# Highly resolved mapping of NO<sub>2</sub> vertical column densities from GeoTASO measurements over a megacity and industrial area during the KORUS-AO campaign

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12 Abstract. The Korea-United States Air Quality (KORUS-AQ) campaign is a joint study between the United States National 13 Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) and the South Korea National Institute of Environmental Research (NIER) to monitor megacity and transboundary air pollution around the Korean Peninsula using airborne and ground-based 14 15 measurements. Here, tropospheric nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) slant column density (SCD) measurements were retrieved from Geostationary Trace and Aerosol Sensor Optimization (GeoTASO) L1B data during the KORUS-AQ campaign (May 2 to 16 17 June 10, 2016). The retrieved SCDs were converted to tropospheric vertical column densities using the air mass factor (AMF) obtained from a radiative transfer calculation with trace gas profiles and aerosol property inputs simulated with the Community 18 19 Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) model and surface reflectance data obtained from the Moderate Resolution Imaging 20 Spectroradiometer (MODIS). For the first time, we examine highly resolved (250 m  $\times$  250 m resolution) tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> over the Seoul and Busan metropolitan regions, and the industrial regions of Anmyeon. We reveal that the maximum NO<sub>2</sub> 21 VCDs were  $4.94 \times 10^{16}$  and  $1.46 \times 10^{17}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> at 9 AM and 3 PM over Seoul, respectively,  $6.86 \times 10^{16}$  and  $4.89 \times 10^{16}$ 22  $10^{16}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> in the morning and afternoon over Busan, respectively, and  $1.64 \times 10^{16}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> over Anmyeon. 23 24 The VCDs retrieved from the GeoTASO airborne instrument were correlated with those obtained from the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) (r = 0.48), NASA's Pandora Spectrometer System (r = 0.91), and NO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios obtained from in situ 25 measurements (r = 0.07 in the morning, r = 0.26 in the afternoon over the Seoul, and r > 0.56 over Busan). Based on our results, 26

27 GeoTASO is useful for identifying NO<sub>2</sub> hotspots and their spatial distribution in highly populated cities and industrial areas.

# 28 1 Introduction

Nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) is one of the most important atmospheric trace gases and plays a key role in aerosol production and tropospheric ozone photochemistry (Boersma et al., 2004; Richter et al., 2005). Furthermore, high concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere have adverse effects on human health, such as respiratory infections, and associated symptoms (Brauer et al.,

- 32 2002; Latza et al., 2009).
- The main sources of  $NO_2$  in the atmosphere are fossil fuel combustion from vehicles and thermal power plants, lightning, and biogenic soil processes. Furthermore,  $NO_2$  concentrations are highly correlated with population size (Lamsal et al., 2013). The implementation of emission control technology and environmental regulation has led to a decrease in surface  $NO_2$ concentrations in Western Europe, the United States, and Japan in the last few decades (Richter et al., 2005). The concentration of  $NO_2$  in major metropolitan cities in South Korea and China is over 3 times larger than over similarly sized cities in Europe and United States, despite  $NO_2$  concentration decreasing in China and South Korea (de Foy et al., 2016, Choo et al., 2020).
- 39 To date, several low-orbit space borne sensors, such as the Global Ozone Monitoring Experiment (GOME) (Burrows et al.,
- 40 1999), the Scanning Imaging Spectrometer for Atmospheric Cartography (SCIAMACHY) (Burrows et al., 1995), the Ozone

41 Monitoring Instrument (OMI) (Levelt et al., 2006), the GOME-2 (Callies et al., 2000), and the Tropospheric Monitoring

42 Instrument (TROPOMI) (Veefkind et al., 2012), have monitored atmospheric ozone and its precursors including NO<sub>2</sub> and

43 formaldehyde (HCHO) as a proxy for volatile organic compounds (VOCs). Furthermore, the Geostationary Environment

44 Monitoring Spectrometer (GEMS) (Choi et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2020), which was launched on February 18, 2020, will form

45 a constellation of geostationary satellites including the upcoming Tropospheric Emission: Monitoring of Pollution (TEMPO)

46 (Zoogman et al., 2017) and Sentinel-4 platforms, to continuously observe the air quality of the Northern Hemisphere during

47 the day.

48 NO<sub>2</sub> retrievals from space borne hyperspectral measurements are typically conducted using the differential optical absorption 49 spectroscopy (DOAS) method (Platt and Stutz, 2008) to first retrieve the view-dependent slant column density (SCD), and 50 then radiative transfer models are used to determine the vertical column density (VCD) using an air mass factor (AMF) 51 correction. Previous and ongoing space borne instruments use various radiative transfer codes and model input assumptions to 52 calculate NO<sub>2</sub> AMF values at coarse spatial resolution. Because AMF weighting has a large impact on NO<sub>2</sub> retrievals using 53 the DOAS method, it is important to use model input assumptions that most accurately match viewing and atmospheric 54 conditions. Several studies have demonstrated the sensitivity of AMF calculations to inaccurate model input parameters (e.g., 55 a priori NO<sub>2</sub> vertical profile and aerosol properties) and a priori data (cloud information and surface reflectance) (Leitão et 56 al., 2010; Hong et al., 2017; Lorente et al., 2017; Boersma et al., 2018). NO2 retrievals have also been consistently conducted 57 based on surface remote sensing measurements including the Multi-Axis DOAS (MAX-DOAS), Système D'Analyse par 58 Observations Zènithales (SAOZ) spectrometer (Pastel et al., 2014), and Pandora (Herman et al., 2009) systems. These ground-59 based measurements can be used as validation references for both airborne and space borne measurements.

60 NO<sub>2</sub> retrievals from airborne remote sensing instruments, such as the Geostationary Coast and Air Pollution Event (GEO-CAPE) Airborne Simulator (GCAS) (Kowalewski and Janz, 2014), the Heidelberg Airborne Imaging DOAS Instrument 61 62 (HAIDI) (General et al., 2014), the Geostationary Trace gas and Aerosol Sensor Optimization (GeoTASO) (Leitch et al., 2014), 63 the Airborne Prism Experiment (APEX; Popp et al., 2012), the Airborne Imaging DOAS instrument for Measurements of 64 Atmospheric Pollution (AirMAP; Meier et al., 2017; Schönhardt et al., 2015), the Small Whiskbroom Imager for atmospheric 65 composition monitorinG (SWING; Merlaud et al. 2018), and the Spectrolite Breadboard Instrument (SBI; Vlemmix et al., 66 2017; Tack et al., 2019) have also been performed to identify local emission sources and obtain highly resolved horizontal 67 NO<sub>2</sub> distributions.

68 Observations using airborne measurements have an advantage as they enable the observation of horizontal distributions of 69 trace gases at resolutions higher than those of space-based satellites and provide data over a wider area than those of ground-70 based observations. For example, Nowlan et al. (2018) retrieved tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs over Houston, Texas, during the 71 Deriving Information on Surface Conditions from Column and Vertically Resolved Observations Relevant to Air Quality 72 (DISCOVER-AQ) campaign and identified a high correlation with data retrieved from Pandora. Popp et al. (2012) also 73 presented the morning and afternoon NO<sub>2</sub> spatial distribution in Zurich, Switzerland, using APEX. Tack et al. (2017) have 74 conducted high-resolution mapping of NO<sub>2</sub> over three Belgium cities (Antwerp, Brussels, and Liège) using APEX and Judd 75 et al. (2020) and Tack et al. (2021) compared NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs retrieved from GCAS/GeoTASO and APEX with those obtained 76 from TROPOMI over New York City and Antwerp and Brussels, respectively. Merlaud et al. (2013) observed NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs in 77 Turceni over Romania using SWING mounted on an unmanned aerial vehicle (UAV) during the Airborne Romanian Measurements of Aerosols and Trace gases (AROMAT) campaign. These existing NO2 retrievals, using airborne 78 79 measurements, have been useful in constraining regional air quality models due to the highly resolved source identification 80 and the ability to tie these results to ground-based observations.

This work focuses on airborne NO<sub>2</sub> retrievals from GeoTASO. This instrument was developed by Ball Aerospace to reduce mission risk for UV-VIS air quality measurements from geostationary orbit for the GEMS and TEMPO missions (Leitch et al., 2014). The retrieval of NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, and HCHO observed from GeoTASO L1B data using DOAS and principal component

- 84 analysis (PCA) (Wold et al., 1987) was conducted through the DISCOVER-AQ and KORea-United States Air Quality
- 85 (KORUS-AQ) campaigns (Nowlan et al., 2016; Judd et al., 2018; Choi et al., 2020; Chong et al., 2020). The KORUS-AQ

86 campaign is a joint study between the National Institute of Environmental Research (NIER) and National Aeronautics and

- 87 Space Administration (NASA) to monitor megacity air pollution and transboundary pollution, and to prepare for geostationary
- satellite (i.e., GEMS, TEMPO, and Sentinel-4) air quality observability (of trace gases and aerosols), organized from May to
   June 2016.
- 90 Although surface NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in South Korea are the high due to high population density, high traffic volumes, and
- 91 many industrial complexes and thermal power plants, and although NO<sub>2</sub> retrieval studies using airborne and ground

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- measurements in North America, Europe, China, and Japan, data for South Korea remain limited. The specific objectives of
   this study are as follows:
- (1) To retrieve tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> vertical column data using GeoTASO measurements over polluted regions of the Seoul
   and Busan metropolitan areas and the Anmyeon industrial regions of the Korean Peninsula.
- 96 (2) To estimate NO<sub>2</sub> VCD uncertainties using error propagation accounting for spectral fitting errors and AMF
   97 uncertainties associated with input data errors, including aerosol optical depth (AOD), single scattering albedo (SSA),
   98 aerosol peak height (APH), and surface reflectance (SRF).
- (3) To compare NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs retrieved from GeoTASO and those obtained from OMI and ground-based Pandora
   instruments, as well as surface in situ measurements.

# 101 2 KORUS-AQ campaign area, measurements, and model simulation

102 2.1 Campaign area



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Figure 1. Flight paths of the NASA LaRC B200 aircraft carrying GeoTASO and the average tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs obtained from OMI gridded to a 0.25° × 0.25° horizontal grid during the KORUS-AQ campaign period. The line color represents flight height. In this period, the GeoTASO observations focused on megacities (Seoul and Busan) and industrial complex area (Anmyeon) with high tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. The reference spectrum for spectral fitting is obtained from the radiation data over the Jeju Island (marked with red circle).

109

110 The Korean Peninsula, located on the Asia-Pacific coast, has a complex atmospheric environment by local emissions and long-

- 111 range transport under appropriate weather conditions (Jeong et al., 2017; NIER and NASA, 2020; Choo et al., 2021). Seoul,
- 112 the capital of South Korea, and the metropolitan area are densely populated, and power plants and industrial activities on the

- northwest coast are conducted, which emit relatively large amounts of pollutants. The KORUS-AQ campaign conducted three-113 114 dimensional observations, including ground-based remote, aircraft, satellite observation, and air quality modeling, to understand the complex air quality and interpret the observations of GEMS launched in 2020. The KORUS-AQ campaign 115 116 period was from May 2 to June 10, 2016. During the KORUS-AQ campaign, air pollutants were conducted using the GeoTASO on board the NASA Langley Research Center B200 aircraft to monitor air quality and long-range transport of pollutants over 117 118 the Korean Peninsula (NIER and NASA, 2020). The GeoTASO observations were conducted 30 times in 23 d out of 40 d. 119 Most observations were made once or twice a day. Each flight was planned and conducted on a day when the weather conditions were fine and flight hours were approximately 2-4 h. We show the average values of GeoTASO flight information 120 121 such as flight time, altitude, speed, solar zenith angle (SZA), and viewing zenith angle (VZA) for the dates retrieved for  $NO_2$ 122 VCD, aerosol properties (AOD, SSA) extracted from CMAQ, and cloud fraction and surface reflectance extracted from the 123 Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) in Table 1. Flight information on the date of aircraft observation 124 can be found at http://www-air.larc.nasa.gov/missions/korus-aq/docs/KORUS-AQ\_Flight\_Summaries\_ID122.pdf. Figure 1 125 indicates the flight routes of B200 and the tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCD obtained from the OMI during the campaign period. The 126 observations were concentrated in the metropolitan areas of Seoul and Busan and the industrial areas of Anmyeon, with an
- 127 average flight altitude of ~8.5 km during KORUS-AQ.
- 128
- 129 Table 1. Summary of information on the dates when NO<sub>2</sub> VCD was retrieved during the KORUS-AQ period (LT = UTC + 9

h). The average values of GeoTASO data sets for flight characteristics, aerosol properties, geometric information and cloud 130 131 information.

Date	Jun 5	Jun 9 Jun 9		Jun 10 Jun 10	
		AM	PM	AM	PM
ROI	Anmyeon	Seoul metropolitan		Busan metropolitan	
Flight time (LT)	13:11–17:20	7:48-12:00	13:46–17:52	8:02–11:38	13:05–15:19
Flight altitude (km)	8.6	8.4	8.5	8.6	8.5
Flight speed (km hr-1)	117.0	116.2	117.6	117.2	117.1
SZA (°)	39.2	36.1	45.3	35.9	33.0
VZA (°)	<mark>11.9</mark>	<mark>12.6</mark>	<mark>12.8</mark>	<mark>12.1</mark>	<mark>11.8</mark>
AOD	0.27	0.40	0.21	0.13	0.09
SSA	0.966	0.980	0.949	0.981	0.968
Surface reflectance	0.07	0.09	0.09	0.06	0.06

	Cloud fraction	0.08	0.31	0.55	0.16	0.20
132						

As shown in Fig. 1, GeoTASO observations were conducted focusing on highly NO<sub>2</sub>-polluted regions in the Seoul and Busan 133 metropolitan areas and the Anmyeon region during the KORUS-AQ campaign. The Seoul metropolitan area (Seoul Special 134 135 City, Gyeonggi Province, and Incheon City) is one of the most densely populated areas worldwide, with a population of 136 approximately 20 million in 2016. Busan is the second-largest city in South Korea, with a population of approximately 3.4 137 million in 2016. Anmyeon is located southwest of Seoul, with petrochemical complexes, steel mills, and thermal power stations in this area. The background color in Fig. 1 represents the average NO<sub>2</sub> VCD obtained from the OMI during the KORUS-AQ 138 campaign period, showing over  $1 \times 10^{16}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> over the Seoul metropolitan area. The OMI data were obtained with 139 the Level 2.0 OMNO2 version 3.0 and downloaded from the NASA Earthdata search (http://search.earthdata.nasa.gov/search/). 140 We calculated the arithmetic means of tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs, like Choo et al. (2020), to obtain the grid data ( $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$ ) 141 142 during the KORUS-AQ period. The average tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCD data were excluded from May 30 2016 to Jun 9 2016,

143 when the OMI data did not exist during the campaign period.

# 144 2.2 Pandora

145 NO2 VCDs retrieved from the GeoTASO were validated using those from NASA's Pandora Spectrometer system. The Pandora 146 spectrometer is a hyper-spectrometer that can provide direct sun measurements of UV-Vis spectra (280-525 nm with a full 147 width at half maximum (FWHM) of 0.6 nm) for observing atmospheric trace gases. During the KORUS-AQ, eight Pandora 148 instruments monitored NO<sub>2</sub> and ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) VCD as depicted by plus symbols in Fig. 1. The retrieved data are available on the 149 **KORUS-AQ** of NASA's Goddard Flight Center website pages Space (https://avdc.gsfc.nasa.gov/pub/DSCOVR/Pandora/DATA/KORUS-AQ/). We compared NO2 VCDs obtained from five 150 151 Pandora measurements (Busan university: 35.24 °N, 129.08 °E; Olympic park: 37.52 °N, 127.13 °E: Songchon: 37.41 °N, 127.56 °E; Yeoju: 37.34 °N, 127.49 °E; Yonsei University: 37.56 °N, 126.93 °E) within 0.05° and 30 min with those from 152 153 GeoTASO. Because NO<sub>2</sub> has a short atmospheric lifetime, especially during the summer (Shah et al., 2020), its spatial and 154 temporal distributions vary notably. A detailed description of Pandora's operation during the KORUS-AQ campaign has previously been reported (Herman et al., 2018; Spinei et al., 2018). 155

### 156 2.3 Ground-based in situ NO<sub>2</sub> measurement

157 Although the basic physical quantity of VCD and the surface mixing ratio from in situ measurements are different, comparison 158 of their spatiotemporal variations provides useful information for deriving surface air quality from airborne instruments (e.g., 159 Jeong and Hong, 2021a; 2021b). In this study, we compare the NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs (molecules  $cm^{-2}$ ) retrieved from GeoTASO to 160 surface mixing ratios measured by ground-based in-situ monitoring network over South Korea (i.e., Air-Korea, a national realtime air quality network; https://www.airkorea.or.kr/). The instruments use the chemiluminescence method (Kley and 161 162 McFarland, 1980), and approximately 400 air quality monitoring sites in Korea are registered in the system, providing hourly 163 surface NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. We compared NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs retrieved from GeoTASO within 0.5 km and 30 min with NO<sub>2</sub> 164 concentrations obtained from Air-Korea.

# 165 2.4 GeoTASO measurements

166 NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs were retrieved from the L1B radiance dataset (version: V02y) obtained using GeoTASO during the KORUS-AQ

- 167 campaign. The NASA Goddard Space Flight Center conducted the L1B radiance calibration, which included offset and smear
- 168 correction, gain matching, amplifier cross-talk correction, dark rate correction, integration normalization, sensitivity derivation,

- 169 wavelength registration, geo-registration, non-linearity correction, and ground pixel geolocation (Kowalewski et al., 2017;
- 170 Chong et al., 2020). The detailed specifications of GeoTASO are listed in Table 2 (Nowlan et al., 2016).
- 171
- 172 Table 2. Summary of the GeoTASO instrument and optical specification.

L1B version	V02y	
Full cross-track field of view	45°	
Single-pixel cross-track field of view	$0.046^{\circ}$	
Wavalangth	UV: 290–400 nm	
wavelength	VIS: 415–695 nm	
Spectral resolution	UV: ~0.39 nm	
(full width at half maximum, FWHM)	VIS: ~0.88 nm	
CCD	1,056 (wavelength) × 1,033 (cross-track)	
Spatial resolution before binning	~35 m (along-track) × 7 m (cross-track)	
Spatial resolution after binning	~250 m (along-track) × 250 m (cross-track)	









# 177 2.4.1 NO<sub>2</sub> slant column density retrieval

178 Figure 2 indicates the flowchart for retrieving the tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCD from the GeoTASO. We first retrieved NO<sub>2</sub> SCDs

179 using the DOAS method (Platt, 1994). Nonlinear least square minimization was used to retrieve the NO2 SCDs which

180 minimizes the difference between the measured optical depth and the modeled value in QDOAS software (Eq. (1); Danckaert

181 et al., 2012).

$$182 \quad \frac{\ln I(\lambda)}{\ln I_0(\lambda)} = -(\sum_{j=1}^m \rho_j \times \sigma_j(\lambda) + B(\lambda) + R(\lambda) + A(\lambda) + N(\lambda)), \tag{1}$$

- Where  $I(\lambda)$  is the measured earthshine radiance at wavelength  $\lambda$ ;  $I_0$  is the reference radiance from the reference sector (southern 184 185 ocean of the Jeju Island denoted as the red circle in Fig. 1; 32.983°N, 126.392°E) at 9 AM on May 1 2016. The Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) modeling system data indicated that the NO<sub>2</sub> VCD from the surface to 50 hPa over this 186 reference sector on this day was  $6.75 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>, and the mean of total NO<sub>2</sub> VCD obtained from the OMI during 187 the KOURS-AQ period was  $4.77 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> with a standard deviation of  $1.33 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>. We also 188 confirmed the stability of NO<sub>2</sub> distribution over this area using the TROPOMI offline data from 2019 to 2020. In this period, 189 the NO<sub>2</sub> VCD from the TROPOMI was  $4.81 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> with a standard deviation of  $0.43 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>. 190 The NO<sub>2</sub> VCD used as a reference sector obtained from CMAQ was mainly dominated by stratospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCD. However, 191 192 stratospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCD has a relatively lower than tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCD. The  $\rho_i$  represents the SCD of each species j;  $\sigma'_i(\lambda)$ 193 represents the differential gas phase absorption cross-section convolved with the Gaussian distribution function (GDF) with 194 GeoTASO FWHM (the UV and VIS range were 0.34-0.49 nm and 0.70-1.00 nm, respectively (Nowlan et al., 2016)) at 195 wavelength  $\lambda$  of species j, respectively. 196 We used the measured radiances at the reference sector to calculate differential slant column density (dSCD) over the whole 197 domain of the GetoTASO measurements. CMAQ calculation over the reference sector (i.e.,  $6.75 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>) was adopted as the reference SCD (SC<sub>0</sub>), which is added to all dSCD values to convert to the SCD. The reference sector is known 198
- 199 as a background area but is occasionally affected by the long-range transport of NO<sub>2</sub> from upwind areas. Considering the
- 200 standard deviation of the OMI measurements accounts for such effects during the measurement period, we estimate the
- 201 maximum uncertainties of the SC<sub>0</sub> can be calculated from this value (i.e.,  $1.33 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>) in addition to the
- 202 difference of the mean values between the CMAQ and OMI (i.e.,  $1.98 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>). Therefore, our best estimate of
- the uncertainty of the SC<sub>0</sub> is the root of the sum of squares of these values (i.e.,  $2.38 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>).
- 204



Figure 3. Residuals and NO<sub>2</sub> SCD errors of 17 spectral fitting window candidates (May 17, 2016, across track number: 15).

- 208 The spectral fitting window was selected based on the sensitivity test with 17 fitting window candidates from 420 to 480 nm
- with the length of the fitting window from 25 to 60 nm. Spectral fitting residuals and NO<sub>2</sub> SCD errors have been investigated for 17 spectral fitting window candidates (Fig. 3).





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Figure 4. An example of the spectral fitting results of NO<sub>2</sub> retrievals from GeoTASO during the KORUS-AQ campaign (at Gangnam, Seoul on June 9, 2016). Red and black line in the panel (a) represent measured and reference spectrum, respectively. The panels of (b) to (h) depict examples of spectral fitting results of (b) NO<sub>2</sub>, (c) O<sub>3</sub> (293 K), (d) O<sub>3</sub> (243 K), (e) ring, (f) H<sub>2</sub>O, (g) O<sub>4</sub>, where red and black lines are the absorption cross section of target species and the fitting residual plus the absorption of the target species, respectively. The panel (h) indicates the fitting residual of this example.

# 236 2.4.2 NO<sub>2</sub> AMF calculation

237 AMF, the ratio of SCD to VCD, can be calculated using the scattering weight ( $\omega$ ) and shape factor (S) (Palmer et al., 2001) in

238 Eq. (2)–(5).  
239 
$$AME = \frac{SCD}{2}$$
 (2)

$$239 \quad AMF = \frac{1}{VCD'} \tag{2}$$

$$240 \quad AMF = AMF_G \int_{z_1}^{z_2} \omega(z)S(z)dz, \tag{3}$$

$$241 \quad \omega(z) = -\frac{1}{AMF_G} \frac{\partial \ln I_B}{\partial \tau}, \tag{4}$$

242 
$$S(z) = \frac{\alpha(z)n(z)}{\int_{z_1}^{z_2} \alpha(z)n(z)dz'}$$
 (5)

243

Where  $AMF_G$  represents the geometric AMF,  $I_B$  is the earthshine radiance,  $\tau$  is the optical depth,  $\alpha$  is the absorption cross-244 245 section, and n is the number density of the absorber. NO<sub>2</sub> AMF was calculated using a linearized pseudo-spherical scalar and 246 vector discrete ordinate radiative transfer model (VLIDORT, version 2.6; Spurr and Christi, 2014). Aerosol properties, such 247 as AOD, SSA, APH, and a priori NO<sub>2</sub> vertical profile information, were simulated using the CMAQ, and surface reflectivity 248 was obtained from MODIS (Collection 6). The surface reflectance products, MCD43A3, available at a 500 m spatial resolution, 249 provide an estimate of the surface spectral reflectance including MODIS bands 1 through 7. Here, MODIS band 3 (459-479 250 nm) was used, because this band is the closest the wavelength (455 nm) used in the calculation of AMF in this study. APH 251 was assumed to be the peak height of the aerosol extinction coefficient simulated in CMAQ, and the aerosol profile applied 252 GDF based on APH (Hong et al., 2017). For pixels without reflectance information, AMF was not calculated. The products were corrected for atmospheric conditions, such as aerosol, gases, and Rayleigh scattering. In previous studies (Lamsal et al., 253 2017; Nowlan et al., 2018; Judd et al., 2019; Chong et al., 2020), an AMF was described for both above and below aircraft 254 255 altitude is used to convert NO<sub>2</sub> SCDs to VCDs using Eq. (6)–(8).

256 
$$AMF \uparrow = AMF_G \int_{Z_A}^{Z_{TOA}} \omega(z)S(z)dz,$$
 (6)

257 
$$AMF \downarrow = AMF_G \int_{Z_0}^{Z_A} \omega(z)S(z)dz,$$
 (7)

$$258 \quad NO_2 \, VCD \downarrow = \frac{NO_2 \, SCD - AMF^{\uparrow} \cdot NO_2 VCD^{\uparrow}}{AMF^{\downarrow}},\tag{8}$$

Where  $AMF\uparrow$  and  $AMF\downarrow$  are AMF above and below aircraft, respectively, and  $NO_2 VCD\uparrow$  represents NO<sub>2</sub> VCD above the aircraft obtained from a chemical transport model (CTM). However, here we calculated NO<sub>2</sub> VCD↓ by dividing NO<sub>2</sub> SCDs by  $AMF\downarrow$  as the CMAQ only simulates the troposphere (surface to 50 hPa). However, as the stratospheric and free tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> ( $NO_2 VCD\uparrow$ ) column densities over megacities and industrial areas are much lower than tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> column densities, (Valks et al., 2011), we assume that the uncertainties in the *AMF* without considering the upper atmosphere are negligible in this study.

265

#### 266 2.5 Chemical model description

Vertical profiles from CMAQ (Byun and Ching, 1999; Byun and Schere, 2006), a CTM, were used to calculate AMFs. The CMAQ simulations were conducted with a horizontal resolution of  $15 \times 15$  km and had 27 vertical layers from the surface to 50 hPa. The meteorological fields were prepared using the advanced research Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) Advanced Research WRF (ARW) Model (Skamarock et al., 2008). Anthropogenic emissions were generated based on the KORUS v5.0 model (Woo et al., 2012), and biogenic emissions were simulated using the Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN v2.1; Guenther et al., 2006; 2012). Besides anthropogenic and biogenic emissions, the Fire Inventory from NCAR (FINN; Wiedinmyer et al., 2006, 2011) was used to update the pyrogenic emission fields.

- 274 The CMAQ AOD was calculated by integrating the aerosol extinction coefficient ( $Q_{ext}$ ), which is the sum of scattering ( $Q_{sca}$ )
- and absorption  $(Q_{abs})$  coefficients, over all vertical layers (z) as follows:
- 276  $AOD = \int Q_{ext}(z) dz = \int \{Q_{sca}(z) + Q_{abs}(z)\} dz,$  (9)

277 
$$Q_{abs}[Mm^{-1}] = \sum_{i} \sum_{j} \{ (1 - \omega_{ij}) \cdot \beta_{ij} \cdot f_{ij}(RH) \cdot [C]_{ij} \},$$
(10)

278 
$$Q_{sca}[Mm^{-1}] = \sum_{i} \sum_{j} \{ \omega_{ij} \cdot \beta_{ij} \cdot f_{ij}(RH) \cdot [C]_{ij} \},$$
(11)

Here,  $\omega_{ij}$  indicates SSA of particulate species i for the particulate mode (or size bin) j,  $\beta_{ij}$  denotes the mass extinction efficiency,  $f_{ij}(RH)$  is the hygroscopicity factor according to the relative humidity (RH), and [*C*]<sub>*ij*</sub> is the concentration of particulate species. CMAQ SSA is defined as the ratio of the integrated  $Q_{sca}$  to AOD, and NO<sub>2</sub> vertical profiles were obtained from NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations at each vertical layers by conducting CMAQ simulations. Details of the model descriptions and calculations of optical properties are given by Lee et al. (2020) and Malm and Hand (2007).

# 284 3 Results and discussion

# 285 3.1 NO<sub>2</sub> VCD retrieval

### 286 3.1.1 Seoul metropolitan region

We show the final NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs from 250 m spatial resolution. Because of NO<sub>2</sub> VCD, we selected the dates observed in both the morning and afternoon during the KORUS-AQ period over the Seoul metropolitan area, Busan, and Anmyeon. The retrieved dates for NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs were Jun 5, 9, and 10, 2016.

- 290 The population of the Seoul metropolitan region is approximately 20 million, which is approximately 40% of the total
- 291 population of South Korea. It is rare to obtain high-resolution horizontal NO<sub>2</sub> VCD distributions using airborne measurements
- 292 in the morning and afternoon, especially in Asian megacities. Figure 5 indicates tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs over Seoul on June
- 293 9 2016, at 9 AM and 3 PM local time (LT). Because of an issue with imaging systems, enlarged views (Fig. 5-Fig. 8) present
- <sup>294</sup> a slightly stripy appearance from the GeoTASO observation (Nowlan et al., 2016; Chong et al., 2020).



Figure 5. Tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCD, in the Seoul metropolitan region onJune 9, 2016, retrieved from GeoTASO: a) at 9 AM and b) at 3 PM. The red boxes represent expressways (counterclockwise from left to right, (1) Gyeongin Expressway, (2) Seohaean Expressway, and (3) Gyeongbu Expressway), the orange box indicates the industrial complex, and the blue boxes indicate the major cities (Seoul, Incheon, Suwon, Bucheon, Anyang, Gunpo, Sungnam, and Ansan) of the Seoul metropolitan region. Colors of the circles depict the NO<sub>2</sub> surface mixing ratio obtained from Air-Korea. The color arrows indicate the wind direction and speed at 1000 hPa over Seoul metropolitan region, obtained via the Unified Model (UM) simulations (background RGB image is from Google Earth; https://www.google.com/maps/).

304 In the morning, NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs retrieved from GeoTASO were highly correlated with expressways (red boxes in Fig. 5), such as the Gyeongin, Seohaean, and Gyeongbu Expressways, and over major cities with heavy traffic, such as Seoul, Bucheon, Ansan, 305 Anyang, and Suwon. GeoTASO observed NO<sub>2</sub> VCD values three-times higher ( $>3 \times 10^{16}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>) in these areas 306 compared to the surrounding rural areas. High NO<sub>2</sub> VCD values above  $6 \times 10^{16}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> were observed above the 307 Gyeongin Expressway, which has very heavy traffic in a relatively short section, and the Gunpo Complex Logistics zone, 308 where diesel vehicle traffic is also high. The main NO<sub>2</sub> source regions and the regions where high NO<sub>2</sub> VCD values were 309 observed were highly consistent at 9 AM because the wind speed at this time-as obtained from the unified model (UM) based 310 311 Regional Data Assimilation and Prediction System (RDAPS) of the Korea Meteorological Administration (KMA)-was as low as 0.1 ms<sup>-1</sup> and the average wind direction was 84.7° at 1000 hPa over Seoul metropolitan region. The average daily traffic 312 volume of these expressways exceeds 150,000 vehicles, and the total number of vehicles registered in these major cities is > 313 6,000,000, with an average daily mileage per car per day of over 38 km. Detailed information on these cities and expressways 314 is listed in Table 3 and 4. Based on the level of vehicular traffic, combustion using gasoline and diesel engines leads to high 315 316 overall emissions of NO<sub>2</sub> in the Seoul metropolitan region (Kendrick et al., 2015). 317 Table 3. The population, number of registered vehicles, and average mileage per car per day of the major cities in the Seoul 318 319 and Busan metropolitan region obtained from the Korean Statistical Information Service (https://kosis.kr/eng). Population Vehicle registration number Average mileage City (millions) (thousands) (km car-1 day-1) Seoul 9.776 3,083 37.1 Incheon 2.914 1,402 41.7 Bucheon 0.848 284 37.2 Ansan 0.744 289 40.8 Anyang 0.596 206 39.6 38.8 Gunpo 0.286 87

320

Suwon

Sungnam

Busan

Daegu

Changwon

Kimhae

1.241

0.994

3.389

2.450

1.080

0.529

# Table 4. Daily average traffic volume on the Gyeongin, Gyeongbu, and Seohaean Expressways obtained using the Traffic Monitoring System (https://www.road.re.kr).

467

358

1,295

1,121

551

250

38.1

36.3

40.1

37.1

37.5

38.0

Expressway	Daily average traffic volume
Gyeongin Expressway	162,369
Gyeongbu Expressway	173,413
Seohaean Expressway	150,298

- Compared to the data of the morning, the average wind speed and wind direction were 1.7 ms<sup>-1</sup> and 284.5° at 1000 hPa in the 324 afternoon and the afternoon had extremely high tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCD values (exceeding  $5 \times 10^{16}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>) in most of 325 the Seoul metropolitan regions including rural areas, whereas the NO2 mixing ratio (MR) obtained from Air-Korea decreases 326 327 in the afternoon. According to Tzortziou et al. (2018), similar results were retrieved from the Pandora site in Seoul, with higher afternoon NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs than in the morning. This result is because the amount of NO<sub>2</sub> produced by chemical conversion of nitric 328 329 oxide (NO) by O<sub>3</sub> and VOCs in the atmosphere, along with NOx generated by regional emissions (traffic) in the Seoul metropolitan region, is greater than the amount lost by photolysis and transport to nearby areas (Herman et al., 2018). 330 331 Furthermore, the increase in tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCD in the afternoon is likely due to the accumulation and dispersion of NO<sub>2</sub>
- 332 according to the height of the change in the planetary boundary layer (Ma et al., 2013).

#### 333 3.1.2 Industrial and power plant regions in Anmyeon



<sup>334</sup> 

335 Figure 6. a) Tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCD and b) NO<sub>2</sub> SCD retrieved from GeoTASO, and c) NO<sub>2</sub> AMF, native resolution (250 m) 336 calculated using VLIDORT over Anmyeon in South Korea on 5 June 2016. The colored arrows indicate wind speed and wind 337 direction at 850 hPa from the Unified Model (UM) simulations. The red circles and rectangle in panel (a) represent the major NO2 338 emission sources, such as steelworks and power plants (background RGB image is from Google Earth; 339 https://www.google.com/maps/).

340

341 The high spatial resolution of the tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCD from GeoTASO over the Anmyeon industrial region, where many industrial facilities and several power plants are distributed, is shown in Fig. 6. Panels a and b of this figure indicate the binned 342 343 tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCD and NO<sub>2</sub> SCD retrieved from GeoTASO L1B data, respectively, between 13:00 and 17:00 LT on June 5 2016. Panel c depicts the calculated AMF of NO2 from native resolution over the domain. GeoTASO observations detected 344 345 moderate and strong NO<sub>2</sub> emission sources in this area: (1) Boryeong power plant, (2) Hyundai integrated steelworks, (3) Dangjin power plant, (4) Daesan Petrochemical Complex, and (5) Taean Power Plant. High NO<sub>2</sub> VCD values (>  $5 \times 10^{16}$ 346 molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>) were observed over steel mill works, petrochemical complexes, and power plants, whereas values were 347 comparatively low ( $<1 \times 10^{16}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>) over small cities including Seosan, Dangjin, and Boryeong with populations of 348 349 less than 0.1 million, and the Seohaean Expressway. In 2016, the annual NOx emissions from Hyundai steelworks and the 350 Dangjin and Boryeong power plants were approximately 10.3, 11.9, and 16.8 kt year<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The NOx emission rates of major industrial facilities in the Anmyeon region are shown in Table 5.

- 351
- 352

Table 5. NOx emission rates in 2016 from major industrial facilities in the Anmyeon region obtained from the Continuous
 Emission Monitoring System of the Korea Environment Corporation (https://www.stacknsky.or.kr/eng/index.html).

Industrial facilities	NOx emission rate (kg year <sup>-1</sup> )
Boryeong power plant	16,788,438
Hyundai integrated steelworks	10,271,075
Dangjin power plant	11,852,972
Daesan petrochemical complex	3,397,939
Taean power plant	15,466,022

- 356 Figure 6 shows high NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations of the main industrial facilities in the Anmyeon region, where the combustion of
- 357 fossil fuel in factories and thermal power plants leads to high emissions (Prasad et al., 2012). Due to relatively sparse
- 358 distribution over rural areas, the Air-Korea measurements did not detect the major NO<sub>2</sub> plume as shown in Fig. 6a. Thus,
- 359 airborne remote sensing systems, such as GeoTASO, can effectively complement ground-based networks for monitoring minor
- 360 and major NOx emissions, particularly over these remote industrial regions.



Figure 7. Enlarged view of GeoTASO tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> SCD observation over a) Hyundai steel works, indicated by the red box in Figure 6, and b) the Boryeong power plant, indicated by the white box in Figure 6. The arrows represent the wind direction and speed at 850 hPa from the Unified Model (UM) simulations, respectively (background RGB image is from Google Earth; <u>https://www.google.com/maps/</u>).

366

- The GeoTASO data captured not only NOx emissions from the chimneys of steelworks and power plants but also its transport by the wind. Figure 7a and 7b show enlarged views of tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> SCD retrieved using GeoTASO over the Hyundai steelworks (red box in Fig. 6) and the Boryeong power plant (white box in Fig. 6). The arrows in Fig. 7 represent the prevailing wind direction and speed from RDAPS. NO<sub>2</sub> emitted from the chimneys of these sites was transported to the Yellow Sea, traveling distances of over 26.5 km at speeds of approximately 6 ms<sup>-1</sup>. According to Chong et al. (2020), similar results were
- 372 found for SO<sub>2</sub> emitted and transported from these sites.



Figure 8. Tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCD in the Busan metropolitan region in the (a) morning and (b) afternoon of June 10, 2016.
The wind speed (colors scale) and wind direction (arrows) at 1000 hPa pressure level were obtained from the Unified Model (UM)
simulations. The white boxes represent major cities such as Busan, Daegu, and Changwon. The orange box represents Busan
Newport (the background RGB image is from Google Earth; <u>https://www.google.com/maps/</u>).

379

380 Figure 8a and 8b show tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCD retrieved from the GeoTASO L1B data over the Busan metropolitan region on 381 June 10 2016 in the morning (between 08:00 and 11:00 LT) and afternoon (between 13:00 and 16:00 LT), respectively. The 382 arrows in Fig. 8 indicate the wind speed and wind direction of 1000 hPa obtained from the UM-RDAPS, with the average wind speed and wind direction of 0.9 ms<sup>-1</sup>, and 55.4°, 1.9 ms<sup>-1</sup> and 147.0°, respectively, in the morning and afternoon. High 383 NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs were observed above urban areas, port, industrial complexes, and the inter-city road between Busan and Changwon. 384 Like the Seoul metropolitan regions, combustion using gasoline and diesel engines is estimated to contribute to the high NOx 385 emission. In the morning, NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs were high (approximately  $3 \times 10^{16}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>) in the major cities and, especially, 386 around Busan Newport, with values exceeding  $7 \times 10^{16}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>. In comparison, in the mountainous regions between 387 Daegu and Busan, the NO<sub>2</sub> VCD values were less than  $1 \times 10^{16}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> during the same period. The spatial distribution 388 389 of tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs was like that in the Seoul metropolitan regions, with high values over major cities and roads 390 (compare Figs. 5 and 8). In Busan, fossil fuel combustion that uses both road vehicles and ships is likely to contribute to the 391 NOx emissions. In the afternoon, unlike the Seoul metropolitan region, tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCD over Busan decreased by over  $3 \times 10^{16}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>, which also corresponds with NO<sub>2</sub> MR data obtained from the Air-Korea sites. Detailed information 392 393 on these cities is listed in Table 3.

# 395 3.2 Error estimation

The accuracy of the NO<sub>2</sub> VCD retrieval using the DOAS method depends on both the AMF calculation and the spectral fitting error of the SCD retrieval. Retrieval errors of the NO<sub>2</sub> VCD were estimated using error propagation analysis as expressed in Eq. (12).

$$399 \quad \frac{\varepsilon_{VCD}}{_{VCD}} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\varepsilon_{SCD}}{_{SCD}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\varepsilon_{AMF}}{_{AMF}}\right)^2},\tag{12}$$

Where  $\varepsilon_{VCD}$  is the total error of NO<sub>2</sub> VCD. The error of NO<sub>2</sub> SCD ( $\varepsilon_{SCD}$ ) is obtained from the spectral fitting error of NO<sub>2</sub> SCD via the DOAS spectral fitting.  $\varepsilon_{AMF}$  indicates the error of NO<sub>2</sub> AMF caused by uncertainties in the model input parameters for AMF calculation. Uncertainties in aerosol properties (AOD, SSA, and <u>APH</u>) and surface reflectance for the RTM calculations are the major factors affecting NO<sub>2</sub> AMF accuracy (Boersma et al., 2004; Leitão et al., 2010; Hong et al., 2017). Therefore, in this present study, we quantified the NO<sub>2</sub> AMF errors ( $\varepsilon_{AMF}$ ) due to uncertainties in the input parameters independent of each other using Eq. (13):

$$406 \quad \varepsilon_{AMF} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial AMF}{\partial AOD}\right)^2 \sigma AOD^2 + \left(\frac{\partial AMF}{\partial SSA}\right)^2 \sigma SSA^2 + \left(\frac{\partial AMF}{\partial ALH}\right)^2 \sigma ALH^2 + \left(\frac{\partial AMF}{\partial SFR}\right)^2 \sigma SFR^2} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^4 \left(\frac{\partial AMF}{\partial \chi_i}\right)^2 \sigma_{\chi_i}^2}, \tag{13}$$

where  $\frac{\partial AMF}{\partial \chi_i}$  are partial derivatives of NO<sub>2</sub> AMF regarding the input parameters ( $\chi_i$ ),  $\sigma_{\chi i}$  represents the uncertainty of the  $\chi_i$ . The 407  $\sigma$  of AOD, SSA, surface reflectance, and APH are assumed to be 30% (Ahn et al., 2014), 0.04 (Jethva et al., 2014), 0.005 + 408 409  $0.05 \times$  surface reflectance (EOS Land Validation; https://landval.gsfc.nasa.gov), and 1 km (Fishman et al., 2012), respectively, in this study. To derive  $\left(\frac{\partial AMF}{\partial \chi_i}\right)^2$ , the true  $\chi_i$  is input to the RTM to simulate 'true' NO<sub>2</sub> AMF. For the AOD, SSA, APH, and 410 surface reflectance (SFR), perturbed NO<sub>2</sub> AMF was simulated using RTM with  $\chi_i \pm \sigma \chi_i$ .  $\partial \chi_i$  denotes the difference between the 411 'centre'  $\chi_i$  and  $\chi_i \pm \sigma \chi_i$ , and  $\partial AMF$  is the difference between the 'centre' NO<sub>2</sub> AMF (AMF<sub>centre</sub>) simulated with 'centre' input 412 values and the perturbed NO<sub>2</sub> AMF (AMF<sub>perturbed</sub>) simulated using the perturbed input parameters  $\chi_i \pm \sigma \chi_i$  (i.e. the original input 413 414 parameters modified by the uncertainty). The simulation for calculating the  $\varepsilon_{AMF}$  was conducted using the input parameters on 9 June 2016. 415

416

417 Table 6. Total NO<sub>2</sub> VCD caused by uncertainties in NO<sub>2</sub> SCD and NO<sub>2</sub> AMF (the average for the flight on June 9, 2016).

NO2 AMF errors	AOD	2.8%	
	SSA	4.1%	
	Aerosol <mark>peak</mark> height	22.3%	
	Surface reflectance	2.8%	
	Total NO <sub>2</sub> AMF error	23.3%	
	NO <sub>2</sub> SCD error	11.7%	
	NO <sub>2</sub> VCD error	26.9%	

Table 6 lists the estimated NO<sub>2</sub> VCD error on June 9 2016 for each source based on the error propagation method. The error estimation was conducted for the pixels where root mean square residual < 0.001 and NO<sub>2</sub> VCD >  $5 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> since NO<sub>2</sub> SCD precision is reported to be highly decreased in low NO<sub>2</sub> conditions (Hong et al., 2017). The total NO<sub>2</sub> VCD error was 26.9% with a high portion of NO<sub>2</sub> AMF error. The NO<sub>2</sub> SCD error was calculated to be 11.7%, showing the

importance of accurate DOAS spectral fitting for deriving NO<sub>2</sub> SCD. The total AMF error due to uncertainties in the input 423 424 parameters was calculated to be 23.3%. Among model input parameters, the effect of APH on NO<sub>2</sub> AMF becomes high (22.3%), 425 indicating the importance of accurate aerosol profile information. APH sensitively affects NO<sub>2</sub> AMF because near the surface 426 where trace gases and aerosols are well mixed, aerosols lead to multiple scattering effects and the light absorption of trace gases is due to increasing light path (Castellanos et al., 2015; Hong et al., 2017). Especially, APH can be the most important 427 428 input parameter in the Asia region where high loadings of aerosol plumes persist throughout the year. The NO<sub>2</sub> AMF 429 calculation errors due to uncertainties in SSA and AOD were 4.1% and 2.8%, respectively. The NO<sub>2</sub> AMF calculation error 430 due to uncertainties in aerosol optical properties (SSA and AOD) appears to be smaller than those in a previous study (Leitão 431 et al., 2010). The smaller effect of the aerosol properties can be explained by the moderate aerosol loading (AOD = 0.40) on 432 the day of flight day. The NO<sub>2</sub> AMF errors become larger under high AOD conditions. The smallest effect of SRF was found on NO<sub>2</sub> AMF calculation error, which was calculated based on the uncertainty of the SRF of the satellite-based product 433 (MODIS). Therefore, it may be an unrealistic number for the airborne NO<sub>2</sub> AMF calculation. Once the uncertainty of airborne-434 435 based SRF is provided, considering its measurement geometry and finer spatial resolution, more realistic airborne-based  $NO_2$ 436 AMF calculation error due to uncertainties in SRF can be estimated. The can of the *a priori* NO<sub>2</sub> profile shape also be a factor 437 to cause calculation error for NO<sub>2</sub> AMF, as reported in previous studies (Leitão et al., 2010, Meier et al., 2016, Hong et al., 438 2017). Therefore, it is necessary to calculate the contribution of the shape of the NO<sub>2</sub> profile *a priori* on the accuracy of NO<sub>2</sub> 439 AMF in the future. Moreover, the resulting uncertainties of input parameters of a GeoTASO ground pixel need to be considered 440 by combining the initial uncertainties of CTM and satellite-based products, and by the variability of the parameters within the 441 respective CTM (AOD, SSA, and APH) and satellite (SFR) grid box. If values such as SFR are assumed constant over larger 442 areas, the fundamental spatial variability in this these data increases the uncertainty of the AMF and hence of the determined 443  $NO_2$  VCD on the respective finer spatial scale. In addition, the uncertainty from the assumption on the SC<sub>0</sub> and the uncertainty from ignoring the NO<sub>2</sub> above the aircraft in the AMF calculations are needed to be considered in the error analysis. This 444 445 analysis should be considered in further study.

446  $AMF_{percent\_change} = \frac{AMF_{perturbed} - AMF_{centre}}{AMF_{centre}} \times 100,$ 

(14)



447

Figure 9. Percent change between AMF calculated using the CMAQ model simulation and those using a) 30% lower AOD,
b) 30% higher AOD, c) 0.04 lower SSA, d) 1km higher APH, compared to the model outputs. The percentage change for AMF
calculated using MODIS data and those using e) 0.005 + 0.05 × SFR lower SFR, f) 0.005 + 0.05 × SFR higher SFR (background
RGB image is from Google Earth; https://www.google.com/maps/).

In this study, we also investigated the spatial distribution of AMF calculation errors associated with uncertainties in aerosol 453 properties (AOD, SSA, and APH) and SFR. The percent change in NO<sub>2</sub> AMF (AMF<sub>percent change</sub>) was calculated on each spatial 454 455 pixel using Eq. (14). Figure 9a and 9b indicate the percentage change error between the calculated AMFs using the CMAQ AOD data with 30% lower (Fig. 9a) and 30% higher (Fig. 9b) values, respectively. The AMF decreased and increased by up 456 to 10% with decreasing and increasing AOD, respectively, in the Seoul metropolitan region. We estimated that, under low 457 458 aerosol loading conditions, an increase in AOD near the surface leads to an increase in the scattering probability within the 459 surface layer with high NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Figure 9c indicates the percent change error between the calculated AMFs using 460 CMAQ SSA data with a 0.04 lower value. The AMF decreased with decreasing SSA because the absorption of light increased. APH was also found to highly affect the accuracy of the AMF calculations (Fig. 9d). The APH uncertainty of 1 km decreased 461 the AMFs with an average  $AMF_{percent\_change}$  of -25% on the flight day. Especially, on the pixels where AOD > 0.6, the average 462  $AMF_{percent_change}$  was found to be -26% whereas that was -27% on the pixels where AOD < 0.4, showing the combined effect 463 of aerosol loading and aerosol profile shape on the NO<sub>2</sub> AMF calculations. Figure 9e and 9f indicate the percentage change 464

- 465 error between the calculated AMFs using the MODIS surface reflectance data with  $0.005 + 0.05 \times SFR$  lower (Fig. 9e) and
- $466 \quad 0.005 + 0.05 \times SFR$  higher (Fig. 9f) values, respectively. The AMF decreased by approximately 3% when the SFR decreases,

467 and vice versa when it increased.

#### 468 3.3 Validation of NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs retrieved from GeoTASO

- 469 The tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs retrieved from GeoTASO L1B data (NO<sub>2,G</sub>) were compared with those obtained from OMI total
- 470 NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs (NO<sub>2.0</sub>) and Pandora (NO<sub>2.P</sub>). The NO<sub>2.0</sub> were only available for June 10 during the campaign period. Therefore,
- 471 we compared only 48 NO<sub>2,G</sub> and NO<sub>2,O</sub> data points within a radius of 20 km and 30 min, which yielded a correlation coefficient
- 472 of 0.48 with a slope of 0.13 (Fig. 10 a). To validate, All NO<sub>2.G</sub> within a radius 20 km of the OMI center coordinate were
- 473 averaged.
- 474 The NO<sub>2</sub> values are relatively low, as GeoTASO observation is conducted in a region with low NO<sub>2</sub> compared to the Seoul
- 475 metropolitan and the overpass time of OMI is approximately 13:30 LT when NO<sub>2</sub> decreased. The low slope value is because
- 476 the OMI with low spatial resolution does not reflect the spatial NO<sub>2</sub> inhomogeneity in the pixel.



477

Figure 10. Scatter plots of a) NO<sub>2</sub> VCD retrieved from GeoTASO and total NO<sub>2</sub> VCD obtained from OMI and b) total NO<sub>2</sub> VCD
 obtained from Pandora and NO<sub>2</sub> VCD retrieved from GeoTASO, respectively.

480

To compare NO<sub>2.G</sub> data, we made a comparison with total NO<sub>2</sub> VCD obtained from the Pandora system (NO<sub>2,P</sub>) during the 481 482 KORUS-AQ campaign period. NO<sub>2,P</sub> obtained from Busan University, Olympic Park, Songchon, Yeoju, and Yonsei University Pandora sites on June 5, 9, and 10 were used for the GeoTASO validation (Fig. 1). NO<sub>2,G</sub> and NO<sub>2,P</sub> columns at these sites are 483 484 compared in Fig. 11. To compare NO<sub>2,G</sub> and NO<sub>2,P</sub>, we used averaged NO<sub>2,G</sub> retrieved from 16 across tracks with the smallest 485 viewing zenith angle and averaged 30 min  $NO_2$  obtained from pandora measurement within a radius of approximately 0.05°. 486 NO<sub>2.G</sub> and NO<sub>2.P</sub> were correlated (R = 0. 91, with a slope of 0.60), however, when NO<sub>2.P</sub> was lower than 1 × 10<sup>16</sup> molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>, the correlation coefficient between NO<sub>2,G</sub> and NO<sub>2,P</sub> was < 0.1. The weak correlation at low NO<sub>2</sub> levels most likely 487 488 reflects differences in viewing geometries and the horizontal inhomogeneity of the measured NO<sub>2</sub> between Pandora and GeoTASO. Furthermore, Pandora and GeoTASO can be used for the NO<sub>2</sub> validation of geostationary satellites, such as GEMS. 489 However, because the number of pandora is limited in this campaign, we difficulty validating NO<sub>2</sub> retrieved from GeoTASO 490 491 under various conditions. Many ground-based remote sensing measurements are needed to validate GEMS under various 492 conditions.

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- 494
- 495



496

Figure 11. Scatter plot of the NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs retrieved from GeoTASO, and NO<sub>2</sub> surface mixing ratio obtained from Air-Korea. The black and red squares represent the NO<sub>2</sub> data at 9 AM and 3 PM (local time) in the Seoul metropolitan region, respectively. The black and red triangles represent those in the morning and afternoon, over Busan, respectively.

501

502 To compare the spatiotemporal distribution of NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs retrieved from GeoTASO, NO<sub>2,G</sub> compared with surface spatial 503 patterns, NO<sub>2,G</sub> was compared with NO<sub>2,A</sub> for GeoTASO data within a radius of approximately 0.05 km and 30 min (Fig. 11). To compare NO<sub>2,G</sub> and NO<sub>2,A</sub>, we used averaged NO<sub>2,G</sub> retrieved from 16 across tracks and averaged 30 min within a radius of 504 505 0.05°. Because in situ measurements provide NO<sub>2</sub> VMR (NO<sub>2,A</sub>)(ppmv) once per hour, NO<sub>2,A</sub> of the nearest time is used to compare with NO<sub>2,G</sub>. The correlation coefficient (R) between NO<sub>2,G</sub> (molecules cm<sup>2</sup>) and NO<sub>2,A</sub> at 9 AM and 3 PM LT in the 506 507 Seoul metropolitan region was 0.07 and 0.26, respectively. When using only roadside station data from Air-Korea, the R-value for the morning increased to 0.72, which implies GeoTASO is more sensitive to emissions from NO<sub>2</sub> source areas, such as 508 roadsides (Fig. 5). Because the comparison, there were large differences in the morning and afternoon. These results were 509 510 identified because synoptic meteorology played an important role from June 1 to June 10, 2016 (Choi et al., 2019). As described by Judd et al. (2018), the spatial distribution for NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs appears to reflect the emission source in local industrialized regions 511 512 and transportations in the morning with relatively weak winds. NO<sub>2</sub> concentration often increases in the late morning, 513 indicating that the emission process proceeds faster than the  $NO_2$  removal process. As the planetary boundary layer heights 514 (PBLH) in early afternoon increase and surface NO<sub>2</sub> is mixed through a deeper PBLH, the NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs distribution showed a 515 wider increase in most of the Seoul metropolitan area and the column amounts continue to increase (Judd et al., 2018).

516 When comparing NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs with surface NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, it should be highlighted that it is a nonlinear relationship 517 between NO<sub>2,G</sub> and NO<sub>2,A</sub>. Although it may vary depending on weather conditions, high NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs from airborne observations 518 can sometimes be detected with low surface NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. When exhaust gases emitted from industrial facilities occur 519 at a certain altitude (stacks/chimneys), NO<sub>2,G</sub> show high NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs, but NO<sub>2,A</sub> may be observed to have a low concentration. 520 Unfortunately, in the Anmyeon industrial region, NO<sub>2,G</sub> and NO<sub>2,A</sub> could not be compared due to spatial restrictions because 521 the distribution of ground observation stations is concentrated in metropolitan areas.

In the Busan metropolitan area, the R-value of the  $NO_{2,G}$  and  $NO_{2,A}$  data had a correlation coefficient greater than 0.56. This reflects the more even horizontal distribution of  $NO_2$  in the afternoon, when diffusion from the source areas had occurred. However, for a more accurate comparison,  $NO_2$  VCD data should be converted to  $NO_2$  MR based on mixing layer height, temperature, and pressure profile data (Kim et al., 2017; Qin et al., 2017; Jeong and Hong, 2021a). However, because the

526 number of pandora and satellite data is limited in this campaign, we had difficulties in validating NO<sub>2</sub> retrieved from GeoTASO

527 under various conditions. Because ground-based, airborne and space borne remote sensing measurements have their own

528 advantages and disadvantages, it is recommended a comprehensive observation campaign involving all of ground-based,

529 airborne and space-borne measurements should be conducted continuously for the upcoming new era of geostationary

530 environmental satellites.

# 531 4 Conclusions

532 For the first time, we have retrieved NO<sub>2</sub> VCD data using airborne GeoTASO observations over the Seoul metropolitan 533 region-one of the most populous cities worldwide, the Busan metropolitan region-the second-largest city in South Korea, 534 and Anmyeon, with thermal power plants and industrial complexes. By retrieving NO<sub>2</sub> data using GeoTASO L1B radiance, it 535 was possible to observe the spatial distribution of  $NO_2$  in these metropolitan and industrial regions. In the morning, 536 tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCD in Seoul showed a strong horizontal gradient between rural and urban areas. In urban areas, tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCD was high, with values exceeding  $3 \times 10^{16}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>; in rural areas, values were typically below 537  $1 \times 10^{16}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>. Extremely high values over  $10 \times 10^{16}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> were also observed in both rural and urban 538 areas. In Anmyeon, GeoTASO observations showed that NO<sub>2</sub> is mainly emitted from the chimneys of industrial complexes 539 540 and thermal power plants, and subsequently transported by wind approximately 30 km to the Yellow Sea on the west coast of 541 the Korean Peninsula. In the Busan metropolitan region, in the morning, tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs showed a pattern similar to 542 the Seoul metropolitan region, with high values above the inter-city road. However, unlike Seoul, tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs in 543 Busan decreased in the afternoon due to local different weather conditions locally.

To compare the data retrieved from the GeoTASO system, we compared NO<sub>2,G</sub> with NO<sub>2,O</sub> obtained from the OMI, NO<sub>2,A</sub> obtained from Air-Korea, and NO<sub>2,P</sub> obtained from the Pandora observation system. When the distance between two observations was below 20 km or  $0.05^{\circ}$  within 30 min, the correlation coefficients were relatively high (R = 0.48, and 0.91, respectively). However, the correlation between NO<sub>2,G</sub> and NO<sub>2,A</sub> over the Seoul metropolitan region was extremely weak (R = 0.07) in the morning because of the more pronounced NO<sub>2</sub> horizontal gradient.

549 The GeoTASO system successfully observed NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs with high horizontal spatial resolution for both metropolitan and 550 industrial regions. This demonstrates that airborne remote sensing measurements from GeoTASO, similar to GCAS, APEX 551 and others, can be an effective tool for the validation of trace gases retrieved from environmental satellites, including the OMI, 552 TROPOMI, and GOME-2; these systems can obtain high-resolution measurements over relatively wide areas. However, to 553 validate geostationary environmental satellites with higher spatiotemporal resolutions, such as the GEMS, TEMPO, and 554 sentinel-4, additional validation strategies are needed. Based on error estimation, it can be concluded that aerosol properties 555 are relevant and should be determined and NO<sub>2</sub> vertical profile retrieval performed using, for example, LIDAR, MAX-DOAS, and sondes. This is important because the accuracy of aerosol properties, surface reflectance and the  $NO_2$  vertical profiles 556 affects the accuracy of AMF calculations (Leitão et al., 2010; Hong et al., 2017; Lorente et al., 2017; Boersma et al., 2018). 557 558 Furthermore, as we observed in the Seoul metropolitan area, closer spaced observations using ground-based remote sensing 559 systems and in situ measurements are needed as NO<sub>2</sub> displays large horizontal gradients, especially in the morning.

#### 560 Author contributions

561 GH and HH designed and implemented the research. KL provided the CTM data. GH developed the code for model running

562 and performed the RTM simulations. HH and UJ contributed to the analysis of ground-based data. GH and WC conducted

563 the sensitivity test. GH, KL, HH, UJ, WC, and JJS revised and edited the paper. HH, UJ, and WC provided constructive

564 comments. All authors contributed to this works.

# 565 Competing interests

566 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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