temperature anomalies in the mid-troposphere (Randel & Park, 2006).

Nitrogen oxides NO and NO<sub>2</sub> (the sum of which is called NO<sub>x</sub>) play a critical role in the chemistry of the atmosphere. In the troposphere NO<sub>x</sub> produces O<sub>3</sub>, while in the stratosphere NO<sub>x</sub> destroys O<sub>3</sub>. Roy et al. (2017) linked

increases in Chinese and Indian  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions to increased  $\text{O}_3$  production within the troposphere during the ASM. Fadnavis et al. (2015) modeled enhanced  $\text{NO}_x$  in the ASM, which they associated with the upward transport of pollutants and the production of  $\text{NO}_x$  in the upper troposphere by lightning. Lightning is known to produce  $\text{NO}_x$  (e.g., Tie et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2000) and the ASM has been associated with high lightning flash rates (Penki & Kamra, 2013). While Fadnavis et al. (2015) found that the transport of emissions to the UTLS is the largest factor affecting  $\text{NO}_x$  in the ASM, Lelieveld et al. (2018) found that lightning is still a key source of  $\text{NO}_x$  in the upper tropospheric monsoon anticyclone. Lelieveld et al. (2018) present the near continuous production of lightning  $\text{NO}_x$  within the ASM convection region as the key factor in the formation of upper tropospheric OH. The OH can then oxidize pollutant gases into forms that are easily removed by precipitation, thus cleansing the atmosphere.

While the above studies have focused on modeling the influence of the ASM on  $\text{NO}_x$ , comparatively little is known about the observed behavior of the individual components of  $\text{NO}_x$ , NO, and  $\text{NO}_2$ . Park et al. (2004) examined NO and  $\text{NO}_2$  observations from the Halogen Occultation Experiment (HALOE, Russell et al., 1993). Only the HALOE sunset occultations were considered. Park et al. (2004) found that the mean July NO and  $\text{NO}_2$  mixing ratios at 100 hPa from 1992 to 2002 both displayed maximum values in the ASM anticyclone region. When added together to get  $\text{NO}_x$  the HALOE data showed a maximum of 0.5–0.8 ppmv in the ASM. They suggested that this lower stratospheric  $\text{NO}_x$  maximum is due to the transport of tropospheric  $\text{NO}_x$  produced by lightning. Aside from Park et al. (2004), little observational evidence on the behavior of  $\text{NO}_x$  in the ASM has been reported.

Here we investigate  $\text{NO}_x$  in the ASM using  $\text{NO}_2$  measurements from the Optical Spectrograph and InfraRed Imager System (OSIRIS, Llewellyn et al., 2004), combined with the PRATMO photochemical box model (McLinden et al., 2000). Additional satellite measurements are provided by the Atmospheric Chemistry Experiment—Fourier Transform Spectrometer (ACE-FTS, Bernath et al., 2005), and the Stratospheric Aerosol and Gas Experiment on the International Space Station (SAGE III/ISS, Cisewski et al., 2014). We include comparisons with simulations from the Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model (WACCM, e.g., Gettelman et al., 2019) to inform the satellite data analysis and evaluate model behavior. The focus here is on temporal and spatial averages, rather than the shorter term variability that is a feature of the ASM anticyclone (e.g., Gottschaldt et al., 2018; Vogel et al., 2016). The combination of data from several instruments, along with the models, provides novel information on UTLS  $\text{NO}_x$  behavior and related photochemistry of the ASM.

## 2. Satellite Data and Models

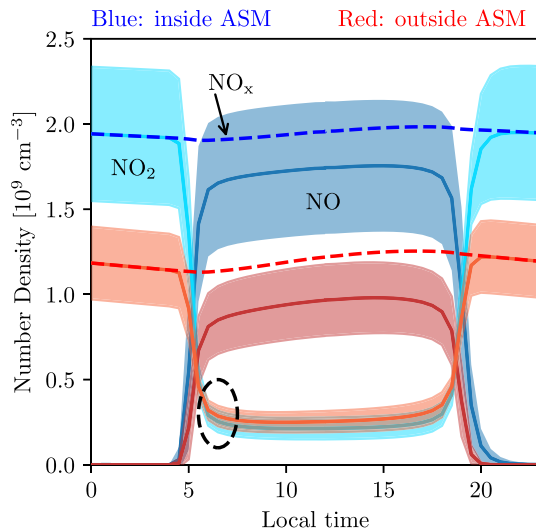
### 2.1. OSIRIS

OSIRIS has been operating from a sun-synchronous orbit aboard the Odin satellite since October 2001 (Llewellyn et al., 2004; Murtagh et al., 2002). The optical spectrograph scans the limb of the atmosphere to measure 100 to 400 vertical profiles of limb-scattered solar irradiance each day, at wavelengths from 280 to 800 nm. Only the descending node measurements, occurring near a local solar time (LST) of 6:30 a.m., are used here. These form the vast majority of the observations throughout the mission. The exact timing of the measurements varies by about an hour due to the precessing orbit of the spacecraft.

We are using version 7.2 of the OSIRIS  $\text{NO}_2$  retrieval, which is fully described and validated in Dubé et al. (2022). Earlier versions of the  $\text{NO}_2$  retrieval were developed by Sioris et al. (2003), Haley et al. (2004), Bourassa et al. (2011), and Sioris et al. (2017). The v7.2 retrieval was designed to improve performance in the UTLS through improved cloud and aerosol filtering, and to reduce a low bias observed in the previous v6.0. The OSIRIS  $\text{NO}_2$  is available for altitudes from 10.5 to 39.5 km. As we are focused on the UTLS the averaging kernel filter discussed in Dubé et al. (2022) is used here to ensure that only  $\text{NO}_2$  values with a well-behaved averaging kernel are included in the analysis. This filter puts a lower bound on the  $\text{NO}_2$  profiles by determining where the peak of the averaging kernel becomes more than 1.5 km different from the altitude at which information is being retrieved.

### 2.2. PRATMO

The PRATMO photochemical box model was initially developed by M. Prather and Jaffe (1990) and subsequently updated by McLinden et al. (2000). The reactions included in the model are listed in Logan et al. (1978)



**Figure 1.** Mean daily cycle in NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, and NO<sub>x</sub> at 17.5 km calculated by PRATMO with OSIRIS inputs from July 2008, contrasting behaviors inside versus outside of the Asian summer monsoon (ASM). The shaded areas are the standard deviation. Inside the ASM is defined as 20°–40°N, 20°–120°E. Outside the ASM is defined as 20°–40°N, 180°–120°W. OSIRIS NO<sub>2</sub> measurements occur in the early morning, as indicated by the black dashed oval.

and McLinden et al. (2000). PRATMO starts with an input atmospheric state, then computes a set of chemical reactions over 1 day, iterating until the start and end values converge (M. J. Prather, 1992). The result is a 24 hr steady-state system of all the chemical species included in the model. The inputs required by the model are ozone, temperature, air density, and pressure profiles for a specified latitude, longitude, and date. These parameters are kept constant over the course of the day. OSIRIS measures O<sub>3</sub> so those values are used in the PRATMO runs. The model outputs are the NO<sub>2</sub> and NO profiles at any predetermined LST.

We use PRATMO results to scale the OSIRIS NO<sub>2</sub> observations to a common LST, and to convert the OSIRIS NO<sub>2</sub> to NO<sub>x</sub>. The scaling of NO<sub>2</sub> measurements to a different LST is a commonly used process that accounts for variations in the measurement time due to the precessing satellite orbit (e.g., Brohede et al., 2007; Dubé et al., 2020; Park et al., 2017). Here all OSIRIS measurements are scaled to 12:00 p.m. Details of the calculation are given in Dubé et al. (2020). The OSIRIS NO<sub>2</sub> is converted to NO<sub>x</sub> by multiplication with the ratio of PRATMO NO<sub>x</sub> to NO<sub>2</sub>, as employed previously by Park et al. (2017) and Dubé et al. (2020).

### 2.3. WACCM

We perform parallel analyses on simulations from WACCM, which is a comprehensive chemistry-climate model. WACCM details are discussed at <https://www2.acom.ucar.edu/gcm/waccm>, and we use the recently updated version 6 (WACCM6) described in Gettelman et al. (2019). The simulation used here has ~1° horizontal resolution and 88 vertical levels from the surface to 140 km (~1 km vertical resolution in the UTLS), and uses so-called specified dynamics (SD) incorporating meteorological fields from Modern-Era Retrospective analysis for Research and Applications Version 2 (MERRA-2) reanalyses (Gelaro et al., 2017). The kinetic reaction rates used in WACCM are from Burkholder et al. (2015). We analyze results from one monsoon season covering 15 July–30 August 2020. To analyze diurnal variability, the model output is saved at 3-hr intervals. The WACCM values were converted from UTC to LST by calculating the solar time in each latitude and longitude bin and interpolating between the 3-hourly time intervals for each day to get values at a LST of 12:00 p.m.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Photochemistry

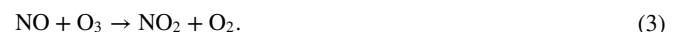
The NO<sub>x</sub> number density and the proportion of NO<sub>2</sub> and NO that make up the NO<sub>x</sub> both depend on the local solar time, and the balances depend on the background photochemical environment, especially O<sub>3</sub> and temperature. The diurnal cycles of NO<sub>x</sub> components inside and outside of the ASM region derived from OSIRIS NO<sub>2</sub> measurements and PRATMO calculations are illustrated in Figure 1. There is a sharp decrease in the NO<sub>2</sub> concentration at sunrise as it is photolyzed to become NO via the reaction



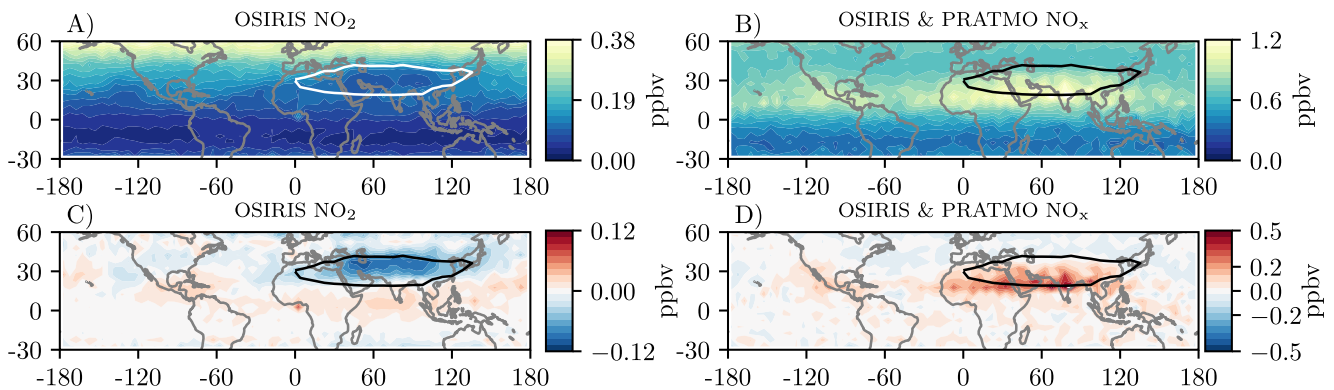
Throughout the daylight hours NO<sub>2</sub> and NO are in approximate equilibrium as they interconvert rapidly through the reactions



and



NO is the dominant daytime component of NO<sub>x</sub> in the UTLS, mainly due to low O<sub>3</sub> near the tropopause (slow NO conversion from Reaction 3). At sunset Reaction 1 ceases producing NO, resulting in a rapid increase in



**Figure 2.** (a) Time average 85 hPa  $\text{NO}_2$  in JJA for the whole OSIRIS mission, with values scaled to 12:00 p.m. (b) Mean  $\text{NO}_x$  at 85 hPa calculated from OSIRIS  $\text{NO}_2$  and PRATMO. Corresponding longitudinal anomalies in (c)  $\text{NO}_2$  and (d)  $\text{NO}_x$  at 85 hPa, calculated as differences from the mean values over the Pacific Ocean ( $180^\circ$ – $120^\circ$ W). Circled area is the 16.75 km geopotential height contour at 100 hPa used to identify the Asian summer monsoon.

the  $\text{NO}_2$  concentration. Overnight both the NO and  $\text{NO}_2$  amounts decrease slowly as they are converted to nitrogen containing reservoir species (primarily  $\text{NO}_3$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$ ). Satellite limb observations (e.g., OSIRIS) usually occur near dawn/dusk, and satellite occultation observations (including ACE-FTS and SAGE III/ISS) occur at sunrise/sunset, so the rapidly changing chemistry at these times of day needs to be considered when interpreting the satellite measurements.

As seen in Figure 1, the relative daytime NO fraction is larger inside of the ASM compared to outside. Sensitivity tests with PRATMO show that these photochemical balances are mostly linked to low  $\text{O}_3$  in the ASM, with a secondary influence of cold temperatures (because of the temperature dependence of the rate constant in Reaction 3, e.g., Burkholder et al., 2020). For UTLS conditions, a decrease in  $\text{O}_3$  of about 50% produces 25% less  $\text{NO}_2$  and 5% more NO, while 4% lower temperatures result in about 4% less  $\text{NO}_2$  and 15% more NO at 85 hPa. Both low ozone and cold temperatures are accentuated within the UTLS ASM.

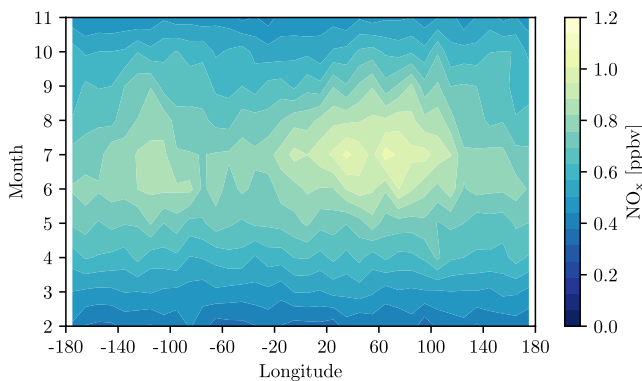
While we focus here on the partitioning of  $\text{NO}_x$  between NO and  $\text{NO}_2$ , it should be noted that other nitrogen-containing compounds could also influence the overall  $\text{NO}_x$  concentration. The presence of the Asian tropopause aerosol layer (Vernier et al., 2011), along with the colder temperatures in the ASM anticyclone, provide an opportunity for enhanced heterogeneous chemistry. This could result in the conversion of  $\text{NO}_x$  to either  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  or  $\text{ClONO}_2$ . Solomon et al. (2016) observed enhanced heterogeneous chlorine activation in the ASM within a model simulation, and a corresponding downwind enhancement of  $\text{ClONO}_2$ , so the loss of  $\text{NO}_x$  through this pathway is likely to occur.

### 3.2. Satellite Observations

The 30-year average OSIRIS  $\text{NO}_2$  concentration has a minima in the ASM during the summer months. Figure 2a shows the mean  $\text{NO}_2$  volume mixing ratio (VMR) at 85 hPa in June-July-August (JJA) as measured by OSIRIS. The mean values include  $\text{NO}_2$  observations from 2002 to 2020. Each OSIRIS  $\text{NO}_2$  profile was interpolated from altitude to pressure levels and converted from number density to VMR using the temperature and pressure information from MERRA-2 that is included in the data files. The approximate location of the ASM is given by the 16.75 km geopotential height contour at 100 hPa (e.g., Bourassa et al., 2012).

The ASM minimum in the OSIRIS  $\text{NO}_2$  observations is most easily seen by removing the large-scale background latitudinal structure (Figure 2c). The anomaly for a given latitude is the difference from the mean value at that latitude over the Pacific Ocean ( $180^\circ$ – $120^\circ$ W), far outside of the monsoon. The  $\text{NO}_2$  is about 0.1 ppbv lower in the ASM region that it is at other longitudes.

A test was performed to ensure that shifting the OSIRIS  $\text{NO}_2$  observations to 12:00 p.m. using scale factors derived from  $\text{O}_3$  and temperature inputs to PRATMO did not produce the signal observed in Figures 2a and 2c. First we calculated the zonal mean  $\text{NO}_2$ . The average PRATMO scale factor in each latitude and longitude bin was then used to scale the zonal mean  $\text{NO}_2$  to noon. This scaling did not produce significant longitudinal structure that could be associated with the ASM, providing confidence that the ASM signal in the OSIRIS  $\text{NO}_2$  observations is real, rather than produced by PRATMO.



**Figure 3.** Monthly average 85 hPa  $\text{NO}_x$  as a function of longitude derived from OSIRIS + PRATMO calculations (scaled to 12:00). Data are averaged over  $20^\circ\text{--}40^\circ\text{N}$ .

Figure 2b shows the corresponding time average  $\text{NO}_x$  derived from OSIRIS  $\text{NO}_2$  and PRATMO, also scaled to 12:00 p.m. local time. The calculated  $\text{NO}_x$  is substantially higher than  $\text{NO}_2$  at all longitudes, consistent with Figure 1.  $\text{NO}_x$  is relatively high in the monsoon region, as highlighted by removing the background latitudinal structure in Figure 2d. The opposite signed  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_x$  anomalies in Figure 2 are explained by the photochemical balances shown in Figure 1, with the result that NO and  $\text{NO}_x$  are enhanced inside the ASM during the daytime, while  $\text{NO}_2$  is reduced. This behavior is mainly tied to the low  $\text{O}_3$  and low temperatures observed in the ASM.

The monthly evolution of 85 hPa  $\text{NO}_x$  from the OSIRIS + PRATMO calculations (Figure 3) shows elevated  $\text{NO}_x$  from May to September extending over  $0^\circ\text{--}120^\circ\text{E}$ . This seasonal variation and longitudinal maximum are clear signatures of links to the ASM during summer. Figure 3 also shows a smaller region of elevated  $\text{NO}_x$  from about  $80^\circ$  to  $140^\circ\text{W}$ , which could indicate an influence of the North American monsoon on the UTLS (also seen in Figure 2d).

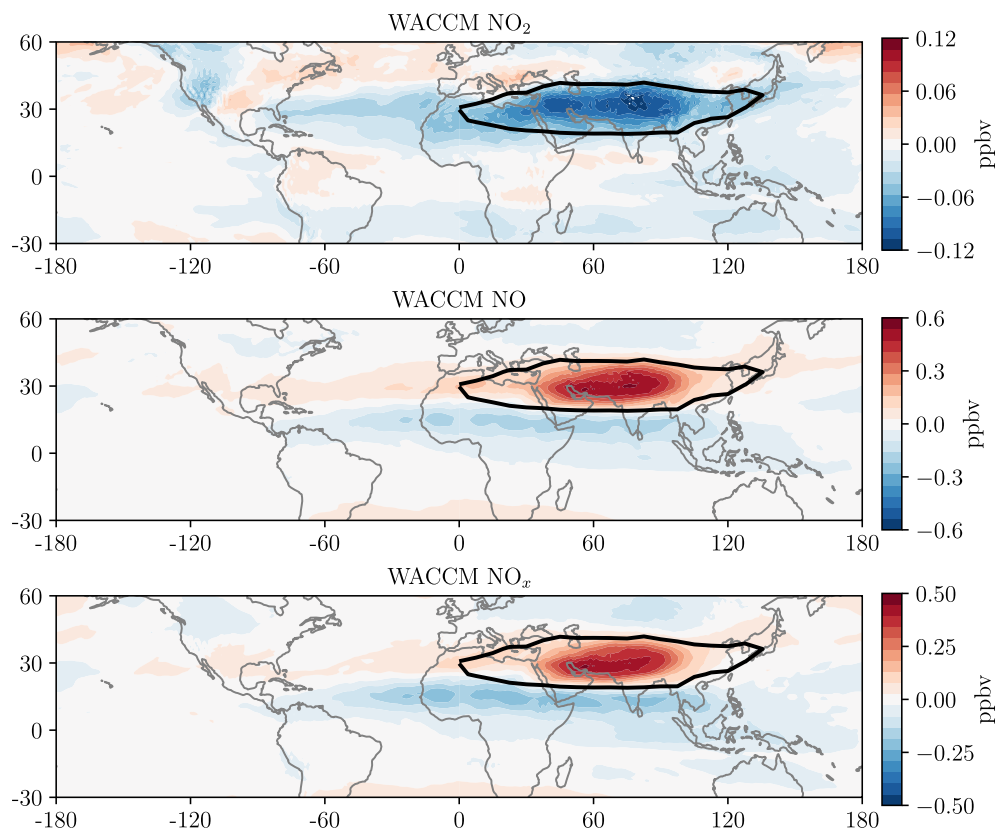
We have also examined corresponding  $\text{NO}_2$  behavior from SAGE III/ISS and ACE-FTS sunset occultations. Time average anomalies in  $\text{NO}_2$  from both ACE-FTS and SAGE III/ISS are negative within the ASM region (Figure S1 in Supporting Information S1), as they are for OSIRIS (Figure 2c). The daily photochemical cycle in  $\text{NO}_2$  (Section 3.1) makes it challenging to perform quantitative comparisons to OSIRIS. Measurements at the terminator cannot be accurately scaled to a different local solar time because the radiative transfer in PRATMO uses a simplified plane-parallel atmosphere. This prevents modeling  $\text{NO}_2$  and NO at the terminator with the precision required for the rapidly changing conditions. The ACE-FTS NO has a maximum within the ASM anticyclone (bottom panel of Figure S1 in Supporting Information S1), despite having large uncertainties at this pressure level. At sunset, the balance of NO and  $\text{NO}_2$  starts to switch so there is less NO than  $\text{NO}_2$ , which is why the ACE-FTS NO anomaly is smaller than the  $\text{NO}_2$  anomaly.

### 3.3. WACCM Simulations

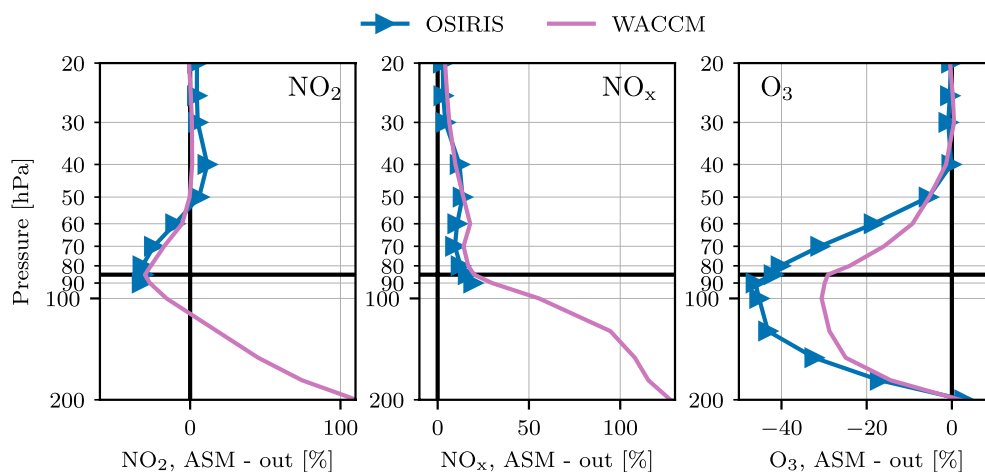
The WACCM time average  $\text{NO}_2$ , NO, and  $\text{NO}_x$  anomalies are in good agreement with those from the satellite instruments. Figure 4 shows the WACCM output at 85 hPa and 12:00 p.m. The  $\text{NO}_2$  anomaly is low in the ASM region, as it is for each of OSIRIS, ACE-FTS, and SAGE III/ISS. The WACCM NO anomaly has a maxima in the ASM that is substantially larger than the  $\text{NO}_2$  minimum. The corresponding WACCM  $\text{NO}_x$  has an ASM maximum that is similar in sign and magnitude to the  $\text{NO}_x$  derived from the OSIRIS + PRATMO calculations (Figure 2d).

The vertical structure of the monsoon  $\text{NO}_x$  behavior from OSIRIS observations and WACCM are compared in Figure 5, which shows the percent differences for the  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_x$  inside versus outside of the ASM as a function of pressure level. Percent differences are used to highlight UTLS vertical structure and de-emphasize the background  $\text{NO}_x$  increase with altitude in the stratosphere. We additionally include the corresponding  $\text{O}_3$  difference profiles in Figure 5 because of their importance in the  $\text{NO}_x$  balances; these show the well-known reduced UTLS  $\text{O}_3$  within the ASM (e.g., Park et al., 2007, 2008), with somewhat larger anomalies in OSIRIS compared to WACCM. Both the OSIRIS and WACCM results show negative anomalies in  $\text{NO}_2$  within the ASM extending from  $\sim 100$  to 60 hPa. The maximum relative  $\text{NO}_2$  difference occurs at the 85 hPa level, overlapping the large negative ozone anomalies within the ASM.

The  $\text{NO}_x$  anomaly is positive for both OSIRIS + PRATMO and WACCM throughout the UTLS region. ASM  $\text{NO}_x$  anomalies near the tropopause are  $\sim 25\%$  inside larger than outside, with bigger relative anomalies at lower altitudes (in WACCM). Hence the satellite measurements (above  $\sim 100$  hPa) are observing the top of the ASM. Overall, there is reasonable quantitative agreement between the observations and model simulation in terms of profile shape and magnitude.



**Figure 4.** Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model time average  $\text{NO}$ ,  $\text{NO}_2$ , and  $\text{NO}_x$  at 85 hPa from July 15 to 30 August 2020. Values were interpolated to a local time of 12:00 p.m. in each bin. The anomaly at each latitude is the difference from the mean value at that latitude over the Pacific ocean ( $180^\circ$ – $120^\circ\text{W}$ ). Circled area is the 16.75 km geopotential height contour at 100 hPa.



**Figure 5.** Vertical profiles of JJA anomalies in  $\text{NO}_2$ ,  $\text{NO}_x$ , and  $\text{O}_3$  inside versus outside the Asian summer monsoon for OSIRIS and Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model (WACCM). Results are shown in terms of local percentage anomalies. The Asian monsoon region is defined as inside the 16.75 km WACCM geopotential height contour at 100 hPa, while the outside monsoon region is defined as  $20^\circ$ – $40^\circ\text{N}$ ,  $180^\circ$ – $120^\circ\text{W}$ .  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_x$  results are for 12:00 p.m. The black horizontal line marks the 85 hPa level used in the other figures.

#### 4. Conclusion

The influence of the ASM anticyclone on NO<sub>2</sub>, NO, and NO<sub>x</sub> was investigated using observations from OSIRIS, SAGE III/ISS, and ACE-FTS, along with the PRATMO box model and chemistry-climate model output from WACCM. While the OSIRIS, SAGE III/ISS and ACE-FTS data show a relative minimum in NO<sub>2</sub> near the tropopause within the ASM, the PRATMO calculations show enhanced NO and NO<sub>x</sub> in the monsoon. The enhanced NO<sub>x</sub> within the monsoon region derived from satellite observations agrees quantitatively with chemistry-climate model simulations from WACCM, including chemical isolation within the anticyclone and consistent vertical profiles. The enhanced NO<sub>x</sub> levels in the UTLS ASM likely result from a combination of upwards transport of surface level pollutants and production by lightning, as shown in modeling studies (e.g., Fadnavis et al., 2015; Lelieveld et al., 2018; Roy et al., 2017). Here we find that the low background O<sub>3</sub> amounts and cold temperatures in the UTLS, which are accentuated in the ASM, shift the daytime NO<sub>x</sub> balances toward enhanced NO and reduced NO<sub>2</sub>. The satellite observations presented here provide a method to evaluate NO<sub>x</sub> behavior in chemistry-climate models.

#### Data Availability Statement

OSIRIS data, including the PRATMO derived NO<sub>x</sub> and values scaled to noon, are available at <ftp://odin-osiris.usask.ca/OSIRIS/Level2/>. SAGE III/ISS NO<sub>2</sub> data accounting for diurnal variations along the line of sight are available at [ftp://odin-osiris.usask.ca/SAGEIII\\_ISS](ftp://odin-osiris.usask.ca/SAGEIII_ISS). The WACCM results are available at <ftp://odin-osiris.usask.ca/Models>. Instructions for downloading the OSIRIS, SAGE III/ISS and WACCM files are at <https://research-groups.usask.ca/osiris/data-products.php#Download>. ACE data are available by signing up at <https://database.scisat.ca/l2signup.php>. The PRATMO python package can be downloaded from <https://arg.usask.ca/wheels/> and documentation is available at [https://arg.usask.ca/docs/Pratmo/pratmo\\_boxmodel.html](https://arg.usask.ca/docs/Pratmo/pratmo_boxmodel.html). The WACCM model is available at <https://www.cesm.ucar.edu/models/cesm2/>.

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