PLEASE SEE A REVISED VERSION OF THE PAPER AT THE END OF THESE COMMENTS THAT INCORPORATES THE CHANGES.
YELLOW=REV 1 GREEN=REV2 GREY=AUTHOR CHANGES

Reviewer #2

This paper presents a comparison between OMI NASA v3.1 and PANDORA total NO2 VCD, showing a clear under-estimation of the OMI data at 7 long-term sites and 6 campaign-based sites. The results at most of the sites are presented and discussed and few arguments for the general underestimation result are mentioned. Although the paper is interesting and fulfill the scope of AMT, there is a lack of reference to literature (previous similar studies and scientific proof/reference of why such differences at the different sites). Sensitivity tests or further comparisons on OMI pixel sizes (edge and center of the swath, different position of the pixels, GB time-selection) could be done to help justifying the proposed conclusion. I recommend the publication after the suggested revisions.

General comments:

The paper is short and easy to read, but it lack some "proof" of the proposed explanation of the OMI under-estimation (argument

1= "Because of the local inhomogeneity of NO2 emissions, the large OMI FOV is the most likely factor when comparing OMI TCNO2 to retrievals from the small PANDORA effective FOV", line 20 and argument.

See page 2   Judd et al., 2018; Nowlan et al., 2016

2= "OMI estimated air mass factor, surface reflectivity, and the OMI 24x13 km2 FOV (field of view) are three factors that can cause OMI to underestimate TCNO2", line 18).

See the references Boersma et al., 2011; Lin et al., 2015; Nowlan et al., 2016; Lorente et al., 2018

Krotkov et al., 2017

Some sensitivity tests on the how much the choices made for the OMI pixel selection (FOV distance d<5km for an SZA<70, line 165) and PANDORA selection ("daily data matched to the OMI overpass times ±6miutes", line 87) affect the results would support argument.

It is the Pandora FOV is less than 5 km from the Pandora site for SZA <70 degrees. This is simple geometry. I have added a comment for this.

1 (or at least give an uncertainty range). Additional comparison (or at least further comments on other OMI retrievals, such as DOMINO (Boersma et al., 2011) or QA4ECV (Boersma et al., 2018)), would support argument

The DOMINO algorithm has some known problems (see reference) and the QA4ECV results are very similar to the NASA results. Because of this, I have put in a statement about the QA4ECV results and a reference.

2. Moreover, a lot of (redundant) figures are given (daily and monthly panels in Fig 3, 4, 5 and 9) could be simplified by plotting the mean and the variability – or a scatter plot of OMI vs PANDORA as often done in validation papers – while e.g., number of comparison points or impact of the Lowess(f) monthly running averages is not mentioned/discussed. How much this exercise results would change with a simple mean or median of the daily comparisons? This would allow putting an uncertainty number on the 1.8 and 1.7 PAN/OMI mentioned in page 11.

I disagree with referee about the redundancy. Figure 3A shows the daily data and Figure 3B shows the averages. Even though both show the difference, it is useful to see the daily data.

Consider adding a section or table with the different PANDORA site description, that would help the reader understanding the general differences among the stations (partially already described in the text, but bot for all sites – coordinated of the sites is also missing). This would be a good reference for future studies using these PANDORA data.

OK See Table 2

Please clarify how some justifying arguments are obtained (add references or explain not shown results). E.g. :

P14, line 278 "The relatively moderate TCNO2 values (0.4 to 0.8 DU) are probably a testament to the effectiveness of catalytic converters mandatory on all US automobiles in such a high traffic area"

Gary A. Bishop and Donald H. Stedman, Reactive Nitrogen Species Emission Trends in Three Light-/Medium-Duty United States Fleets, *Environmental Science & Technology* 2015 *49* (18), 11234-11240, DOI: 10.1021/acs.est.5b02392

 add reference!;

1) P17, line 290 "The highest amount of TCNO2 recorded during 2018 was about 5DU on 13 July 2018 from 11:20 and 12:30 EST (a time with very light winds (1 km/hr) and moderate temperature (25°C)"

 is the meteorology present at each site or only here? Could you shown some correlations? Or is this just a specificity of that time period?

Meteorology affects the amount of NO2 observed at all sites. I described the meteorology for this site on a 13 July 2018 because the amount, 5DU, was very unusual. In general, days with no winds show high values of NO2 near the sources for NO2.

Harkey, M., Holloway, T., Oberman, J., and Scotty, E., An evaluation of CMAQ NO2 using observed chemistry-meteorology correlations, J. Geophys. Res. Atmos., 120, 11,775– 11,797, doi:10.1002/2015JD023316, 2015

Specific comments and Technical corrections

- Line 6: “14 sites” but only 13 are presented – 7 sites in table 1 and 6 in table 2. Same comment for line 13 “Eight additional sites… ”

Corrected in Table 2

- Line 9 and 11: why mention sites in Northern Hemisphere and Southern hemisphere if this is never mentioned again in the manuscript? Same comment for line 16 “weekly or monthly average basis”: weekly comparisons are never mentioned again. -

Now NH and SH mentioned in the text on Page 6. Even though true, I removed weekly from line 16.

Line 18 – 19 and 19-22: see general comment, these 2 arguments are not discussed a lot in the paper. –

Surface reflectivity was discussed on page 2. I added: “Accurately determining the AMF for $TCNO_2$ requires a-priori knowledge of the NO_2 profile shape, which is estimated from coarse resolution model calculations (Boersma et al., 2011),” The references give extensive discussions of these factors and their effects.

line 87 – 89: the explanation on how the comparison is done is mixed between this line and lines 165. Consider adding a paragraph grouping all the comparison selection choices (cloud free pixels? What is done with the row anomaly? Why is a 6 minutes time-selection selected for the PANDORA? What type of filtering is done for PANDORA ? (cf mention of impact of clouds in line 130), …

The following paragraph has been added to page 3

OMI overpass data, https://avdc.gsfc.nasa.gov/index.php?site=666843934&id=13, are filtered for the row anomaly and cloudy pixels. The selection of a $\pm$6 minute window represents 720 seconds or 9 PANDORA measurements averaged together around the OMI overpass time to reduce the effect of any outlier points. PANDORA makes an NO_2 measurement every 80 seconds. The specific value of ±6 minutes is arbitrary but increases the effective signal to noise ratio by a factor of 3. PANDORA data are filtered for significant cloud cover by examining the effective variance in sub-interval (20 seconds) measurements. Each PANDORA listed measurement is the average of up to 4000 (clear sky) individual measurement made over 20 seconds.

To my knowledge, the way the selection is done could have an impact on the results (size of OMI pixels, pixels covering the station or not, averaging the ground-based data (mean or median value?), …), and this is only poorly/not discussed. What is the impact of “the Lowess(f) monthly running averages” choice? -

The overpass data set represents the closest filtered OMI pixel to the specified site on a given day. On any single OMI measurement, the OMI FOV may not be exactly over the site. This is an intrinsic characteristic of OMI data as used for practical purposes. An alternative would be to use gridded data on a fixed latitude x longitude grid. The result is an even wider area view of the specified site (an

average of more OMI pixels). The point is that OMI data are used to represent the amount of NO_2 over a given location whether in comparison to PANDORA or a model study. Air quality decisions are made based on OMI data for urban and unpolluted regions that include intrinsic area averaging.

The impact of Lowess or adjacent averaging over a month's worth of data is to smooth out the daily variation and show an average difference. Daily data are presented as well. Weekly averages would show the same qualitative result. Lowess is preferable to adjacent averaging, since it is least-squares weighted and reduces the effect of possible outlier points

Line 117: change "." to ":". **Fixed** Same for line 137 giving the link to the data: introduce it in a sentence (e.g., Data can be found here: …**It already says that**). Moreover, a table with coordinates and multiple names of the PANDORA stations would be helpful – "waterflow" overpass is e.g. found in the OMI link, but not on the PANDORA link. **Waterflow is labelled Four Corners on the website – I have added this name to the paper.**

Lines 142-147: give references and refer to this when discussing daily and monthly evolution of fig 7 and 8. –

(**Lamsal et al., 2013; Bechle et al., 2013).**

Line 172-174: why only give an illustration of O3 comparison for Busan?

I could give O3 plots for all sites at the expense of more figures. However, the appearance is very similar to that for Busan (except Mauna Loa because of altitude effects). The results for all sites are summarized in Table A1. The purpose is to show that all instruments were working properly.

Also in table A1, there are quite some differences in the percent difference from station to station (from 0 in Baltimore to 5.6 in Mauna Loa).

The Mauna Loa difference is caused by altitude for O3 with Pandora missing the lowest 3.4 km. NO2 differences are not related to ozone differences. This is stated in Table A1. The differences are not a function of the PANDORA instruments nor the retrieval algorithms.

For O3, the biggest error is the lack of effective O3 temperature in the algorithm. An average effective O3 temperature is used instead of a measured temperature. An example of this is give in Herman et al., 2015; 2017 for Boulder Colorado

How is the PAN/OMI here? Is the largest difference for in O3 also at the same stations than the largest differences for NO2? **No**

Is it in stations where we expect most of the NO2 in the stratosphere (Mauna Loa)? How is the NO2 tropo/strato ratio (seen by the satellite?)

For Mauna Loa, the Pandora saw more NO_2 than is possible in the stratosphere. The NO_2 is drifting upward from the coastal areas. This is mentioned in the paper.

Comment on table A1! (How to explain O_3 differences of 2.5 to 2.8% at stations close to surface level?) if not here, at least in the Appendix. –

Without proof, I suspect that the incorrect average effective temperature is the cause of a part of the difference as it was at Boulder Colorado, since we use temperature dependent ozone cross sections for both Pandora and OMI. There is also the issue of field calibration to remove the reference amount of ozone (modified Langley calibration) for zero airmass. This is discussed in an earlier paper and not part of the scope of this paper. This procedure has not been done for City College nor for HUFS. If the instrueumnts were not operating properly (e.g., pointing at the sun), the differences would be much larger.

Figures 3, 4 and 5: in the monthly averages, there is often peaks not seen in OMI (shortly discussed for some stations (lines 179-180 for Busan), but not for all of them. Regularly, there is also a divergent behavior of the monthly average at the edges of the time-series (e.g., end 2016 for Mauna Loa, in 2017 for NASA HQ, end of 2017 for Waterflow, end of 2017 to early 2018 for Boulder) or OMI columns at the end of the time-series as high as PANDORA (eg Buenos aires, NASA HQ). Is this real of is this related to the "Lowess(f) monthly running averages"? – '

I should exclude endpoints for running averages. I will change the figures. (NOT DONE YET)

Lines 195-196: "The calibration of the Mauna Loa PANDORA will be reviewed as part of a general data quality assurance program that is starting with the most recently deployed PANDORA instruments " - do you mean that the PANDORA data might be off? -

No, there is a new Pandora installed at Mauna Loa after the sun tracker broke down. At the time of this writing, data from the new Pandora are not used. The sentence has been changed.

Recently, the original Mauna Loa PANDORA has been replaced. The new instrument's calibration will be reviewed as part of a general data quality assurance program that is starting with the most recently deployed or upgraded PANDORA instruments at about 100 locations..

Lines 209-211: there is some repetition with previous paragraphs. –

This paragraph has been moved (Page 9)

Tables 1 and 2: add coordinates of the stations and measurement time-periods. How is the "average" among the stations performed? Mean? Median? Does it have a large effect? Consider giving the correlations. Comment on Seoul PAN = 1.2 (more than double of all the other sites!) New York value is missing. –

The average values are simply the arithmetic average of the daily points for each location. The overall average is the arithmetic average of the above averages. Seoul is the most polluted city considered, so

the average value is higher. However, the ratio with OMI is similar to most of the other sites. New York has been added to Table 2.

I have added correlation coefficients to Table 1 and the sentence on page 9

For example, the PANDORA at NASA Headquarters in Washington DC tracks the OMI measurement quite well on a monthly average basis with a correlation coefficient of r^2(mn) = 0.7 even though the daily correlation is low (r^2(dy) = 0.17). Other sites have only short periods of correlation and overall weak correlation (Table 1 showing daily, dy and monthly, mn, correlation coefficients for the graphs in Figures 4 and 5)

Line 220: give references of the Discover-AQ campaigns and discuss some of the outcomes (several PADORA on close locations; airborne flights; …) Refer also to other studies dealing with PANDORA data for validation of NO2, eg., Judd et al., 2019 (https://www.atmos-meastech-discuss.net/amt-2019-161/) discussing heterogeneous NO2 situations. –

The Judd at al reference has been added on Page 2 and backs up the thesis that spatial resolution is a major cause of the underestimate by OMI compared to PANDORA.

Judd, L. M., Al-Saadi, J. A., Janz, S. J., Kowalewski, M. G., Pierce, R. B., Szykman, J. J., Valin, L. C., Swap, R., Cede, A., Mueller, M., Tiefengraber, M., Abuhassan, N., and Williams, D.: Evaluating the impact of spatial resolution on tropospheric NO_2 column comparisons within urban areas using high-resolution airborne data, Atmos. Meas. Tech. Discuss., https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-2019-161, in review, 2019.

Lines 245-267: consider re-organizing the paragraphs (order and repetition). Discuss first Fig 6 completely, and then comment on Fig 7. In the comments of figure 6, reference to literature trends is missing (e.g., Duncan et al., 2016; …).

Duncan et al. (2016) estimated trends from OMI $TCNO_2$ time series and found that the Seoul metropolitan area had a decrease of -1.5 ± 1.3 %/Year (2005 – 2014) consistent with OMI estimated change of –1.4 ± 1%/year (2012 -2018) in this paper. However, for the small area near Yonsei University, the decrease estimated from PANDORA is -5.8 ± 0.75 %/Year. Park (2019) estimates that metropolitan Seoul has decreased in population even as surrounding areas have increased population.

(see page 12)

It is a pity that only 6 of the 7 long term stations are shown in Fig 6.

While not showing an extra plot in Fig. 6 I have added the results for the 7th long-term site, Busan, in the text,

The results for Busan (from Fig. 3) show a least squares average for the percent difference of -48 ± 0.8% for the 2012 – 2018 period with a slope of 6.8 ± 1%/Year. There is a decrease in the percent difference after October 2015 (Fig. 3) that is mainly from PANDORA seeing less $TCNO_2$

than during the 2012 – 2014 period. There is a gap in the Busan time series from July 2014 until April 2015 when the original PANDORA was replaced with a new instrument. The calibrations of both PANDORAS appear to be correct. Because of the break in the time series it is not clear whether there was a change in local conditions around Pusan University compared to the wide area observed by OMI.

Move the discussion of the Boulder trend from the figure caption to the main text.

Done

Is there an explanation for the 3 classes of mean bias results (1) about -24 to -27% for Boulder, Mauna Loa and NASA HQ; 2) about -37% for Waterflow and 3) about -46% for Buenos Aires and Seoul) ? –

I do not know the explanation for the differences between the narrow view trends (PANDORA and the wide area trends (OMI). The other long-term site considered, Busan, has gaps in the data record that are fairly large.

I added (page 14)

For some sites (see Fig. 6), PANDORA and OMI trends are the same (Waterflow, NM, Buenos Aires, and Mauna Loa) while the other 3 sites show significantly different trends (Boulder, NASA HQ, and Seoul).

Lines 258-259: consider giving all the correlation coefficients in the tables as suggested.

see Table 1

- Figure 7 and 8: pity that the figures are not presented for the same year (2018), so that we could compare NASA HQ Washington and New York NO2 levels.

I do not have a complete data record for NASA HQ in 2018 and only have 2018 for New York City

Moreover, the TCNO2 axis limit is changing from panel to panel, so it is not so easy to see the seasonal behavior. –

Making all of the scales the same will obscure the behavior relative to the OMI overpass time, which is the subject of this paper.

There is no easy way to represent the seasonal behavior vs time of day on a minute by minute basis or even an hourly basis for such complex highly variable behavior of TCNO2 shown in Figures 7 and 8. The seasonal variation at the OMI overpass time is given in Fig. 9 for NYC and in Fig. 4 for NASA HQ. The general seasonal variation is not the subject of this paper. However, while not part of this paper, I have added a graph at the end of this reply that shows the monthly average behavior of TCNO2 for CCNY for four different times of the day 10:00, 13:50, 14:00, 16:00. With variations in magnitude, the seasonal behavior is similar for the different times of the day.

Lines 278-279: "The relatively moderate TCNO2 values (0.4 to 0.8 DU) are probably a testament to the effectiveness of catalytic converters mandatory on all US automobiles in such a high traffic area". Is it purely speculative? Is there any correlation with when the regulation measures have been put in place? Give references! – **(Bishop and Steadman, 2015).**

Line 284: "the pollution levels are quite high, rivaling the pollution levels in Seoul, South Korea." ⍰ this is not seen in Tables 1 and 2, and we don't have these kind of plots for Seoul, only Busan (fig 1). –

I added (see Fig. 5)

Line 293: "For both Washington DC (Fig. 7) and New York City (Fig. 8) there is strong day-today and month to month variability that depends on the local weather and the amount of automobile traffic in the area" – has the dependence on weather and traffic been tested or is this a guess or literature reference? –

Seo, J., Park, D.-S. R., Kim, J. Y., Youn, D., Lim, Y. B., and Kim, Y.: Effects of meteorology and emissions on urban air quality: a quantitative statistical approach to long-term records (1999–2016) in Seoul, South Korea, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 18, 16121-16137, https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-18-16121-2018, 2018.

Zheng, G. J., Duan, F. K., Su, H., Ma, Y. L., Cheng, Y., Zheng, B., Zhang, Q., Huang, T., Kimoto, T., Chang, D., Pöschl, U., Cheng, Y. F., and He, K. B.: Exploring the severe winter haze in Beijing: the impact of synoptic weather, regional transport and heterogeneous reactions, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 15, 2969–2983, https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-15-2969-2015, 2015.

Md. Shohel Reza Amin, Umma Tamima, and Luis Amador Jimenez, "Understanding Air Pollution from Induced Traffic during and after the Construction of a New Highway: Case Study of Highway 25 in Montreal," Journal of Advanced Transportation, vol. 2017, Article ID 5161308, 14 pages, https://doi.org/10.1155/2017/5161308, 2017

Andersen, M. Hvidberg, S.S. Jensen, M. Ketzel, S. Loft, M. Sørensen, A. Tjønneland, K. Overvad, O. Raa schou-Nielsen Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and long-term exposure to traffic-related air pollution: A cohort study, Am. J. Respir. Crit. Care Med., 183, pp. 455-461, 10.1164/rccm.201006-0937OC, 2011.

Line 296: “Poor air quality affecting respiratory health would be improperly characterized by both the OMI average values being too low (Fig. 4) and by missing the extreme pollution events that occur frequently in the late afternoon”. Also add a comment (with references) that here total columns are being analyzed, while tropospheric columns could be used, which anyway don’t reflect systematically the surface concentrations important for air quality. –

Page 20 **It should be noted that $TCNO_2$ does not accurately represent the NO_2 concentration at the surface, since it is mostly a measure of the amount in the lower 2 km. However, it is roughly proportional to the surface measurements close to the pollution sources (Bechle et al., 2013; Knepp et al., 2014) with the proportionality dependent on the profile shape near the ground.**

Caption of figure 9: “Lowless(0.08)” it is the first time that the “f” is mentioned. Why is it different than in Herman et al., 2018 (e.g., caption of figure 9 “Lowless(0.1)”)? –

I could have given the f-value for each graph. It is the fraction f of data points over which the Lowess(f) algorithm is applied to form an average local least squares fit. This is similar to the number of points included in an arithmetic running average. The exact fraction will depend on the number of points in a month’s worth of data compared to the entire data set.

Line 308-309: “there is a period in March 2018 when OMI TCNO2 slightly exceeded that measured by PANDORA.” Where are those pixels? Over the sea? What is their size? What is the wind condition? -

The OMI pixels for the March 2018 period are distributed over both land and water. I have replotted the data only using points less than 30 km from CCNY. The results are very similar, but not identical to when D < 80 km. The wind conditions were variable (I do not have the detailed meteorological data). The pixel size also is variable with the centers located less than 30 km from CCNY in the graph below.

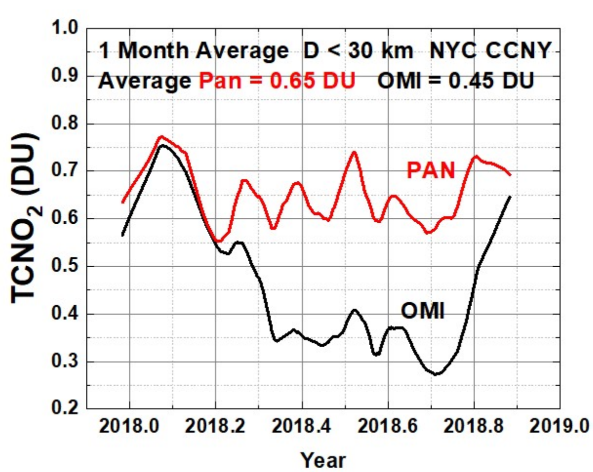


Figure 9 has been replaced to exclude pixels further than 30 km. The results are almost identical. Most papers comparing OMI data with models related to air quality estimates use a gridded version of OMI data totally ignoring OMI pixel size in order to produce local area maps of $TCNO_2$

Line 2018-2019: "The OMI underestimate is much larger than error estimates for TCNO2 retrievals for either PANDORA or OMI". Consider adding the error on some of the graphs for illustration!

I added the error estimates for the least squares mean percent differences to the graphs in Fig. 6.

-

Add some discussion in the conclusion about new and upcoming satellites (eg TROPOMI with smaller pixels and geostationary that will be able to see the diurnal variation)

Done

and the uncertainties of this study (impact of the NASA product selection for OMI (wrt to DOMINO and QA4ECV) and related to the way the comparison is done (see general comment)).

See page 2

- Appendix: comment on table A1 O3 results (up to 2.8% also outside mountain conditions) –

The 2.8% offset is too large since the PANDORA calibration looks very good. Both data sets track each other quite well with high correlation on a monthly average basis. The most likely cause is an improper effective ozone temperature correction for PANDORA that was obtained from a model calculation

References: Boersma et al., 2011 is missing. Add suggested references. Mind the formatting!

Added

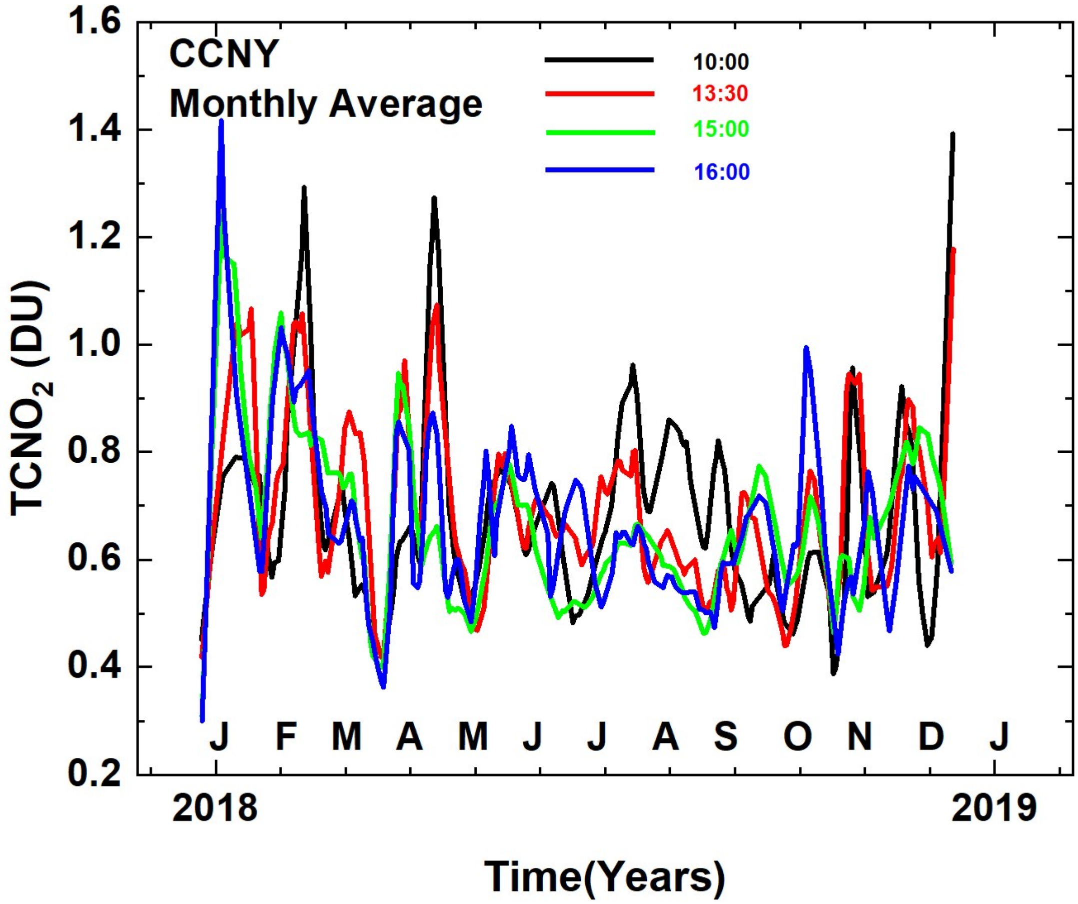
Suggested references:

Duncan, B. N., L. N. Lamsal, A. M. Thompson, Y. Yoshida, Z. Lu, D. G. Streets, M. M. Hurwitz, and K. E. Pickering (2016), A space-based, high-resolution view of notable changes in urban NOx pollution around the world (2005–2014), J. Geophys. Res. Atmos., 121, doi:10.1002/2015JD024121.

Judd, L. M., Al-Saadi, J. A., Janz, S. J., Kowalewski, M. G., Pierce, R. B., Szykman, J. J., Valin, L. C., Swap, R., Cede, A., Mueller, M., Tiefengraber, M., Abuhassan, N., and Williams, D.: Evaluating the impact of spatial resolution on tropospheric NO2 column comparisons within urban areas using high-resolution airborne data, Atmos. Meas. Tech. Discuss., https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-2019-161, in review, 2019.

Boersma, K. F., Eskes, H. J., Richter, A., De Smedt, I., Lorente, A., Beirle, S., van Geffen, J. H. G. M., Zara, M., Peters, E., Van Roozendael, M., Wagner, T., Maasakkers, J. D., van der A, R. J., Nightingale, J., De Rudder, A., Irie, H., Pinardi, G., Lambert, J.-C., and Compernolle, S. C.: Improving algorithms and uncertainty estimates for satellite NO2 retrievals: results from the quality assurance for the essential climate variables (QA4ECV) project, Atmos. Meas. Tech., 11, 6651-6678, https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-11-6651-2018, 2018.

Monthly average behavior of TCNO2 at CCNY for four different times of the day



Underestimation of Column NO_2 Amounts from the OMI Satellite Compared to Diurnally Varying Ground-Based Retrievals from Multiple Pandora Spectrometer Instruments

Jay Herman[1], Nader Abuhassan[1], Jhoon Kim[2], Jae Kim[3], Manvendra Dubey[4], Marcelo Raponi[5], Maria Tzortziou[6]

Abstract

Retrievals of Total Column NO_2 ($TCNO_2$) are compared for 14 sites from the Ozone Measuring Instrument (OMI using OMNO2-NASA v3.1) on the AURA satellite and from multiple ground-based PANDORA spectrometer instruments making direct-sun measurements. The result is that on a daily and monthly average basis, OMI almost always underestimates the amount $TCNO_2$ by 50 to 100%, while occasionally the daily OMI value exceeds that measured by PANDORA at very clean sites. In addition to systematic underestimates, OMI always misses the frequently much higher values of $TCNO_2$ that occur after the OMI overpass time. This suggests that OMI retrieved $TCNO_2$ are not suitable for air quality assessments as related to human health, especially in polluted urban areas. Six discussed Northern Hemisphere PANDORA sites have multi-year data records (Busan, Seoul, Washington DC, Waterflow New Mexico, Boulder Colorado, and Mauna Loa) and one site in the Southern Hemisphere (Buenos Aires Argentina). The first four of these sites and Buenos Aires frequently have high $TCNO_2$ ($TCNO_2$ > 0.5 DU). Eight additional sites have shorter term data records in the US and South Korea. One of these is a one-year data record from a highly polluted site at City College in New York City with pollution levels comparable to Seoul, South Korea. OMI estimated air mass factor, surface reflectivity, and the OMI 24x13 km^2 FOV (field of view) are three factors that can cause OMI to underestimate $TCNO_2$. Because of the local inhomogeneity of NO_2 emissions, the large OMI FOV is the most likely factor for consistent underestimates when comparing OMI $TCNO_2$ to retrievals from the small PANDORA effective FOV calculated from the solar diameter of 0.5^{O}.

Key Words: Nitrogen dioxide, OMI, PAN, PANDORA, ground-based, satellite

Correspondence email: jay.r.herman@nasa.gov

[1]**University of Maryland Baltimore County JCET, Maryland**

[2]**Department of Atmospheric Sciences, Yonsei National University, South Korea**

[3]**Department of Atmospheric Science, Pusan National University, South Korea**

[4]**Earth Systems Observations, Los Alamos National Laboratory, Los Alamos, NM 87545**

[5]**Departamento de Investigaciones en Láseres y Aplicaciones (DEILAP), Instituto de Investigaciones Científicas y Técnicas para la Defensa (CITEDEF), Ministerio de Defensa (MINDEF), Buenos Aires, Argentina**

[6]**City College of New York, New York City, NY**

Underestimation of Column NO_2 Amounts from the OMI Satellite Compared to Ground-Based Retrievals from Multiple Pandora Spectrometer Instruments

1.0 Introduction

Retrieval of Total Column NO_2 ($TCNO_2$) from the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) has been a scientific success story for the past 14 years. Near total global coverage from the well-calibrated OMI has enabled observation of all the regions where NO_2 is produced and has permitted monitoring of the changes during the 2004 to 2019 period, especially in regions where there is heavy and growing industrial activity (e.g., China and India). $TCNO_2$ amounts (data used: OMNO2-NASA v3.1) retrieved from OMI over various specified land locations show a strong underestimate compared to co-located Pandora Spectrometer Instruments (the abbreviation PAN is used for graph and table labels). The underestimate of OMI $TCNO_2$ at the overpass time compared to ground-based measurements has previously been reported at a few specific locations (Bechle, 2013; Lamsal et al., 2015; Ialongo et al., 2017; Kollonige, et al., 2018; Goldberg et al., 2018; Herman et al., 2018). For any location, the OMI overpass local standard time consists of the central overpass near the 13:30 hour equator crossing solar time and occasionally a side viewing overpass from adjacent orbits within ±90 minutes of the central overpass time. Independently from instrument calibration and retrieval errors, there are two specific aspects to the underestimation of $TCNO_2$ pollution levels. First, the mid-day OMI observations do not see the large diurnal variation of $TCNO_2$ that usually occur after the 13:30 overpass time, and second, because of spatial inhomogeneity the large OMI field of view (FOV) footprint 13 x 24 km^2 at OMI nadir view tends to average regions of high NO_2 amounts (Nowlan et al., 2016; Judd et al., 2018) with those from lower pollution areas. An analysis by Judd et al., (2019, their Fig. 9) shows the effect of decreasing satellite spatial resolution on improving agreement with PANDORA, with the best agreement occurring with an airborne instrument, GEO-TASO (resolution 3x3 km^2) followed by TropOMI (5x5 km^2) and then OMI (18x18 km^2). Both OMI and TropOMI show an underestimate of $TCNO_2$ compared to PANDORA.

There are other possible systematic retrieval errors with OMI $TCNO_2$. The largest of these is determining the air mass factor (AMF) needed to convert slant column measurements into vertical column amounts followed by the surface reflectivity Rs (Boersma et al., 2011; Lin et al., 2015; Nowlan et al., 2016; Lorente et al., 2018). Accurately determining the AMF for $TCNO_2$ requires a-priori knowledge of the NO_2 profile shape (Krotkov et al., 2017), which is estimated from coarse resolution model calculations (Boersma et al., 2011), and using the correct Rs. Currently Rs is found using a statistical process of sorting through years of data to find relatively clear-sky scenes for each location (Kleipool, et al., 2008; O'Byrne et al., 2010). Boersma et al., 2004 gave a detailed error analysis for the various components contributing OMI $TCNO_2$ retrievals resulting an estimated "retrieval precision of 35-60%" in heavily polluted areas dominated by determining the air mass factor. An improved V2.0 DOMINO retrieval (Boersma et al., 2011) algorithm reduced the retrieval errors while increasing the estimated airmass factor, which reduces the retrieved $TCNO_2$ up to 20% in winter and 10% in summer. The current version of OMNO2-NASA (Krotkov et al., 2017) and v2.0 DOMINO (Boersma et al., 2011) are generally in good agreement (Marchenko et al., 2015; Zara et al., 2018). However, the OMNO2-NASA $TCNO_2$ retrievals are 10 to 15% lower than the v2.0 DOMINO retrievals and with Quality Assurance for Essential Climate Variables (QA4ECV) retrievals. A subsequent detailed analysis of surface reflectivity (Vasilkov et al., 2017) shows that retrieval of $TCNO_2$ in highly polluted areas (e.g., some areas in China) can increase by 50% with the use of geometry-dependent reflectivities, but only increase about 5% in less polluted areas. For PANDORA, calculation of the solar viewing AMF is a simple geometric problem (AMF is approximately proportional to the cosecant of the solar zenith angle SZA) and is independent of R_S (Herman et al., 2009). For a polluted region with $TCNO_2$ = $5.34x10^{16}$ molecules/cm^2 or 2 DU, the PANDORA error is expected to be less than ±2.5% with the largest uncertainty coming from an assumed amount of stratospheric $TCNO_2$ = 0.1 DU.

Accurate satellite $TCNO_2$ retrievals (and for other trace gases) are important in the estimate of the effect of polluted air containing NO_2 on human health (Kim and Song, 2017 and references therein), especially from the viewpoint of NO_2 as a respiratory irritant and precursor to cancer (Choudhari et al., 2013). Since NO_2 is largely produced by combustion, satellite observations of NO_2 serve as a proxy for changing industrial activity. Another important application requiring accurate measurements of the amount of $TCNO_2$ and its diurnal variation is atmospheric NO_2 contribution to nitrification of coastal waters (Tzortziou et al., 2018).

We show that the use of OMI $TCNO_2$ for estimating local air quality and coastal nitrification on a global basis is misleading for most polluted locations, and especially on days when the morning or afternoon amounts are higher than those occurring at the OMI overpass time near 13:30 hours standard time. OMI $TCNO_2$ data are extremely useful for estimating regional pollution amounts and for assessing long-term changes in these amounts. Modelling studies (Lamsal et al., 2017 Fig. 1) based on the Global Modelling Initiative model (Strahan et al., 2007) simulating $TCNO_2$ diurnal variation over Maryland USA (37-40^{O}N, 74-79^{O}W) shows a late afternoon peak and shows that the stratospheric component does not substantially contribute to this peak. Boersma et al. (2016) show that sampling strategy can cause systematic errors between OMI $TCNO_2$ and model $TCNO_2$ with satellite results being up to 20% lower than models. Duncan et al., (2014) reviews the applicability of satellite $TCNO_2$ data to represent air quality and notes that $TCNO_2$ correlates well with surface levels of NO_2 in industrial regions and states that the portion of $TCNO_2$ in the boundary layer could be over 75% of the total vertical column depending on NO_2 altitude profile shape.

This paper presents 14 different site comparisons between retrieved OMI $TCNO_2$ overpass values that are co-located with PANDORA $TCNO_2$ amounts from various locations in the world. Six of the comparisons are where PANDORAs have long-term data (1-year or longer) records. The comparisons are done using 80 second cadence data matched to the OMI overpass times ±6 minutes and with monthly running averages calculated using Lowess(f) (Locally Weighted least squares fit to a fraction f of the data points, (Cleveland, 1981) of OMI-PANDORA time matched $TCNO_2$. OMI overpass data, https://avdc.gsfc.nasa.gov/index.php?site=666843934&id=13, are filtered for the row anomaly and cloudy pixels. The selection of a ±6 minute window represents 720 seconds or 9 PANDORA measurements averaged together around the OMI overpass time to reduce the effect of any outlier points. The specific value of ±6 minutes is arbitrary but increases the effective signal to noise ratio by a factor of 3. PANDORA data are filtered for significant cloud cover by examining the effective variance in sub-interval (20 seconds) measurements. Each PANDORA listed measurement is the average of up to 4000 (clear sky) individual measurement made over 20 seconds.

This paper gives a discussion and presentation of data on the effect of diurnal variation that are always missed at the local OMI mid-day overpass times. We show that OMI $TCNO_2$ values are also systematically lower than PANDORA values at sites with significant pollution ($TCNO_2 > 0.3$ DU). We present a unique view of a year of fully time resolved diurnal variation of $TCNO_2$ at two sites, Washington DC and New York City, which are similar to other polluted locations.

2.0 Brief Instrument Descriptions

For the purposes of $TCNO_2$ retrievals, both OMI and PANDORA are spectrometer-based instruments using nearly the same spectral range and similar spectral resolution (about 0.5 nm). Both use spectral fitting retrieval algorithms that differ (Boersma et al. 2011; Herman et al., 2009) because of the differences between direct-sun viewing retrievals (PANDORA) and above the atmosphere downward viewing retrievals (OMI). The biggest difference is with the respective fields of view, 13 x 24 km^2 at OMI nadir view and larger off-nadir FOV compared to the much smaller PANDORA FOV (1.2^O) measured in m^2 with the precise value depending on the NO_2 profile shape and the solar zenith angle. For example, if most of the $TCNO_2$ is located below 2 km, then the PANDORA FOV is approximately given by $(1.2\pi/180)(2/\cos(SZA))$, which for SZA = 45^O is about 59x59 m^2. If the solar disk (0.5O) is used as the limiting factor, then the FOV is smaller.

2.1 OMI

OMI is an east-west side (2600 km) and nadir viewing polar orbiting imaging spectrometer that measures the earth's backscattered and reflected radiation in the range 270 to 500 nm with a spectral resolution of 0.5 nm. The polar orbiting side viewing capabilities produce a pole to pole swath that is about 2600 km wide displaced in longitude every 90 minutes by the earth's rotation to provide coverage of nearly the entire sunlit Earth once per day at a 13:30 solar hour equator crossing time with spatial gaps at low latitudes. OMI provides full global coverage every 2 to 3 days. Additional gaps are caused by a problem with the OMI CCD, "row anomaly" (Torres et al., 2018) that effectively reduces the number of near-nadir overpass views. A detailed OMI instrument description is given in Levelt et al. (2006). $TCNO_2$ is determined in the visible spectral range from 405 to 465 nm where the NO_2 absorption spectrum has the maximum spectral structure and where there is little interference from other trace gas species (there is a weak water feature in this range). OMI $TCNO_2$ overpass data are available for many ground sites (currently 719) from the following NASA website. https://avdc.gsfc.nasa.gov/index.php?site=666843934&id=13

2.2 PANDORA

PANDORA is a sun-viewing instrument for SZA < 80^O that obtains about 4000 spectra for clear-sky views of the sun in 20 seconds for each of two ranges UV (290 – 380 nm using a UV340 bandpass filter) and visible plus UV (280 – 525 nm using no filter). The overall measurement time is about 80 seconds including a 20 second dark-current measurements between each spectral measurement throughout the day. About 4000 clear-sky spectra for the UV and visible portions are separately averaged together to achieve very high signal to noise ratios (SNR). The UV340 filter for UV portion of the spectra reduces stray light effects from the visible wavelength range. A detailed description of PANDORA and its SNR is given in Herman et al., (2009; 2015). The effect of moderate cloud cover (reduction of observed signal by a factor of 8) in the PANDORA FOV on $TCNO_2$ retrievals is small (Herman et al., 2018). Cloud cover also reduces the number of measurements possible in 20 seconds, which potentially increases the noise level. PANDORA is driven by a highly accurate sun tracker that points an optical head at the sun and transmits the received light to an Avantes 2048 x 32 pixel CCD spectrometer (AvaSpec-ULS2048 from 280 – 525 nm with 0.6 nm resolution) through a 50 micron diameter fiber optic cable. The estimated $TCNO_2$ error is approximately 0.05 DU (1 DU = 2.69×10^{16} molecules cm^{-2}) out of a typical value of 0.3 DU in relatively clean areas and over 3 DU in highly polluted areas. PANDORA data are available for 250 sites. Some sites have multi-year data sets, but many of these sites are short-term campaign sites. https://avdc.gsfc.nasa.gov/pub/DSCOVR/Pandora/DATA_01/.

3.0 Overpass Comparisons and Diurnal Variation of $TCNO_2$

The contribution of NO_2 to air quality at the Earth's surface is usually a proportional function of $TCNO_2$ that varies with the time of day and with the altitude profile shape (Lamsal et al., 2013; Bechle et al., 2013). Most of the NO_2 amount is usually located between 0 and 3 km altitude with a small amount of about 0.1±0.05 DU (Dirksen et al. 2011) in the upper troposphere and stratosphere. Because of the relatively short chemical lifetime, 3-4 hours (Liu et al., 2016), in the lower atmosphere, most of the NO_2 is located near (0 to 20 km) its sources (industrial activity, power generation, and automobile traffic). At higher altitudes or in the winter months, the life time of NO_2 is longer permitting transport over larger distances from its sources.

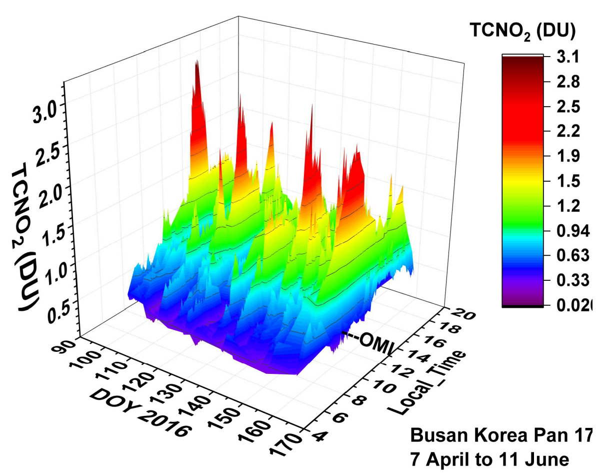


Fig 1 Diurnal variation of $TCNO_2$ measured at Pusan University in Busan South Korea

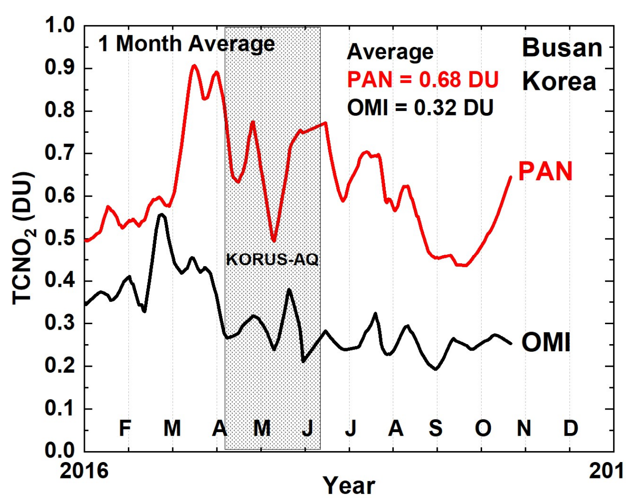


Fig. 2. Monthly average values of $TCNO_2$ for OMI and PANDORA at OMI overpass times

During the South Korean campaign (KORUS-AQ) in the spring of 2016 the diurnal variations of $TCNO_2$ vs days of the year DOY were determined for 6 sites (Herman et al., 2018), one of which is reproduced here (Fig. 1) for the city of Busan showing relatively low values of $TCNO_2$ in the morning (0.5 DU), moderately high values during the middle of the day (1.3 DU), and very high values on some of the afternoons (2 to 3 DU). Of these data, OMI only observes midday values near the 13:30 time marked on the Local Time axis of Fig.1 thereby missing very high values (2 to 3 DU) that frequently occur later in the afternoon coinciding with times when people are outdoors returning from work.

In addition to missing the $TCNO_2$ diurnal variation, the OMI values are about half those observed by PANDORA (Fig. 2) at the OMI overpass time, so that using OMI values to estimate NO_2 pollution seriously underestimates the air quality problem even at midday. The shaded area in Fig.2 corresponds to the period covered in the KORUS-AQ campaign 7 April to 11 June 2016 shown in Fig. 1. An extended time series for Busan location is shown in Fig. 3.

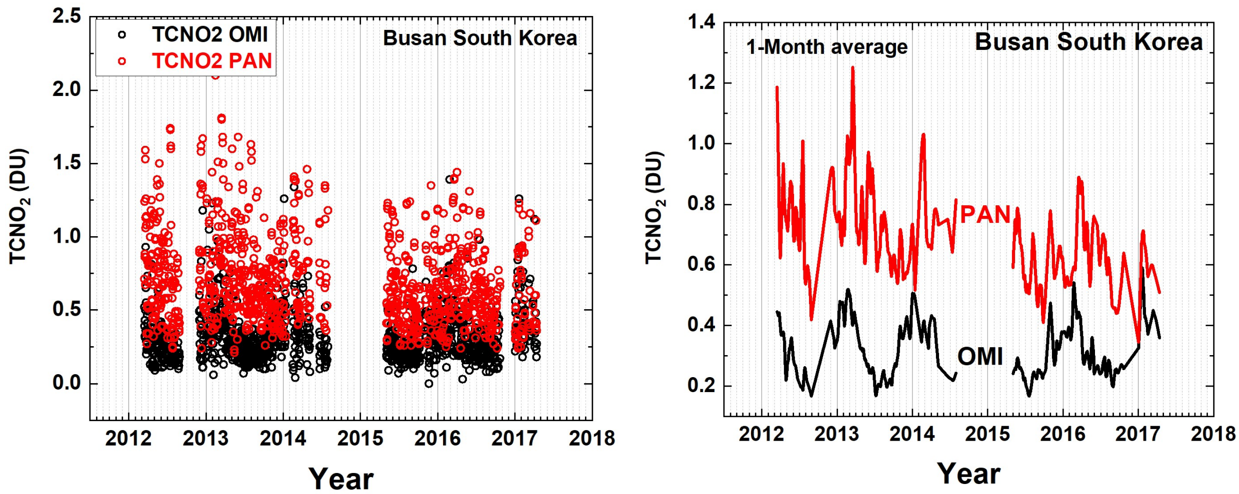


Fig. 3 Extended time series for Busan. Left Panel: individual matching PANDORA and OMI data points for the overpass time ± 6 minutes. Right Panel: monthly averages.

Because of the different effective NO_2 FOV of PANDORA (measured in meters^2) while tracking the moving sun position located in the heart of Busan (FOV distance d < 5 km for an SZA < 70^O used for $TCNO_2$ retrievals), both the daily (Fig. 3, left panel) and PANDORA monthly average variation (Fig. 3, right panel), obtained at the OMI overpass time, differs from the variation in the OMI $TCNO_2$ because of the much larger OMI FOV (13 x 24 km^2 at OMI nadir view) retrieval. Because of this, the OMI time series has low correlation (r^2 = 0.1) with the PANDORA time series.

The extended OMI vs PANDORA time series from 2012 – 2017 for Busan (Fig. 3) shows the same magnitude of differences seen during the KORUS-AQ period. A similar OMI vs PANDORA plot for total column ozone TCO_3 (Appendix Fig A1) shows good agreement between PANDORA and OMI indicating that the PANDORA instrument was operating and tracking the sun properly. Because the spatial variability of TCO_3, which is mostly in the stratosphere, is much less than for $TCNO_2$, the effect of different FOV's is minimized for ozone.

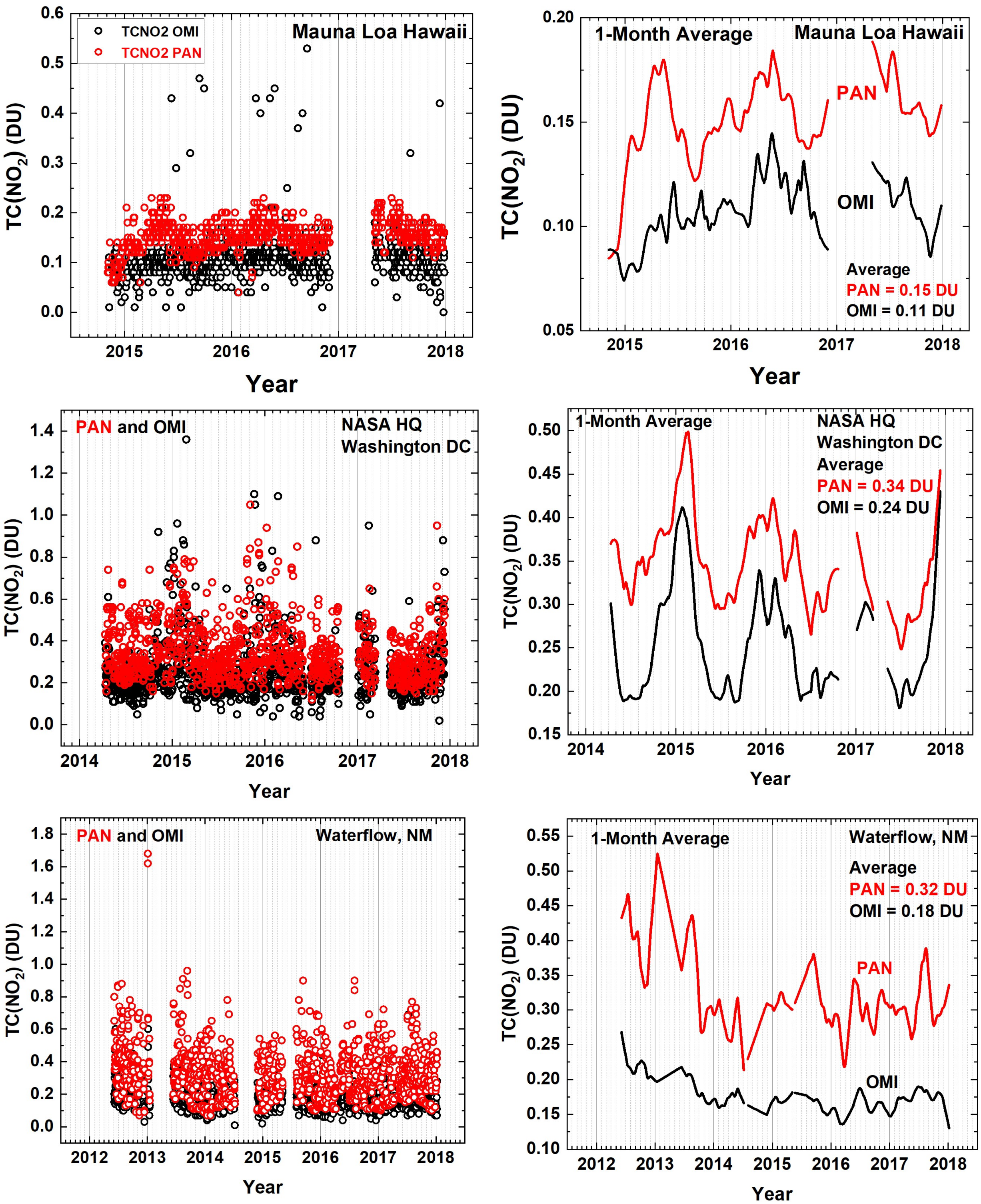


Fig. 4. PANDORA compared to OMI. Extended $TCNO_2$ overpass time series for Mauna Loa Observatory, Hawaii, NASA Headquarters, Washington DC, and Waterflow, New Mexico. Waterflow, a small town, is listed for PANDORA under Four Corners, NM, a nearby landmark.

The same type of differences, $TCNO_2$(PAN) > $TCNO_2$(OMI), are seen at a wide variety of sites (e.g., see Fig.4) for Northern Hemisphere sites and one site in the Southern Hemisphere where PANDORA has an extended time series. Comparing extended Busan multi-year time series, some broad-scale correlation can be seen with peaks in February 2013, January 2014, and in 2016. The data from Busan are different than from many sites, since Busan is located very near the ocean causing a portion of the OMI FOV to be over the unpolluted ocean areas, whereas PANDORA is located inland (Pusan University) in an area of dense automobile traffic and quite near mountains capable of trapping air.

Figures 4 and 5 show a variety of different sites, ranging from the Mauna Loa Observatory location at 3.4 km (11,161 feet) on a relatively clean Hawaiian Island surrounded by ocean to a polluted landlocked semi-arid site at Waterflow, New Mexico near a power plant. All the sites considered show a significant underestimate of OMI $TCNO_2$. A summary of the monthly average underestimates is given in Tables 1 and 2. For some sites there is evident correlation between the two offset measurements. For example, the PANDORA at NASA Headquarters in Washington DC tracks the OMI measurement quite well on a monthly average basis with a correlation coefficient of $r^2(mn) = 0.7$ even though the daily correlation is low ($r^2(dy) = 0.17$). Other sites have only short periods of correlation and overall weak correlation (Table 1 showing daily, dy and monthly, mn, correlation coefficients for the graphs in Figures 4 and 5)

$TCNO_2$(PAN) comparisons with $TCNO_2$(OMI) from Mauna Loa Observatory (Fig. 4) are not those that might be expected, since the PANDORA observations are in an area where there are almost no automobile emissions and certainly no power plants, yet PAN > OMI and $TCNO_2$(PAN) values are large enough so that the pollution values (0.18 DU) are well above the stratospheric values (approximately 0.1 DU). OMI, which mainly measures values over the clean ocean, has an average value of 0.1 DU. The PANDORA values suggest upward airflow from the nearby circumferential ring road and resort areas. The Mauna Loa $TCNO_2$ values do not show any correlation with the recent increased volcanic activity at Mt. Kilauea after 2016. Recently, the original Mauna Loa PANDORA has been replaced. The new instrument's calibration will be reviewed before being added to the time series as part of a general data quality assurance program that is starting with the most recently deployed or upgraded PANDORA instruments at about 100 locations.

An interesting inland site is near the very small town of Waterflow, New Mexico (Fig. 4), where two power plants located near the PANDORA site ceased operation on December 30, 2013 (Lindenmaier et al., 2014). According to a quote from AZCentral Newspaper (Tuesday 31 December 2013) "Three coal-fired generators that opened in the 1960s near Farmington, N.M., closed Monday as part of a $182 million plan for Arizona Public Service Co. to meet environmental regulations, the utility reported". The $TCNO_2$ data suggests that the actual shutdown occurred near October 15, 2013. After the shutdown, air quality improved in the area with $TCNO_2$ decreasing from 0.4 DU to 0.28 DU. The remaining more efficient generators continued to produce smaller $N0_2$ emissions. These were shut down at the end of 2016 with little additional observed change in $TCNO_2$, since these boilers used NO_2 scrubbers (Dubey at al., 2018 in preparation). A nearby highway (Route 64) about 2 km from the PANDORA site has little automobile traffic.

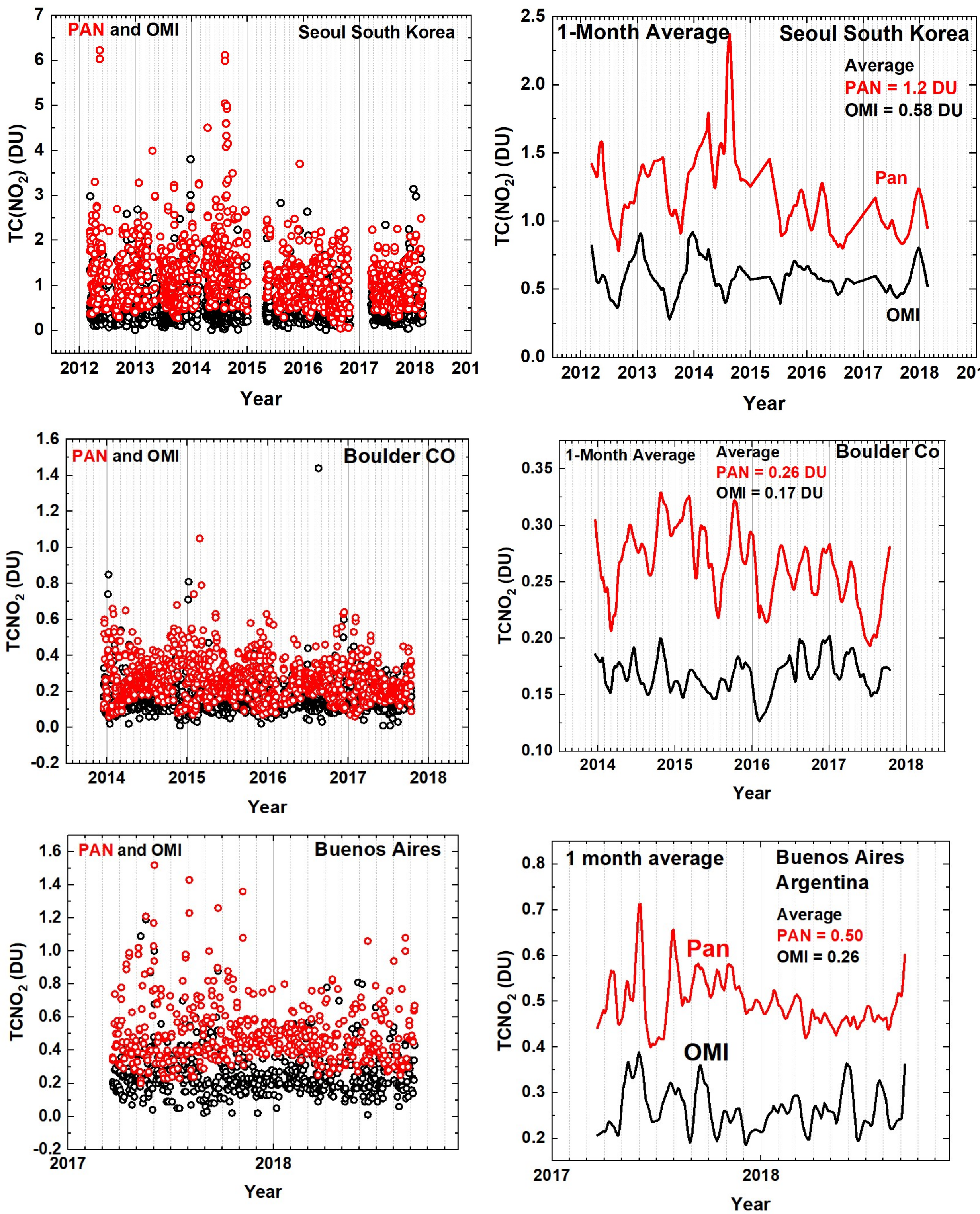


Fig. 5. PANDORA compared to OMI. Extended $TCNO_2$ overpass time series for Seoul South Korea, Boulder, Colorado, and Buenos Aires, Argentina (Raponi et al. 2017).

Table 1 Values of $TCNO_2$ for PANDORA and OMI from monthly averages in Figs. 4 and 5

Name	Location (Lat, Lon)	PAN (DU)	OMI (DU)	r^2 (dy, mn)
Mauna Loa Hawaii	19.536°, -155.5762°	0.16	0.11	0.01, 0.30
NASA HQ Washington DC	38.882°, -77.01°	0.34	0.25	0.17, 0.70
Waterflow New Mexico[1]	36.797°, -108.48°	0.32	0.18	0.13, 0.52
Seoul South Korea	37.5644°, 126.934°	1.2	0.58	0.11, 0.06
Busan South Korea	35.2353°, 129.0825°	0.68	0.32	0.09, 0.10
Boulder Colorado	39.9909°, -105.2607°	0.27	0.17	0.04, 0.09
Buenos Aires Argentina	-34.5554°, -58.5062°	0.50	0.26	0.16, 0.08
Average		**0.49**	**0.27**	

Table 2 Average values of $TCNO_2$ for PANDORA and OMI for additional sites

Name	Location (Lat, Lon)	PAN (DU)	OMI (DU)
Essex Maryland	39.31083°, -76.47444°	0.30	0.28
Baltimore Maryland	39.29149°, -76.59646°	0.45	0.27
Fresno California	36.7854°, -119.7731°	0.42	0.17
Denver La Casa Colorado	39.778°, -105.006°	0.68	0.19
GIST[2]	35.226°,126.843°	0.42	0.20
HUFS[3]	37.338°,127.265°	0.61	0.51
City College New York City	40.8153°,-73.9505°	0.60	0.40
Average		**0.50**	**0.29**

[1]Waterflow, NM is listed for OMI data as Four Corners, NM, a nearby landmark
[2]Gwangju Institute of Science and Technology S. Korea
[3]Hankuk University Foreign Studies South Korea

Table 2 contains a summary of some sites that were part of short-term Discover-AQ campaigns in Maryland, Texas, California, and Colorado, two longer-term sites in South Korea, and one in New York City. Essex, Maryland is located on the Chesapeake Bay 10 km east of the center of Baltimore. The site is relatively clean (PAN = 0.3 DU) compared to the center of Baltimore (PAN = 0.45 DU), while OMI measures about the same amounts for both sites (0.28 and 0.27 DU) because the OMI FOV is larger than the distance between the two sites. The Houston Texas site contains 7 months of data from January to July 2013 with widespread NO_2 pollution permitting PANDORA and OMI to measure the same average values even though PANDORA observes episodes on many days when $TCNO_2$ exceeds 1.5 DU for short periods at times not observed by OMI. Observations in the small city of Fresno, California were during January when agricultural sources of NO_2 were at a minimum (Almaraz, 2018), but automobile traffic in the center of Fresno was significant. In this situation, PANDORA recorded the effect of automobile traffic while OMI averaged the city of Fresno and surrounding fallow agricultural areas. The Denver La Casa location is in the center of the city in an area with high amounts of local automobile traffic and near the Cherokee power generating plant. The result is a high level of average pollution (0.42 DU) while OMI measures both the city center and the surrounding relatively clean plains areas. The HUFS South Korean site is southeast of Seoul in a fairly isolated valley. However, Seoul and its surrounding areas are a widespread transported source of pollution so that both PANDORA and OMI measure elevated $TCNO_2$ amounts. In contrast, the PANDORA GIST site is on the outskirts of a small city in southwestern South Korea with significant traffic. The result is significant amounts of localized $TCNO_2$ (PANDORA = 0.42) surrounded by areas that produce little NO_2 leading to OMI observing a very clean 0.2 DU. The average of sites in the two tables are similar leading to ratios of PAN/OMI of 1.8 and 1.7 respectively. The estimated 50% increase in OMI retrievals of $TCNO_2$ from using the geometry-dependent reflectivity (Vasilkov, 2017) for the most polluted sites will narrow the disagreement with PANDORA. For example, OMI Seoul $TCNO_2$ may become 0.87 DU (PANDORA = 1.2 DU) and Buenos Aires 0.39 DU (PANDORA = 0.5 DU) still underestimating the amount of NO_2 pollution and missing the significant diurnal variation.

For the six sites shown, the average OMI underestimate of $TCNO_2$ is approximately a factor of 1.8 at the overpass time on a monthly average basis with occasional spikes that exceed this amount. The bias values range from 1.1 to 3.6, with higher biases tending to be associated with higher $TCNO_2$ values. The factor of 1.8 underestimate ignores the frequent large values of $TCNO_2$ at other times during the day (Fig. 7). In addition, averaging $TCNO_2$(PAN) over each entire day yields average values for the whole period that are 10 to 20% higher than just averaging over midday values that matched the OMI overpass time. Aside from the absolute magnitude, the short-term variations (over several months) are similar for both OMI and PANDORA although mostly not correlated. If correlation coefficients r^2 are generated from linear fits to scatter plots of $TCNO_2$ from OMI vs PANDORA, the correlation is mostly poor (Examples, r^2 =: Seoul 0.06, Mauna Loa 0.3 NASA HQ 0.7, see Figs. 4 and 5). Additional sites with shorter PANDORA time series of $TCNO_2$ show similar behavior.

Duncan et al. (2016) estimated trends from OMI $TCNO_2$ time series and found that the Seoul metropolitan area had a decrease of -1.5 ± 1.3 %/Year (2005 – 2014) consistent with OMI estimated change of –1.4 ± 1%/year (2012 -2018) in this paper. However, for the small area near Yonsei University, the decrease estimated from PANDORA is -5.8 ± 0.75 %/Year. Park (2019) estimates that metropolitan Seoul has decreased in population even as surrounding areas have increased population.

The average percent differences between OMI and PANDORA shown in Fig. 6 are relatively constant over time for each site with small changes over each multi-year observation period. The differences between OMI and PANDORA are provided by forming the percent differences of the daily $TCNO_2$ values (Fig. 6) in the form 100(OMI – PAN)/PAN. Also shown are the average percent differences and the linear fit slopes in percent change per year of the percent differences over the multi-year period. For example, the Boulder percent difference goes from -31% to -23% over 4 years. Of the six sites in shown in Fig. 6, two have statistically significant slopes, Seoul South Korea 2.1±0.5 %/Year and NASA Headquarters in Washington DC 3.4±0.9 %/Year at the 2σ level suggesting a significant area average increase in pollution compared to PANDORA's local values.

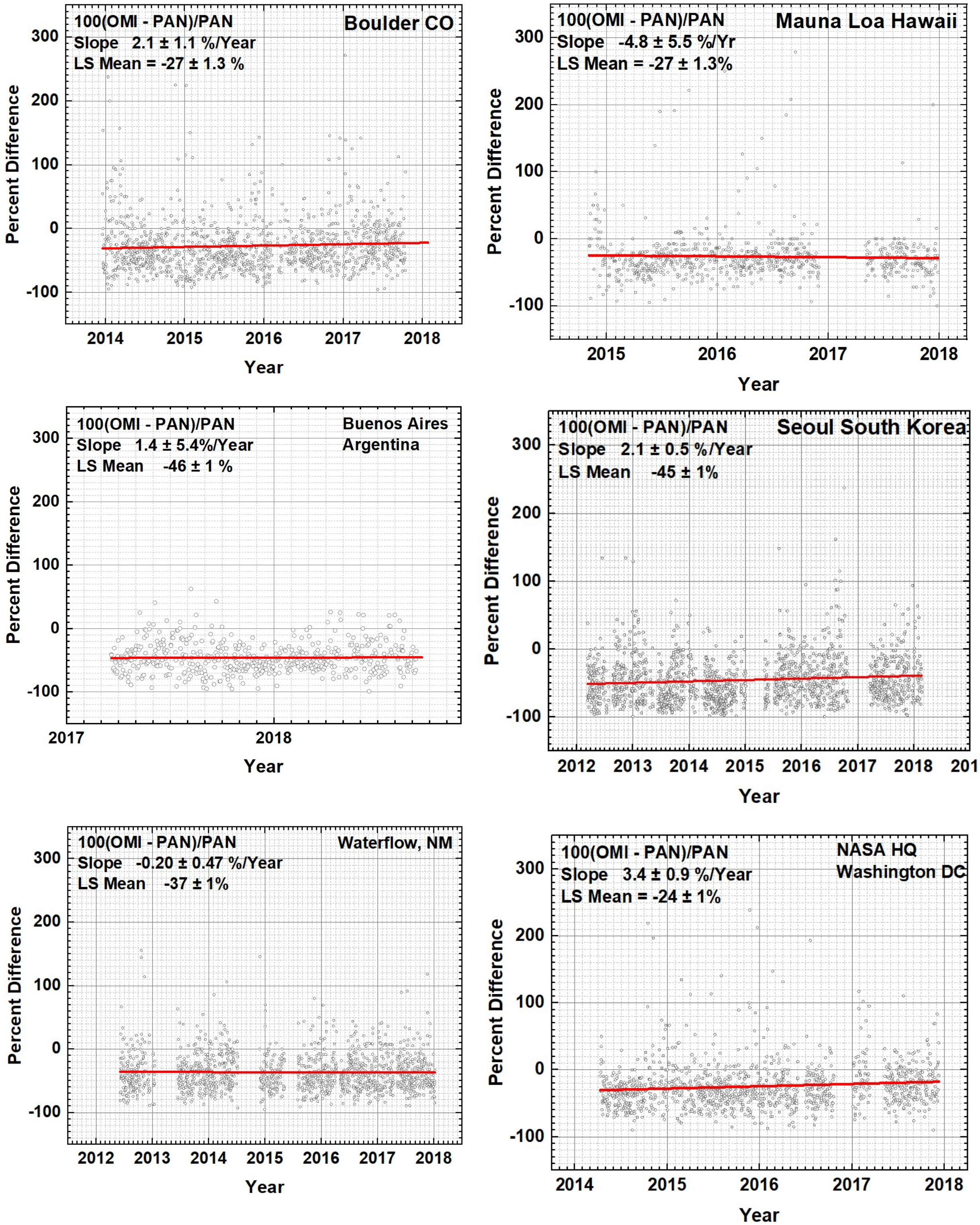


Fig. 6 Percent differences between OMI and PANDORA. The slopes are the absolute change in the percent difference. The LS Means are least squares means with the corresponding error estimates

For some sites (see Fig. 6), PANDORA and OMI trends are the same (Waterflow, NM, Buenos Aires, and Mauna Loa) while the other 3 sites show significantly different trends (Boulder, NASA HQ, and Seoul).

The results for Busan (from Fig. 3) show a least squares average for the percent difference of -48 ± 0.8% for the 2012 – 2018 period with a slope of 6.8 ± 1%/Year. There is a decrease in the percent difference after October 2015 (Fig. 3) that is mainly from PANDORA seeing less $TCNO_2$ than during the 2012 – 2014 period. There is a gap in the Busan time series from July 2014 until April 2015 when the original PANDORA was replaced with a new instrument. The calibrations of both PANDORAS appear to be correct. Because of the break in the time series it is not clear whether there was a change in local conditions around Pusan University compared to the wide area observed by OMI.

3.1 Diurnal Variation at NASA HQ Washington DC

Figure 7 shows details of the daily diurnal variation of $TCNO_2$ on the roof of NASA Headquarters Washington, DC adjacent to a major cross-town highway (I695) for every day during each month of 2015 for local time vs DOY. The midday observing local standard time for OMI is marked for each graph.

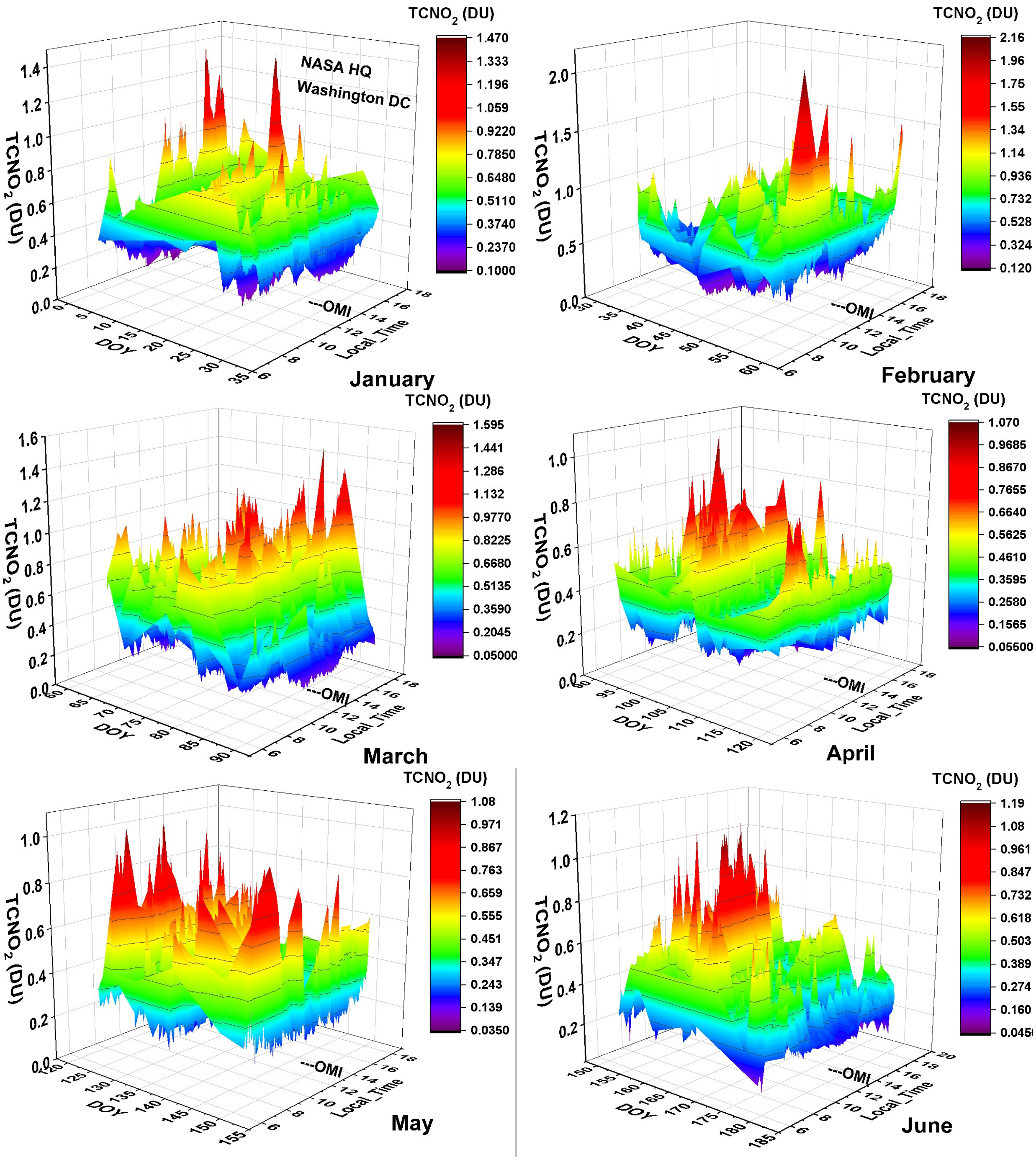


Fig. 7A. $TCNO_2$ diurnal variation (DU) from January to June, NASA Headquarters Washington, DC from January 2015 to June 2015. The approximate OMI overpass time near 13:30 hours is marked.

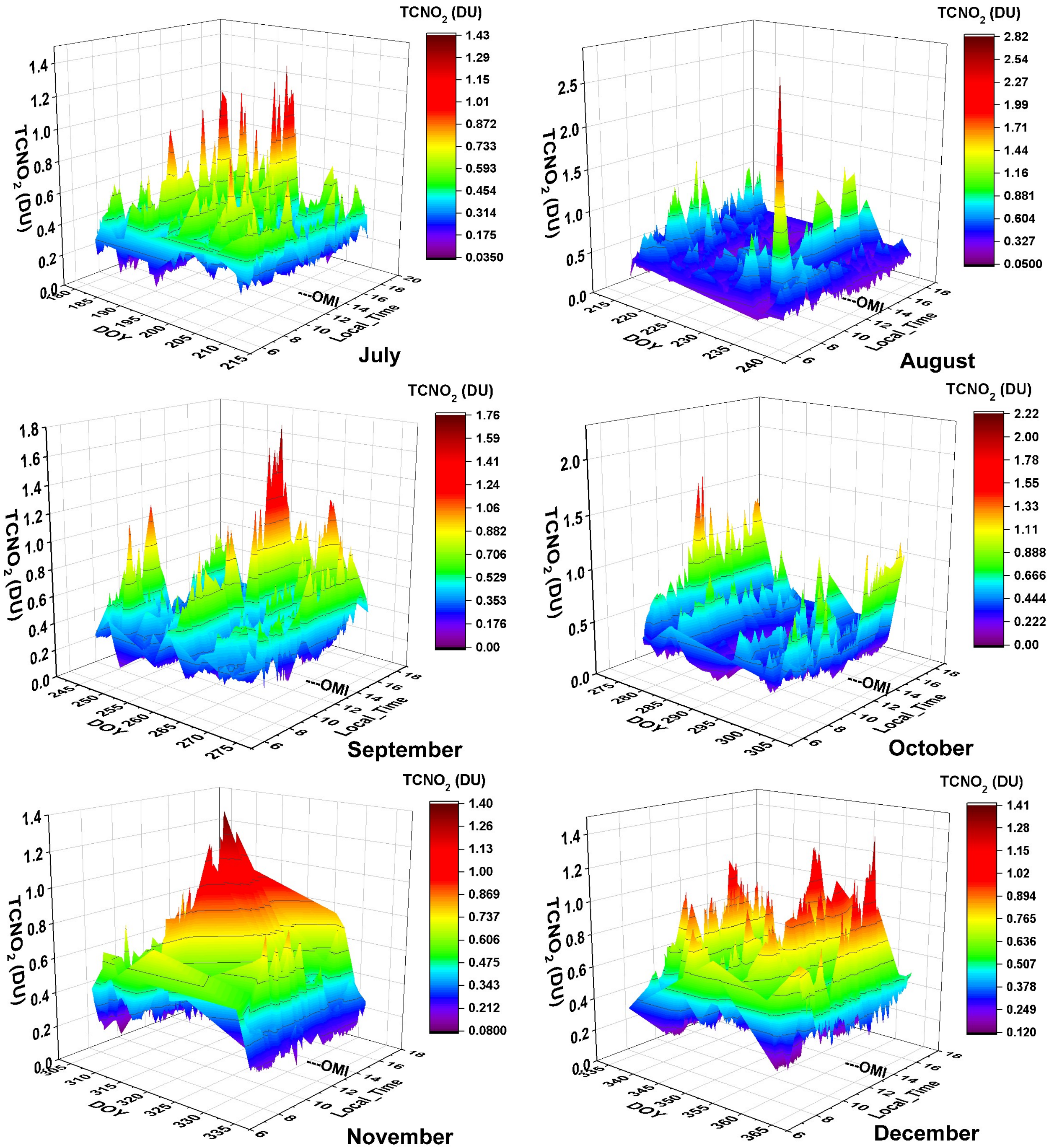


Fig. 7B $TCNO_2$ diurnal variation (DU) from July to December, NASA Headquarters Washington, DC from July 2015 to December 2015. The approximate OMI overpass time near 13:30 hours is marked

The amount of $TCNO_2$ is mostly from the adjacent highway and the surrounding urban area with heavy traffic. The relatively moderate $TCNO_2$ values (0.4 to 0.8 DU) are probably a testament to the effectiveness of catalytic converters mandatory on all US automobiles in such a high traffic area (Bishop and Steadman, 2015).

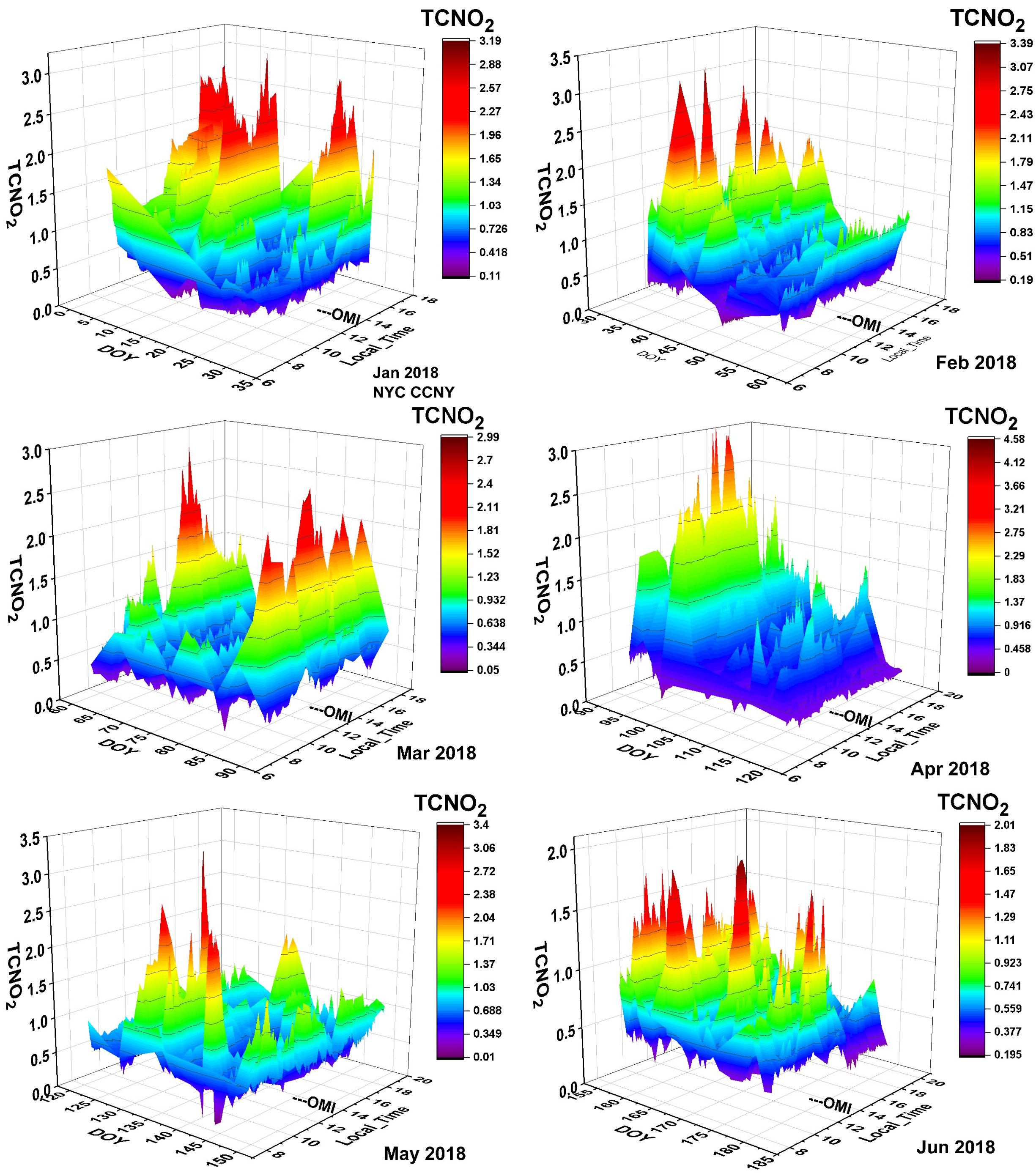


Fig. 8A $TCNO_2$ diurnal variation (DU) at CCNY in New York City January to June 2018. The approximate OMI overpass time near 13:30 hours is marked

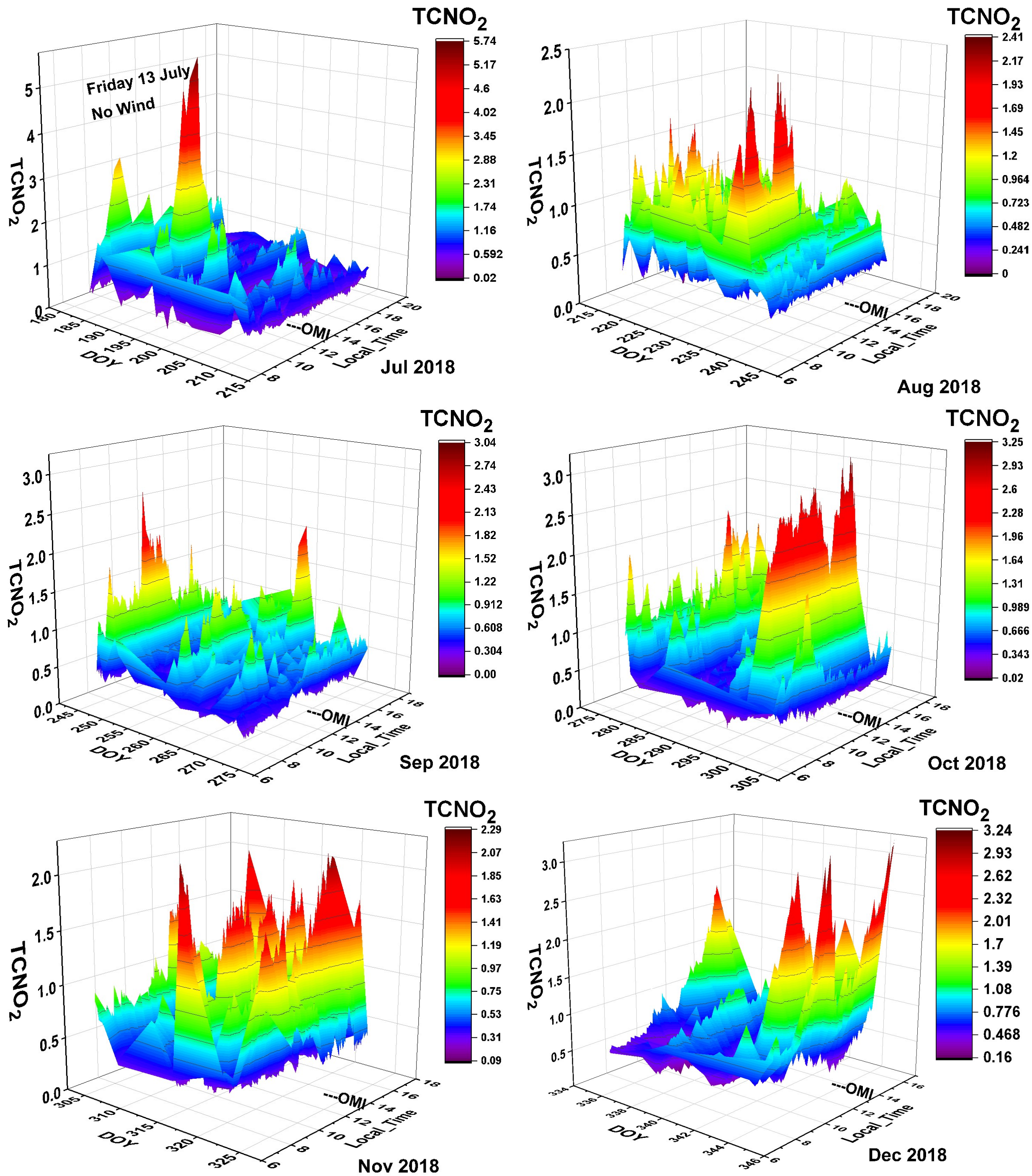


Fig. 8B $TCNO_2$ diurnal variation (DU) at CCNY in New York City July to December 2018. The peak near 5 DU occurs on 13 July 2018 between 11:20 and 12:30 EST. The approximate OMI overpass time near 13:30 hours is marked.

Figure 8 contains the daily $TCNO_2$ diurnal variability vs DOY for each month measured by a PANDORA from the roof of a building on the CCNY (City College of New York) campus in the middle of Manhattan in New York City (NYC). From the values shown, the pollution levels are quite high, rivaling the pollution levels in Seoul, South Korea (see Fig. 5). OMI at its mid-day overpass time would detect some of the high-level pollution events, but miss many others occurring mostly in the afternoon. There are a significant number of days in all the months where the $TCNO_2$ levels appear to be low (e.g., blue color in July and October), but the blue color still represents significant pollution levels ($TCNO_2$(PAN) > 0.5 DU) that are small only compared to the peak values during the month ($TCNO_2$(PAN) > 1 DU). The highest amount of $TCNO_2$ recorded during 2018 was about 5DU on 13 July 2018 from 11:20 and 12:30 EST (a time with very light winds (1 km/hr) and moderate temperature ($25^{O}C$). There were many smaller peaks between 2 and 3 DU throughout the year. Extreme cases of high NO_2 amounts are frequently associated with the local meteorology indications of stagnant air (Harkey et al., 2015),

For both Washington DC (Fig. 7) and New York City (Fig. 8) there is strong day-to-day and month to month variability that depends on the local meteorological conditions (Seo et al., 2018; Zeng et al., 2015) and the amount of automobile traffic in the area (Andersen et al., 2011; Amin et al., 2017). High $TCNO_2$ events occur most often in the afternoon such that the OMI overpass near 13:30 would miss most high $TCNO_2$ events. Poor air quality affecting respiratory health would be improperly characterized by both the OMI average values being too low (Fig. 4) and by missing the extreme pollution events that occur frequently in the late afternoon. The high value of $TCNO_2$ that occurred on 5 August (2.2 DU) at 07:45 EST for Washington DC is not a retrieval error (SZA less than 70^{O}), but is a one-time anomaly in 2015 compared to more usual high values of 1.5 DU with an occasional spike to 2 DU. It should be noted that $TCNO_2$ does not accurately represent the NO_2 concentration at the surface, since it is mostly a measure of the amount in the lower 2 km. However, it is roughly proportional to the surface measurements close to the pollution sources (Bechle et al., 2013; Knepp et al., 2014) with the exact proportionality dependent on the profile shape near the ground.

Similar daily diurnal variation graphs of $TCNO_2$ (Figs. 7 and 8) could be shown for each site. However, the basic idea is the same for each site. OMI underestimates the amount of $TCNO_2$ because of its large FOV and misses most of the peak events at other times of the day. For some sites, such as Busan and Seoul, the peak values can reach 3 DU and above late in the afternoon, which are never seen by OMI (Herman et al., 2018).

Figure 9 for CCNY is similar to the graphs in Figs. 4 – 6 showing the relative behavior between PANDORA and OMI but including only OMI pixels that are at a distance D < 30 km from CCNY. The results are almost identical to those when D < 80 km. There is a period in March 2018 when OMI $TCNO_2$ slightly exceeded that measured by PANDORA. OMI with its large FOV may be seeing part of the chemically driven seasonal variation, while PANDORA is seeing a nearly constant source driven amount mostly from automobile traffic. For most days during 2018, PAN($TCNO_2$) > OMI($TCNO_2$) with the average value for PAN = 0.65 DU and for OMI = 0.45 DU (Fig. 9 Panel B). The percent difference plot shows that there is a systematic increase between PANDORA and OMI $TCNO_2$ from a value 10% to a value of 50%.

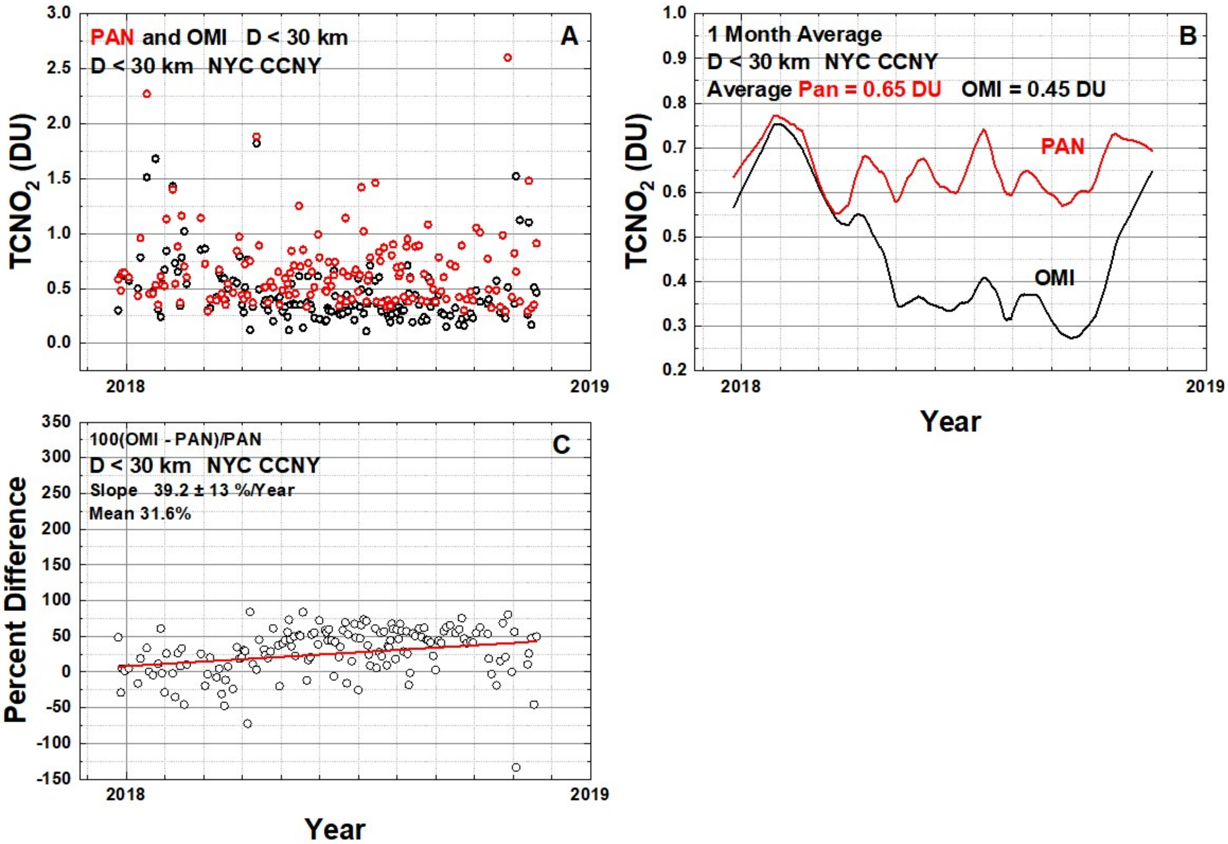


Fig. 9 $TCNO_2$ overpass time series for CCNY in Manhattan, New York City. OMI pixels are at a distance D < 30 km from CCNY. Panel A: OMI overpass $TCNO_2$ (Black) compare with OMI (Red). Panel B: Monthly Lowess(f) fit to the daily overpass data. Panel C: Percent difference 100(OMI – PAN)/PAN calculated from the data in Panel A

4.0 Summary

Examination of long-term $TCNO_2$ monthly average time series from OMI satellite and PANDORA ground-based observations show that OMI systematically underestimates the amount of NO_2 in the atmosphere by an average factor of 1.5 to 2 at the local OMI overpass time near the equator crossing time of 13:30±1:30. As shown in Fig. 6 for $TCNO_2$, 100(OMI – PAN)/PAN least squares mean underestimates are much larger than error estimates. These differences are reduced for the smaller pixel size TropOMI TCNO2 values (Judd et al.,2019). In addition, the PANDORA diurnal time series for every day during a year at each site (only two typical sites are shown in this paper, NYC and NASA-HQ) shows peaks in $TCNO_2$ that are completely missed by only observing at mid-day. The result is that estimates of air quality related to health effects from OMI observations are strongly underestimated almost everywhere as shown at all the sites with a long PANDORA record. In comparisons to PANDORA, OMI data are mostly uncorrelated or weakly correlated (e.g., Seoul correlation coefficient r^2 = 0.06, Mauna Loa r^2 = 0.3), while NASA HQ in Washington, DC shows a correlation on a seasonal basis (NASA HQ r^2 = 0.7) suggesting a wide area coordinated source of NO_2 (most likely automobile traffic). The data from CCNY shows some correlation between the locations of the peaks and troughs. Seven short term $TCNO_2$ time series were examined showing similar results (Table 1), except when the pollution region is widespread as in the Seoul South Korea region. The conclusion is that while OMI satellite $TCNO_2$ data are uniquely able to assess regional long-term trends in $TCNO_2$ and provide a measure of the regional distribution of pollutants, the OMI data cannot properly assess local air quality or the effect on human health over extended periods in urban or industrial areas. This will continue to be the case, but to a lesser degree, when the OMI $TCNO_2$ data are improved by reprocessing with a new geometry-dependent reflectivity (Vasilkov, 2017) and by the smaller FOV of TropOMI. The analysis shows that locating PANDORAs at polluted sites could provide quantitative corrections for spatial and temporal biases that affect the determination of local air quality from satellite data. Satellite detection of diurnal variation of TCNO2 will be improved with the upcoming launch of three planned geostationary satellites over Korea, US, and Europe To verify the proper operation of the various PANDORA instruments a similar analysis for Total Column Ozone TCO was performed (see Appendix) and shows close agreement between OMI and PANDORA, with the largest difference occurring for Mauna Loa Observatory at 3.4 km altitude, where PANDORA misses the ozone between the surface and 3.4 km.

Appendix

A1 Ozone This section shows the corresponding PANDORA total column ozone (TCO) values compared to OMI TCO for Busan South Korea (Fig. A1) that shows close agreement for the entire 2012 – 2017 period. The different fields of view for OMI and PANDORA have a much smaller effect because of the greater spatial uniformity of stratospheric ozone compared to tropospheric NO_2. Additional sites are summarized in Table A1. The largest TCO difference (15 DU or 5.6%) occurs for Mauna Loa Observatory (Altitude = 3.4 km) compared to OMI (Average altitude = Sea Level). The close results show that the PANDORA was working properly and pointing accurately at the sun. The PANDORA TCO data shown here use a mid-latitude effective ozone temperature correction from model calculations that may not be accurate of each individual site (Herman et al., 2017).

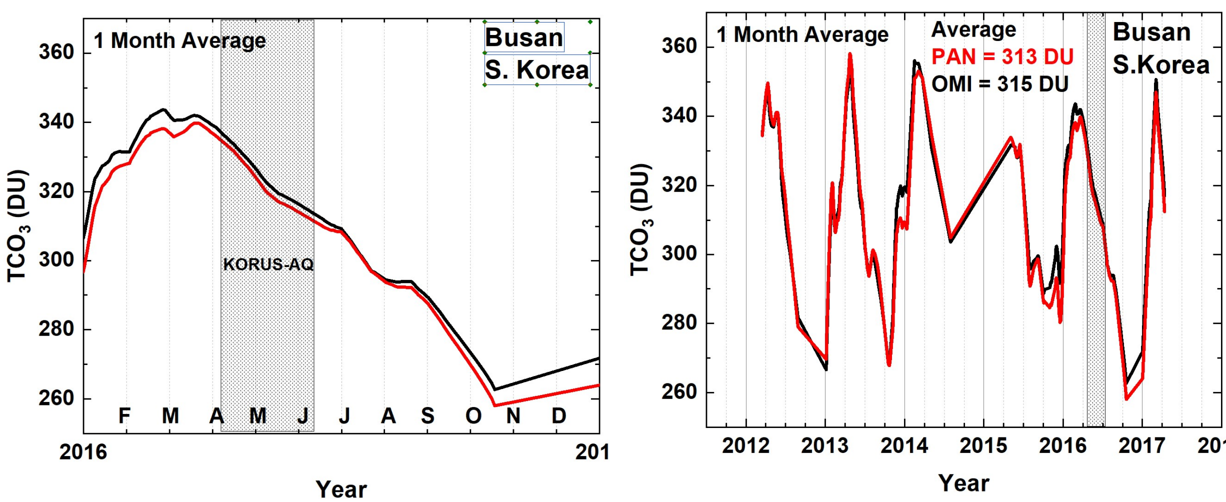


Fig. A1 Monthly average values of TCO for OMI and PANDORA at OMI overpass times for Busan South Korea

Table A1 Average values of TCO_3 for PANDORA and OMI

Location	PAN (DU)	OMI (DU)	Percent Difference
Mauna Loa Observatory Hawaii (3.394 km)*	254	269	5.6
NASA HQ Washington DC (0.02 km)	308	314	1.9
Waterflow New Mexico (1.64 km)	293	292	0.3
Yonsei University Seoul South Korea (0.07 km)	317	325	2.5
Busan University Busan South Korea(0.03 km)	313	315	0.6
Boulder, Colorado (NOAA Bldg) (1.617 km)	299	302	1.0
Buenos Aires, Argentina (0.025 km)	279	284	1.8
Essex, Maryland (0.012 km)	299	301	0.7
Baltimore, Maryland (0.01 km)	296	296	0.0
Fresno, California (0.939 km)	306	309	1.0
Denver La Casa Colorado (1.6 km)	292	294	0.7
Gwangju Institute of Science and Technology (GIST) S. Korea (0.021 km)	302	307	1.6
Hankuk University Foreign Studies (HUFS) South Korea (0.04 km)	318	326	2.5
City College Manhattan New York City (0.04 km)	316	325	2.8
Average	**299**	**304**	**1.6**

* OMI observes the sea level value of TCO_3

The ozone retrievals shown here use an average effective ozone temperature instead of a locally measured ozone temperature (Herman et al., 2015;2017).

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Figure Captions

Fig 1 Diurnal variation of $TCNO_2$ measured at Pusan University in Busan South Korea

Fig. 2. Monthly average values of $TCNO_2$ for OMI and PANDORA at OMI overpass times

Fig. 3 Extended time series for Busan. Left Panel: individual matching PANDORA and OMI data points for the overpass time ± 6 minutes. Right Panel: monthly averages.

Fig. 4. PANDORA compared to OMI. Extended $TCNO_2$ overpass time series for Mauna Loa Observatory, Hawaii, NASA Headquarters, Washington DC, and Waterflow, New Mexico.

Fig. 5. PANDORA compared to OMI. Extended $TCNO_2$ overpass time series for Seoul South Korea, Boulder, Colorado, and Buenos Aires, Argentina (Raponi et al. 2018).

Fig. 6 Percent differences between OMI and PANDORA. The slopes are the absolute change in the percent difference. For example, the Boulder percent difference goes from -31% to -23% over 4 years.

Fig. 7A $TCNO_2$ diurnal variation (DU) from January to June, NASA Headquarters Washington, DC from January 2015 to June 2015. The approximate OMI overpass time near 13:30 hours is marked.

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Fig. 8B $TCNO_2$ diurnal variation at CCNY in New York City July to December 2018. The peak near 5 DU occurs on 13 July 2018 between 11:20 and 12:30 EST. The approximate OMI overpass time near 13:30 hours is marked.

Fig. 9 $TCNO_2$ overpass time series for CCNY in Manhattan, New York City. Panel A: OMI overpass $TCNO_2$ (Black) compare with OMI (Red). Panel B: Monthly Lowess(0.08) fit to the daily overpass data. Panel C: Percent difference 100(OMI – PAN)/PAN calculated from the data in Panel A

Fig. A1 Monthly average values of TCO for OMI and PANDORA at OMI overpass times for Busan South Korea

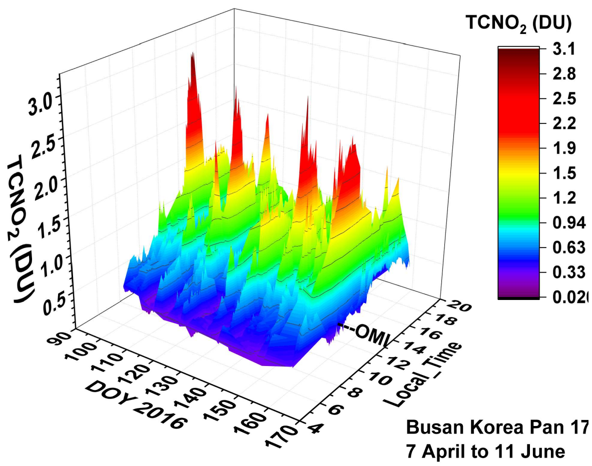

Fig 1 Diurnal variation of $TCNO_2$ measured at Pusan University in Busan South Korea

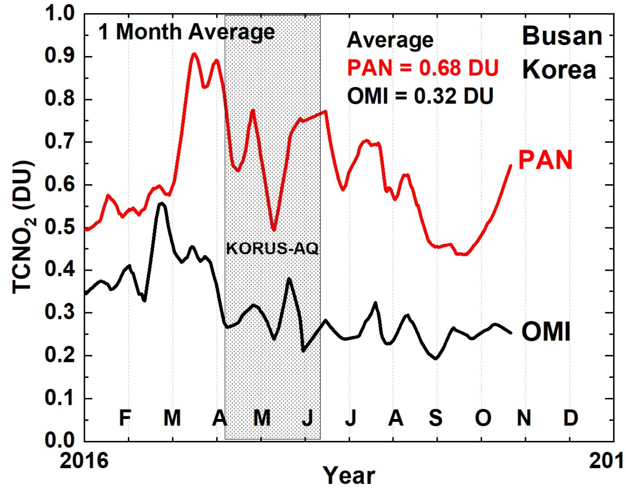

Fig. 2. Monthly average values of $TCNO_2$ for OMI and PANDORA at OMI overpass times

FIGURE 1

FIGURE 2

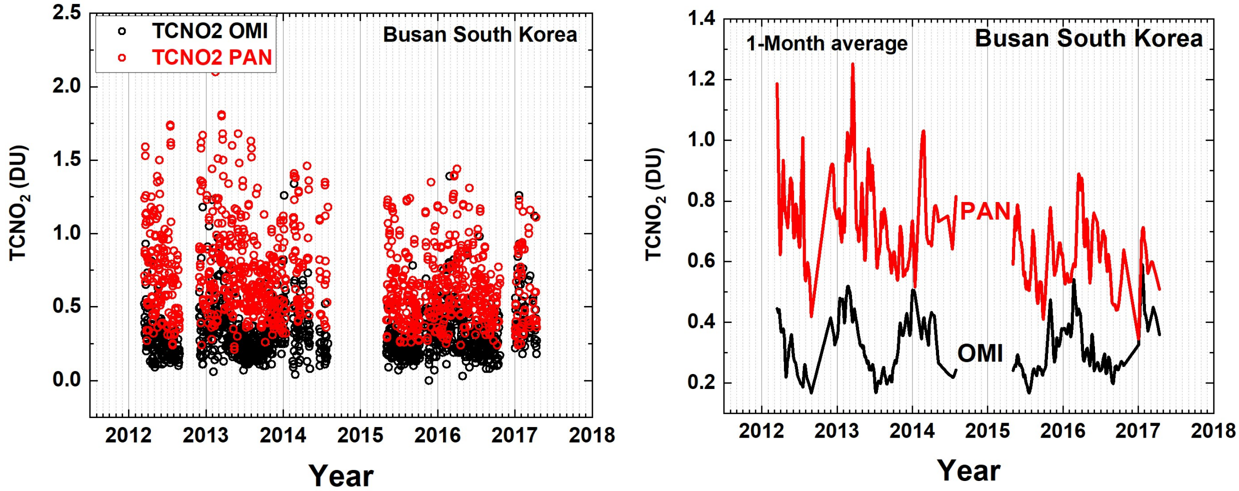

Fig. 3 Extended time series for Busan. Left Panel: individual matching PANDORA and OMI data points for the overpass time ± 6 minutes. Right Panel: monthly averages.

FIGURE 3

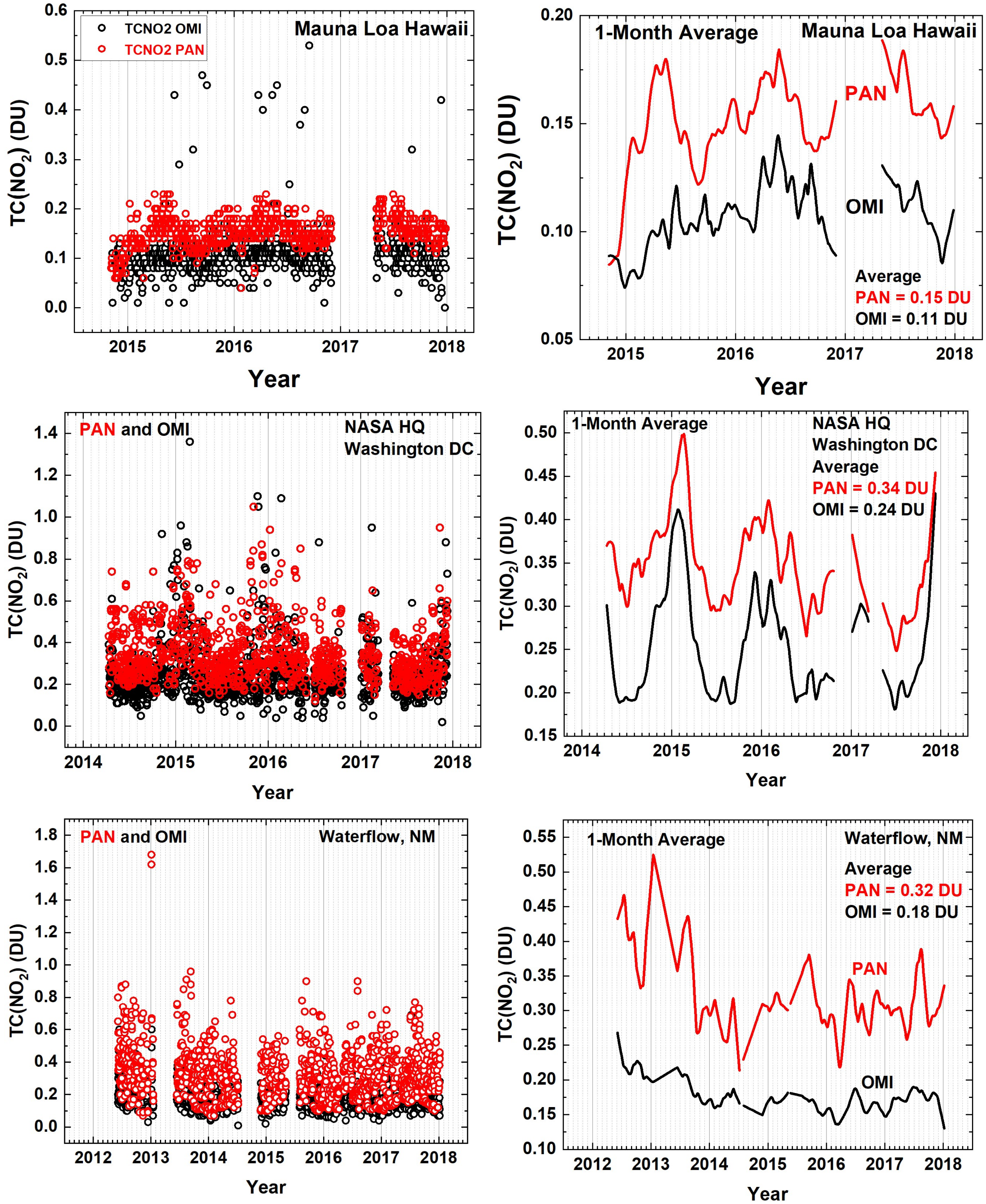

Fig. 4. PANDORA compared to OMI. Extended $TCNO_2$ overpass time series for Mauna Loa Observatory, Hawaii, NASA Headquarters, Washington DC, and Waterflow, New Mexico.

653 **FIGURE 4**

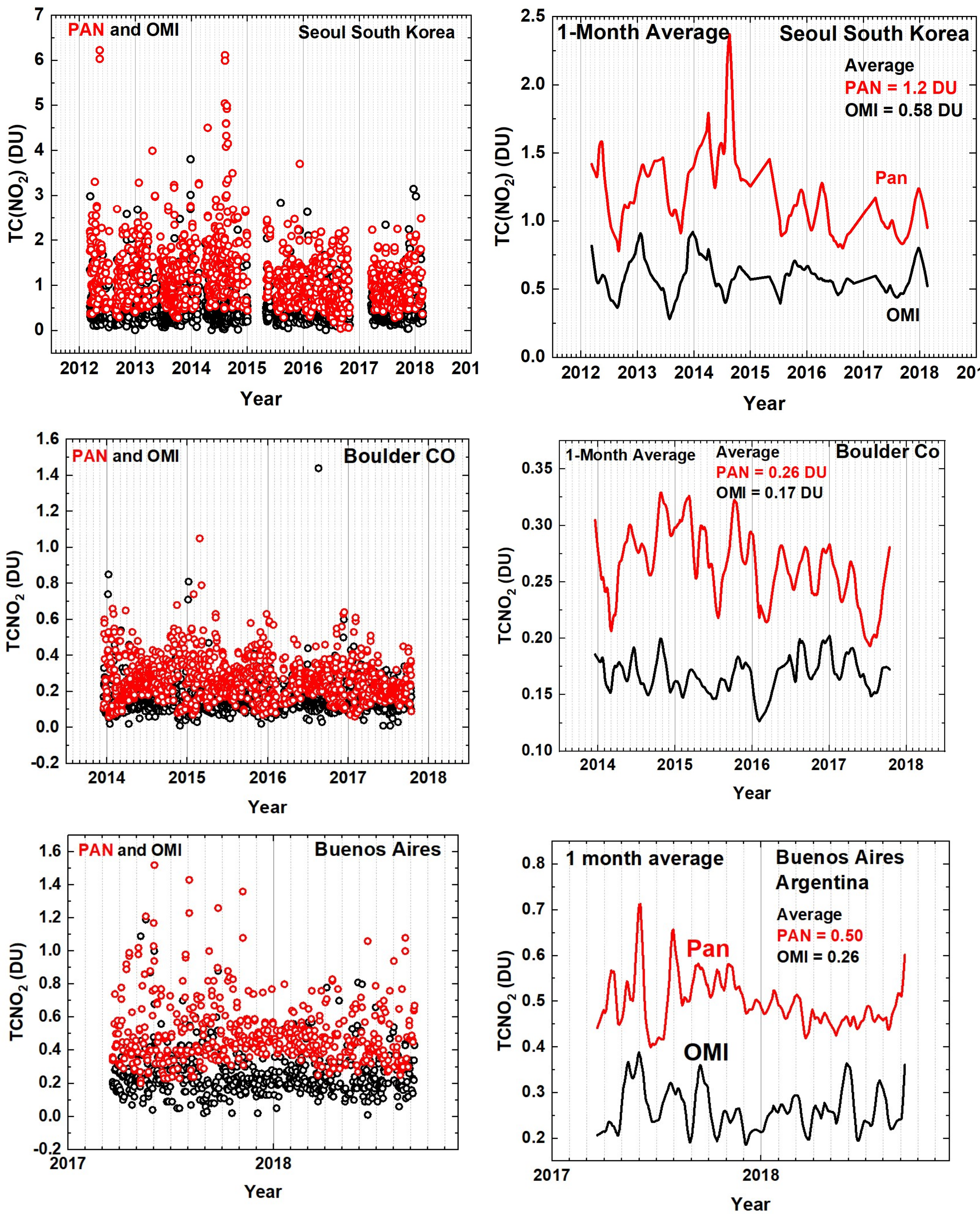

Fig. 5. PANDORA compared to OMI. Extended $TCNO_2$ overpass time series for Seoul South Korea, Boulder, Colorado, and Buenos Aires, Argentina (Raponi et al. 2017).

FIGURE 5

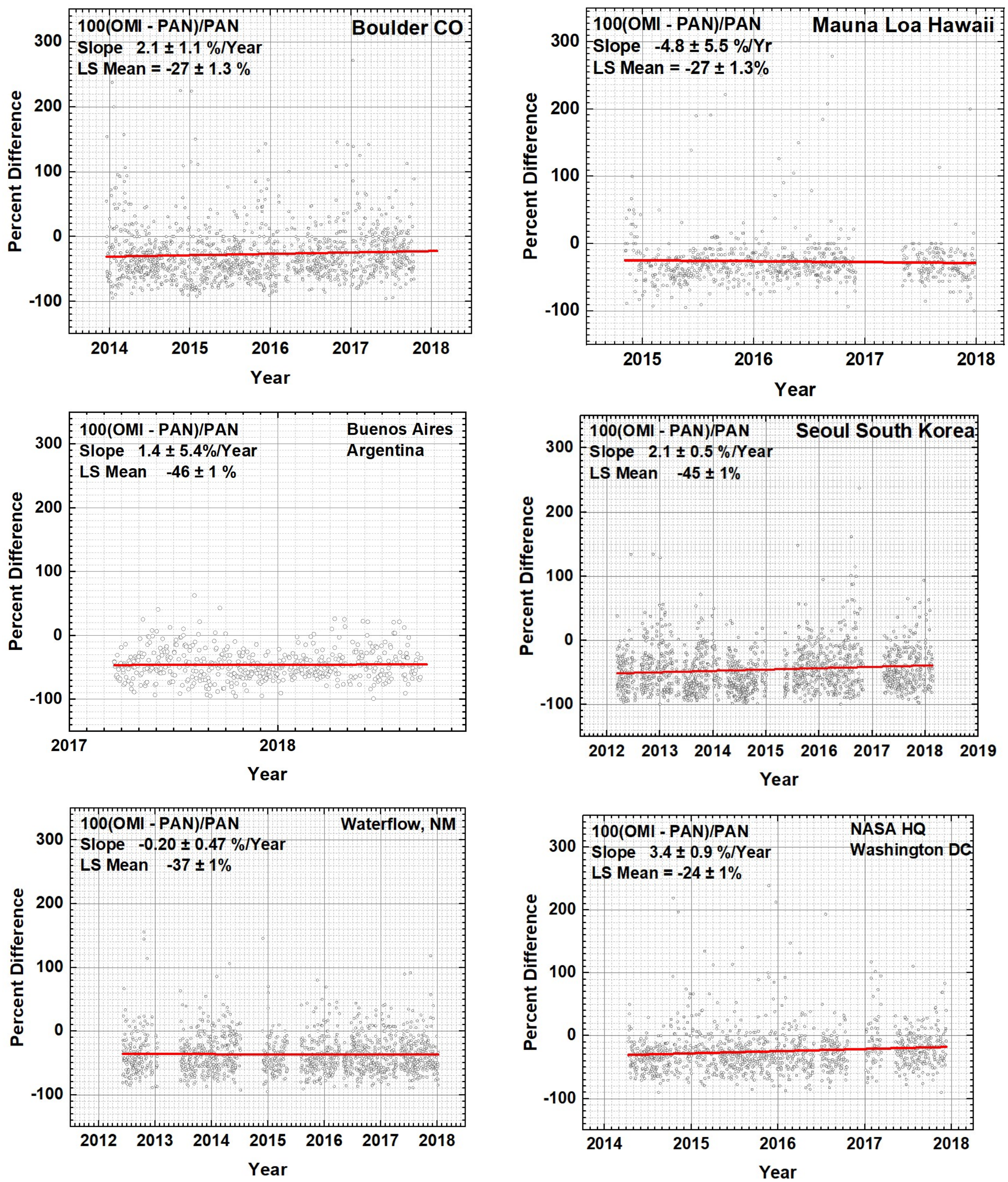

Fig. 6 Percent differences between OMI and PANDORA. The slopes are the absolute change in the percent difference. For example, the Boulder percent difference goes from -31% to -23% over 4 years. The LS Means are least squares means with the corresponding error estimates

FIGURE 6

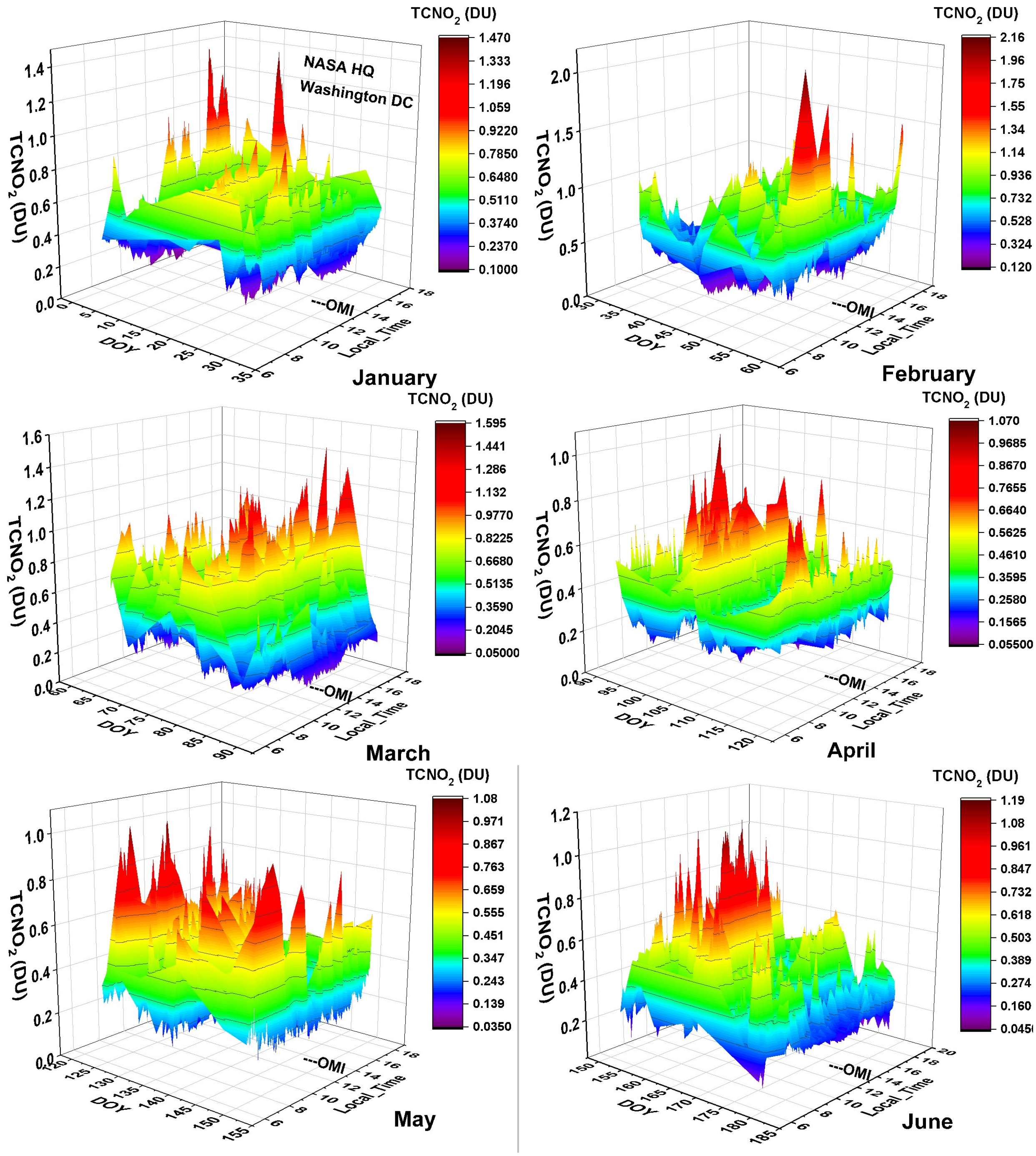

Fig. 7A $TCNO_2$ diurnal variation (DU) from January to June, NASA Headquarters Washington, DC from January 2015 to June 2015. The approximate OMI overpass time near 13:30 hours is marked

FIGURE 7A

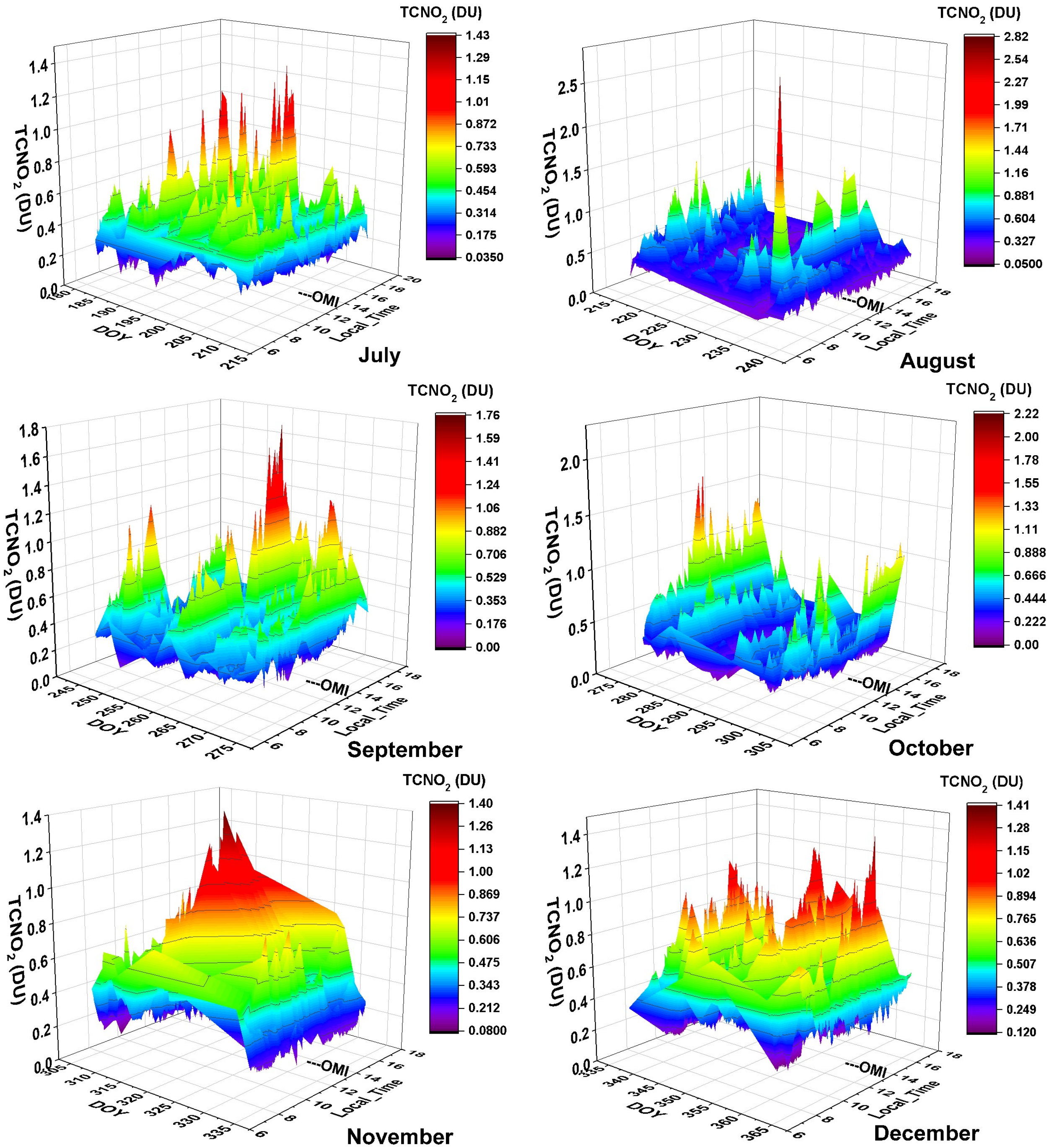

Fig. 7B $TCNO_2$ diurnal variation (DU) from July to December, NASA Headquarters Washington, DC from July 2015 to December 2015. The approximate OMI overpass time near 13:30 hours is marked

FIGURE 7B

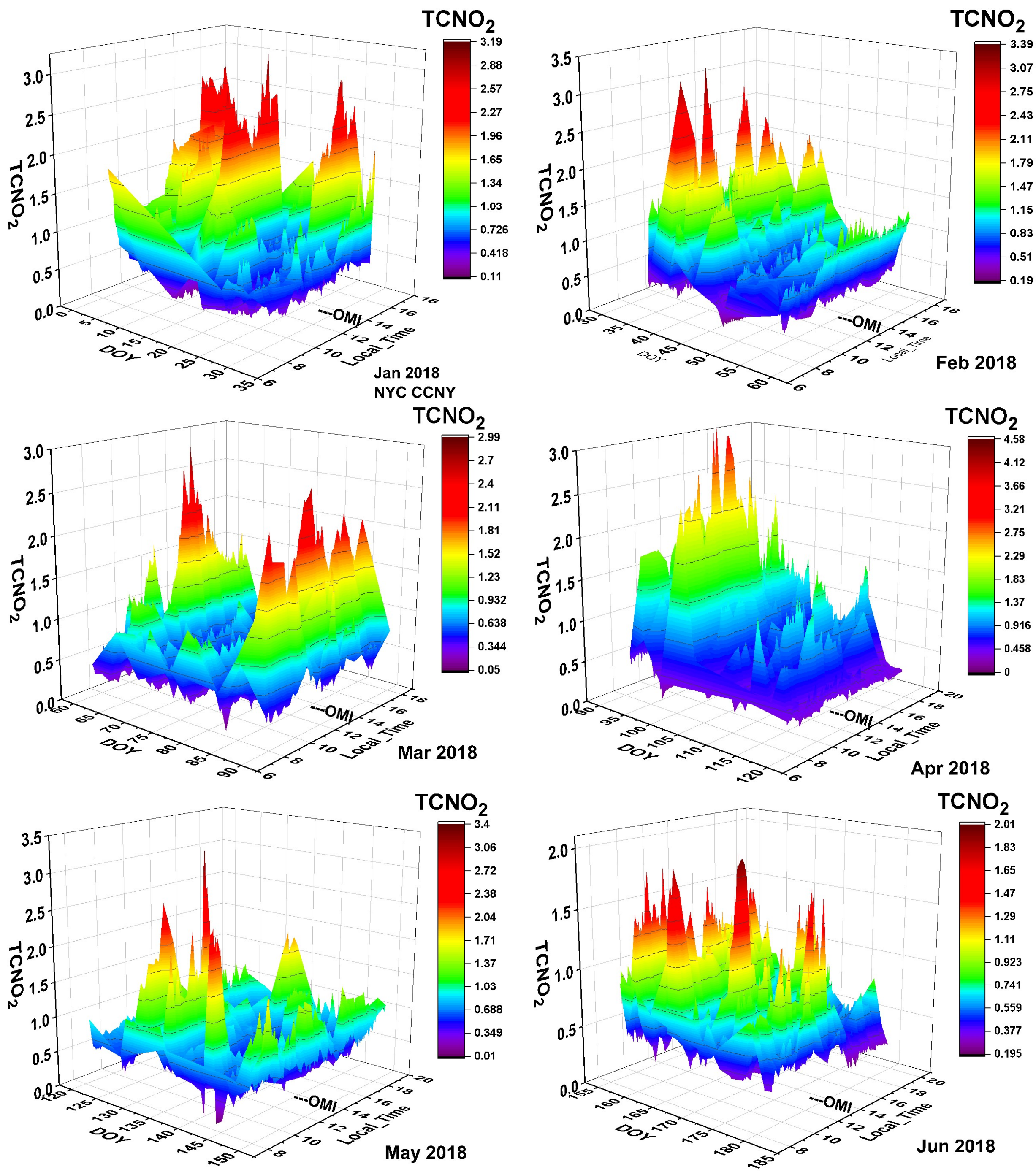

Fig. 8A $TCNO_2$ diurnal variation (DU) at CCNY in New York City January to June 2018. The approximate OMI overpass time near 13:30 hours is marked

Figure 8A

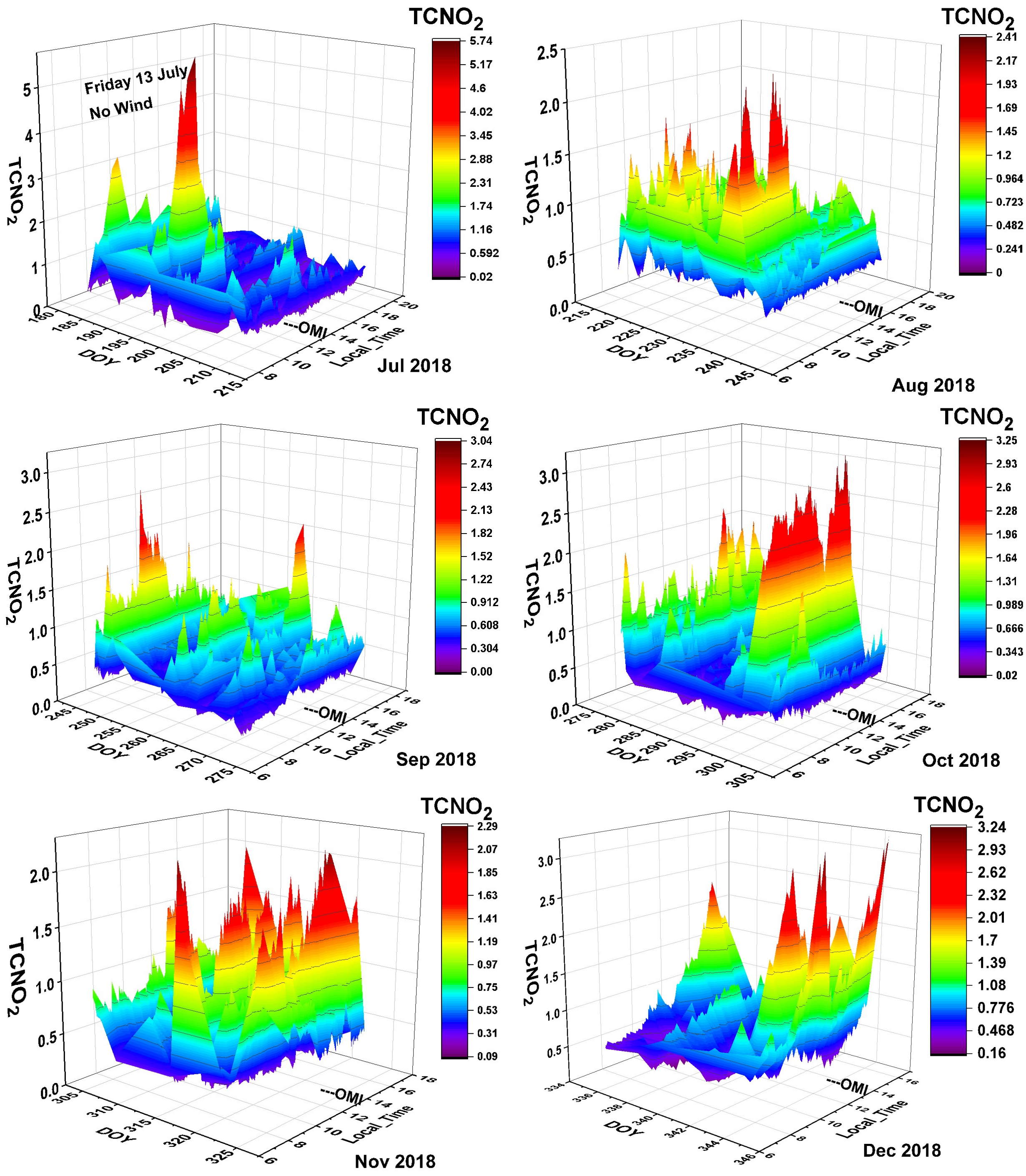

Fig. 8B $TCNO_2$ diurnal variation (DU) at CCNY in New York City July to December 2018. The peak near 5 DU occurs on 13 July 2018 between 11:20 and 12:30 EST. The approximate OMI overpass time near 13:30 hours is marked.

Figure 8B

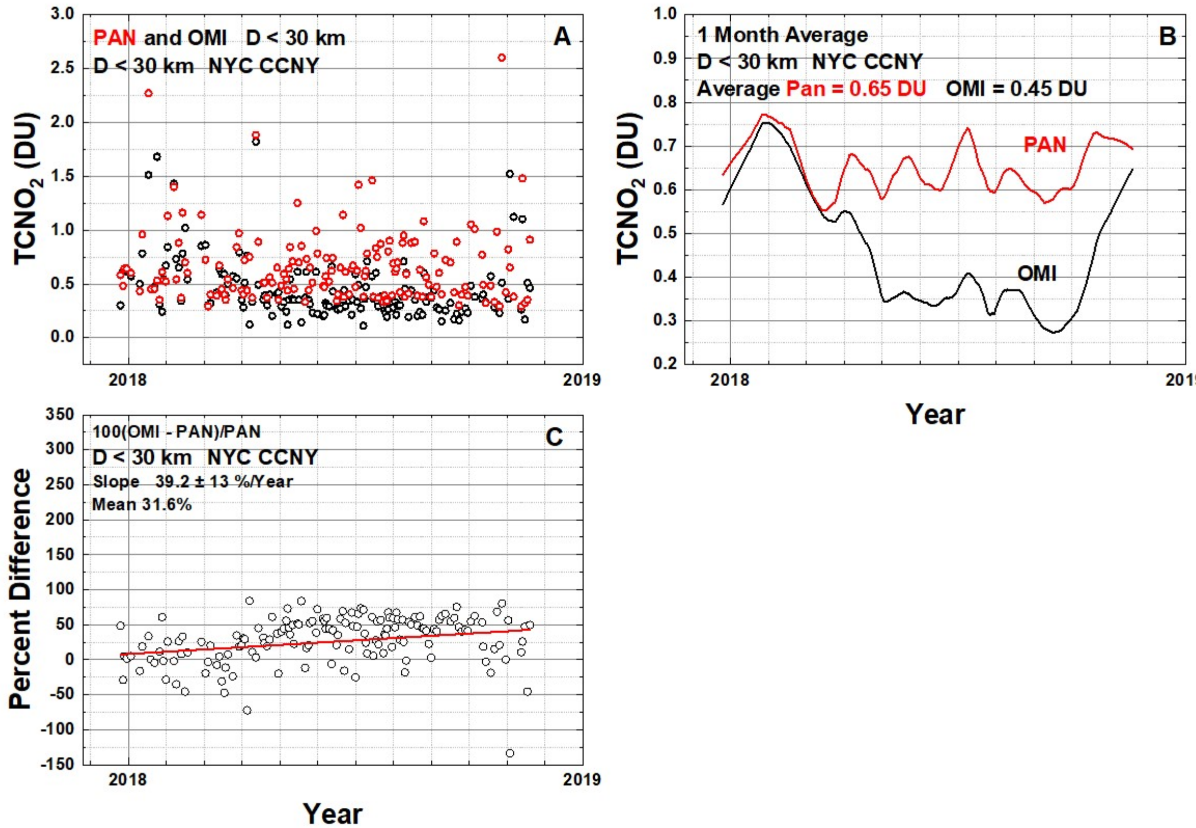

Fig. 9 $TCNO_2$ overpass time series for CCNY in Manhattan, New York City. OMI pixels are at a distance D < 30 km from CCNY. Panel A: OMI overpass $TCNO_2$ (Black) compare with OMI (Red). Panel B: Monthly Lowess(f) fit to the daily overpass data. Panel C: Percent difference 100(OMI – PAN)/PAN calculated from the data in Panel A

Figure 9

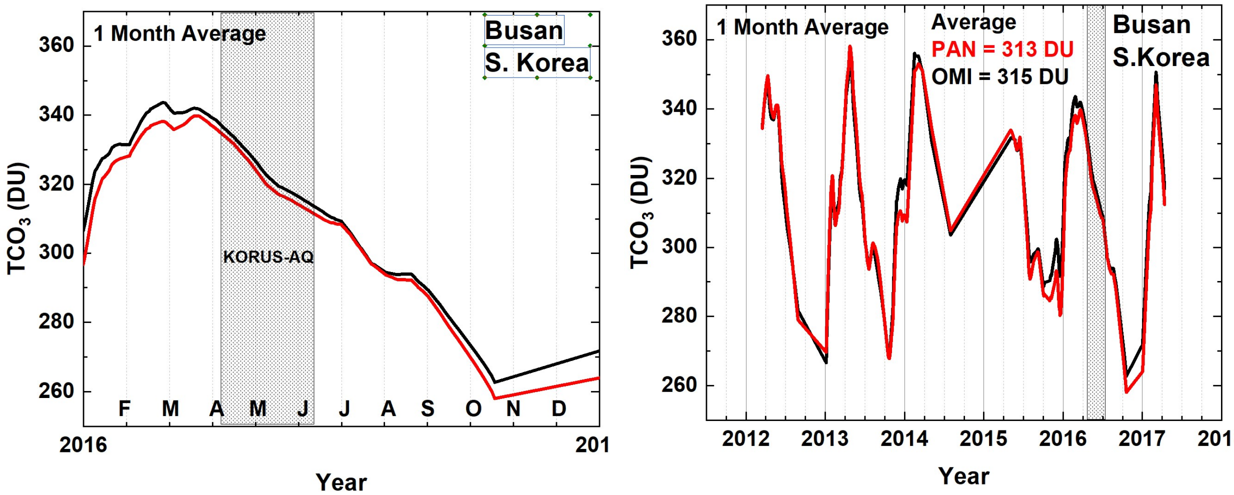

Fig. A1 Monthly average values of TCO_3 for OMI and PANDORA at OMI overpass times for Busan South Korea

FIGURE A1