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Observations of the Development and Vertical Structure of the Lake Breeze Circulation During the 2017 Lake Michigan Ozone Study --Manuscript Draft--

Manuscript Number:	JAS-D-20-0297
Full Title:	Observations of the Development and Vertical Structure of the Lake Breeze Circulation During the 2017 Lake Michigan Ozone Study
Article Type:	Article
Abstract:	<p>Ground-based thermodynamic and kinematic profilers were placed adjacent to the western shore of Lake Michigan at two sites as part of the 2017 Lake Michigan Ozone Study. The southern site near Zion, Illinois, hosted a microwave radiometer (MWR) and a sodar wind profiler, while the northern site in Sheboygan, Wisconsin, featured an Atmospheric Emitted Radiance Interferometer (AERI), a Doppler lidar, and a High Spectral Resolution Lidar (HSRL). Each site experienced several lake breeze events during the experiment. Composite time series and time/height cross sections were constructed relative to the lake breeze arrival time so that commonalities across events could be explored.</p> <p>The composited surface observations indicate that the initial post-breeze wind direction is consistently southeasterly at both sites regardless of pre-breeze wind direction. Surface relative humidity increases with the arriving lake breeze, though this is due to cooler air temperatures as absolute moisture content stays the same or decreases. The profiler observations show that the vertical structure of the lake breeze depends greatly on the local degree of thermodynamic instability: when unstable lapse rates are found in the lower troposphere, the lake breeze grows deeper and penetrates further inland than with stable lapse rates. The cold air associated with the lake breeze remains confined to the lowest 200 m of the troposphere even if the wind shift is observed at higher altitudes. The evolution of the lake breeze corresponds well to observed changes in baroclinicity and calculated changes in circulation. Collocated observations of aerosols and particulate matter show increases during the lake breeze as well.</p>

Once again, we thank the editor and reviewers as we iterate towards a manuscript that is appropriate for publication in JAS. Your contributions have been invaluable and we are grateful for the effort that you have put into improving our own work.

Reviewer #1

General Comments

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The authors have substantially improved the paper. There are a number of minor comments listed below.

Thank you for your kind words regarding our work. We appreciate that your comments have been in the spirit of improving this manuscript and making it scientifically robust and useful to the community.

The following reviewer comment addressing the number of cases is detailed, and we are reprinting it in its entirety ahead of addressing it. We apologize in advance, for we have taken 1500 words to say that we stand behind our analysis in its original form. Hopefully, however, it will help you understand our motivation and reasoning behind our approach.

But first and more importantly...it still seemed unlikely to me that there were only 6 lake breeze events over the course of May 22 to Jun 22 on the western shore of Lake Michigan. I thought I'd have a closer look. There is a good website for archived weather maps and so on at <https://www2.mmm.ucar.edu/imagearchive/>. I found a regional surface station map centered on MSP available at hourly intervals. I examined the surface station maps, looking for evidence of lake-breeze circulations on Lake Michigan. I looked for maps showing mostly clear conditions in the area in the afternoon, wind shifts to onshore, onshore winds at multiple shoreline locations around the perimeter of the lake, and the resulting wind divergence pattern over the Lake. I went through without looking at which six events were identified in the study.

Just using this one resource, I found clear evidence of the Lake Michigan lake breeze affecting the study area on the following days:

- May 25, 26, 27, 28
- June 1, 2, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 13, 15, 16, 17

Only 5 of those overlap with the events identified in the study. Note that a well-developed lake-breeze front may not be present for all of these days.

There were numerous other instances of a Lake Michigan lake-breeze circulation, but for these the lake breeze penetrated inland only in areas to the north and/or south of the study area.

On June 12th, however, a synoptic-scale boundary was drifting south through WI and MN. Winds across multiple states were S-SW south of this boundary and NE-NW to the north of this boundary. Unfortunately, it appears this synoptic-scale boundary was identified as a lake-breeze front in the study, despite the claim in the paper that "Analysis of contemporaneous surface maps helps illustrate this last point: in all cases, any synoptic scale disturbances were either hundreds of km removed from the observing sites, were stationary, or did not propagate over the observation domain until after the period analyzed in this paper." The wind shift, change in temperature, etc. would certainly have been quite similar to that of a lake-breeze front passage.

So, a couple things. One - the lake breeze composites all contain a non-lake breeze event and obviously that needs to be corrected.

Two - the reason for the limited set of lake breezes days must be explained. For the 5 lake breeze events identified, is there something that differentiates them from the other lake breeze events I have identified above (e.g. strong lake-breeze front)? If not, and there is no good explanation for using just these 5 events, then the authors should review all potential cases again, with particular emphasis on days I have identified, and ensure all days with a lake-breeze front in the study area are actually included. The larger sample size would also improve the composites and the applicability of the results.

In the paper, we took care to outline the criteria by which we identified the passage of lake breeze fronts at our observation sites. As a reminder, they are as follows:

1. The zonal (u) component of the surface wind reversed from offshore to onshore.
2. Surface temperatures dropped abruptly with the wind shift.
3. Mixing height decreased with the wind shift.
4. No rain was detected within three hours of the wind shift.

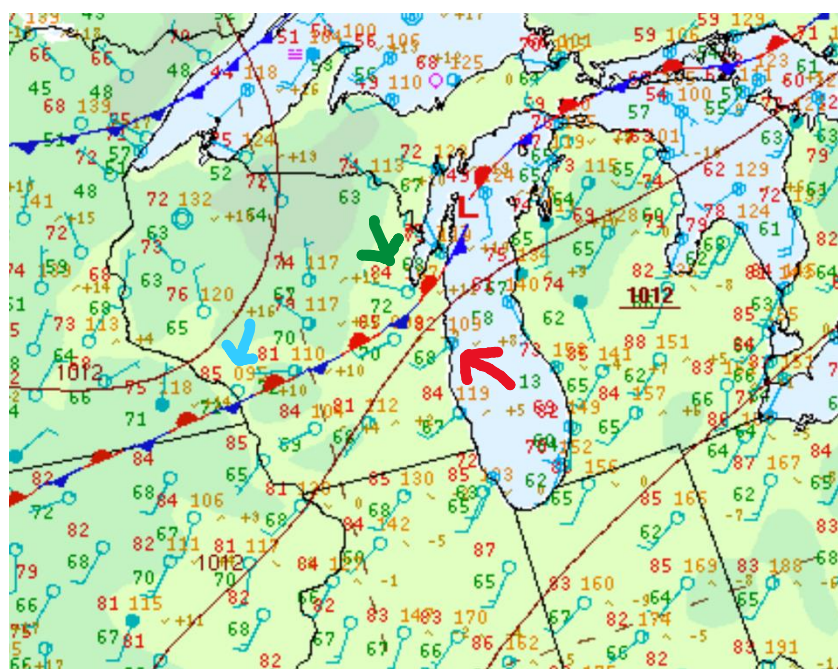
These criteria were evaluated using instrumentation at the two supersites. 1 and 2 were assessed using the surface meteorological instrumentation, and 3 was calculated from the thermodynamic profiles retrieved by the AERI or MWR. For Zion, 4 was determined by the MWR's on-board rain sensor while at Sheboygan it was determined by noting when the AERI's automated precipitation-sensing hatch door was closed.

The reviewer goes above and beyond the call of duty by identifying potential cases for our work. However, we had already considered these days. Here is a table identifying the reasons for our decisions on those particular days using the instrumentation at Zion:

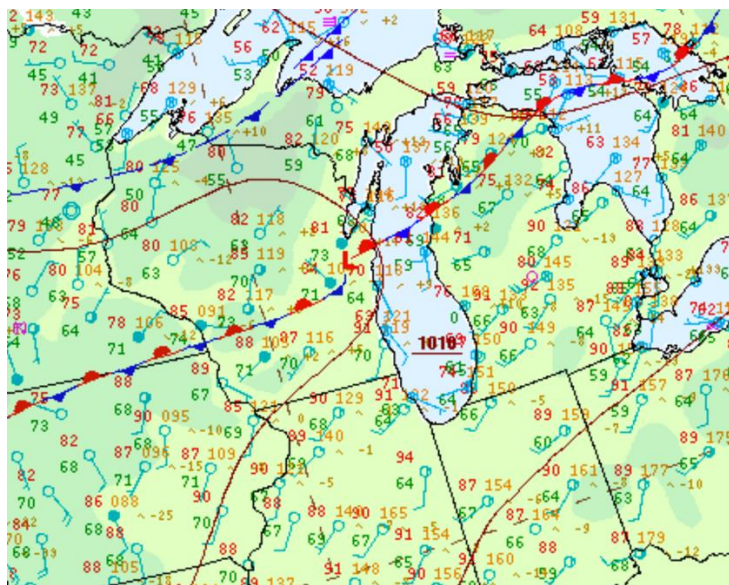
May	
25	mixed layer does not develop
26	mixed layer does not develop; onshore flow is consistent with synoptic pattern
27	mixed layer does not develop; no clear decrease in surface temperature
28	mixed layer does not develop

June	
1	mixed layer does not develop
2	Included Case
6	mixed layer does not develop; no clear change from offshore to onshore flow; onshore flow is consistent with synoptic pattern
7	mixed layer does not develop; no clear change from offshore to onshore flow; winds observed by sodar match synoptic pattern
8	Included Case
9	stationary front over WI/IL border at 15 and 18Z
11	Included Case
13	mixed layer does not develop; synoptic front almost directly above Zion at 12Z
15	Included Case
16	Included Case
17	omitted because of rain at Zion; mixed layer does not develop

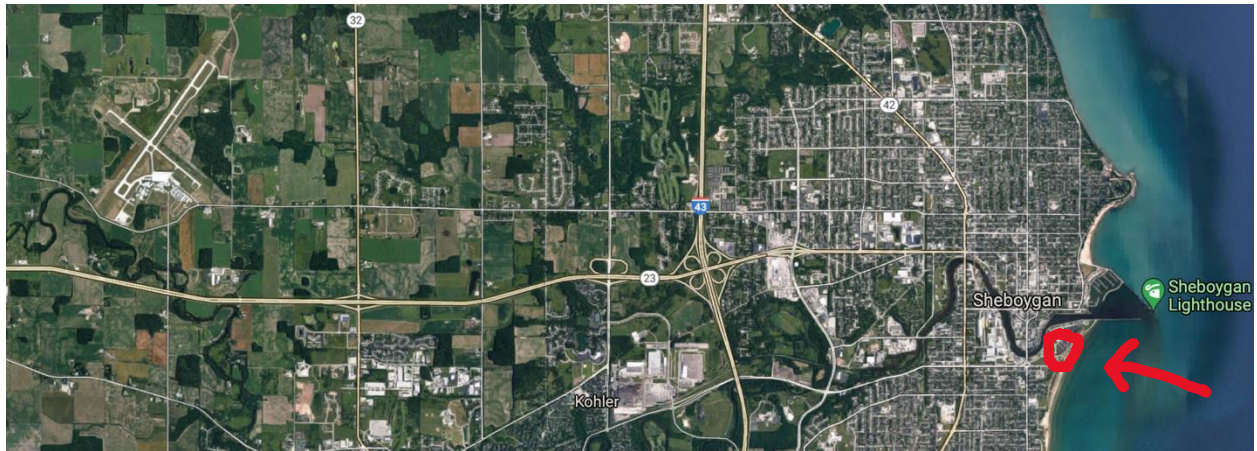
With regards to the case of 12 June 2017: according to our criteria, the lake breeze front passed Sheboygan at 1543 UTC and Zion at 1730 UTC. Below is the surface map at 1500 UTC as analyzed by the NOAA Weather Prediction Center. A stationary front is present, but it is to the north of Sheboygan (identified with the red arrow). One might even claim that the boundary has been analyzed too far to the south, as the temperatures of locations just north of the front [like 85 F at La Crosse, WI (cyan arrow) and 84 F at Green Bay, WI (green arrow)] seem to have more in common with the conditions further to the south. In fact, note that Green Bay is actually warmer than Sheboygan at this time despite being further to the north, on the other side of the boundary, and the lack of maritime flow at Sheboygan. Importantly, the temperature drop and wind shift of the lake breeze are observed at Sheboygan within an hour of this analysis.



The next available surface chart is at 1800 UTC, near the end of our three hour window of analysis for Sheboygan. The analyzed boundary is closer to Sheboygan than it was before. However, we do not feel that the boundary propagation is responsible for the observed shift in winds. First, the pressure has actually risen at Sheboygan since the previous map even though the boundary has not yet arrived; one would expect to see the pressure dropping ahead of the frontal arrival and only begin rising after passage. Second, it is clear that along the coast of Lake Michigan, other lake breeze events are underway (witness the 20 F difference between the Chicago lakeshore and Midway airport, or the nearly 30 F difference between Milwaukee and the station just to its north). Were this a synoptically-impacted situation, those closely-paired stations would be under the same flow regime and thus display similar wind directions and temperatures.



Perhaps of greatest relevance is the hourly evolution of conditions at the Sheboygan Airport (KSBM) in comparison to our shore-adjacent observations. As you can see from this map, the airport is relatively far inland (the large asymmetric X in the upper left). Our observation site is circled in the lower right. The airport is about 12 km from the shore at its closest, and slightly further than that to our site.



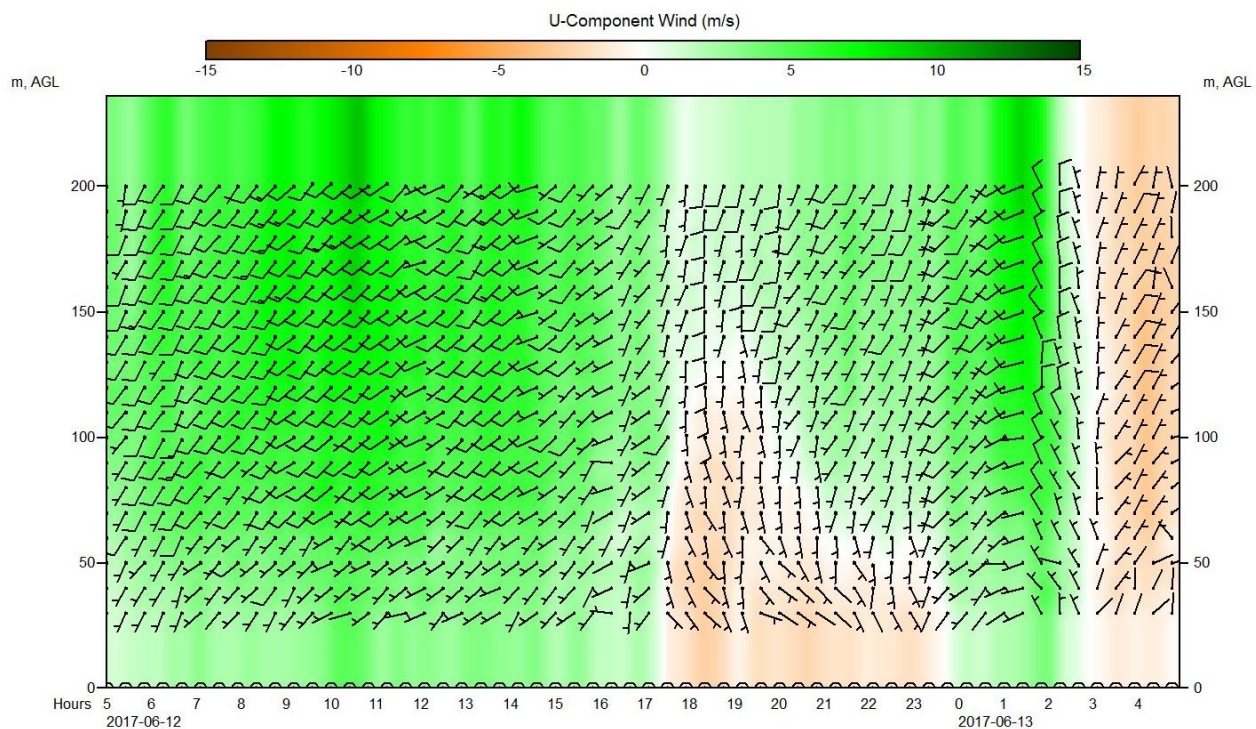
In the following table, we have obtained the hourly synoptic observations from KSBM and compared those to the 1 min observations we took at our observation site adjacent to the shore. (Honestly, it was fun putting my old METAR-decoding skills to use!) Wind directions are in degrees and temperatures are in C. Shore wind directions were available to the nearest 0.1 degree, but for this table, those values have been rounded to the nearest 10 deg to match the rounding of the ASOS observations. We have also included the inland-minus-shore differences. Hourly observations after 1543 UTC, the time we identified as the passage of the lake breeze front, are shaded.

Time (UTC)	KSBM Dir	Wind	Shore Wind Dir	KSBM Temp	Shore Temp	Δ Dir	Δ T
1253	240		270	26.7	26.6	-30	0.1
1353	240		260	28.3	26.8	-20	1.5
1453	250		230	29.4	28.0	20	1.4
1553	270		190	28.9	22.8	80	6.1
1653	230		80	30.0	16.6	150	13.4
1753	220		140	30.0	14.7	80	15.3
1853	230		160	28.9	16.5	70	12.4

From the synoptic perspective, the 12 km distance between the airport and shoreline observations is small. They'd easily fit within the same GFS grid cell, for example. One would expect that the two locations would experience largely the same weather conditions due to synoptic influences. That is true through the 1453 UTC observations, with the two sites experiencing winds that are westerly or southwesterly and temperatures that are less than 2 C apart. However, after the 1543 UTC boundary passage, the conditions at the lake shore become remarkably different, both in terms of wind direction and temperature. If this were a synoptic boundary, we'd expect to see similar changes in the wind directions at the two sites more or less simultaneously. However, during the four hours of post-boundary observations the airport winds remain confined to the west or southwest while the shore winds swing all the way to the east; at 1553 UTC, for example, the winds at the two sites are nearly diametrically opposite. Simultaneously, the temperature at the airport increases while the temperature at the lake shore

drops substantially, resulting in a temperature difference that is ten times larger than it was before. In addition, this event was determined to be a near-shore event instead of an inland one which means the wind shift was not observed yet another station only 5.3 km from the shore. With only the near shore station experiencing wind and temperature shifts, and those shifts being consistent with the changes expected during and after the passage of the lake breeze front, we contend it is unlikely a synoptic scale boundary was responsible.

Zion was even further away from the purported synoptic influence. The boundary eventually began moving southward as a cold front, passing over Sheboygan sometime after 0000 UTC on the 13th. The low level winds observed by the Zion sodar are also inconsistent with the suggested S-SW to NE-NW shift that the synoptic boundary would cause:



Our independent surface observations indicated the arrival of the lake breeze front at 1730 UTC. This is consistent with the low-level reversal in the u component of the wind shown in the figure above. According to these observations, the synoptic boundary may have arrived around 0130 UTC the next day when winds abruptly shift to the north over the entire observed column, but that is much too late to have had any influence on the lake breeze + 3 h period analyzed in this work.

Perhaps the most significant difference in criteria between our cases and that of the reviewer is that we elected to include mixing depth as a factor. The development of a well-defined mixed layer prior to lake breeze arrival is clear evidence that the air over the observation site is of continental origin in that the air temperature is being influenced by solar heating of the surface

and/or warm advection (which would be flow from the land and not the lake). A rapid collapse of this mixed layer would be corroborating evidence of lake breeze arrival, with air now being sourced off the lake. The resulting cold advection is strong enough to offset the solar heating, and surface temperatures decrease (another criterion we used to clearly identify lake breeze arrival). We feel that this adds an important dimension to the case selection. We have added a brief explanation as to why we included this criterion to the manuscript, and we have also added the following: “The cases chosen for analysis are a consequence of the selection criteria. While a set of more permissive criteria could result in a greater number of cases, events that are not unambiguously lake breezes might also be included.”

Ultimately, during the preparation and revision of this paper, we carefully considered each and every day during the month-long LMOS deployment period. This includes the days that the reviewer believes we should have included or rejected. Through analysis of both the observations that were collected as part of this experiment as well as operational observations from the synoptic-scale network, we stand behind the cases we have chosen for analysis.

Detailed Comments

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L27 Abstract - 'Post-breeze' implies the wind direction after the lake breeze is over. I think instead you mean post-lake-breeze front, and thus during-breeze. Need to correct/clarify.

You are correct, and we have reworded this sentence to be more clear.

L36 Abstract - Again, this is confusing - should be 'the passage of the lake breeze front', or 'after the lake breeze arrives'

Again, you are correct, and we have made the suggested change.

L243 - 'two' should be 'one', no?

Our original wording treated Sheboygan and Zion separately in terms of numbers of events. Therefore 5 days had an event at both sites, for a total of 10 events, and the remaining two events only occurred at one site. We've reworded this to address the confusion.

L456 - Need a reference or two to support inland penetration distances of hundreds of kilometers. Sills et al. (2011) is one.

We have added a citation to Sills et al. (2011).

L506 - Could these be standing waves generated by synoptic-scale near-surface flow encountering a 'ridge'? With the ridge being the lake-breeze front. I think this effect is mentioned in Segal et al. 1997.

The 3 near-shore cases were characterized by a) patterns of MSLP that would produce southwesterly flow near the surface, and b) relatively strong southwesterly flow at 850 hPa. Generally, the 3 inland cases had a weaker MSLP pattern and, more apparent, weaker flow at 850 hPa. Using the 'standing wave' argument, one could expect an alternating pattern of vertical velocities in both the near-shore and inland cases, but the pattern would likely be more pronounced with the near-shore cases (because of the stronger synoptic flow) as observed by the sodar. Note, we don't necessarily see a discussion on this topic in Segal and we don't recall having read it elsewhere in the literature (though we are not claiming that it is an original idea). We have added a brief discussion on this to the manuscript.

L516 - But this doesn't say anything about the periodicity, which was introduced and should be explained.

We hope that the explanation above sheds some light on this topic.

L590 - Should be 'the air temperature over the lake'.

While we intended to address the temperature of the lake surface here, it is now apparent that it could be confusing to refer to the continental air temperature in the same clause as the water temperature. Therefore, we have made the suggested change.

L616 - Need to say that due to small sample size this evolution may not be representative of most lake breezes cases, particularly in different regions of the Great Lakes with different lakeshore geometries.

We added some text to the last paragraph noting that observations at different locations are required.

Reviewer #3

The structure of the revised version (i.e., Section 4) has been greatly improved, which makes reading much easier. I do not have more scientific questions now. The manuscript is suggested to be accepted by JAS for publication after a minor revision

We are happy and grateful that you are pleased with both the science and the readability of this paper. We thank you for embarking with us on this journey.

1) Section 2, Part b, Instrumentation. I should ask this question in the previous review(s). I do still feel that the description of instrumentation seems has too many details given the focus of this study. To me, Table 2 is sufficient to know the instrumentation. It will be helpful if the authors can simplify the description of instrumentation slightly. For instance, I am not sure how many readers are interested in so detailed description of instrumentation as presented in Lines 198-201 and L204-209.

There are multiple audiences for this paper. The paper is primarily written for those who are interested in learning more about lake breeze properties and processes. However, the remote sensing community will read this paper to see novel applications of their instrumentation and techniques, and they will be interested in that level of detail. That being said, we have removed some of the specific details to make the instrumentation section slightly easier to read.

2) L182: The a priori temperature ... I am not sure that you need "the" here.

The remote sensing community typically uses the phrase "a priori" (literally, "from what comes before") as an adjective or noun that describes the mean state of the atmosphere and its covariance. Therefore, it is not uncommon to see or hear the phrase "the a priori state" or even "the a priori." For example, the seminal Rodgers (2000) text on optimal estimation says, "[o]nce a large set of remote measurements has been made, it may be possible to use them to improve on the *a priori* to be used for future retrievals." (italics in original).

3) L244: It is not clear the difference between local time and LST (Local Standard Time). In addition, please make sure that LST is defined at its first use.

We include three measures of time in this sentence with the knowledge that different user communities typically are interested in different times. Many scientists are accustomed to working in UTC, but that says little about what is happening relative to the sun. Local Standard Time tells us what is happening relative to the sun, but it is an hour offset from the clock on the wall due to daylight saving time. LST is especially important to air quality scientists and others who work with diurnal cycles that are governed by the sun, and many observations in that community are recorded in LST instead of local time or UTC. Local time perhaps has the least scientific utility, but it is the most important for anyone who just want to know what time the temperature is going to drop. We include all three times here, with the knowledge that from then on readers will be able to make their own conversions themselves. Since we only use LST

twice, we have just expanded the acronym in both instances. Thank you for drawing our attention to that oversight.

- 4) L279: "were" should be "are" for consistency with another "are" in the same sentence?

We have just changed it to "...the mean winds at Zion are over 1.4 times faster after LBA than before" to remove the issue entirely.

- 5) L303-308: Any explanation of a decrease in mixing ratio with LBA at Sheboygan site? Is it because of less evaporation with lower lake surface near this site?

We assume you mean lower lake surface temperature. That is exactly correct and we have made that connection explicit in the manuscript.

- 6) L350: brings with it ? bring with. Please delete "it" if I do not misunderstand.

We have changed this to "results in"

- 7) L456: "extend hundreds of kilometers inland". Here "hundreds of kilometers" seems to be too many for Lake Breeze traveling inland unless the authors may provide reliable reference(s).

Reviewer #1 had the same concern, which we have addressed.

- 8) I am not sure that you need to add dot in all the panel labels in Figures 2-4, and 6-7. For instance, "a)" should be more commonly used than "a.)"?

The lead author has typically used the letter-period-parenthesis notation (see <https://doi.org/10.1175/JTECH-D-20-0182.1> for an unrelated example) and previously has not received comments from reviewers or editors on the issue. If we needed to re-render the figures in order to correct scientific errors, readability concerns, or other issues raised by the reviewers, we would likely make the change suggested by the reviewer. However, with no other changes suggested by either reviewer for any of the figures, we feel that it is not necessary to redo several figures to address a small stylistic difference.

**Observations of the Development and Vertical Structure of the Lake Breeze Circulation
During the 2017 Lake Michigan Ozone Study**

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Abstract

Ground-based thermodynamic and kinematic profilers were placed adjacent to the western shore of Lake Michigan at two sites as part of the 2017 Lake Michigan Ozone Study. The southern site near Zion, Illinois, hosted a microwave radiometer (MWR) and a sodar wind profiler, while the northern site in Sheboygan, Wisconsin, featured an Atmospheric Emitted Radiance Interferometer (AERI), a Doppler lidar, and a High Spectral Resolution Lidar (HSRL). Each site experienced several lake breeze events during the experiment. Composite time series and time/height cross sections were constructed relative to the lake breeze arrival time so that commonalities across events could be explored.

The composited surface observations indicate that the wind direction of the lake breeze is consistently southeasterly at both sites regardless of its direction before the arrival of the lake breeze front. Surface relative humidity increases with the arriving lake breeze, though this is due to cooler air temperatures as absolute moisture content stays the same or decreases. The profiler observations show that the lake breeze penetrates deeper when the local environment is unstable and pre-existing flow is weak. The cold air associated with the lake breeze remains confined to the lowest 200 m of the troposphere even if the wind shift is observed at higher altitudes. The evolution of the lake breeze corresponds well to observed changes in baroclinicity and calculated changes in circulation. Collocated observations of aerosols show increases in number and mass concentrations after the passage of the lake breeze front.

1. Introduction

It is well known that the Laurentian Great Lakes have a significant impact on the weather and climate of the upper Midwestern United States. These large bodies of water (which collectively encompass approximately 18% of the world's supply of liquid freshwater) force changes in temperature, cloud cover, and precipitation with significant diurnal and seasonal variability (Scott and Huff 1996), and the impacts of the lakes can even extend to severe convective weather (King et al. 2003). The lake breeze circulation is one of the most important mechanisms for latent and sensible heat exchange between the lakes and the surrounding environment. This is, in part, due to common occurrence of the Great Lakes lake breezes. For example, Laird et al. (2001) constructed a 15-year climatology of Lake Michigan lake breeze events and found that lake breezes tended to occur more frequently as the summer progressed. Depending on the location, lake breeze frequency increased from 5 to 9 events per month in May to 8 to 12 per month in August. Other studies have used different criteria to identify lake breezes and found higher frequencies. Lyons (1972) showed that Chicago, Illinois, experienced a lake breeze on approximately half of all days in May through September. With events occurring multiple times a week during the warm months, operational forecasters need to be familiar with their formation, structure, and impacts, while numerical weather prediction and air quality models must be able to simulate them properly.

Since a substantial fraction of the world's population lives in coastal regions, sea and lake breezes have been a subject of interest to humanity since antiquity (Simpson 1994, Miller 2003) and the broad outlines of their formation have been known for generations. Due to water's large heat capacity, its ability to absorb solar energy over a finite depth, and the vertical mixing present

in large bodies of water, surface temperatures respond slowly to solar heating. On the seasonal timescale, peak lake surface temperatures lag their terrestrial counterparts by several weeks while on diurnal scales lake temperatures are typically colder than land during the day but warmer at night. As a result, a sharp land-water gradient in the temperature and density of the near-surface air can arise, inducing a circulation as the atmosphere attempts to restore equilibrium. This circulation is commonly found where the body of water has sufficient thermal mass relative to the land. While the sea breeze and Great Lakes breezes are well known, lake breezes have also been observed for both natural lakes and reservoirs with length scales of just a few km (Segal et al. 1997).

A robust solenoidal-based explanation of the lake breeze circulation has emerged (Holton 1992, Miller et al. 2003, Martin 2006). The Bjerknes circulation theorem states that the material (Lagrangian) change in the absolute circulation C_a of a fluid element can be described as:

$$\frac{dC_a}{dt} = - \oint \frac{dP}{\rho} \quad (1)$$

where P is pressure and ρ is density. In the special case of a barotropic fluid, density is a function of pressure alone and the right-hand side reduces to the closed line integral of an exact differential (which is zero). Thus, Bjerknes's circulation theorem is merely a more general case of Kelvin's circulation theorem, which states that the absolute circulation in a barotropic fluid is conserved. However, the differential heating present at a lake or sea boundary ensures that the environment is far from barotropic: the daytime geopotential heights are greater over the land, and thus isobars slope downward toward the cooler water while isopycnals (lines of constant density) slope toward warmer land. This ensures that the environment is baroclinic. The horizontal flow both at the

surface and aloft is isobaric and does not contribute to the circulation change, as $dp = 0$ for those branches. However, as the daytime ascending branch (over land) and the descending branch (over water) are associated with environments with very different densities, there is a net difference between these two branches and thus an acceleration along the perimeter of the fluid element is induced. This is a thermally direct circulation, and over time the vertical motions would be expected to reduce the baroclinicity of the environment as the isopycnals would be rotated to be more parallel to the isobars. At night, a weak land breeze can develop when the temperature gradient is reversed.

Changes in the thermodynamic structure of the environment would clearly be expected to accompany the changes in the kinematics described above. The development of onshore flow at low levels produces cold air advection. The flow of this comparatively denser air from water to land takes the form of a localized gravity current (Miller et al. 2003). The cooler air inhibits convection, producing clearing skies that can be seen on satellite imagery; a characteristic example of this is depicted in Figure 1. Since temperatures above the gravity current are not affected, a shallow inversion will develop (Keen and Lyons 1978).

The present study comprehensively describes the temporal and vertical development of the lake breeze circulation on the western shore of Lake Michigan using data collected during the 2017 Lake Michigan Ozone Study (LMOS 2017, Stanier et al. 2021). The development and structure of western Lake Michigan breezes have been of considerable interest for many (e.g. Lyons 1972, Keen and Lyons 1978, Sills et al. 2011), likely due in part to the large population centers located along the lake shore. One aspect of the relationship between these major urban areas and the lake is the adverse impacts that lake breezes have on air quality, as they have been shown to play a significant role in the production and transport of ground-level ozone in shoreline communities

along Lake Michigan (Lyons and Cole 1976, Dye et al. 1995, Levy et al. 2010). Ozone precursors emitted from densely populated regions are transported over the lake. So long as the precursors remain offshore, the shoreline communities are not impacted by increased ozone production. When the lake breeze is present, however, ozone and its precursors are transported inland and convergence along the lake breeze boundary results in significant increases to observed ozone concentrations. The deployment of high-temporal resolution thermodynamic and kinematic profilers alongside aerosol lidars, air samplers, and other instruments, at two sites adjacent to Lake Michigan in support of LMOS 2017, allows the investigation of lake breeze events from a novel perspective. While other studies have investigated the kinematic characteristics of lake and sea breezes using higher-temporal resolution profiling instruments like Doppler lidars (e.g., Curry et al. 2017, Banta et al. 1993) and sodars (e.g., Mastrantonio et al. 1994, Prakash et al. 1992), the present work introduces continuous thermodynamic profiling using instruments observing both microwave and infrared emission. When coupled with collocated wind profiling instruments, a detailed picture of the thermodynamic and aerosol characteristics of the lake breeze circulation and its evolution emerges. Wind and thermodynamic profiles from lake breeze events are composited on an event-centric time scale to capture the behavior of the atmosphere before and after lake breeze arrival; a similar technique has been used to investigate the near-storm environment of severe storms (Wagner et al. 2008) and bores (Loveless et al. 2019). The remainder of this paper describes the field campaign and the instruments (Section 2), explores the evolution of surface weather conditions (Section 3), vertical structure (Section 4), and particulate air quality (Section 5), and synthesizes these observations to improve understanding of lake breeze circulations from the combined thermodynamic and kinematic perspective (Section 6).

2. Measurements and Instrumentation

a. The 2017 Lake Michigan Ozone Study

The 2017 Lake Michigan Ozone Study (LMOS 2017) was devoted to observing chemical and meteorological features important to persistently high ozone concentrations along the western shore of Lake Michigan. Project collaborators included NASA, NOAA, EPA, the Lake Michigan Air Directors Consortium (LADCO), state environmental agencies, universities, and the private sector. A significant goal of LMOS 2017 was to better understand how the unique geography and meteorology of the Lake Michigan basin drives significant ground-level ozone production even in communities with relatively low emission rates of ozone precursors. By uniting land-based, ship-based, and airborne measuring systems, a comprehensive portrait of the thermodynamic, kinematic, and chemical state of the coastal environment during high ozone events was obtained. An additional goal of the experiment was to use the data to evaluate the performance of meteorological and air quality models and inform their improvement.

The field phase of LMOS 2017 was conducted from 22 May to 22 June 2017. This period historically encompasses a significant number of ozone exceedance events for shoreline communities due to the combination of numerous lake breeze events (as the lake has not yet warmed significantly) coupled with sufficient insolation to induce the photochemistry required for ground level ozone production; the cold water also inhibits mixing and ensures that precursors remain near the surface. Two ground-based supersites were established. The more southerly supersite was near Zion, Illinois (roughly halfway between Chicago and Milwaukee). The northern supersite was at Sheboygan, Wisconsin (about 80 km north of Milwaukee); a map depicting their locations is seen in Figure 1. The Sheboygan site (43.745 N, 87.709 W) was within 230 m of the shore while the Zion site (42.468 N, 87.810 W, AQS 17-097-1007) was approximately 1 km

inland. The lake shore has a similar north-south orientation in the vicinity of the two sites, although the shoreline is more sinuous at Sheboygan. In-depth descriptions of the two sites are found in Doak et al. 2021. Airborne platforms included the NASA UC-12, which carried remote sensing instruments for aerosols, clouds, and trace gases, and a light aircraft operated by Scientific Aviation, which conducted in situ profiling of trace gases and meteorological characteristics. The NOAA research vessel R5503 provided near-shore transects of surface meteorology and trace gas concentrations with a Pandora differential absorption optical spectrometer (Herman et al. 2009), while on-shore vehicles conducted mobile sampling of terrestrial ozone and meteorology. Preliminary campaign results have been reported (Abdioskouei et al. 2019, Vermeuel et al, 2019) and analysis of this significant volume of data is ongoing.

b. Instrumentation

For the purposes of the present work, the most significant data were collected at the two supersites near Sheboygan and Zion. The Space Science and Engineering Center (SSEC) Portable Atmospheric Research Center (SPARC, Wagner et al. 2019) was deployed at Sheboygan, while a Radiometrics MP3000 and an Atmospheric Systems Corporation acoustic wind profiler, or sodar, were deployed at Zion. Surface observations at the two sites came from instruments mounted on 10 m towers, and each site also featured air quality instrumentation to measure ozone and particulate matter.

SPARC, a portable ground-based atmospheric profiling laboratory, includes an Atmospheric Emitted Radiance Interferometer (AERI, Knuteson et al. 2004a, 2004b), a Halo Photonics Stream Line XR Doppler lidar (DLID, Pearson et al. 2009), and a High Spectral Resolution Lidar (HSRL, Shipley et al. 1983, Eloranta 2005). The thermodynamic state is captured

by AERI, a commercially-available hyperspectral infrared radiometer that passively measures downwelling near- and thermal infrared spectra with a spectral resolution better than 1 cm^{-1} and a temporal resolution of approximately 30 s. Profiles of temperature and water vapor can be retrieved from AERI-observed spectra through the Tropospheric Remotely Observed Profiling via Optimal Estimation (TROPoe) retrieval, formerly known as AERIoe (Turner and Löhnert 2014, Turner and Blumberg 2019). TROPoe profiles have been shown to agree well with radiosondes when they originate from either an AERI (Turner and Löhnert 2014, Turner and Blumberg 2019) or an MWR (Turner and Löhnert 2021). The a priori atmospheric state for the retrieval during this deployment was calculated from a multiyear climatology of late spring and early summer radiosondes launched from the National Weather Service office at Green Bay, Wisconsin. A principal component analysis noise filter is applied to the AERI radiances to reduce noise before the retrieval is applied, in which the observations are decomposed into principal components and the spectrum is rebuilt from those that have the greatest variance (Turner et al. 2006). The DLID uses a $1.5\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ pulsed laser to capture the radial velocity of boundary layer aerosols; by scanning at a fixed zenith angle at different azimuths, it is possible to geometrically calculate the wind profile above the lidar. The HSRL is a vertically-pointing lidar that uses spectral width differences to discriminate between molecular and aerosol scattering: the spectrum for aerosol backscattering is confined to the relatively narrow range of Doppler-shifted frequencies associated with vertical motions in the atmosphere while the molecular spectrum is broadened by the Maxwellian thermal motion of the molecules. This allows high-precision absolutely-calibrated aerosol backscatter retrievals and independent retrievals of aerosol extinction. With these instruments, SPARC is able to provide a comprehensive profile of the evolution of the atmospheric state on a time scale that is measured on the order of minutes.

At Zion, the MWR passively observed the brightness temperature of downwelling radiance in 22 channels, with eight channels measuring the water vapor absorption band and 14 channels observing the oxygen absorption band. The TROPoe algorithm was then used to retrieve profiles of water vapor and temperature from these measurements using the same prior data as were used for the Sheboygan retrievals; by using TROPoe instead of the manufacturer-supplied neural network retrievals, a more direct comparison to the AERI observations at Sheboygan could be carried out. The sodar operates at audio frequencies near 4500 Hz, emitting a high intensity acoustic pulse and sampling the atmospheric echo. The frequency of the echo is directly proportional to the radial motion of the scattering volume relative to the instrument. The radial motions determined from the Doppler shift of each pulse in a set are combined to produce three-dimensional wind profiles from 30 to 200 m above ground level (AGL).

The Zion site was also home to several air quality instruments. A Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer and Aerodynamic Particle Sizer (SMPS-APS, Shen et al. 2002) system measured aerosol size distributions at the surface, covering a combined aerodynamic diameter size range of 13 nm – 8354 μ m. The size distributions from the APS were converted from aerodynamic to electrical mobility diameters (SMPS) and merged to the final size distribution following the method presented in Khlystov et al. (2004). Size distributions were averaged to a common 10-min time series. An Aerosol Robotic Network (AERONET, Holben et al. 1998) measuring aerosol optical depth (AOD) was also located at the Zion site from June 4 – June 22 of the campaign. AERONET level 2.0 data (cloud screened and quality assured) are used in the present work (Smirnov et al. 2000). AOD was interpolated to 550 nm in the following manner:

$$\tau_{\lambda_{550}} = \tau_{\lambda_{500}} \left(\frac{\lambda_{550}}{\lambda_{500}} \right)^{-\alpha} \quad (2)$$

where $\tau_{\lambda_{500}}$ is AOD at 500 nm and α is the angstrom exponent (440-870 nm) as reported by AERONET. The relevant characteristics of the instruments used in this study are summarized in Table 1.

c. Lake breeze events

The following criteria were used to objectively identify the lake breeze events (defined as the passage of a lake breeze front) at the two sites:

1. The zonal (u) component of the surface wind reversed from offshore to onshore.
2. Surface temperatures dropped abruptly with the wind shift.
3. Mixing height decreased with the wind shift.
4. No rain was detected within three hours of the wind shift.

The cases chosen for analysis are a consequence of the selection criteria. While a set of more permissive criteria could result in a greater number of cases, events that are not unambiguously lake breezes might also be included. The mixing height criterion was included to establish that the atmospheric environment before the lake breeze was continental in character, with the air temperature being influenced by solar heating and/or warm air advection. A decrease in the mixing height coincident with the wind shift indicates that surface air is now originating over the lake. Laird et al. (2001) identified a set of criteria to objectively identify lake breeze, including a change in wind direction, maximum air temperatures greater than that of the lake surface, and synoptically quiescent conditions. While the Laird et al. (2001) criteria were not specifically used as filtering criteria in the present study, all of the lake breeze events examined here also satisfied these criteria.

The identification criteria were applied separately to the Sheboygan and Zion observations, and the time of the lake breeze arrival (LBA), representing the moment the lake breeze front passed

over the observing sites, was defined as the time of the greatest shift in wind direction. This resulted in a total of six lake breeze events at each location, consistent with the climatology for late spring (Laird et al. 2001). Five study days included lake breezes at both sites while two days had an event at only one site and not the other. On average, LBA occurred much earlier at Sheboygan (1541 UTC, 10:41 AM local time, 9:41 AM local standard time) than Zion (1630 UTC, 11:30 AM local time, 10:30 AM local standard time). However, the small number of cases and variability in arrival times at each site means this difference is not statistically significant. For the five days in which lake breezes were observed at both locations, the correlation in LBA was low ($r=0.0935$). The lack of correlation between arrival times is consistent with an understanding that lake breeze events are driven more by local conditions than by synoptic forcing. Analysis of contemporaneous surface maps helps illustrate this last point: in all cases, any synoptic scale disturbances were either hundreds of km removed from the observing sites, were stationary, or did not propagate over the observation domain until after the period analyzed in this paper. The dates and times of the observed lake breezes are shown in Table 2.

3. Composite Surface Conditions

An objective method to identify the timing of lake breeze events was used to composite the individual cases observed during the LMOS 2017 campaign. For each event, the time of LBA was subtracted from the observation times so that the resulting timeline was measured relative to LBA. The observations from each instrument and event were then interpolated to a common timeline with 5 min resolution from 3 h before LBA to 3 h after; this facilitated comparisons across instruments and events. Figure 2 illustrates the results of this composite analysis for the surface conditions at the two sites. Results from Sheboygan (Zion) are shown with solid (dashed) lines.

Thin colored lines represent individual events while thick black lines represent the mean of all events for a particular site. The mean wind speed and direction were calculated by first determining the mean zonal (u) and meridional (v) components of the wind, then converting to speed and direction. Overall, surface conditions are consistent with what would be expected during a lake or sea breeze event, but there are some interesting details. Panel 2a exhibits the wind directions for the various events, with the wind shift used to define LBA clearly evident. Both sites have nearly identical time series for the mean wind direction, with westerly winds undergoing a rapid shift to southeasterly at LBA followed by a much slower turning towards a more southerly direction over the ensuing hours, a result of Coriolis (inertial) acceleration. Substantial variations from one event and site to the next can be seen prior to LBA, but once the lake breeze front has passed the wind directions are much more uniform. This lower variability in wind direction may be due to consistency in the onshore perturbation horizontal pressure gradient force that develops as the air over land warms, and the reduced friction surface winds experience flowing over water. The wind speed (Figure 2b) shows substantial variability between cases and from one time step to the next. On average, the speeds are higher at Zion than Sheboygan, and while Sheboygan has little change in the mean wind speed pre- and post-LBA, the mean winds at Zion are over 1.4 times faster after LBA than before.

While the driving factor of the lake breeze circulation is the difference between the temperatures of the air over land and water, the lack of observations of the latter means that the lake surface temperature needs to be used as a proxy. Figure 2c shows the time series for the difference between the air and lake temperature on lake breeze days. In situ observations of the lake temperature are sparse, with no operational buoys within tens of km of Sheboygan. Therefore, lake surface temperatures were obtained from the Great Lakes Research Laboratory (GLERL)

289 Great Lakes Surface Environmental Analysis (GLSEA, Schwab et al. 1999). Values were obtained
290 from the GLSEA grid points located approximately 10 km from the observation sites at an azimuth
291 of 140 degrees (the average wind direction 1 h after LBA). The analyses are computed once per
292 day, and these temperatures are recorded in Table 2. On average, the lake at Zion is about 3 °C
293 warmer than near Sheboygan, and during the month-long experiment seasonal warming caused a
294 greater increase at Zion. On average the air/lake temperature difference (Figure 2c) gradually but
295 steadily increases at a rate that is effectively identical for both locations. Following LBA, the mean
296 lake/land difference decreases substantially at Sheboygan, dropping from 12.2 °C at LBA to 3.2
297 °C just one hour later. A smaller change is observed at Zion, as the mean air/lake temperature
298 difference goes from 12.1 °C to 9.7 °C during the same period. The overall pattern for ambient
299 air temperature is largely the same as the air/lake differences (not shown). Air temperatures at Zion
300 tended to be warmer than at Sheboygan both before and after LBA, a function of Zion's lower
301 latitude, a longer fetch over land to reach the observing site, and lake breezes that occurred later
302 in the day allowing more solar heating before LBA. Absolute water vapor content (as represented
303 by the mixing ratio, Figure 2d) shows a very gradual increase in the hours before LBA consistent
304 with typical evolution of the planetary boundary layer (PBL). The lake breeze itself has very little
305 impact on the mixing ratio at Zion for any event, but four of the six Sheboygan events experience
306 a notable decrease in mixing ratio with LBA. This can be explained by the relative differences
307 between the lake air and land air temperatures at the two sites: Zion had a much smaller difference
308 than Sheboygan, so there was little difference between the saturation mixing ratios following LBA.
309 By contrast, Sheboygan experienced a significant decrease in its saturation mixing ratio following
310 LBA due to the colder air temperatures, and so absolute water vapor content decreased even though
311 the arriving air originated over a large body of water. By contrast, the relative humidity at both

sites (not shown) showed an increase following LBA. Since the absolute humidity was constant or decreasing following LBA, this increase in relative humidity was solely driven by the decrease in air temperature.

4. Composite Vertical Structure

It is well known that the structure and influence of the lake breeze circulation extends vertically beyond the near-surface level. Previous studies have used frequent balloon launches (Lyons 1972), instrumented aircraft (Finkele 1995), and kinematic profilers (e.g. Curry et al. 2017, Banta et al. 1993) to investigate the vertical structure of lake breeze circulations. However, continuous contemporaneous observations of winds, temperature, and moisture profiles during lake and sea breeze events have been rare. LMOS 2017 provided a unique opportunity to assess how the vertical structure of these fields evolved over time during several different lake breeze events. Here, the same compositing technique described earlier is applied to the vertical dimension so that structure in the PBL can be resolved. An important caveat when looking at the vertical plots of remotely-sensed thermodynamic variables is that the true vertical resolution (that is, the minimum size of an element that can be resolved by the profiler) is finer for an infrared than a microwave radiometer due to the narrower weighting functions and higher information content found in the infrared band (Ebell et al. 2013, Blumberg et al. 2015). The TROPoe retrieval can be used to quantify how well each instrument resolves both temperature and water vapor structure. On average, at the 200 m level (which is roughly the height of the post-LBA inversion), the AERI vertical resolution for temperature was approximately twice as fine as the MWR (0.25 km and 0.49 km respectively) and was approximately 2.5 times better for water vapor (1.19 km and 3.00 km respectively). Therefore, the enhanced detail visible in the Sheboygan time-height cross sections

of thermodynamic variables is far more likely to be due to the differences in the instruments used than physical differences in the lake breeze itself.

a. Temperature and Moisture Structure

Time-height cross sections of temperature and mixing ratio overlaid with wind barbs are shown in Figure 3. Observations from all instruments were interpolated onto a common grid with temporal resolution of 5 min (same as the surface composites shown earlier) and a vertical spacing of 20 m. The data from both Zion and Sheboygan illustrate that while the increase in temperature in the period leading up to LBA is greatest at the surface, increases in temperature with time are seen several hundred meters above the surface as the surface air is mixed upward. There is an inversion present a few hours before LBA that is more easily seen in Sheboygan than Zion. There are two reasons for this: first, since the average time of LBA is earlier at Sheboygan, the three-hour period preceding LBA is more likely to include an early-morning inversion; and second, enhanced vertical resolution enables the AERI to resolve the inversion with increased fidelity. Prior to LBA winds near the surface are southwesterly and are veering with height, becoming northwesterly at an altitude of 1 km. Wind direction at a given height tends to be constant with time before LBA, though there is a tendency for the speeds to decrease with time. In the 30 min prior to LBA, the potential temperature gradient in the lowest 400 m (not shown) is greatly relaxed as the lower troposphere undergoes significant mixing while the free troposphere remains largely adiabatic both before and after LBA. The arrival of the lake breeze results in a sudden decrease in temperature that is greatest at the surface but still prevalent in the lowest 100 – 200 m; again, this is more evident in the AERI observations. A strong inversion develops post-LBA as the cold lake air advances beneath and lifts the warmer land air. Strong marine inversions such as these are

expected in the spring when the lakes are significantly colder than the nearby land. Above the inversion, the air temperature at a given height increases with time. This is likely subsidence-induced warming, caused by the descending branch of the lake breeze circulation, which helps to enhance the strength of the inversion and increase the stability of the environment. Therefore, the cold temperatures commonly associated with the lake breeze are confined to a shallow layer in the lowest part of the troposphere even as the breeze-induced changes in wind direction extend above that height. Figure 3 also shows the mixing height calculated from the composited thermodynamic profiles. Mixing height grows throughout the morning with increased diabatic heating, and is deeper at Zion where air temperatures are warmer. However, the arrival of the lake breeze causes a sudden drop in the mixing height as the atmosphere rapidly stabilizes. This has significant ramifications on air quality, as the lake breeze circulation-induced inversion traps ozone precursors and other pollutants in the near-surface air (Dye et al. 1995, Levy et al. 2010).

These observations show a disconnect between the depth of cold air and the depth over which the lake breeze circulation is impacting wind direction. The depth of the cold air that arrived onshore is limited by the vertical extent of conductive cooling. Both observations and numerical simulations indicate that significant heat loss by conduction is limited to the lowest 150 m of the atmosphere (Lyons 1970). However, winds are clearly changing above the cold pool. Before LBA, westerly surface winds indicate the synoptic scale horizontal pressure gradient force is directed toward the northeast. With sunrise, the near-surface air over land warms more rapidly with solar heating, producing a perturbation horizontal pressure gradient force directed onshore. In combination with the synoptic scale horizontal pressure gradient force, this produces an ageostrophic southeasterly surface wind at LBA. Observations over land indicate the warming eventually continues above the cold layer, but is delayed after collapse of the mixed layer resulting

from LBA at the surface. It is likely this upper warming over land is greater than above the lake. As a result, the onshore perturbation horizontal pressure gradient force also develops at upper levels, but later than at the surface. Therefore, one would expect a delay in the arrival of southeasterly winds at higher levels and a gradual upward slope to the advancing lake breeze front.

Vertical profiles of the water vapor mixing ratio are also displayed in Figure 3. It can be challenging to interpret remotely-sensed profiles of moisture as the information content present in the infrared and microwave spectra for moisture is less than for temperature. Consequently, the vertical distribution of water vapor is not as clearly resolved as is temperature. Due to these limitations it is likely that vertical gradients in moisture are actually greater than what is shown. Still, valuable insight can be obtained by inspecting the observations. Mixing ratio profiles at Sheboygan show markedly lower values than at Zion, which is consistent with the surface observations. However, due to the lower temperature at Sheboygan, the relative humidity values (not shown) are of similar magnitude at the two sites. In the hours before LBA, warming-induced evaporation likely explains the observed increase in mixing ratio; simultaneously, the relative humidity is constant/decreasing with time as the effect of increased water vapor on relative humidity is outpaced by the higher temperatures. Following LBA, the mixing ratio observations in the lowest level of the profiles at the two sites are consistent with the values reported by the surface observations: nearly constant at Zion and slightly decreasing at Sheboygan.

The sodar and Doppler lidar are clearly resolving the lower branch of the lake breeze circulation. What is not clearly evident in these figures, however, is the presence of the upper level return flow. While the 200 m vertical range of the Zion sodar is likely too shallow, conceivably the lidar at Sheboygan could observe it since aircraft observations of a sea breeze by Finkle et al. (1995) showed return flow occurring between 700 and 1000 m. With easterly surface

winds at Sheboygan post-LBA one would expect corresponding westerly winds aloft that would augment the existing westerly flow, in which case the winds aloft would increase following LBA. However, Figure 3 clearly shows that for the composite lake breeze presented here the westerly flow actually decreases in magnitude following LBA. An examination of the individual u wind components for each of the cases shows that the 12 June case may exhibit return flow above 1.25 km; the other cases do not have lidar observations at that height due to a lack of sufficient aerosol scattering on those days. Lyons (1972) showed return flow for Chicago-area lake breezes tended to peak around 1500 m AGL. Therefore, the return flow in these cases may simply be beyond the range of the lidar.

b. Baroclinicity and Circulation

Time/height cross sections of pressure and density can be seen in Figure 4. Since there are not corresponding high-temporal resolution profiles over the lake, a definitive characterization of the baroclinicity of the environment cannot be made. However, the rate at which density changes relative to pressure can inform as to how quickly the environment is becoming more or less baroclinic. At the start of the analysis period, the isopycnals are parallel to isobars at all observed levels at Sheboygan, but daytime heating causes the density to change more quickly than the pressure. At Zion, the isobars and isopycnals are already intersecting at the start of the analysis, but the later LBA time means more heating has taken place. Below 300 meters at Sheboygan (and throughout the entire depth of observations at Zion), the isopycnals slope downward in the time/height cross section meaning that the atmosphere is becoming less dense with time as it approaches LBA. At the same time, close inspection of Figure 4 shows a slight upward slope in the isobars compared to the horizontal lines of the altitude grid. Once the lake breeze arrives, the

427 slope of the isopycnals with respect to time reverses sign as the atmosphere rapidly becomes more
428 dense with the arrival of the cold, dry air. After approximately one hour, the isopycnals and isobars
429 are parallel again, which is consistent with a barotropic atmosphere. The density of the lake breeze-
430 advected air is greater at Sheboygan than it is at Zion, behavior that is expected given the disparity
431 in temperatures between the two locations. When combined, the profiling observations at
432 Sheboygan and Zion are consistent with the solenoidal characterization of lake breeze circulations
433 described earlier. It is important to note that the TROPoe retrieval algorithm derives the
434 thermodynamic variables on a height grid and then calculates the pressure hypsometrically which
435 assumes that the atmosphere is in hydrostatic balance. While the small horizontal scale of sea
436 breezes means that they do not necessarily behave hydrostatically, numerical modeling studies
437 (e.g. Yang 1991) indicate that there is little difference between hydrostatic and nonhydrostatic
438 simulations of weak sea breezes. Therefore, any error in the isobars in Figure 4 due to a lack of
439 hydrostatic balance is likely to be small.

440 The role of pressure and density in generating a lake breeze can be further explored by
441 using Equation 1 to calculate how the thermodynamic state at a given time forces changes in the
442 circulation with time. Results using the composite AERI profiles at Sheboygan integrated over
443 several different depths of the atmosphere are shown in Figure 5. Regardless of the integration
444 depth, the rate of change of circulation before LBA is close to zero or slightly negative. However,
445 there is a substantial increase in the circulation rate at 0 h LBA, coincident with the observed shift
446 in surface winds. This increase is visible at all analyzed heights, though the value for the 20 m
447 layer is less than half of the values for the deeper layers. The values for 100 m and 200 m depth
448 are neutral to positive for 1.5 h after LBA, which indicates that the lake breeze circulation
449 continues to intensify after the time of LBA, coincident with the continued turning of the winds as

observed by the DLID during that period. Altogether, these data are consistent with the theory that the lake breeze is actually a change in circulation that arises from local density differences. The observations at Zion (not shown) did not indicate similar behavior, although this is more likely an artifact of the coarse vertical resolution of the MWR rather than a product of any atmospheric difference at Zion.

c. Inland Penetration and Low Level Structure

One of the ways in which individual lake breeze events differ is the degree to which they penetrate inland. Certain lake breezes remain near-shore, impacting the conditions only within a few hundred meters of the shore or less, while others can extend hundreds of kilometers inland (Sills et al. 2011). To investigate the role of vertical structure on inland penetration, the events were classified into “near-shore” or “inland” based on observed winds at inland sites. These inland observations came from two air quality monitoring sites operated by the Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources: Kenosha Water Tower, 5.7 km inland from the shore and 15 km northwest of Zion; and Sheboygan Haven, 5.3 km inland from the shore and 10 km northwest of Sheboygan. The locations of these sites relative to the Zion and Sheboygan supersites are marked on Figure 1. If an observed wind at the inland site experienced a shift in wind direction that was consistent with the lake breeze for 3 h or more, it was considered to represent an inland lake breeze event. Based on these criteria, three of the six events at Zion were classified as inland events while all but one event at Sheboygan were classified as such; these events are identified in Table 2 in bold type. To assess what, if any, role instability may have had in the penetration distance of the lake breezes, data from the AERI and MWR profilers were used to calculate the vertical rate of change of equivalent potential temperature θ_e . Results are displayed in Figure 6. Positive (negative) values

for $d\theta_e/dz$, representing convectively stable (unstable) conditions, are shaded in red (blue). While the small sample size makes it difficult to draw definitive conclusions, at least for the events observed here, the inland lake breeze cases tended to form in more unstable environments (as evidenced by the blue shading above the near-surface layer) than the near-shore cases (which have more pink shading in the lowest 500 m). This is an interesting finding that stands in contrast to theory (Rotunno 1983, Walsh 1974), which states that the length scale of inland penetration of sea breezes is proportional to stability. However, modeling studies (e.g. Xian and Pielke 1991) have found that more unstable environments produce lake breezes with deeper penetrations. The Doppler lidar observations at Sheboygan indicate some correspondence between the strength of the pre-existing westerly flow and whether a lake breeze penetrates inland or not, as the pre-LBA winds aloft in the sole near-shore case (12 June 2017) are stronger than the mean winds aloft of the inland cases. This is consistent with findings by Curry et al. (2017) and Mariani et al. (2018), who note that stronger offshore winds hinder the inland progression of the lake breeze front. It may be that the preexisting flow, not the local convective stability, is the most important parameter for determining the degree of penetration. Doppler lidar observations at Sheboygan for the single near-shore case were absent for most of the post-LBA period. As a result, this study is unable to fully address the relative importance of stability versus wind speed in determining the degree of inland penetration.

The Zion sodar has a fine vertical resolution (10 m) and narrow dead band at the surface (30 m), and so it is well-suited for investigating the structure of the lake breeze in greater detail. Figure 7 shows the time-height cross section of the mean zonal (u) and vertical (w) components of the sodar-observed winds during both the inland and near-shore cases; recall that there is an identical number (3) of events of each type at Zion. Since the shoreline at Zion is oriented in a due

496 north-south direction, the u component of the wind effectively represents the cross-shore flow and
497 a switch in the sign from positive to negative represents passage of the lake breeze front. It is
498 clear from the results that, regardless of breeze type, the lake breeze front is a near-vertical wall
499 approximately 100 m deep that arrives right at LBA and disrupts the predominately westerly flow.
500 In the hours that follow, the near-shore cases exhibit little deepening from that initial impulse as
501 the negative values for u remain limited to the lowest 100 m of the troposphere. The inland cases,
502 however, quickly show growth in the depth of the system to at least double their initial height. As
503 noted above, the inland cases formed in more unstable environments. However, the
504 contemporaneous vertical velocity observations indicate that thermodynamic instability is not
505 likely to be the reason for the discrepancy in the two breeze types as the magnitudes of the vertical
506 motion are largely similar during and following LBA for both breeze types. The strongest vertical
507 lifting is found right at LBA as the arriving cold air acts as a density current and displaces the
508 shoreline air upward. Following LBA, there is a hint of periodicity in the upward motion,
509 especially in the near-shore (stable) cases where positive vertical velocities are seen starting 30
510 min after LBA with a frequency of approximately 1 h. It is unlikely that these structures are
511 thermals embedded in the convective boundary layer [as documented by Curry et al. (2017)] as
512 these are occurring on a longer time scale and are the result of multiple cases being averaged
513 together. Rather, they may represent a standing wave formed when the westerly pre-existing flow
514 collides with the dense air of the lake breeze. In this case, one would expect vertical velocity
515 couplets in both near-shore and inland cases, but the pattern would be more pronounced in the
516 near-shore cases due to their association with stronger westerly flow. The inland (unstable) cases
517 tend towards more pronounced periods of vertical lift following LBA. However, these times are
518 not well-correlated with the vertical growth of the onshore flow. In fact, the lake breeze

experiences its greatest vertical extent at the same time that the atmosphere is undergoing its most consistent period of subsidence. This tends to rule out momentum advection due to thermodynamic instability as a cause for growth of the lake breeze layer. Since the MWR observations indicate that the cold pool is not deepening with time, a more likely solution is that an onshore perturbation horizontal pressure gradient force has developed aloft, producing a sloped interface along the advancing lake breeze front.

5. Aerosol Impacts

The HSRL deployed at Sheboygan allows for the observation of absolutely-calibrated profiles of aerosol backscatter. Molecular backscattering often obscures the contributions of aerosols in traditional backscatter lidars, but the HSRL technique is able to separate and remove molecular scattering from the observed backscatter. During two of the six lake breezes observed at Sheboygan, enhanced aerosol backscatter was observed by the HSRL at the same altitude and time as the Doppler lidar observed the wind shift. These two cases can be seen in Figure 8, which shows the time/height cross section of the base-10 logarithm of the aerosol backscatter cross section. In both cases (and in other cases not presented here) the growth of the boundary layer with solar heating can be seen as the increasing depth over which enhanced backscatter is visible starting before LBA but continuing after; this is especially apparent in the 2 June case in which the growth is easily visible starting nearly 3 h before LBA. After the growth in the depth of the lake breeze is significant enough that it can be observed by the Doppler lidar, both cases show additional enhanced backscatter coincident with the shifting wind barbs, though it is more subtle on 2 June than 16 June. This is consistent with the lake breeze containing, on average, a slight enhancement in fine aerosols.

Increases in fine and ultrafine aerosol number concentrations were also observed around the time of LBA at Zion. Figure 9a shows the aerosol size distribution while Figure 9b shows the times series of particulate matter with aerodynamic diameter less than 2.5 micron ($PM_{2.5}$). In the composite average, aerosols at sizes of 20-80 nm increase dramatically at the time of LBA. Similar graphs made for non-lake breeze days (not shown) do not show the 20-80 nm enhancement. The mean quantitative increase in the total aerosol number is from 8413 cm^{-3} (pre LBA) to $12,435\text{ cm}^{-3}$ (post LBA), and was statistically significant using a two-sample t-test. At the size where the post-LBA feature is most notable (38 nm), the size distribution function increases in height by a factor of 2.7.

Changes in other aerosol variables at Zion were investigated as well, including aerosol optical depth, integrated aerosol volume, and $PM_{2.5}$. As shown in Figure 9b, for the 3 h period before LBA to the 3 h period after LBA, $PM_{2.5}$ increased by $2.5\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ on lake breeze days. This increase was greater than the increase on non-lake breeze days ($0.6\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$); for non-lake breeze days, the average LBA time at Zion was used as the time to determine the relative difference. This difference was found to be statistically significant using a two-sample t-test ($p=0.02$). In situ integrated aerosol volume increased as well, consistent with the increases in aerosol number and $PM_{2.5}$. The increases in aerosol volume and $PM_{2.5}$ were not as distinct at the time of LBA as the change in ultrafine aerosol number, but rather suggested increasing mass of secondary aerosol in the air coming off the lake at later times in the day.

AOD at 550 nm on lake breeze days (not shown) ranged from approximately 0.03 to 0.22, and AOD at 331 nm ranged from approximately 0.08 to 0.43. However, the AOD data were too sparse to create a composite time series or inspect for discontinuities at the LBA time. In a study in Toronto, increases in AOD and surface and vertical column density NO_2 were observed at LBA

time (Davis et al. 2020), but direct comparisons cannot be drawn due to differences in land use, nearby sources, and fetch of the observation sites.

The general conceptual model of lake breeze pollution episodes in the region (Dye et al. 1995), supported by LMOS 2017 results in Hughes et al. (2021) and Doak et al. (2021), suggest that much of the aerosol signal seen after LBA is due to anthropogenic pollution from land-based sources within the Lake Michigan airshed. Oxidation of precursor species leads to secondary aerosol formation in these plumes that are transported over the lake and then returned in the lake breeze. The conceptual model explains the gradual increase in aerosol volume and $PM_{2.5}$ seen after LBA, and the greater increase (afternoon vs. morning) on lake breeze days vs. non-lake breeze days. However, the conceptual model does not explain the distinct increase in ultrafine aerosol seen at the LBA time. This is consistent with ultrafine aerosols generating from breaking of freshwater waves (Slade et al. 2010, Axson et al. 2016); however, combustion sources over the lake, gas-to-particle nucleation over the lake (likely in land-based anthropogenic plumes), and other potential sources are possible. Other observations such as time-resolved measurements of wave state, ultrafine aerosol chemistry, and vertical profiles of aerosols would be required to elucidate specific contributions.

6. Synthesis and Conclusions

As part of the 2017 Lake Michigan Ozone Study, ground-based supersites were deployed at two locations adjacent to the western shore of Lake Michigan. The unique combination of kinematic and thermodynamic profilers at each site enables the analysis of lake breeze structure in

unprecedented detail, and a compelling portrait of the development of this phenomenon emerges from the synthesis of these instruments and surface measurements.

These observations show that lake breezes during LMOS 2017 developed as follows. In the absence of synoptic forcing, a preexisting inversion can be found over the land in the overnight hours with predominately westerly flow throughout the lower troposphere. Background aerosol concentrations show little difference from average values during this time of the year. Following sunrise, several significant changes begin to take place in the lower troposphere. Over the next three to four hours solar heating increases the surface temperature and the depth of the PBL while increased mixing erodes the previous inversion; analysis of the potential temperature profiles (not shown) indicates that the lower PBL becomes largely isentropic with height during this time. While the air over land warms, the temperature of the air over the lake remains largely unchanged. As a result, the density of the air over land becomes much less than over water, which results in sloping isopycnals as observed by the thermodynamic profilers and an increase in baroclinicity. Since the change in the circulation around a fluid element is a function of the magnitude of the baroclinicity, a circulation in the vertical plane develops that is superimposed over the pre-existing westerly flow. Up to this point, there is little change in the winds as the preexisting circulation in the vertical plane is small. However, the baroclinic forcing results in a sudden increase in the circulation which manifests itself as the lake breeze. The change in circulation derived from baroclinicity is well-captured by the ground-based profilers.

The lake breeze front is on the order of 100 - 200 m deep and represents the leading edge of the air that has been cooled by conduction of heat into Lake Michigan. This air mass is advected over the land by the lower branch of the lake breeze circulation, and as it advances it forces an updraft that the wind profilers indicate is on the order of 1-2 m s⁻¹. The concentration of aerosols

having a diameter of 20 – 80 nm increases to nearly an order of magnitude above background levels with passage of the lake breeze front. While the change in PM_{2.5} concentration is not as dramatic, it still shows a marked increase after the lake breeze front. The low level relative humidity over land increases with the passage of the lake breeze front, even as the absolute humidity is steady or even decreasing, owing to the significant decrease in temperature. Changes in the local thermodynamics result in decreased baroclinicity in the lower troposphere, and the lake breeze circulation achieves a steady state within a few minutes with little change in wind speed or direction observed in the lowest 100 m after that time.

The local near-surface environment has been generally stabilized by the lake breeze as evidenced by strong increases in potential temperature with height in the lowest 100 - 200 m. The advancing cold air undercuts the warm air over land and lifts it, creating a strong inversion on the order of 8 K over just 200 m. While the aforementioned lifting can force cloud development along the lake breeze front, the strong stabilization of the atmosphere behind the front results in clearing skies, as seen in the satellite imagery in Figure 1.

Some questions remain about the reasons behind the different characteristics observed at the two sites. For example, the difference between the air and lake temperatures is nearly identical between the two sites in the period leading up to LBA, but there is substantial divergence in the temperature differences following LBA as the ensuing gradient is twice as strong at Zion as at Sheboygan. At the same time, the absolute moisture content of the air at Zion seems to be unaffected by the lake breeze while it drops by nearly half at Sheboygan. It is important to remember that there are slight differences in the set of cases used for analysis, as both the coldest day pre-LBA at Sheboygan and the warmest day post-LBA at Zion were the two event days on which there was no corresponding breeze at the other site. This would help bias the respective

sites in opposite directions. The two sites themselves are not situated identically, either, as the Sheboygan site was much closer to the shore than the Zion site (230 m vs. 1 km). The longer fetch at Zion combined with the relatively slow speed at which lake-cooled air is advected over the warmer land means that the air can undergo substantially more modification at that site than Sheboygan. The degree of urban development also provides an interesting contrast between the two sites. At the microscale, the Sheboygan site was more urbanized as it was deployed next to a resort development while the Zion site was within a state park. However, the community of Sheboygan is a discrete smaller city surrounded by farmland while Zion is in the heart of the urban amalgamation that lies between Chicago and Milwaukee. The degree to which these different settings may be impacting the characteristics of the lake breeze is an important question, but one that is beyond the scope of the present work.

This work covers a relatively small number of cases along one shore of just one of the Great Lakes. Additional observations at other locations are needed to determine if the behaviors observed here are also seen at bodies of water with different shoreline geometries, surface area, water depths, climate regimes, and other qualities that can impact water/land/atmosphere interactions. For future observational studies of lake or sea breeze structure, an ideal observing site would contain both a sodar and a Doppler lidar so that a more complete profile of winds over the lowest kilometer of the atmosphere could be observed since the sodar would fill in all but the very lowest level of the lidar's dead band. When coupled with an AERI and in situ surface meteorology sensors, this would provide a near-continuous profile of atmospheric thermodynamics and kinematics from the surface to the maximum effective range of the lidar.

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Data availability statement

Profiler data used in this study are freely available from the LMOS 2017 campaign archive at <https://www-air.larc.nasa.gov/missions/lmos/index.html>. Inland wind observations were obtained from the EPA Air Quality System at <https://aqs.epa.gov/aqs/>.

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816 **Tables**

817 Table 1: Summary of the instrumentation deployed at the two ground sites used in this study. All

818 data used in this study are publicly available at <https://www-air.larc.nasa.gov/missions/lmos/>

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Instrument	Deployment Site	Observation type	Approximate Vertical range	Temporal resolution	Uncertainty
AERI	Sheboygan	Profiles of temperature, water vapor	0 – 3000 m	2 min	0.9 K, 1.0 g kg ⁻¹
Doppler lidar	Sheboygan	Wind vector profiles	140 – 1200 m	1.75 min	0.4 m s ⁻¹
HSRL	Sheboygan	Aerosol backscatter profiles	55 – 14600 m	0.5 min	5% of observed value
Microwave radiometer	Zion	Profiles of temperature, water vapor	0 – 3000 m	3 min	1.6 K, 1.4 g kg ⁻¹
Sodar	Zion	Wind vector profiles	30 – 200 m	2 min	0.5 m s ⁻¹ , 2°
Met One AIO	Zion	Temperature, humidity, wind	10 m	1 min	0.2 K, 3% RH, 0.5 m s ⁻¹

SMPS-APS	Zion	Aerosol size distributions	5 m	20 s – 135 s	20% of aerosol diameter
Vaisala WXT 530	Sheboygan	Temperature, humidity, wind	10 m	1 min	0.3 K, 3% RH, 3% wind speed.
AERONET	Zion	Aerosol Optical Depth	Total Column	Variable	± 0.1

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Table 2

Dates and times of the identified lake breeze events for the two observation sites during LMOS 2017 as well as lake temperatures from the GLSEA analysis. Times are in UTC; local time is UTC – 5 and local standard time is UTC – 6. Temperatures are in °C. Blanks represent days during which a lake breeze was observed at only one location. Times that have been bolded represent events with inland penetration.

Date	Time at Sheboygan	Time at Zion	Sheboygan Lake Temperature (°C)	Zion Lake Temperature (°C)
2 June 2017	15:42	14:48	9.9	11.8
8 June 2017	14:49	15:16	10.9	13.1
11 June 2017	14:32	17:52	12.1	15.0
12 June 2017	15:43	17:30	12.1	16.1
15 June 2017	--	17:20	--	17.4
16 June 2017	17:41	17:04	14.5	17.3
17 June 2017	14:20	--	14.5	--

Figures

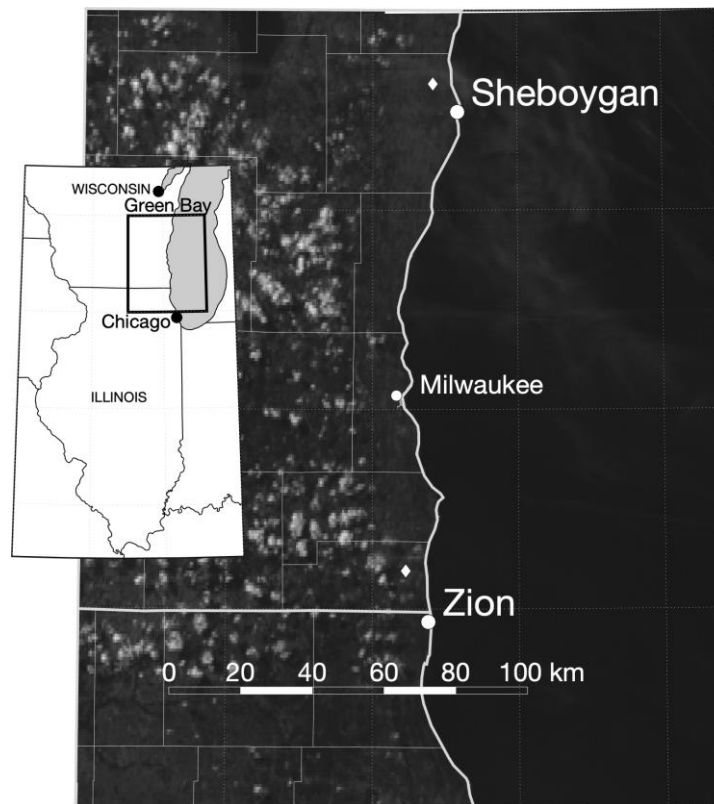


Figure 1. Location of the Sheboygan and Zion supersites along the shore of Lake Michigan, overlaid on GOES-16 0.64 μm reflectance from 2112 UTC on 2 June 2017. Small white diamonds indicate the location of inland monitoring sites used to determine lake breeze penetration. The cities of Chicago, Illinois; and Milwaukee and Green Bay, Wisconsin, are shown for reference. The satellite imagery depicts the lack of convective clouds adjacent to the lake shore frequently seen with mature lake breezes.

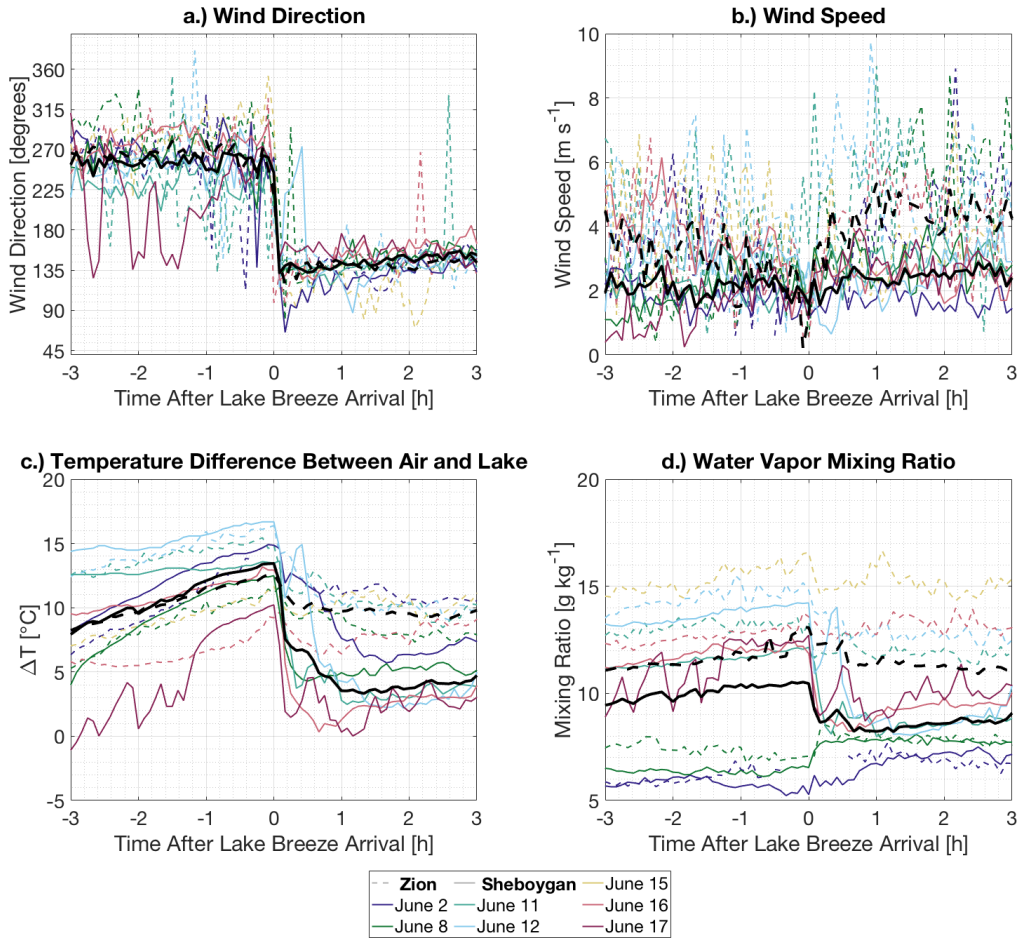


Figure 2. Time series of composited surface conditions for the lake breeze events analyzed in the present study, including a.) wind direction, in degrees; b.) wind speed, in m s^{-1} ; c.) the difference between the air temperature and the lake surface temperature as obtained from the GLSEA analysis, in $^{\circ}\text{C}$; and d.) the water vapor mixing ratio, in g kg^{-1} . Observations from Zion are depicted with a dashed line while observations from Sheboygan are shown with a solid line. The thick black lines represent the mean for each site.

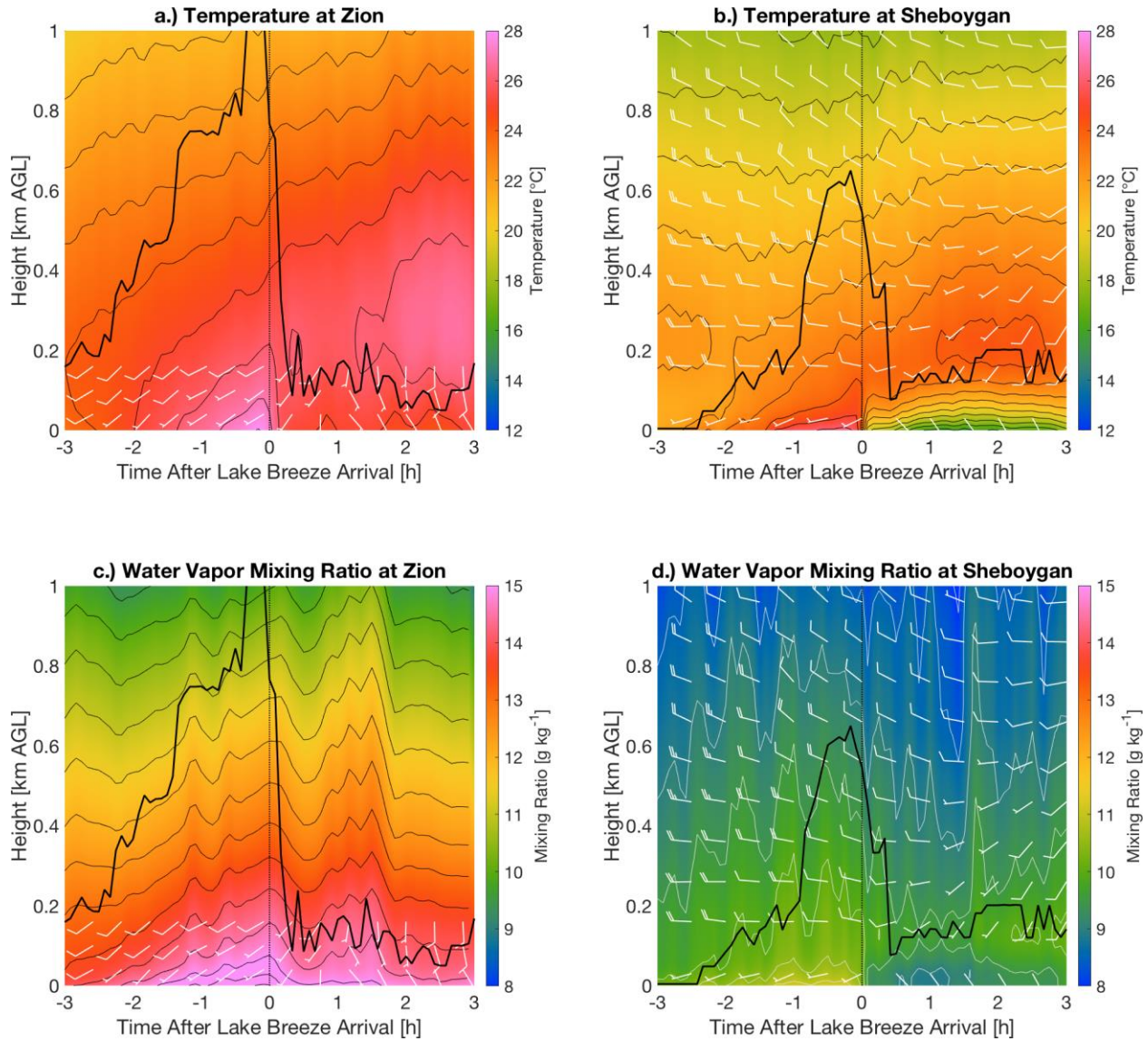
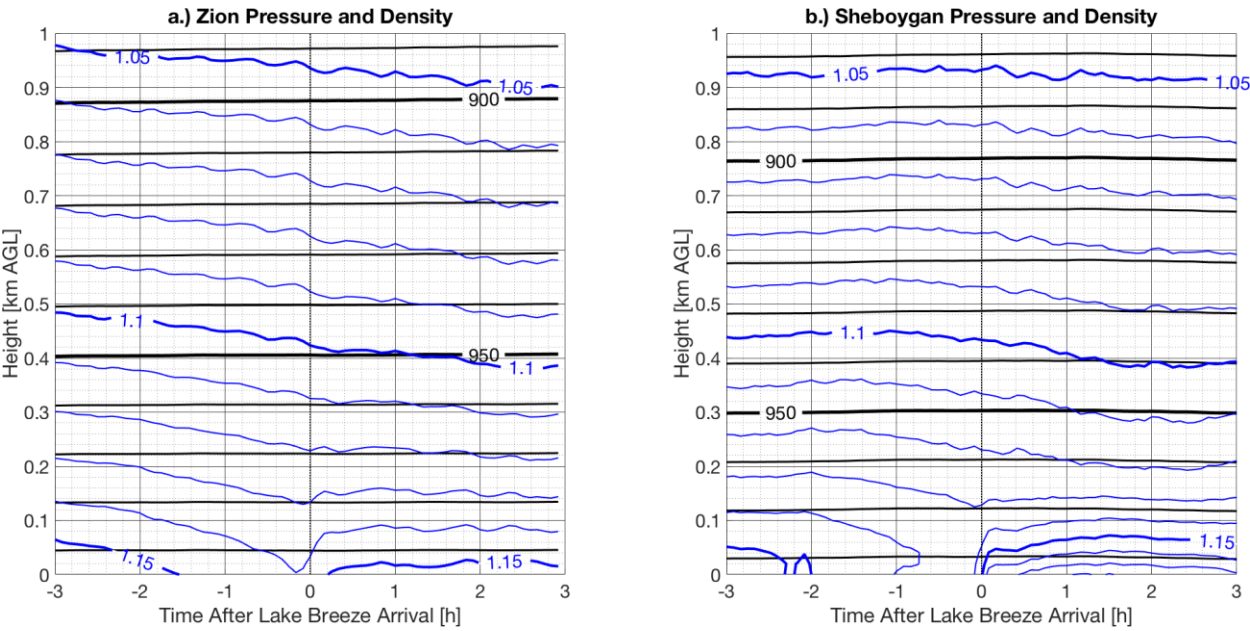


Figure 3. Time-height cross sections of temperature (top row, in °C) and mixing ratio (bottom row, in g kg⁻¹) for the microwave radiometer at Zion (left column) and the AERI at Sheboygan (right column). Winds observed by the sodar at Zion and the Doppler lidar at Sheboygan are overlaid on the respective plots. Winds are shown in kt using the standard convention; this unit was chosen over m s⁻¹ so that wind speed magnitudes would be large enough to be displayed with wind barbs. The 10 m surface winds at Sheboygan are appended at the bottom of the plot, but are displaced to the 30 m height for easier viewing. Temperature (mixing ratio) contours are every 1

855 °C (0.5 g kg^{-1}). The thick black line represents the mixing depth calculated from the
856 thermodynamic profiles.

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Figure 4. Time height cross sections of the mean pressure (black contours, in hPa) and density (blue contours, in kg m⁻³) for Zion (left) and Sheboygan (right). Pressure contours are drawn every 50 hPa and density contours are drawn every 0.05 kg m⁻³.

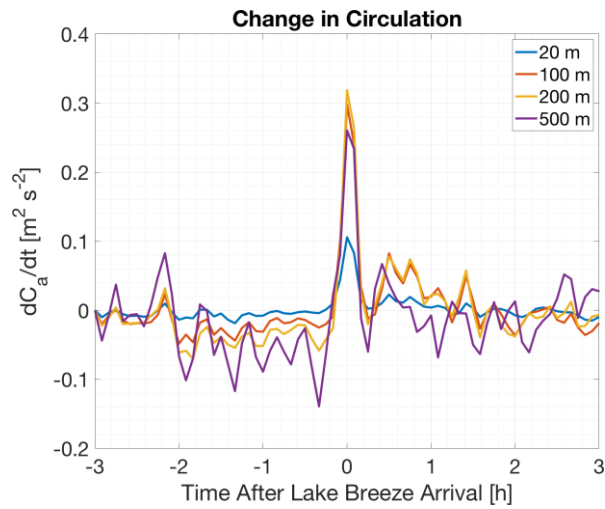


Figure 5. Time series of the temporal rate of change in circulation as derived from AERI thermodynamic profiles. The circulation is evaluated over a layer that extends from the surface to the listed height.

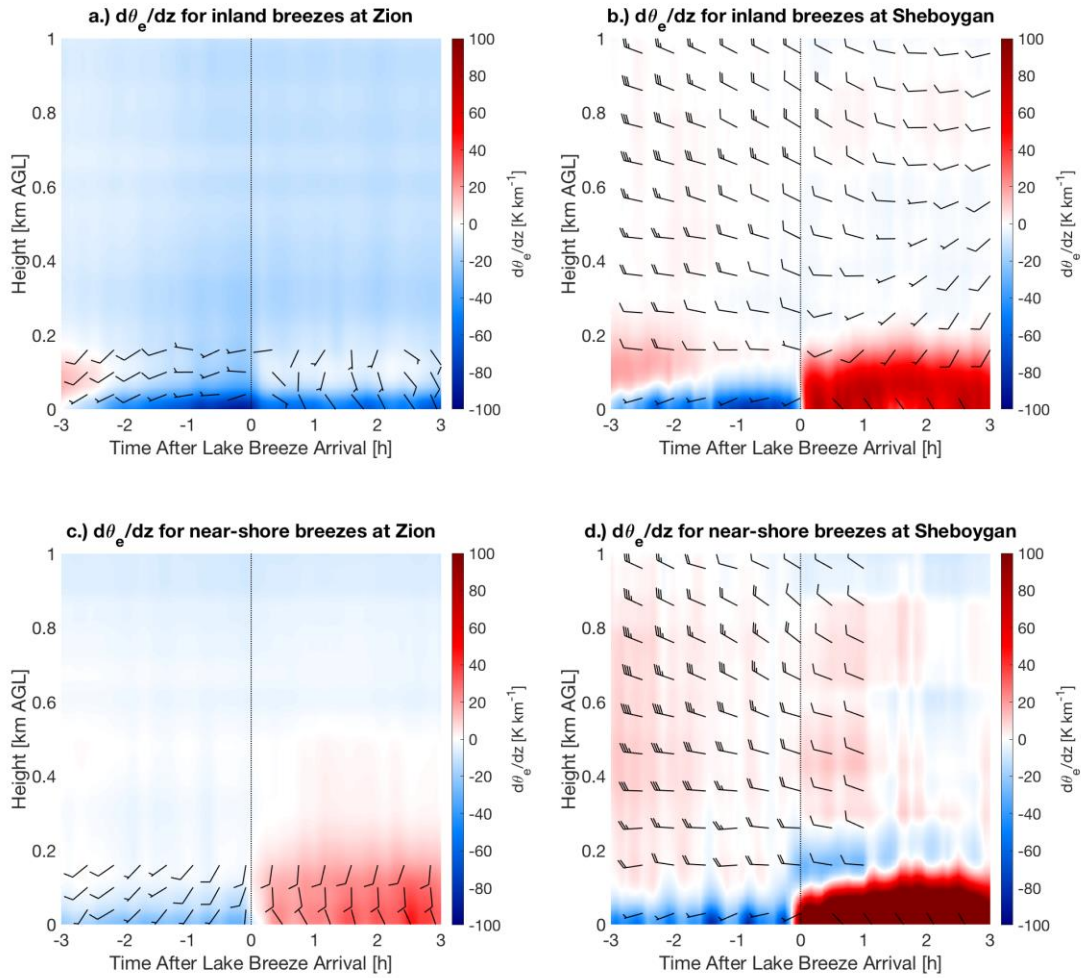


Figure 6. Time/height cross sections of the vertical rate of change of the equivalent potential temperature θ_e for inland breezes (top row) and near-shore breezes (bottom row) at Zion (left column) and Sheboygan (right column). Winds follow the same plotting convention as in Figure 3.

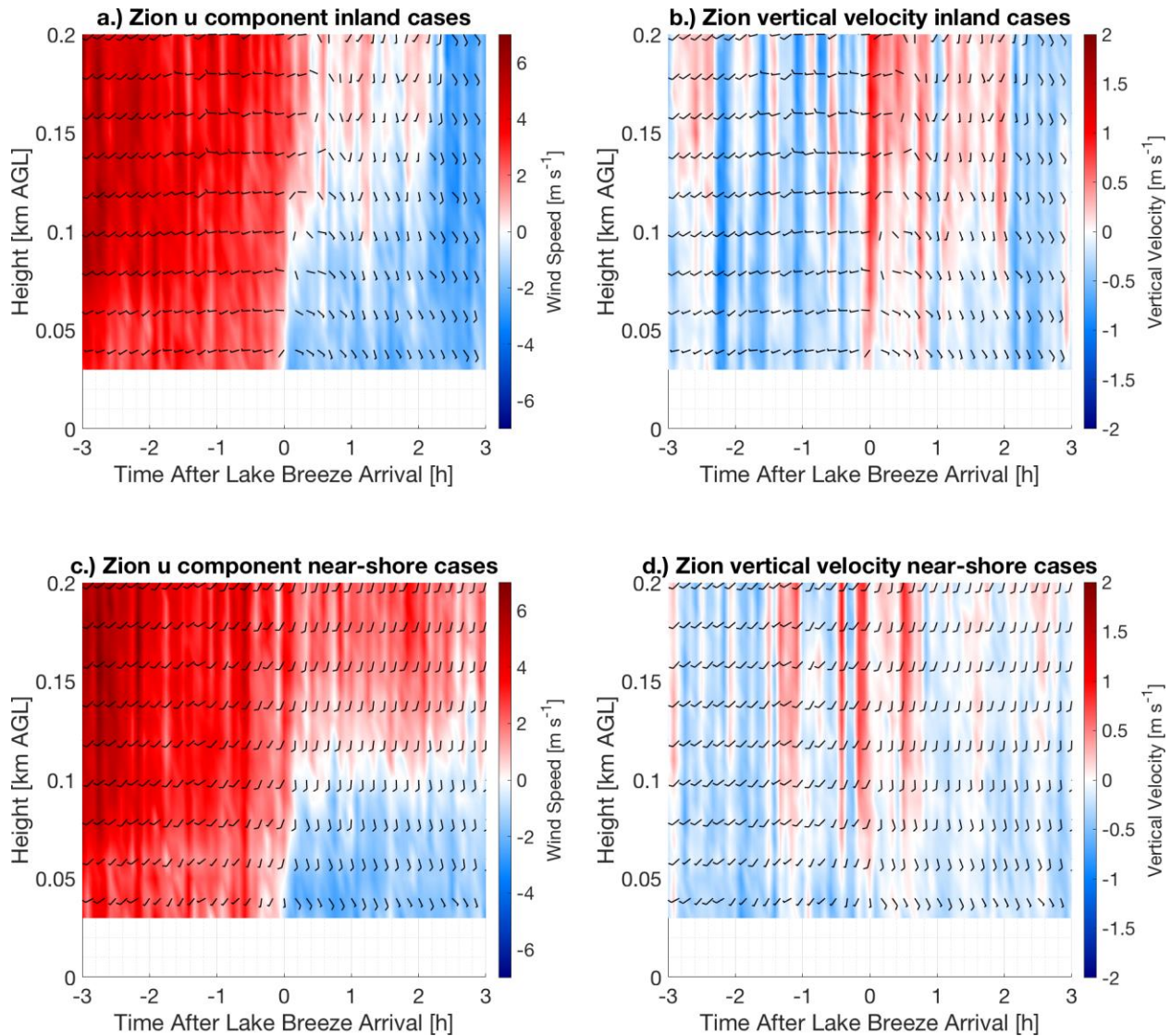


Figure 7. Time/height cross sections of the sodar-observed zonal (u) wind component (left column) and vertical velocity (right column) at Zion for inland (top row) and near-shore (bottom row) lake breezes. Wind barbs are the two dimensional horizontal wind vector, in kts.

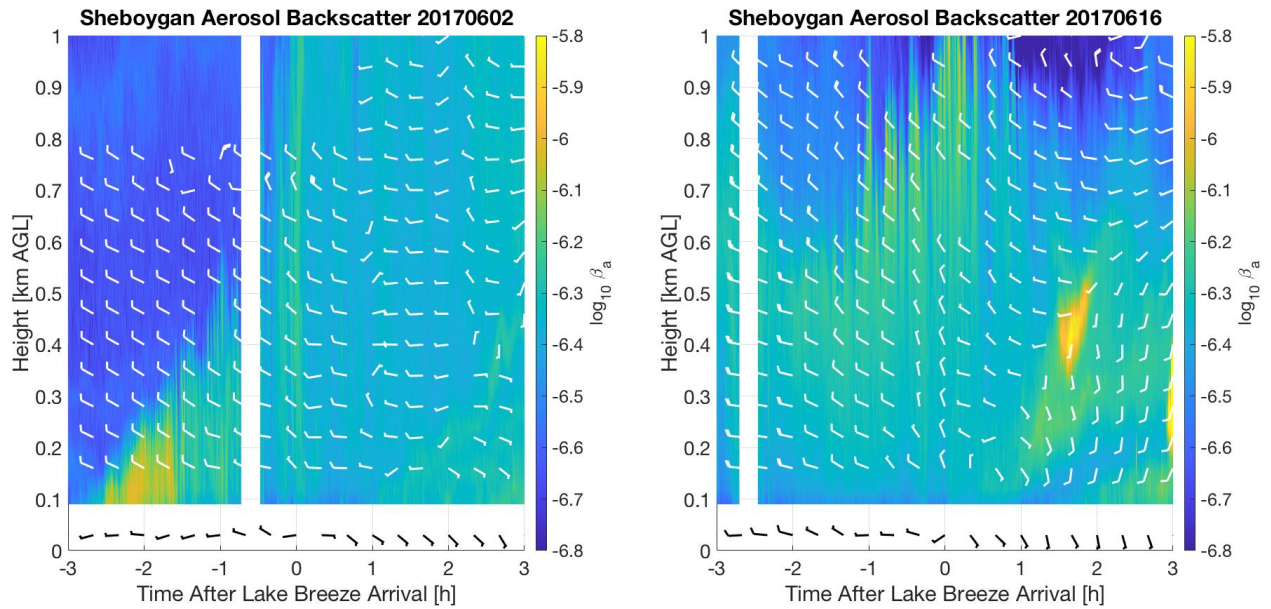


Figure 8. Time/height cross section of aerosol backscatter for two lake breeze cases from the High Spectral Resolution Lidar (HSRL) deployed at Sheboygan. White wind barbs are from the collocated Doppler lidar; black wind barbs are from the 10 m surface wind sensor but are plotted at 30 m to enhance readability. Wind barbs are in kts.

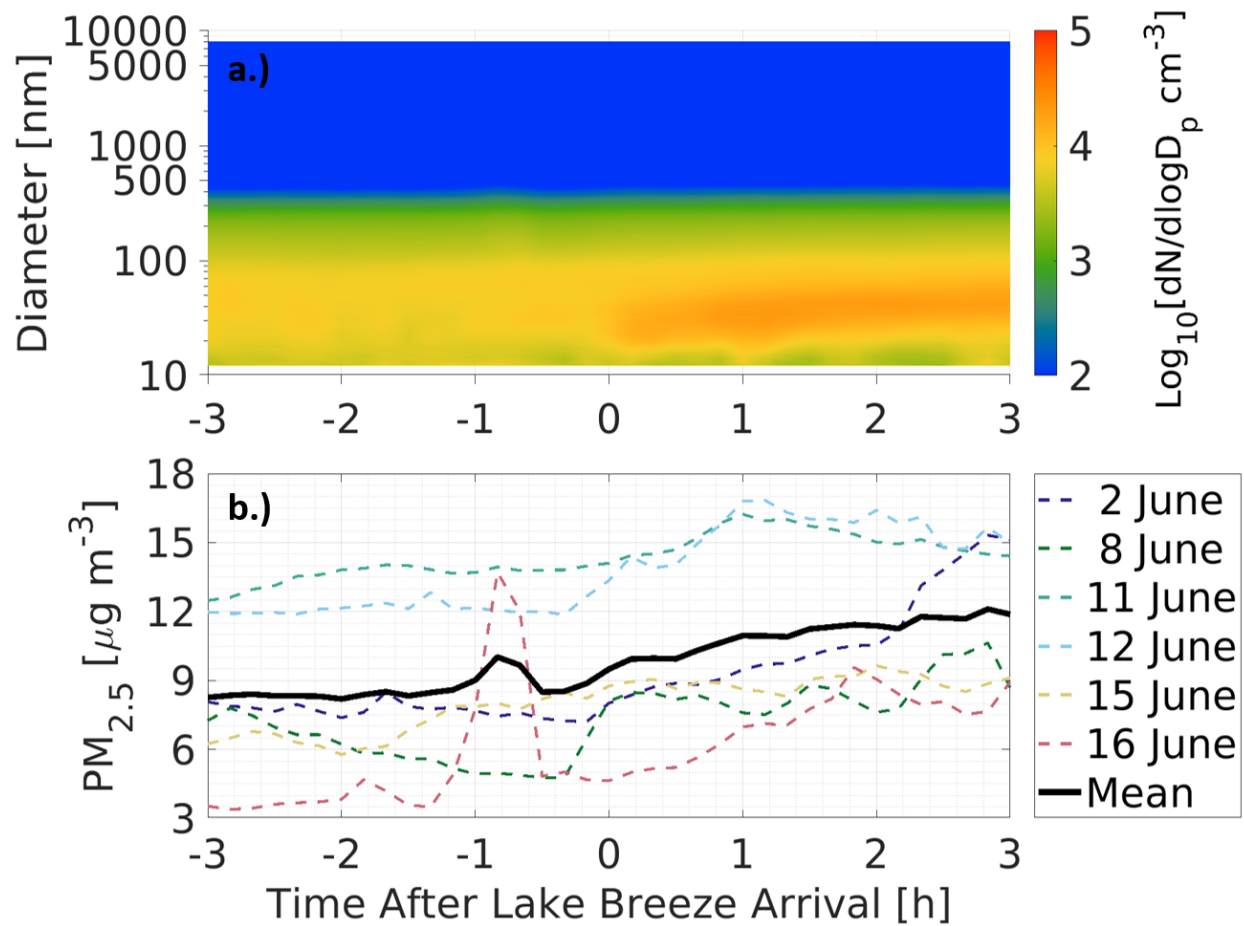


Figure 9. a.) Average aerosol size distribution of all lake breeze days (in base 10 logarithm of cm^{-3}). b.) Time series of calculated $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration (in $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) relative to lake breeze arrival time.