

# 1 Estimation of NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> Emissions from Sarnia, Ontario 2 using Mobile-MAX-DOAS and a NO<sub>x</sub>-Analyzer

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13 **Abstract.** Sarnia, ON experiences pollutant emissions disproportionate to its relatively small size. The small size of  
14 the city limits traditional top-down emission estimate techniques (e.g., satellite) but a low-cost solution for emission  
15 monitoring is Mobile-MAX-DOAS. Measurements were made using this technique from 21/03/2017 to 23/03/2017  
16 along various driving routes to retrieve vertical column densities (VCDs) of NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> and to estimate emissions  
17 of NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> from the Sarnia region. A novel aspect of the current study was the installation of a NO<sub>x</sub> analyzer in  
18 the vehicle to allow real time measurement and characterization of near-surface NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratios across the urban  
19 plumes, allowing improved accuracy of NO<sub>x</sub> emission estimates. Confidence in the use of near-surface measured  
20 NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratios for estimation of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions was increased by relatively well-mixed boundary layer conditions.  
21 These conditions were indicated by similar temporal trends in NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs and mixing ratios when measurements  
22 were sufficiently distant from the sources. Leighton ratios within transported plumes indicated peroxy radicals were  
23 likely disturbing the NO-NO<sub>2</sub>-O<sub>3</sub> photostationary state through VOC oxidation. The average lower limit emission  
24 estimate of NO<sub>x</sub> from Sarnia was  $1.60 \pm 0.34$  tonnes hr<sup>-1</sup> using local 10 m elevation wind-speed measurements. Our  
25 estimates were larger than the downscaled annual 2017 NPRI reported industrial emissions of 0.9 tonnes NO<sub>x</sub> hr<sup>-1</sup>.  
26 Our lower limit estimate of SO<sub>2</sub> emissions from Sarnia was  $1.81 \pm 0.83$  tonnes SO<sub>2</sub> hr<sup>-1</sup>, equal within uncertainty to  
27 the 2017 NPRI downscaled value of 1.85 tonnes SO<sub>2</sub> hr<sup>-1</sup>. Satellite-derived NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs over Sarnia from the Ozone  
28 Monitoring Instrument (OMI) were lower than Mobile-MAX-DOAS VCDs, likely due to the large pixel size  
29 relative to the city's size. The results of this study support the utility of the Mobile-MAX-DOAS method for

30 estimating NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> emissions in relatively small, highly industrialized regions especially when supplemented  
31 with mobile NO<sub>x</sub> measurements.

## 32 **1 Introduction**

33 Differential Optical Absorption Spectroscopy (DOAS) is a remote sensing technique that quantifies tropospheric  
34 trace-gases using light spectra and the unique spectral absorption cross sections of trace-gases. DOAS has been used  
35 since its introduction by (Platt et al., 1979) to measure small molecular species including NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, OH, BrO, NO<sub>3</sub>,  
36 NH<sub>3</sub>, ClO and others. One advantage of the technique is the potential for simultaneous quantification of multiple  
37 trace-gases (e.g., SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>) (Platt et al., 2008). The Multi-Axis DOAS (MAX-DOAS) method allows sensitive  
38 quantification of tropospheric pollutants by measuring scattered sunlight spectra at multiple viewing directions  
39 and/or elevation angles. Spectra measured at elevation angles close to horizon-pointing have high sensitivity to  
40 ground-level gases since the light paths are longer near the surface (Hönninger et al., 2004). Ground-based MAX-  
41 DOAS measurements quantify total boundary layer pollution loading by determining tropospheric vertical column  
42 densities (VCDs) of trace-gases. These measurements are, therefore, well suited to measuring total emissions into  
43 an air mass. VCDs are independent of boundary layer height, unlike mixing ratios, and are spatially averaged  
44 (horizontally and vertically) on the order of a few kilometres along the light path. Ground-based MAX-DOAS can  
45 also retrieve vertical profiles of aerosol extinction and trace-gases by combining MAX-DOAS data with radiative  
46 transfer modelling (Friess et al., 2006; Heckel et al., 2005; Hönninger et al., 2004; Hönninger and Platt, 2002; Irie et  
47 al., 2008; Wagner et al., 2004, 2011).

48 The recently developed Mobile-MAX-DOAS technique allows measurement of trace-gas emissions from a region of  
49 interest by driving the instrument around the region. The method can estimate emissions on a nearly hourly basis in  
50 a region with a spatial resolution of ~1 km. Mobile MAX-DOAS has been used to estimate NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from a  
51 shipping and industrial areas (Rivera et al., 2010), power-plants (Wu et al., 2017) and cities (Ibrahim et al., 2010;  
52 Shaiganfar et al., 2011, 2017), validate satellite and air quality modelled VCDs (Dragomir et al., 2015; Shaiganfar et  
53 al., 2015), estimate surface NO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios from NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs (Shaiganfar et al., 2011), and determine the  
54 horizontal variability of trace-gas VCDs within satellite pixels (Wagner et al., 2010). Mobile-MAX-DOAS is a “top-  
55 down” approach for quantifying real-world emissions that can be used to validate “bottom-up” emission inventories  
56 (Shaiganfar et al., 2011).

57 Sarnia, Ontario, a small Canadian city, experiences pollutant emissions due to a large number of industrial chemical  
58 and oil processing facilities, vehicular exhaust from the Canada-U.S.A. international border crossing, emissions  
59 from large ships travelling through the St Clair River, vehicular traffic, residential heating and other anthropogenic  
60 emissions from the city populace, and transnational air pollution from Ohio, Illinois and Michigan (Oiamo et al.,  
61 2011). These sources contribute to increased levels of air pollutants such as  $\text{NO}_x$ , VOC's and  $\text{SO}_2$ , which are  
62 precursors of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  and  $\text{O}_3$  (Ministry of the Environment and Climate Change, 2015). Traditional "top-down"  
63 methods for quantifying pollutant emissions from small cities (e.g., satellite monitoring, aircraft studies) are limited  
64 by the small footprint. Additionally, in-situ air quality monitoring stations are limited by the bias towards near-  
65 surface emissions and under-sampling of elevated emissions (Tokarek et al., 2018).

66 The Mobile-MAX-DOAS method has advantages over satellite, aircraft and in-situ techniques. Major advantages  
67 over satellite techniques include 1) emissions can be estimated without the need for an a-priori vertical profile, 2)  
68 accuracy of estimates can increase rather than decrease for smaller source regions, and 3) emissions may be  
69 estimated many times per day. Satellite retrievals are useful for estimating "top-down" emissions on regional and  
70 global scales over long periods of time (Huang et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2016; McLinden et al.,  
71 2012). However, accuracy over small regions can be limited by insufficient pixel resolution due to horizontal  
72 averaging and retrieval reliance on modelled a-priori vertical profiles that may not resolve small regions (Heckel et  
73 al., 2011). Aircraft studies can quantify emissions from cities but are relatively expensive. The major advantage of  
74 emissions estimates using aircraft measurements is that one can in principle fully characterize the vertical profile of  
75 trace gas concentration as well as the vertical profile of wind vectors for an accurate horizontal flux measurement  
76 downwind of a source (Baray et al., 2018; Gordon et al., 2015). Major advantages of the Mobile-MAX-DOAS  
77 method over aircraft techniques are that 1) MAX-DOAS VCDs are already vertically integrated, reducing the  
78 uncertainties due to interpolation of measurements at multiple flight altitudes and 2) MAX-DOAS studies are  
79 logistically easier to conduct. However one is still left with the uncertainty of the vertical profile of wind vector  
80 fields. The Mobile-MAX-DOAS technique is a solution for quantifying pollutant emissions that complements the  
81 aforementioned techniques as well as in-situ monitoring, through the ability to observe localized surface based and  
82 elevated emissions.

83 An uncertainty associated with MAX-DOAS and satellite methods when estimating  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions from  $\text{NO}_2$   
84 measurements is the assumptions concerning the  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  relationship in the air mass, which can be variable both  
85 spatially and temporally. The  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratio is often assumed to be spatially constant, taken from literature based on  
86 the season, estimated using atmospheric modelling or occasionally taken from aircraft measurements when available  
87 (Rivera et al., 2010). In this study, we combined the Mobile-MAX-DOAS method with simultaneous mobile  $\text{NO}_x$   
88 measurements ( $\text{NO}$ ,  $\text{NO}_2$ ,  $\text{NO}_x$ ) to increase knowledge of the  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratio in the air mass spatially and temporally  
89 in order to improve the accuracy of the  $\text{NO}_x$  emission estimates obtained from  $\text{NO}_2$  measurements. A stationary  
90 modular meteorological station was deployed in the airshed provided auxiliary meteorological information, typically  
91 a major source of uncertainty in Mobile-MAX-DOAS emission estimations. Hourly wind data measured at 10 m  
92 elevation (agl) were also available from local, permanent monitoring stations. Vertical wind profiles were modelled  
93 in high resolution (1 km x 1 km) using the version 3.9.1 Weather Research and Forecasting model (WRF) centred on  
94 Sarnia (42.9745° N, 82.4066° W) in an attempt to improve upon emissions values calculated using near-surface  
95 wind-speed, since wind-speeds are expected to increase with altitude. However, inter-comparison of WRF modelled  
96 winds with measured near-surface winds during the study period indicated poor model performance (see  
97 Supplement S2.2 for detailed results). Emissions in this study were therefore calculated using the 10 m measured  
98 winds to provide lower limit estimates of the hourly emissions.

99 Our study objectives were to 1) examine the relationship between the  $\text{NO}_2$  near-ground mixing ratios and the  $\text{NO}_2$   
100 tropospheric VCDs, 2) determine  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{SO}_2$  emissions from the city of Sarnia including industrial sources, 3)  
101 determine the impact of  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  variability on the accuracy of  $\text{NO}_x$  emission estimates, and 4) examine OMI  
102 satellite intrapixel  $\text{NO}_2$  homogeneity. This study aims to demonstrate the utility of this method for determining  
103 trace-gas emissions and monitoring pollutant transportation in Sarnia and similar urban/industrial areas.

## 104 **2 Experimental**

### 105 **2.1 Location and Instruments**

106 Measurements were conducted in and around the city of Sarnia (42.9745° N, 82.4066° W), located in southwestern  
107 Ontario, Canada at the border with Port Huron, MI, U.S.A (Fig.1). The routes driven in the vehicle aimed to capture  
108 major  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{SO}_2$  emission sources at different distances downwind, dependent on the prevailing wind conditions.

109 The metro area has a population of ~72,000 (2016 census) and an area of ~165 km<sup>2</sup>. Sources of air pollution in this  
110 region include emissions from large ships, anthropogenic emissions from the cities of Sarnia and Port Huron,  
111 transport from the cities of Windsor and Detroit (60 km SW), the St Clair and Belle River power-plants (20 km  
112 SSW), oil refineries and chemical industry in Sarnia, and the cross-border traffic between Canada and the U.S.A.  
113 along Highway 402. Emissions from ships along the St. Clair River, normally a major source, were absent during  
114 the time of our study since the canal had not opened for the season.

115 A mini-MAX-DOAS instrument (Hoffmann Messtechnik GmbH) measured scattered sunlight spectra during three  
116 days: 21/03/2017 to 23/03/2017 (“Days 1 to 3”) while mounted on top of a car in a backwards pointing direction.  
117 The instrument has a sealed metal box containing entrance optics, UV fibre coupled spectrometer and electronics.  
118 Incident light is focused on a cylindrical quartz lens (focal length = 40 mm) into a quartz fibre optic that transmits  
119 light into the spectrometer (OceanOptics USB2000) with a field of view approximately 0.6°. The spectrometer has a  
120 spectral range of 290-433 nm, a 50µm wide entrance slit yielding a spectral resolution was ~0.6 nm. The  
121 spectrometer is cooled and stabilized by a Peltier cooler. Spectrometer data was transferred to a laptop computer via  
122 USB cable. Spectra were obtained with an integration time of ~1 minute with the continuously repeating sequence  
123 of viewing elevation angles (30°, 30°, 30°, 30°, 40°, 90°). The vehicle was driven at a low but safe target speed of 50  
124 km hr<sup>-1</sup> when possible to provide a spatial resolution of ~ 1 km, but speeds were occasionally up to 80 km hr<sup>-1</sup> when  
125 necessary. Tropospheric VCDs were estimated from the 30° and 40° elevation angle spectra. The 40° spectra allow  
126 verification that aerosol levels were sufficiently low to determine VCDs without radiative transfer modelling since  
127 VCDs obtained from both angles should be equal within ±15% under low to moderate aerosol loading conditions  
128 (Wagner et al., 2010). The cool temperatures in March aided in this as secondary organic aerosol loading tends to be  
129 low in this season due to an absence of biogenic emissions.

130 A Model 42 chemiluminescence NO-NO<sub>2</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub> Analyzer (Thermo Environmental Instruments Inc.) mounted in the  
131 vehicle measured NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, and NO<sub>x</sub> (NO+NO<sub>2</sub>) near-surface mixing ratios. A PTFE inlet tube (5m length and  
132 ID=1/4”) was mounted above the front vehicle window on the passenger side (~1.5 m above ground). The  
133 instrument alternately recorded average NO-NO<sub>2</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub> mixing ratios with a temporal resolution of 1 minute. Most of  
134 the routes were driven downwind of Sarnia on rural remote roads with little to no traffic such that NO<sub>x</sub> emissions  
135 from other vehicles were not a concern. When NO<sub>x</sub> from other vehicles was a potential concern, data was filtered

136 out via careful note taking. The instrument indirectly measures NO<sub>2</sub> by subtracting the NO chemiluminescence  
137 signal obtained when air bypasses a heated Molybdenum (Mo) convertor from the successive total NO<sub>x</sub>  
138 chemiluminescence signal obtained when air passes over the Mo-convertor. The NO<sub>x</sub> analyzer can overestimate NO<sub>x</sub>  
139 and NO<sub>2</sub> due to the potential contribution of other non-NO<sub>x</sub> reactive nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>z</sub>) other than NO<sub>2</sub> that can  
140 also be reduced to NO by the Mo converter (HNO<sub>3</sub>, HONO, organic nitrates, etc.), leading to an overestimation  
141 (Dunlea et al., 2007). Since this overestimation is more important in low NO<sub>x</sub> regions, only data with NO<sub>x</sub> mixing  
142 ratios > 3 ppb were used. Mixing ratios of <3ppb NO<sub>2</sub> were only measured outside of plume-impacted regions when  
143 NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs were also low. The potential error in NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratios is addressed further in section 3.2. NO<sub>x</sub> mixing  
144 ratios can also have an error when successive NO and NO<sub>x</sub> measurements occurred in areas with a significant  
145 temporal gradient in the NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. Such gradients were seen due to passing vehicles or localized industrial  
146 NO<sub>x</sub> plumes. These data were removed based on records of passing vehicles and other local near-surface sources or  
147 whenever the NO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios were reported as negative. Few data points were removed because the routes driven  
148 were primarily rural roads with extremely low traffic density.

149 Aura satellite Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) data were obtained for overpasses of the Sarnia, Ontario area for  
150 Days 1 and 3. Tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs are the NASA Standard Product Version 3.0 with AMFs recalculated using  
151 the Environment and Climate Change Canada regional air quality forecast model GEM-MACH. The OMI  
152 instrument makes UV-vis solar backscatter radiation measurements with a spatial resolution of 13x24 km<sup>2</sup> at nadir  
153 and up to 28x150 km<sup>2</sup> at swath edges (Ialongo et al., 2014). The NO<sub>2</sub> detection limit of OMI is 5×10<sup>14</sup> molec cm<sup>-2</sup>  
154 (Ialongo et al., 2016). The OMI data used were screened for row anomalies that have affected OMI data since June  
155 2007 (Boersma et al., 2007).

## 156 **2.2 MAX-DOAS Determination of VCDs**

157 Trace-gas Differential Slant Column Densities (DSCDs) were obtained using the DOAS technique (Platt et al.,  
158 2008) with the spectral fitting range of 410-435 nm for NO<sub>2</sub> at 293 K and 307.5-318 nm for SO<sub>2</sub> at 293 K. All trace-  
159 gas cross-sections used were from (Bogumil et al., 2003). For both gases, spectral fits also included a Fraunhofer  
160 Reference Spectrum (FRS), Ring Spectrum created from the FRS, O<sub>3</sub> cross-sections at 223 K and 297 K, and a  
161 third-order polynomial. The NO<sub>2</sub> cross-section was included in the SO<sub>2</sub> fits. Formaldehyde (HCHO) was not  
162 included in the fits for SO<sub>2</sub> as it was expected to be very low, and did not affect the residuals for the SO<sub>2</sub> fits. NO<sub>2</sub>

163 DSCDs from Day 1 were fit against a single, same-day FRS obtained in a low-pollutant region near solar-noon time.  
 164 These DSCDs were corrected for SCD(FRS) and SCD(Solar Zenith Angle (SZA)) contributions using the  $DSCD_{offset}$   
 165 method (Wagner et al., 2010). The SCD(FRS) is the constant tropospheric trace-gas SCD component present in the  
 166 FRS that causes an underestimation in the fitted DSCD. The SCD(SZA) is the difference between the stratospheric  
 167 trace-gas component in the FRS and the measured non-zenith spectra. SCD(SZA) varies over time of day ( $t_i$ ),  
 168 maximizing overestimation in the DSCD early and late in the day. The sum of SCD(FRS) and SCD(SZA) is  
 169 collectively known as the  $DSCD_{offset}$ . The  $DSCD_{offset}(t_i)$  function was estimated by fitting a second order  
 170 polynomial to multiple pairs of DSCDs of spectra (non-zenith and zenith from the same sequence), described in  
 171 detail in (Wagner et al., 2010).  
 172 The  $DSCD_{offset}$  polynomial is most accurate when successive spectra in each sequence observe similar mixing ratio  
 173 fields, and measurements obtained many data-points over most of the daylight hours. However, routes on Days 2  
 174 and 3 included driving in and out of both high and low  $NO_x$  regions within short time-periods and thus met neither  
 175 of the requirements listed above for the  $DSCD_{offset}$  method. On these days, a second method was used where  $NO_2$   
 176 DSCDs were fit against an FRS spectrum obtained close in time (<25 minutes) along each respective route in a low-  
 177 pollutant region. The impacts of SCD(FRS) and SCD(SZA) on the retrieved DSCDs can be assumed to be negligible  
 178 since each FRS was from a low-pollutant area and obtained close in time, respectively. This method was also used  
 179 for the Day 1  $SO_2$  route since limited data were available but included background  $SO_2$  measurements close in time.  
 180 For all routes trace-gas tropospheric VCDs were determined by assuming a single scattering event occurred for each  
 181 photon such that the air-mass factor (AMF) depended only on the viewing elevation angle,  $\alpha$ ,  $AMF_{trop}(\alpha) \approx \frac{1}{\sin(\alpha)}$   
 182 (Brinkma et al., 2008)(Wagner et al., 2010). This “geometric approximation” is most valid under low to moderate  
 183 aerosol loading and has been shown to deviate from the typically more accurate radiative transfer modelling by up to  
 184  $\pm 20\%$  under moderate aerosol loading (Shaiganfar et al., 2011). Day 1 VCDs were calculated following Eq. (1):

$$VCD_{trop} = \frac{DSCD_{meas}(\alpha, t_i) + DSCD_{offset}(t_i)}{\frac{1}{\sin(\alpha, t_i)}} \quad (1)$$

185 Days 2 and 3  $NO_x$  and Day 1  $SO_2$  VCDs were calculated following Eq. (2):

$$VCD_{trop} \approx \frac{DSCD_{meas}(\alpha, t_i)}{\frac{1}{\sin(\alpha, t_i)}} \quad (2)$$

186 The VCD of SO<sub>2</sub> was above detection limit on only two occasions in this study (both on Day 1), in contrast to NO<sub>2</sub>.  
 187 The detection limit of SO<sub>2</sub> is higher than NO<sub>2</sub> for several reasons, first, it's differential cross section is less than that  
 188 of NO<sub>2</sub> and, second, its absorption features are in the UV wavelength region where scattered sunlight intensity is  
 189 much less than that in the visible region. The fast measurements required in mobile DOAS also allow limited  
 190 averaging of spectra compared to stationary measurements (Davis et al., 2019), [where detection of industrial SO<sub>2</sub>](#)  
 191 [plumes is easier](#). Therefore, SO<sub>2</sub> DSCDs were only above detection limits for Day 1 Routes 3 & 4 when the light  
 192 levels were highest, and the vehicle observed the combined plumes of the largest SO<sub>2</sub> sources in the area.

### 193 2.3 Estimating Trace-gas Emissions from MAX-DOAS VCDs

194 Trace-gas emission estimates were calculated following a flux integral approximation Eq. (3):

$$E = \left[ \sum_i (VCD_{outflow,i} - VCD_{influx,i}) w_i \sin(\beta_i) ds \right] \frac{MW}{Av} \quad (3)$$

195 where VCD<sub>outflow,i</sub> is the VCD measured at position i along the route s for distance ds, VCD<sub>influx,i</sub> is either the  
 196 measured influx values or the estimated background VCD value, w<sub>i</sub> is the wind-speed, β<sub>i</sub> is the angle between the  
 197 driving direction and the wind-direction, MW is the molecular weight of the target gas, and Av is Avogadro's  
 198 number. Transect routes were designed to observe both within and beyond emission impacted areas since routes  
 199 encircling the emission sources were often not possible. Flux integrals were calculated using portions of the  
 200 transects impacted only by the Sarnia urban/industrial plume in cases where plumes from other sources impacted the  
 201 transect (i.e., Day 1; U.S.A. power-plant plumes). In these cases, the end-points of integration were chosen  
 202 judiciously where NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs and surface mixing ratios decreased to a minimum at the edge of the Sarnia emissions.  
 203 This method assumes that the wind-field and trace-gas emission rates are constant during the time required to drive a  
 204 route. The validity of this assumption improves with decreased time for driving route completion. The Sarnia region  
 205 is ideal for this method since a small geographical area contains the majority of the emissions and is surrounded on  
 206 three sides by rural regions with low anthropogenic emissions.

207 A potential source of uncertainty in Mobile-MAX-DOAS emission estimates is variation in the wind fields and/or  
 208 source emission rates while driving (Ibrahim et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2017). Previous studies have estimated wind-  
 209 fields from local meteorology stations (Ibrahim et al., 2010), meteorological models (Shabbir et al., 2016;  
 210 Shaiganfar et al., 2011, 2017) or LIDAR measurements (Wu et al., 2017). In our study, wind field information was



211 obtained from a Modular Weather Station (Nova Lynx 110-WS-25DL-N) we deployed near one of the driving  
212 routes at (42.8148°, -82.2381°) (Fig. 1) and from meteorological ground stations in the area (Fig. 1, Table S1, Fig.  
213 S1). The modular weather station measured wind-speed and direction, temperature, relative humidity, and  
214 barometric pressure at 2 m above the surface every 30 seconds. Wind data was available from the Sarnia-Lambton  
215 Environmental Association (SLEA) LaSalle Road (42.911330°, -82.379900°) and Moore Line (42.83954°, -  
216 82.4208°) meteorological stations that are located near the driving routes (Fig. 1). These stations were surrounded  
217 by fallow, flat farm-land for at least 4 km on each side and thus should reflect total boundary layer for plumes  
218 transported away from the city more than the urban stations (Fig. S1). The hourly wind-direction data from the  
219 modular and permanent stations exhibited similar values ( $\pm 10^\circ$ ) and trends on Day 1 (Fig. S2). Wind-directions for  
220 Days 2 and 3 were obtained by determining the angle of a vector drawn between the geographical locations of the  
221 maximum NO<sub>2</sub> VCD enhancements and the industrial facilities expected to have emitted the plumes. These map-  
222 determined wind-directions were consistent ( $\pm 10^\circ$ ) with the data from the station(s) closest to the driving route.  
223 Comparison of wind-speed data on Days 2 and 3 was not possible due to a technical issue with the modular weather  
224 station on these days.

225 The NO<sub>2</sub> VCD influx (background VCD) was estimated on Day 1 since measurement was impossible along the  
226 western border of Sarnia due to the road configuration and proximity of industrial emissions. A NO<sub>2</sub> VCD<sub>influx</sub> =  
227  $2 \times 10^{15}$  molec cm<sup>-2</sup> was estimated based on OMI satellite VCDs of  $\sim 1.5\text{--}3.5 \times 10^{15}$  molec cm<sup>-2</sup> from the area east of  
228 Sarnia that are expected to be similar to the NO<sub>2</sub> regime west of Sarnia. These pixels are expected to be unaffected  
229 by other sources. The influx would be expected to be impacted by vehicular and residential emissions from the small  
230 city of Port Huron, U.S.A., on the west side of the St Clair River (Fig. 1), which has limited industry but a moderate  
231 level of commercial vehicle activity due to border-crossings. A first order emission estimate of vehicular NO<sub>x</sub>  
232 emissions from Port Huron from daily reported traffic counts results in an upper limit of NO<sub>2</sub> influx VCD of  
233  $\sim 1 \times 10^{15}$  molec cm<sup>-2</sup> (see Supplement S4). True influx would vary along the length of the measurement transect,  
234 depending on what sources are upwind of the location. Halla et al. (2011) measured NO<sub>2</sub> tropospheric VCDs using  
235 MAX-DOAS in a similar region approximately 70 km south-east of Sarnia. The observed NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs in that study  
236 ranged from 0.01 to  $1.25 \times 10^{16}$  molec cm<sup>-2</sup> with a median value of  $2 \times 10^{15}$  molec cm<sup>-2</sup>, which is expected to be  
237 representative of background NO<sub>2</sub> columns in this region. The highest VCD in that study was attributed to the  
238 transport of industrial emissions from the Sarnia area and/or from Detroit, MI to the northwest and west of the site

239 respectively (Halla et al., 2011). Based on the range of VCDs from literature, vehicular emission estimates and  
240 satellite measurements, a background VCD of  $2 \times 10^{15}$  molec  $\text{cm}^{-2}$  is a reasonable estimate, and emissions sensitivity  
241 tests were conducted using influx VCDs of  $0.5\text{-}3 \times 10^{15}$  molec  $\text{cm}^{-2}$  (Supplement S5). In contrast, the  $\text{NO}_2$   $\text{VCD}_{\text{influx}}$   
242 on Days 2 and 3 and  $\text{SO}_2$   $\text{VCD}_{\text{influx}}$  on Day 1 were determined from the average VCDs measured in the low-  
243 pollution area of each transect.

### 244 2.3.1 Determination of $\text{NO}_x$ emission estimates from $\text{NO}_2$ measurements

245  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions were estimated using Equation 4 from the  $\text{NO}_2$  flux integral and the average  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratio ( $\text{NO}_x > 3$   
246 ppb) measured by the  $\text{NO}_x$ -analyzer along the route. The emission values were then corrected for expected  $\text{NO}_x$  loss  
247 during transport using a  $\text{NO}_x$  lifetime,  $\tau$ .  $\text{NO}_x$  emission estimates were calculated as follows:

$$E_{\text{NO}_x} = E_{\text{NO}_2} * \frac{\overline{\text{NO}_x}}{\text{NO}_2} * e^{\left(\frac{y/w}{\tau}\right)} \quad (4)$$

248 where  $\tau$  is  $\text{NO}_x$  lifetime,  $w$  is wind-speed, and  $y$  is the distance between the  $\text{NO}_x$  source and the measurement  
249 location. For routes where individual  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratios deviated significantly from the route average, the  $\text{NO}_x$   
250 emission estimates were calculated by applying 1) the route-averaged  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratio and 2) individual  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$   
251 ratios associated with each  $\text{NO}_2$  VCD point by point. Multiple factors determine  $\text{NO}_x$  lifetime in a plume. A  $\text{NO}_x$   
252 lifetime of 6 hours was used in this study based on considerations given in section 3.3. A sensitivity analysis was  
253 performed varying the lifetimes between 4-8 hours (Supplement S7). The conversion factors used to calculate  $\text{NO}_x$   
254 emissions for each route can be found in Table S8. The  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratios are more fully addressed in Section 3.2 and  
255 the  $\text{NO}_x$  lifetime is addressed in Section 3.3.

## 256 3 Results & Discussion

### 257 3.1 Relationship between $\text{NO}_2$ VCDs & $\text{NO}$ - $\text{NO}_2$ - $\text{NO}_x$ Analyzer Measurements

258 Figure 2 shows that enhancements in  $\text{NO}_2$  VCDs downwind of Sarnia were generally associated with  $\text{NO}_2$  surface  
259 mixing ratios enhancements during Days 1 and 2. This suggests that pollution from Sarnia was well-mixed within  
260 the boundary layer at the measurement locations, typically 14-23 km downwind of sources (Figs. 3 & 4). However,  
261 the ratio of  $\text{NO}_2$  VCD to  $\text{NO}_2$  mixing ratio was sometimes variable even during relatively short time periods when

262 the boundary layer height was expected to be constant (Fig. 2a). This variability was probably due to the presence of  
263 multiple  $\text{NO}_x$  plumes that had originated from sources with different heights (i.e., stacks and surface sources) and  
264 emission rates.

265 In contrast to Days 1 and 2,  $\text{NO}_2$  VCD enhancements on Day 3 were not consistently associated with  $\text{NO}_2$  surface  
266 mixing ratio enhancements (Figs. 5 & 6). A large surface enhancement ( $\text{NO}_x=22$  ppb) was observed at the location  
267 of the VCD  $\text{NO}_2$  enhancements ( $\sim 2.5 \times 10^{16}$  molec  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ) associated with the NOVA Chemicals industrial plume on  
268 route 2 (Figs. 5b & 6b) but not on route 1 (Fig. 5a & 6a). This discrepancy is likely due to the closer proximity of  
269 the driving route to the source compared with Day 1, combined with limited vertical mixing of the plume. The  
270 relatively long sampling time of the  $\text{NO}_x$  analyzer with a relatively fast driving speed on this route may also have led  
271 to an underestimation of the true  $\text{NO}_x$  values for this localized plume.

### 272 3.2 $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$ Ratios

273 The  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratio is necessary to estimate  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions from the source, given measurements of  $\text{NO}_2$  VCD's  
274 (Eq. 4). Ratios of  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  (Table 2) measured along the routes on Days 1 and 3 were within 20% of the route-  
275 averaged value with a relative standard deviation of less than 12%.  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratios tended to increase at locations  
276 associated with transported plumes' centerlines, as expected due to an increase in NO emissions from the sources  
277 (see Fig. 7), and exhibited the greatest variability in air-masses affected by sources with different altitudes and  
278 emission rates. Day 1, route 1 exhibited variable  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratios due to emissions from the power-plants across the  
279 river in Michigan, residential and vehicular traffic, and industrial emissions (Figs. 3a & 7).

280 Potential errors may exist in the  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratio due to the presence of other  $\text{NO}_z$  species in the air mass (e.g.,  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  
281  $\text{HONO}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3$ ,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$ , organic nitrates, etc.) that are also converted to NO by the Mo-converter in addition to  $\text{NO}_2$   
282 (Dunlea et al., 2007). However, these errors are smaller than might be expected due to the presence of the error in  
283 both the numerator and the denominator of the ratio,  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2 = (\text{NO} + \text{NO}_2)/\text{NO}_2$ , thus partially offsetting each  
284 other. For example, at an apparent  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratio of 1.40 (average in Table 2), a 10% and 30% error in the reported  
285  $\text{NO}_2$  due the presence of other  $\text{NO}_z$  species gives rise to errors of only -2.6% and -6.6% in the measured  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$   
286 ratio respectively. Mathematically, the error in the  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratio gets larger as the percentage of NO in the total  
287  $\text{NO}_x$  increases. However, since most of the interfering  $\text{NO}_z$  species are generated photochemically, or only at night

288 (NO<sub>3</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>) increasing with reaction time and distance away from the source, the percentage of interfering species  
289 is smaller at higher values of total NO and NO<sub>x</sub>. Under significantly intense photochemical conditions in the  
290 MCMA-2003 field campaign in Mexico, the interference in the chemiluminescence monitors resulted in average  
291 NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations being 22% higher than those determined from spectroscopic measurements (Dunlea et al.,  
292 2007), which would give rise to an error in the NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratio of <5%. In the current study we estimate that the  
293 resultant negative bias in the measured NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratio does not exceed -5% for several reasons; i) we filter out low  
294 NO<sub>x</sub> data (<3ppb), ii) the emission integral is dominated by regions with high NO<sub>x</sub> that are spatially and temporally  
295 close to the sources and, iii) photochemistry was reduced during this spring campaign. The uncertainty that arises  
296 from potential errors in the NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratio is insignificant compared to other errors (see Supplemental Table S9). It  
297 is also worth noting that NO<sub>2</sub> measurements by the NO<sub>x</sub> analyzer are not directly used for the calculation of  
298 emissions; only the NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratio is used.

299 Previous Mobile-MAX-DOAS studies have relied on literature estimates of the NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratio (Shabbir et al., 2016;  
300 Shaiganfar et al., 2011) or estimated the ratio from a Leighton ratio calculated using local air quality station data  
301 (Ibrahim et al., 2010). In regions with many pollutant sources throughout (e.g., megacities), this ratio is expected to  
302 be horizontally and vertically inhomogeneous. The ratio can therefore be challenging to estimate and can increase  
303 the uncertainty of the NO<sub>x</sub> emission estimate. Estimation of NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratios from near-surface monitoring stations  
304 can be problematic because the ratios are applied to a VCD but may reflect only local emissions (e.g., nearby  
305 vehicular exhaust) rather than the total boundary layer. In this study, NO<sub>x</sub> data impacted by local emissions were  
306 removed. Also, the Sarnia emissions were expected to be well mixed to the surface since most of the transects were  
307 driven sufficiently far from the sources. Therefore, the near-surface NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratios should be representative for the  
308 altitude range of the dispersed NO<sub>x</sub> plume(s). This hypothesis is supported by the similarity between the NO<sub>2</sub>  
309 surface and VCD temporal trends during the study, especially on Days 1 and 2 (Fig. 2).

### 310 **3.3 NO<sub>x</sub> Lifetime**

311 Various lifetimes of NO<sub>x</sub>,  $\tau$ , have been used in previous mobile MAX-DOAS studies for the calculation of NO<sub>x</sub>  
312 emissions from NO<sub>2</sub> measurements: 6 hr in Germany (Ibrahim et al., 2010), 5 hr in Delhi (Shaiganfar, 2011), 5 hr in  
313 China (Wu et al., 2017) and 3 hr summer – 12 hr winter in Paris (Shaiganfar, 2017). In Beirle et al. (2011), the  
314 daytime lifetime of NO<sub>x</sub> was quantified by analyzing the downwind patterns of NO<sub>2</sub> measured by satellite

315 instruments and shown to vary from ~4 hr in low to mid-latitude locations (e.g., Riyadh, Saudi Arabia) to ~8hr in  
316 northern locations in wintertime (e.g., Moscow, Russia). In a follow up study, Valin et al (2013) showed that one  
317 cannot assume that  $\tau$  is independent of wind speed and derived values of  $\tau$  from the satellite observations over  
318 Riyadh to be 5.5hr to 8 hr, corresponding to OH levels of  $5-8 \times 10^6$  molec  $\text{cm}^{-3}$  at high and low wind speeds.

319 Multiple factors determine  $\text{NO}_x$  lifetime in a plume, including season (e.g., insolation) (Liu et al., 2016), latitude,  
320 wind-driven dilution (Nunnermacker et al., 2000; Valin et al., 2013),  $\text{NO}_x$  emission rate and initial dilution  
321 (Nunnermacker et al., 2000), temperature, hydroxyl radical levels (OH) and precursors to OH including  $\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ,  
322 and HONO. Very importantly, the daytime lifetime of  $\text{NO}_x$  is a nonlinear function of the  $\text{NO}_x$  concentration itself,  
323 having longer lifetimes at high and low concentrations with the shortest lifetimes at intermediate  $\text{NO}_x$  concentrations  
324 due to the impact on OH levels in a non-linear feedback on its own lifetime (Valin et al., 2013). The  $\text{NO}_x$  lifetime is  
325 ultimately dependent on the OH levels since this dictates the loss rate of  $\text{NO}_2$  to its terminal sink ( $\text{NO}_2 + \text{OH} \rightarrow$   
326  $\text{HNO}_3$ ). However the presence of VOC's in the urban plume, which are catalytically oxidized forming  $\text{O}_3$  in the  
327 presence of  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{HO}_x$  ( $\text{OH} + \text{HO}_2$ ), can decrease the  $\text{NO}_x$  lifetime due to their acceleration of the conversion of  
328  $\text{NO}$  to  $\text{NO}_2$  via peroxy radical reactions ( $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO} \rightarrow \text{NO}_2 + \text{RO}$ ). Therefore,  $\text{NO}_x$  lifetimes can vary both  
329 spatially and temporally (Liu et al., 2016), even within the same plume (Valin et al., 2013). Underestimation of the  
330 true  $\text{NO}_x$  lifetime leads to overestimation of the  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions, while an overestimate leads to an underestimation  
331 of the emissions.

332 While photolysis of HONO is often the major source of OH in the morning boundary layer (Platt et al., 1980; Alicke  
333 et al., 2002), midday production of OH via photolysis of  $\text{O}_3$  and subsequent reaction of  $\text{O} (^1\text{D})$  with water is  
334 frequently the dominant source of OH. Assuming  $\text{O} (^1\text{D})$  is in steady-state, it can be shown that when ozone  
335 photolysis is the main source of OH, the product of the mixing ratios of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{O}_3$  is proportional to the  
336 production rate of OH. In this study, the  $[\text{H}_2\text{O}] * [\text{O}_3]$  product was calculated using surrounding station measurements  
337 (see Supplement S8.1). The  $[\text{H}_2\text{O}] * [\text{O}_3]$  product indicates that mid-day OH production under the spring-conditions  
338 for Days 1 and 2 is only 10-25% of the expected OH production under warmer more humid summer-conditions,  
339 presuming that  $\text{O}_3$  photolysis predominates. This might suggest OH levels were lower in our study than during  
340 summer, and hence  $\text{NO}_x$  lifetimes longer. However we assume this with caution as the HONO production is not  
341 known nor are the loss rates of OH.

342 As mentioned, the presence of VOC's can decrease the lifetime of NO<sub>x</sub> under conditions where NO<sub>x</sub> is sufficiently  
343 high to dominate the peroxy radical reaction path. To test for the presence of VOC's in the plumes (in the absence  
344 of measurements), Leighton ratios,  $\phi$  (Leighton, 1961), were calculated at locations of maximum NO<sub>2</sub> VCD  
345 associated with Sarnia plumes. Leighton ratios were calculated following Eq. (5) (see Supplement S8.2 for details):

$$\phi = \frac{j_{NO_2}[NO_2]}{k_8[NO][O_3]} \quad (5)$$

346 where  $j_{NO_2}$  is the NO<sub>2</sub> photolysis rate,  $k_8$  is the temperature-dependent rate constant for the reaction between NO and  
347 O<sub>3</sub>. Leighton ratios equal to 1.0 indicate that NO, NO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> are in steady state with no significant interference  
348 from other species, while ratios of  $\phi$  greater than 1.0 imply the role of other peroxy radical species (e.g., RO<sub>2</sub>, HO<sub>2</sub>)  
349 in the conversion of NO to NO<sub>2</sub> (Pitts and Finlayson-Pitts, 2000). The NO<sub>2</sub>/NO ratios were obtained from the NO<sub>x</sub>  
350 analyzer measurements, O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios were obtained from local monitoring stations during the same daytime  
351 periods as the transects. Values of  $j_{NO_2}$  were estimated using SLEA Moore Line station solar irradiance data (Fig. 1;  
352 Table S1) and solar zenith angle following the method in Wiegand and Bofinger (2000).

353 Table 2 shows Leighton ratios calculated at the locations of maximum NO<sub>2</sub> VCD enhancements. Calculated  
354 Leighton ratios were significantly greater than 1 ( $\phi = 1.7$ - $2.3$ ) at peak NO<sub>x</sub> locations on Day 1 (Table 2). Even if we  
355 consider a potential bias of + 20% in the NO<sub>2</sub> measurements by the NO<sub>x</sub> analyzer for reasons outlined in Section 3.2  
356 (highly unlikely in a fresh NO<sub>x</sub> plume), a +20% bias in the Leighton ratio would still give ( $\phi = 1.4$ - $1.9$ ). We  
357 interpret this as an indication that significant levels of peroxy radicals were present in the plume, presumably from  
358 VOC oxidation by the OH radical. This is consistent with high VOC emissions from the petrochemical facilities in  
359 Sarnia, with emission rates >300 tonnes yr<sup>-1</sup> each for four of the top six industrial NO<sub>x</sub> emitters in Sarnia  
360 (Environment and Climate Change Canada, 2018d). The Day 2 Leighton ratio of less than 1.0 in Table 2 suggests a  
361 relatively fresh plume (only 4 km downwind of a facility) that had not come to photo-stationary state.

362 Thus we have indications that OH production may be lower than summer time leading to longer NO<sub>x</sub> lifetimes and  
363 we have indications that VOC oxidation in the plume may be significant leading to shorter NO<sub>x</sub> lifetimes than air  
364 masses where the photo-stationary state in NO<sub>x</sub> is valid. Without further information, we have opted to assume a  
365 central NO<sub>x</sub> lifetime assume of ~ 6 hr. Sensitivity calculations were conducted for NO<sub>x</sub> emission estimates using a

366 range of lifetimes of 4-8 hours (Supplement S7). Varying the lifetime from  $\pm 2$  hours changed the emission estimates  
367 by <15% for all routes except for Day 1 route 1 due to low wind-speeds during that route (30% change).

368 For the calculation of SO<sub>2</sub> emissions, SO<sub>2</sub> was assumed to have a sufficiently long lifetime in the boundary layer so  
369 as to be conserved between the emission and measurement location. Note that cloud processing of SO<sub>2</sub> was assumed  
370 to be negligible since SO<sub>2</sub> measurements were completed on a mostly cloud-free day.

### 371 3.4 Emission Estimates

372

#### 373 3.4.1 Emission Estimates of Sarnia

374 The VCDs measured are shown in Fig. 3-6 while the NO<sub>x</sub> emissions calculated using Eqs. (3) and (4) are shown in  
375 Table 4. The values of VCD<sub>influx</sub> required for the calculations were typically determined from measurements of VCD  
376 in low pollution transect areas. However, the VCD<sub>influx</sub> on Day 2 was not determined in this way since these DSCDs  
377 were close to zero within error (Figs. 2 & 4). The VCD<sub>influx</sub> is expected to be low on Day 2 because the north wind-  
378 direction indicates that the air-masses originated from over Lake Huron. These low values were probably due to low  
379 light levels during measurement, insufficiently long integration times (low signal to noise ratio) and NO<sub>2</sub>  
380 background VCD values below the instrument's limit of detection. A low value of VCD<sub>influx</sub> =  $0.5(\pm 0.5) \times 10^{15}$  molec  
381 cm<sup>-2</sup> was therefore assumed.

382 The emissions were calculated in two ways i) using a route-average NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratio value for each route estimate and  
383 ii) using individual NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratios co-located with each VCD measurement. For Day 1 route, the route average  
384 NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratio was  $1.53 \pm 0.12$  ppb ppb<sup>-1</sup> with the difference between the calculated emission rates using the two  
385 methods being only 3%. Day 1 transects 2-4 exhibited small variability in NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> (Table 4) and the variation in  
386 the NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratio impacted emission estimates by less than 5%.

387 However, the difference between emission estimates calculated using individual NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratios versus a route-  
388 averaged value can be non-trivial, as observed with the Day 2 route 1. Day 2 had consistent northerly wind  
389 conditions, and east-west transects were driven south of Sarnia to capture the urban plume and background regions  
390 to the east (Fig. 4). The resultant Sarnia NO<sub>x</sub> emission using the first method is consistent with the first three Day 1  
391 emission estimates but the application of the second method (individual NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratios collocated with each VCD)

392 increased the emission estimate by ~50% (Table 4 and Fig. 8). The  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratio was generally consistent with the  
393 averaged value of 1.3 (maximum  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  removed) but increased to 3 in the region of maximum  $\text{NO}_2$  VCD  
394 enhancements 7 km south of the NOVA Chemicals facility (Table 3). The calculated Leighton ratio for this peak  
395  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratio location is less than 1 (see 3.4.2 and Table 3). The Leighton ratio suggests the plume from the  
396 NOVA Chemical facility had significant NO that had not had sufficient time to come to a photostationary state. The  
397 emission estimate using individual  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratios is considered the more accurate value for this route compared to  
398 the emission value calculated using the route-averaged ratio.

399 The importance of measuring the local  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratio is also illustrated by observing variation of the ratio due to the  
400 impact of the Michigan power-plants' plume, apparent in the Day 1 route 1 East-West transect (Fig. 3a). The  
401  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratio along this transect increased to ~1.7 (Fig. 7), higher than the maximum  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratio observed in  
402 the North-South transect downwind of Sarnia. A higher ratio is somewhat unexpected because the distance between  
403 the source and receptor measurement for the power plant source was greater than the source-receptor distance for the  
404 Sarnia sources. Thus, the power-plant plume would have been expected to be more aged, but the results suggest that  
405 the power-plants' plumes had a slower conversion of NO to  $\text{NO}_2$  perhaps due to higher initial mixing ratios of  $\text{NO}_x$   
406 (Nunnermacker et al., 2000). Very high NO mixing ratios in a power plant plume (i.e., > 40ppb) could completely  
407 titrate the ambient  $\text{O}_3$  in the air entrained into the plume, an observation previously seen in power plant plumes  
408 (Brown et al., 2012).

409 The East-West transect appears to have captured approximately half of the power-plants' plume since the  $\text{NO}_2$   
410 VCDs and the  $\text{NO}_2$  mixing ratios increase from background to a plateau at a maximum (Fig. 2a). A preliminary  
411 estimation of the  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{SO}_2$  emissions from the power-plants can be determined by scaling up the flux integral  
412 from the appropriate section of the East-West transect by a factor of two. While this is highly uncertain, we do this  
413 to make a first order estimate of the power plant plumes on the US side of the border. In this case, we have used  
414  $\text{VCD}_{\text{influx}} = 2\text{-}3 \times 10^{15}$  molec  $\text{cm}^{-2}$  for  $\text{NO}_x$  and zero for  $\text{SO}_2$  since the background region  $\text{SO}_2$  DSCDs were at or  
415 below detection limits. The  $\text{NO}_x$  estimate used individual  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratios because the  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratio was  
416 significantly higher in the plume than outside the plume. This illustrates the importance of in-situ instruments of  
417  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$ , especially when close to the source where plume  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratios can be variable (Valin et al., 2013).  
418 Given the above assumptions, a tentative first order estimate of the total emissions from the power plants are 0.31-



419 0.46 tonnes  $\text{NO}_x \text{ hr}^{-1}$  and 0.77 tonnes  $\text{SO}_2 \text{ hr}^{-1}$ , respectively. The hourly emissions of the power-plants from reported  
420 2015 annual values are 0.74 tonnes  $\text{NO}_x \text{ hr}^{-1}$  and 2.56 tonnes  $\text{SO}_2 \text{ hr}^{-1}$  (United States EPA, 2018). Our hourly  
421 estimates are only preliminary since only half of the plume (approximately) was captured by the measurement  
422 transect.

423 The  $\text{NO}_x$  emission estimates from Sarnia from Day 1 are consistent within 25% and are consistent with the Day 2  
424 estimates within the calculated error of approximately  $\pm 45\%$  (Fig. 8, Table 4). Some variability between the  
425 emission estimates is expected due to wind-data uncertainties,  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  vertical profile variability, errors introduced  
426 by using a constant  $\text{VCD}_{\text{influx}}$  and  $\text{NO}_x$  lifetime, and temporal variations in emissions from the source.

427 Conversion of the hourly measured emissions to annual emissions would require knowledge and application of  
428 daily, weekly and seasonal emission profiles, which is beyond the scope of this work. The Mobile-MAX-DOAS  
429 emission estimates are reported in units of tonnes per hour since routes were completed within <40 minutes. Events  
430 such as flaring can significantly increase the instantaneous emission rate but are excluded from the annual emission  
431 inventory data. However, there was no reported flaring during the measurement period (MOECC 2017; personal  
432 communication).  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions from petrochemical facilities, excluding flaring, typically have low variability  
433 during periods of continuous operation. According to Ryerson et al. (2003), variation in average hourly  $\text{NO}_x$   
434 emissions from a petrochemical facility reported by industry (CEMS data) was <10% from an average of the hourly  
435 average emissions over 11 days in Houston, Texas. However, this trend may be different for the chemical industry.  
436 A first-order comparison to the 2017 National Pollution Release Inventory (NPRI) values (downscaled by assuming  
437 constant emissions) was made to determine whether our measured Sarnia emissions are reasonable. The NPRI value  
438 is the sum of the  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions from the top 9 industrial emitters of  $\text{NO}_x$  in Sarnia whose emissions would have  
439 been captured along the driving routes. The NPRI requires significant point source industry facilities to report their  
440 pollutant emissions, but the method of estimating emissions can vary by facility (ECCC, 2015). The NPRI emission  
441 value does not include mobile and area sources from the Sarnia region. Thus, the NPRI emission inventory values  
442 for Sarnia would be expected to be smaller than our measured emissions because of this exclusion. The measured  
443  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions are larger than the 2017 NPRI value but not statistically so (Fig. 8; Table 4). The exception is the  
444 Day 1 route 1\* value, which is statistically higher. The average of the four  $\text{NO}_x$  emission estimates from Sarnia is  
445 greater than the 2017 NPRI value. These results demonstrate that our measured emission rates are reasonable. Future

446 Mobile-MAX-DOAS studies could focus on determining diurnal trends in emissions by driving multiple routes at as  
447 many times of the day as possible on multiple days, seasons and weekdays/weekends. Measurements of vertical  
448 wind profiles could reduce emission uncertainty to allow identification of temporal trends by comparing same-day  
449 measurements.

450 Apart from NO<sub>x</sub>, we were also able to estimate SO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the Sarnia urban/industrial region during one  
451 route when the SO<sub>2</sub> DSCDs were detectable, Day 1 route 3 (Table 5). Our SO<sub>2</sub> emission estimate using the 10 m  
452 wind-speed is consistent within error with the 2017 NPRI value (Table 5). We expect our SO<sub>2</sub> emission estimate to  
453 be closer to the NPRI values compared to the NO<sub>x</sub> estimates because SO<sub>2</sub> emissions from area and mobile sources in  
454 Sarnia are expected to be small relative to industrial sources (Ministry of the Environment and Climate Change,  
455 2016). Since ships were not operating in the St. Clair River at this time of year, shipping emissions of SO<sub>2</sub> were  
456 absent. Thus SO<sub>2</sub> plumes in this region are localized to the major industrial emissions sources. Therefore, the VCDs  
457 from the areas unaffected by the Sarnia plumes are representative of background values, VCD<sub>influx</sub>. While the  
458 Mobile-MAX-DOAS was able to capture these plumes (Fig. 9), only 1 of 7 local monitoring stations (LaSalle Road,  
459 Fig. S1) observed elevated levels of SO<sub>2</sub> during this period. The under-sampling by stations is due to the highly  
460 localized nature of the SO<sub>2</sub> plumes that are from stacks where the plume is frequently elevated above the surface.  
461 These results illustrate the complementary nature of Mobile-MAX-DOAS and in-situ measurements and the  
462 importance of monitoring techniques that can capture localized plumes independent of the wind direction.

### 463 **3.4.2 Emission Estimates of NOVA Chemicals Industrial Facility**

464 NO<sub>x</sub> emissions were opportunistically measured from a single facility on Day 3 because the southerly wind-  
465 directions isolated this plume (Environment and Climate Change Canada, 2018b) from other industrial sources in  
466 Sarnia. The plume originated from Nova Chemicals, the 2<sup>nd</sup> highest emitter of NO<sub>x</sub> in the region in 2017. These  
467 conditions allowed us to test the mobile-MAX-DOAS method in isolating a single plume. The wind-direction on  
468 Day 3 indicated that the air-masses originated from rural areas south of Sarnia and the VCD<sub>influx</sub> was expected to be  
469 low,  $\sim 1 \times 10^{15}$  molec cm<sup>-2</sup>.

470 The emission estimates of NO<sub>x</sub> from the two routes on Day 3 from the NOVA Chemicals industrial site (Tables 4 &  
471 5) are consistent with each other within 10%. The consistency increases confidence in fitting the spectra in each

472 transect against a local FRS and removing influx using the average “background” VCDs rather than using the  
473 “DSCD<sub>Offset</sub>” method in this case. The use of “background” VCDs is appropriate because vehicular traffic upwind of  
474 the measurement transect is minimal in the local area. Upwind emissions were unlikely to have contributed  
475 significantly to the total measured emissions. The emission estimates from NOVA Chemicals are larger than the  
476 2017 NPRI value (Tables 4 & 5). This comparison merely indicates that the Mobile-MAX-DOAS values are  
477 reasonable given that there was likely diurnal variability and the measurements were taken only during a single hour  
478 on a single day.

### 479 **3.5 Comparison of OMI Satellite and MAX-DOAS VCDs**

480 The satellite and MAX-DOAS NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs on Day 1 exhibit similar spatial trends in the simple sense that NO<sub>2</sub>  
481 VCDs increase towards the south from the background regions north of Sarnia (Fig. 10). This trend is probably due  
482 to a combination of emissions from U.S.A. power-plants, the Detroit area as well as Sarnia. The NO<sub>2</sub> VCD of the  
483 pixel containing the majority of the Sarnia industrial facilities is comparable to rural area VCDs to the north-west of  
484 Sarnia. Only 1/8<sup>th</sup> of the “Sarnia” pixel’s footprint region is likely to be impacted by Sarnia emissions, and the  
485 remainder observes mostly rural to semi-rural regions. The OMI Pixel from Day 3 (Fig. 11) containing Sarnia  
486 exhibits a minimal increase in NO<sub>2</sub> VCD ( $1-2 \times 10^{15}$  molec cm<sup>-2</sup>) compared to the surrounding background regions  
487 (Fig. 11). In contrast, the Mobile-MAX-DOAS measurements observed VCD enhancements of up to  $1 \times 10^{16}$  molec  
488 cm<sup>-2</sup> within this pixel. The averaging due by the large pixel size (24 km×84 km) causes underestimation of the  
489 maximum VCDs. Identification of Sarnia-only emissions without error due to horizontal averaging or inclusion of  
490 other sources may require satellite measurements with nadir-viewing pixels centred on Sarnia and/or extremely large  
491 averaging times.

### 492 **3.6 Uncertainties in this Study and Recommended Improvements for Mobile-MAX-DOAS Measurements**

493 Many of the factors that increased the uncertainty in the emission values in this study can be significantly reduced in  
494 future through relatively small changes in the method. The many factors have been addressed in Supplemental  
495 Information (section S7) and summarized in Table S9. Ideally accurate horizontal flux measurements would require  
496 knowledge of the vertical and horizontal profile of pollutant concentrations as well as the vertical and horizontal  
497 profile of wind vectors. Lack of knowledge of the vertical profile of wind-speed increases uncertainty in Mobile-

498 MAX-DOAS emission estimates since elevated plumes and well-mixed plumes are transported by winds with  
499 typically higher speeds than those near the surface. Future studies could focus on reducing uncertainty by using  
500 measurements from sodar, lidar, tall towers, balloon soundings, or a radio acoustic meteorological profiler. In this  
501 study, uncertainty was increased (18-30% based on sensitivity analysis; see supplementary S5 & S7) because  
502 driving routes could not always include measurements along influx regions (Day 1) due to road proximity to sources  
503 or obstructions to the viewing field. Future experiments could measure influx values while stationary at multiple  
504 locations along the upwind region chosen for an unobstructed viewing field. Very low background trace-gas levels  
505 also resulted in SO<sub>2</sub> DSCDs that were below detection limit most of the time, while being occasionally below  
506 detection limit for NO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 2e). A spectrometer with higher sensitivity giving lower detection limits could solve  
507 this issue. Increased averaging of spectra would also improve detectability but at the expense of worse spatial  
508 resolution, unless measurements can be made at a slower driving speed. Uncertainty in the NO<sub>x</sub> lifetime was a small  
509 contribution to uncertainty in this study (up to ±12%) because the distances and transport times between source and  
510 measurement locations were relatively small (<25 km). The exception was Day 1 route 1 where uncertainty was up  
511 to 30% due to low wind-speeds. The error contribution of NO<sub>x</sub> lifetime could be non-trivial if driving routes are far  
512 from the sources (e.g., large cities). This error could also be non-trivial if the lifetime that one assumes does not  
513 account for the multiple factors discussed in Section 3.3. Bias in the emission estimates from an incorrect lifetime  
514 could be avoided by determining NO<sub>x</sub> lifetimes from photochemical modelling or, for large cities, satellite  
515 observations (Beirle et al., 2011) but taking into account wind speeds (Valin et al., 2013).

#### 516 **4 Conclusions**

517 In this study, we combined Mobile-MAX-DOAS techniques with mobile NO<sub>x</sub> measurements and a modular  
518 meteorological station to measure emissions of NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> from the Sarnia region, a relatively small  
519 urban/industrial city. Trace-gas VCDs were determined using the DSCD<sub>offset</sub> method (Wagner et al., 2010) or by  
520 fitting measured spectra against a route-local low pollution spectrum. Both methods provided good results, which  
521 suggest that the first method is ideal if there are many hours of measurements while the second method is ideal when  
522 short routes contain low-pollution regions. Average lower limit Mobile-MAX-DOAS emissions of NO<sub>x</sub> from Sarnia  
523 were measured to be  $1.60 \pm 0.34$  tonnes hr<sup>-1</sup> using 10 m elevation measured wind-speeds. The estimates were larger  
524 than the downscaled 2017 NPRI reported industrial emissions of 0.9 tonnes hr<sup>-1</sup> (Environment and Climate Change  
525 Canada, 2018b) but the NPRI estimate excludes area and mobile emissions. Our lower limit SO<sub>2</sub> emission

526 measurement for Sarnia was  $1.81 \pm 0.83$  tonnes  $\text{hr}^{-1}$  using 10 m wind-speeds, which is equal within uncertainty to  
527 the 2017 NPRI value of 1.85 tonnes  $\text{hr}^{-1}$  (Environment and Climate Change Canada, 2018c). Our average lower  
528 limit  $\text{NO}_x$  emission measurement from the NOVA Chemicals Facility was  $0.28 \pm 0.06$  tonnes  $\text{hr}^{-1}$ , the same order of  
529 magnitude as the 2016 NPRI value of 0.14 tonnes  $\text{hr}^{-1}$  (Environment and Climate Change Canada, 2018a).

530 Simultaneous measurements of  $\text{NO}$ - $\text{NO}_2$ - $\text{NO}_x$  improved the accuracy of  $\text{NO}_x$  emission estimates when plumes of  
531 varying ages were observed. The  $\text{NO}_x$  results from Days 1 and 2 suggest that accurate Mobile-MAX-DOAS  $\text{NO}_x$   
532 emission measurements from routes that observe plumes with differing ages require accurate knowledge of the  
533 localized  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratio.

534 The variability in the ratio of the  $\text{NO}_2$  VCDs and mixing ratios indicates that surface  $\text{NO}_2$  mixing ratios cannot be  
535 reliably estimated from  $\text{NO}_2$  VCDs and boundary layer height alone when pollution is emitted from sources of  
536 varying heights and chemical composition. A  $\text{NO}_x$ -analyzer can be an essential component of Mobile-MAX-DOAS  
537  $\text{NO}_2$  measurements. The addition of this instrument allows the method to characterize the boundary layer fully and  
538 accurately estimate  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions from  $\text{NO}_2$  measurements when multiple  $\text{NO}_x$  sources are present and when  
539 transects are sufficiently distant from the sources.

540 The modular meteorological station improved knowledge of local wind essential to identify time periods of low  
541 temporal variability, ensuring low error due to wind estimation. These time periods would have been difficult to  
542 identify with only hourly average or modelled wind data. Accurate knowledge of the vertical wind profile would  
543 significantly enhance the accuracy of the Mobile-MAX-DOAS emission estimates. Future studies could obtain  
544 vertical wind profiles using sodar, lidar, wind-rass, and radiosonde on a weather balloon or local aircraft soundings.

545 Mobile-MAX-DOAS measurements identified significant OMI intrapixel inhomogeneity and observed industrial  
546 pollution enhancements that were poorly captured by the in-situ ground stations. These results suggest that Mobile-  
547 MAX-DOAS has clear advantages in similar industrial regions over other remote sensing techniques used for  
548 estimating emissions (e.g., using aircraft or satellite): higher spatial resolution, the potential for multiple emission  
549 estimates per day (i.e., observations of diurnal trends), and much lower operational costs. Mobile-MAX-DOAS is a  
550 “top-down” low-cost solution for validating bottom-up inventories that compliments in-situ monitoring and has

551 significant utility in smaller regions with significant emissions where satellite applications are limited. Future  
552 Mobile-MAX-DOAS studies in such regions can focus on measuring temporal trends in emissions.

### 553 **Author Contributions**

554 ZD conceived of and organized the field campaign with aid from RM. ZD, SB, AK, WF, CC and RM carried out the  
555 experiments in Sarnia. CM modelled conditions for the satellite retrievals of NO<sub>2</sub> in the region of Sarnia, and  
556 provided useful advice. ZD and RM prepared the manuscript, with contributions from all co-authors.

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731

732 **Table 1** Daily meteorological conditions, number of routes and time period of routes driven. Wind-speed from  
 733 SLEA LaSalle Road; Temperature and Relative Humidity from portable meteorological station Day 1 and Day 2 and  
 734 from Moore Line station Day 2.

Date	Number of Routes Driven	Measurement Local Time Period	Average Wind-speed (km hr <sup>-1</sup> )	Prevailing Wind-Direction	Average Temperature (°C)	Average Relative Humidity (%)	Emission Area Measured
3/21/2017	4	10:26-13:16	15	Westerly	10	50	City of Sarnia
3/22/2017	1	17:22-17:41	8	Northerly	-3	52	City of Sarnia
3/23/2017	2	11:10-11:57	15	Southerly	1	42	NOVA Chemicals Industries Facility

735

736 **Table 2** NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratios for routes driven.

Date	Day's	Measurement	Number of	Average $\pm 1\sigma$	Median
	Route	Local Time			
	Number	Period			
3/21/2017	1	10:26-11:06	37	1.53 $\pm$ 0.12	1.49
3/21/2017	2	11:22-11:45	23	1.45 $\pm$ 0.06	1.44
3/21/2017	3	12:09-12:28	18	1.36 $\pm$ 0.07	1.37
3/21/2017	4	12:34-13:16	24	1.29 $\pm$ 0.06	1.31
3/22/2017	1	17:22-17:41	10	1.49 $\pm$ 0.53	1.30
3/22/2017	1	17:22-17:41*	9	1.32 $\pm$ 0.08	1.30
3/23/2017	1	11:10-11:19	5	1.39 $\pm$ 0.09	1.39
3/23/2017	2	11:42-11:57	9	1.46 $\pm$ 0.17	1.52

737 The 3/22/2017 17:22-17:41\* data had the peak NO<sub>2</sub> plume location NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> value removed.

738

739 **Table 3** Calculated Leighton Ratios for selected plume maximums on Day 1 and 2.

Date	Local Time	$J_{\text{NO}_2}$ ( $\times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ )	Solar Irradiance ( $\text{W m}^{-2}$ )	Solar Zenith Angle	$\text{O}_3$ mixing ratio (ppb)	Measured $\text{NO}_2/\text{NO}$ (ppb ppb $^{-1}$ )	Calculated Leighton Ratio*
21/03/2017	11:00	5.23	564	35	18	1.7	1.61
21/03/2017	11:30	5.65	600	40	23	2.2	1.76
21/03/2017	12:15	6.44	675	43	23	2.2	2.01
22/03/2017	17:28	2.71	300	23	10	0.5	0.44

740 \* **Note that Leighton ratios,  $\phi$** , could be biased high by as much as +20% from the the  $\text{NO}_z$  component of  $\text{NO}_y$  measured by the  
 741  $\text{NO}_x$  analyzer, but likely much lower due to it being a fresh urban/industrial  $\text{NO}_x$  plume.

742

743 **Table 4** Lower limit NO<sub>x</sub> Emission Estimates from 10 m elevation wind-speeds.

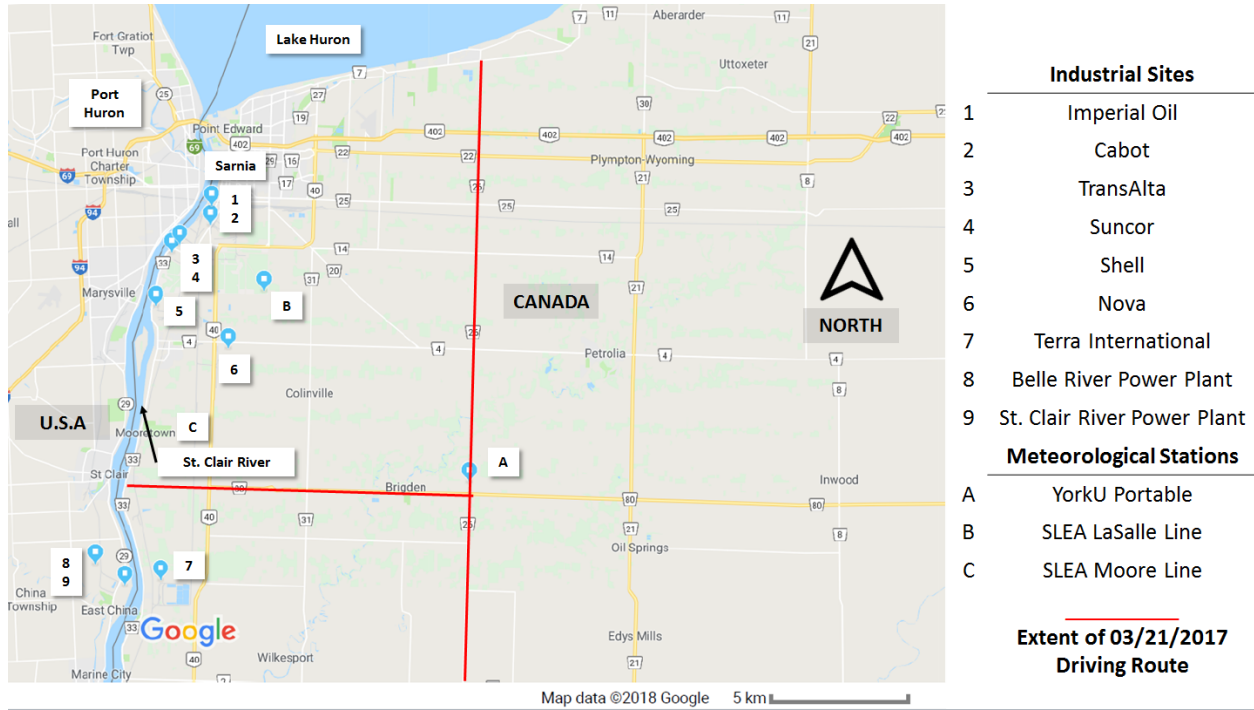
Date	Emission Source	Daily Route Number	Lower-limit NO <sub>x</sub> (tonnes hr <sup>-1</sup> )	NPRI NO <sub>x</sub> (tonnes hr <sup>-1</sup> )
21/03/2017	Sarnia	1	1.6±0.8	0.9
21/03/2017	Sarnia	2	1.2±0.5	0.9
21/03/2017	Sarnia	3	1.4±0.5	0.9
22/03/2017	Sarnia	1	1.5±0.6	0.9
22/03/2017	Sarnia	1*	2.2±0.8	0.9
23/03/2017	NovaChem	1	0.27±0.1	0.14
23/03/2017	NovaChem	2	0.29±0.1	0.14

744 \* calculated using individual NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratios.

745 **Table 5** Average emission estimates from Mobile MAX\_DOAS using 10 m wind-speeds and from NPRI.

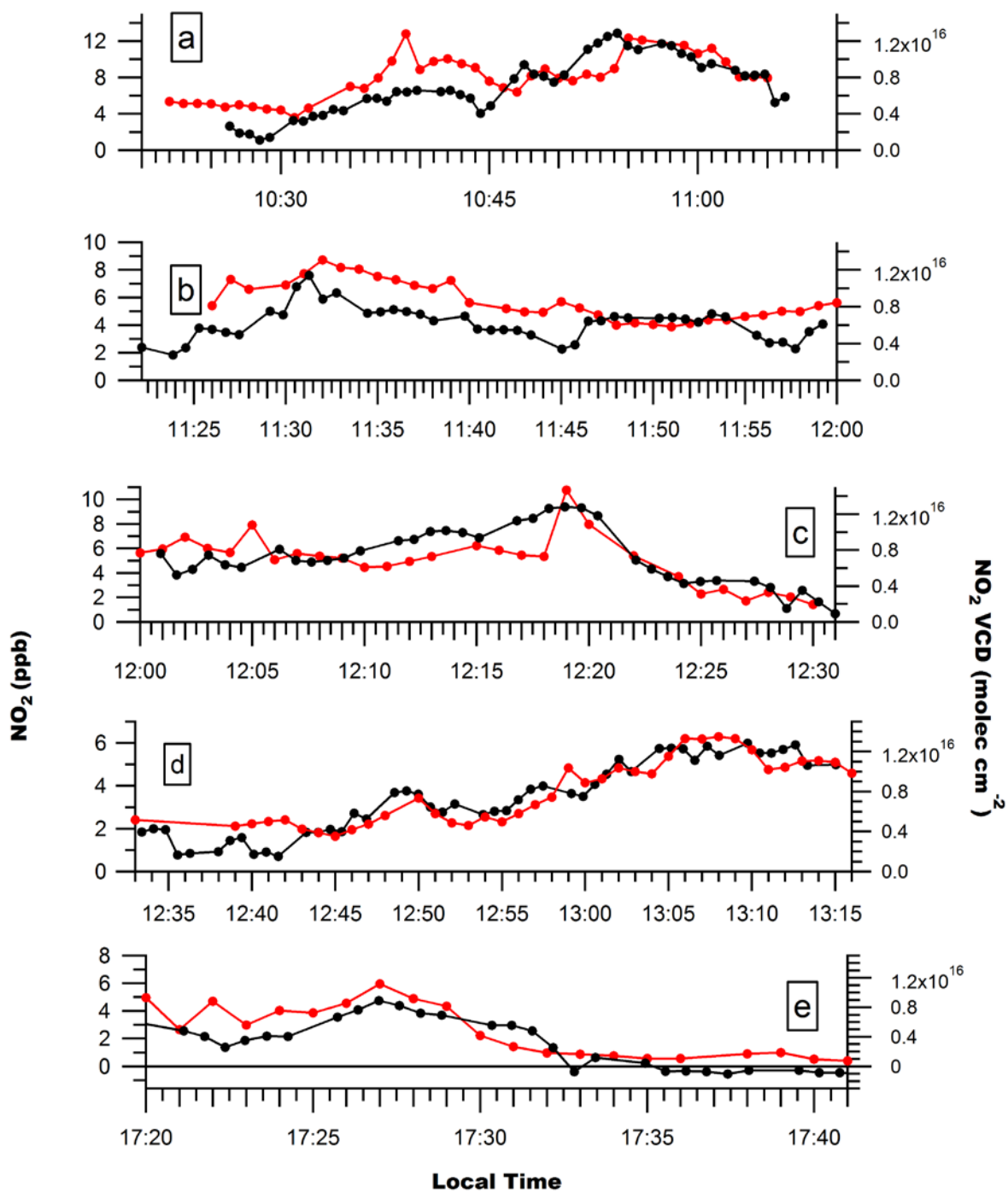
	Gas	Lower Limit Emission Estimate (tonnes hr <sup>-1</sup> )	2017 NPRI Value (tonnes hr <sup>-1</sup> )
Sarnia	NO <sub>x</sub>	1.60±0.34	0.9
Sarnia	SO <sub>2</sub>	1.81±0.83	1.85
NOVA Chemicals- Corunna Site	NO <sub>x</sub>	0.28±0.06	0.14

746



747 **Figure 1** Location of industrial NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> emission sources and meteorological stations in the Sarnia area.





748

749 **Figure 2** NO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios and NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs along routes 1-4 on Day 1 (a) – (d) and route 1 on Day 2 (e).

750 Uncertainties in measured NO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios are ± 0.5 ppb. Uncertainties in the NO<sub>2</sub> VCD are given by

751  $\sigma_{\text{VCD}} = [(0.25 \text{ VCD})^2 + (5 \times 10^{14} \text{ molec cm}^{-2})^2]^{1/2}$ .

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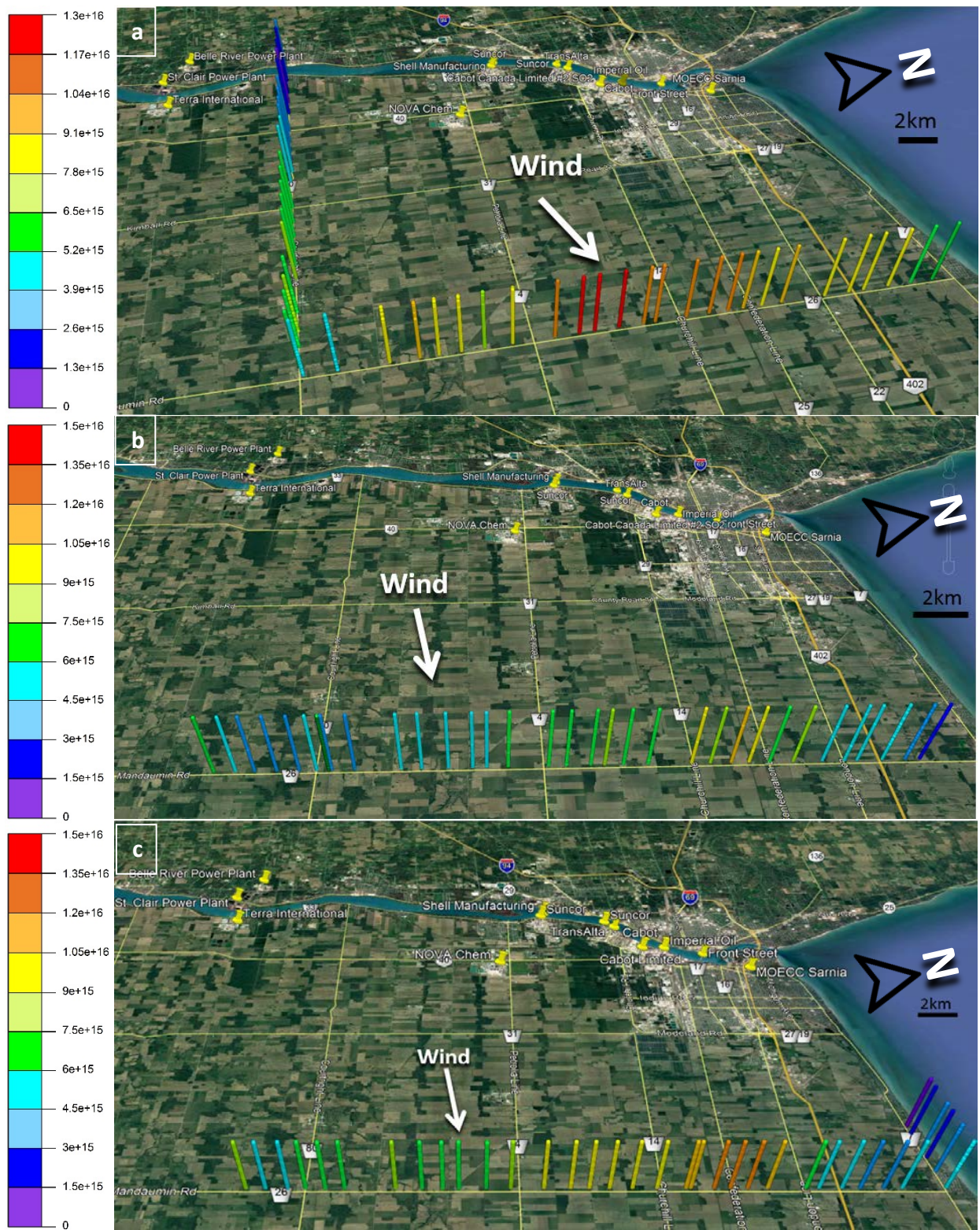
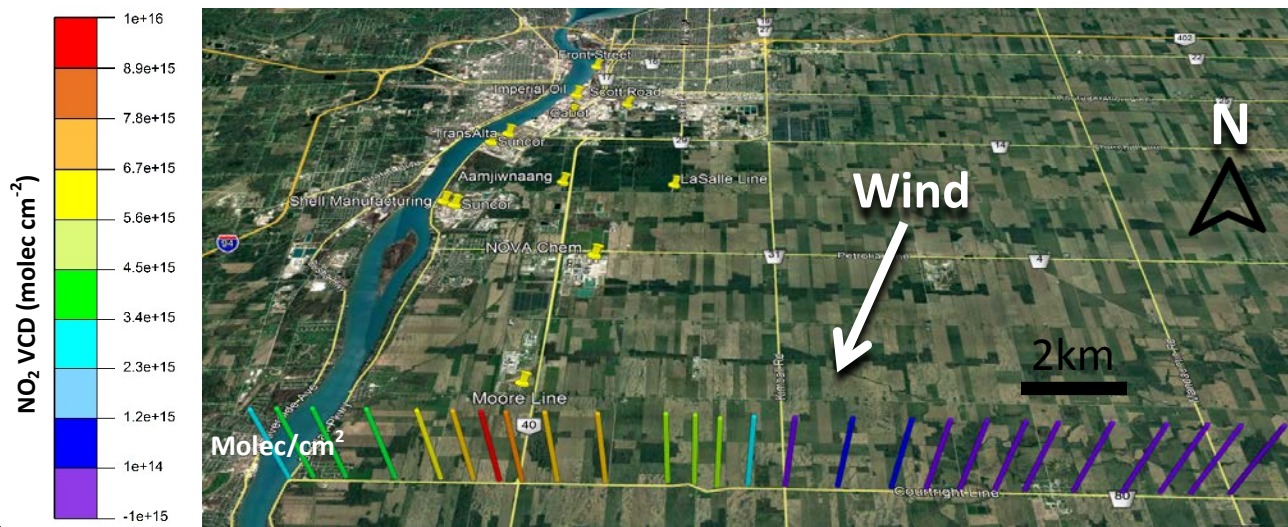


Figure 3 Day 1 driving routes; (a) route 1, (b) route 2 and (c) route 3, used to estimate NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from Sarnia.

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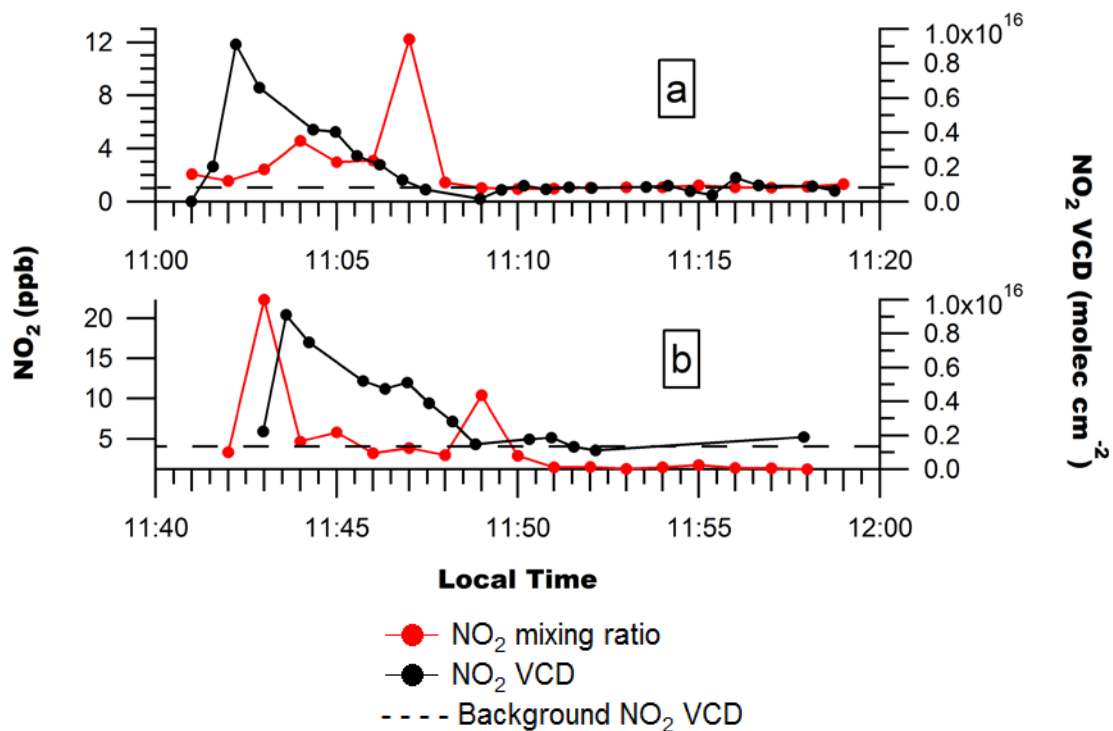
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763 **Figure 4** NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs measured on Day 2 route 1.

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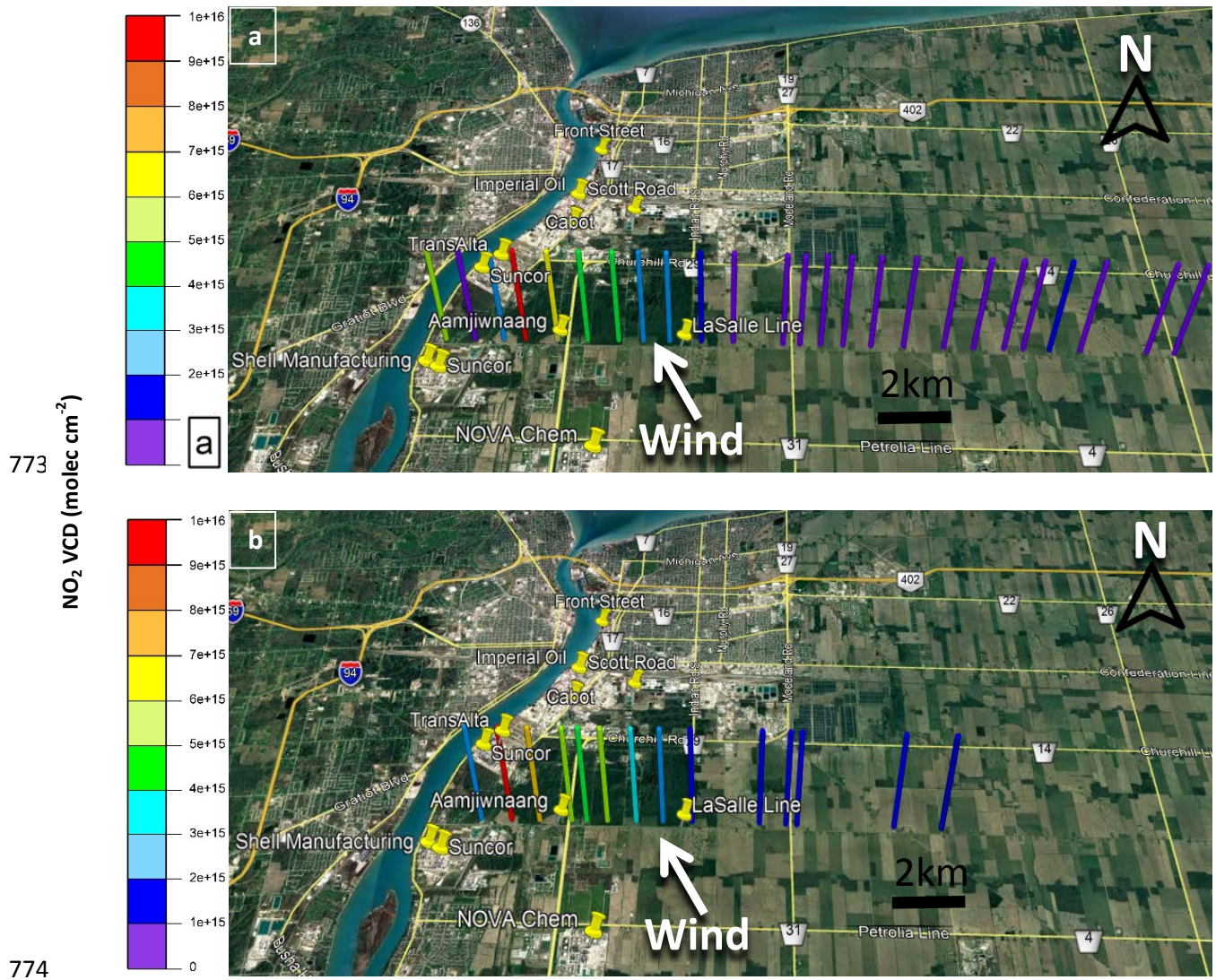
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769 **Figure 5** NO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios and NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs measured on Day 3 along (a) driving route 1 and (b) driving route 2.

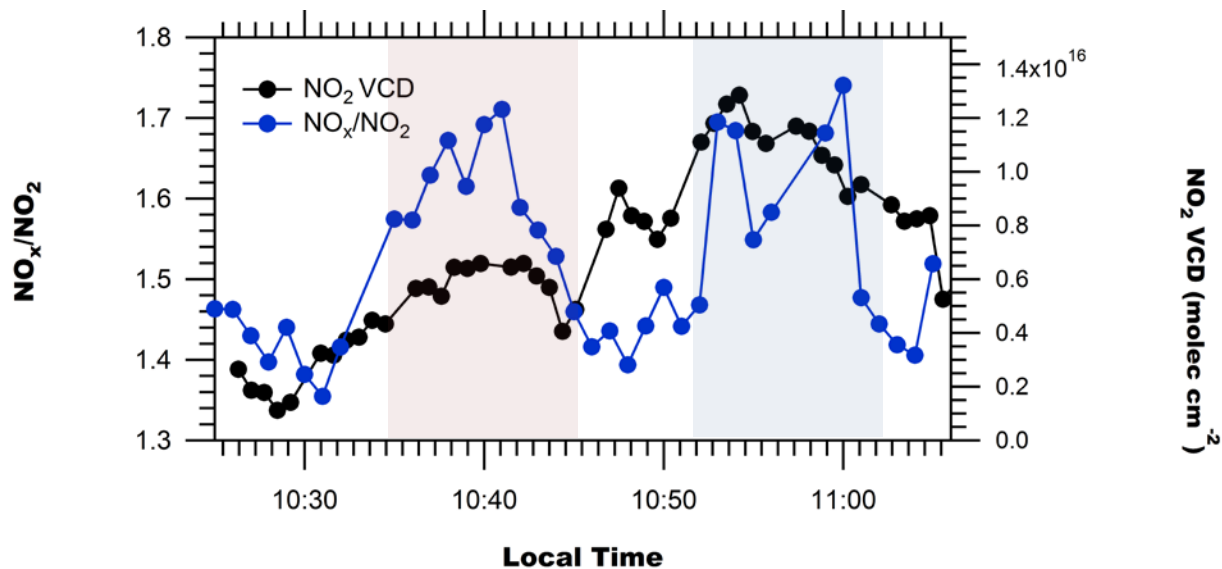
770 Uncertainties in measured NO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios are ± 0.5 ppb. Uncertainties in the NO<sub>2</sub> VCD are given by

771 
$$\sigma_{\text{VCD}} = [(0.25 \text{ VCD})^2 + (5 \times 10^{14} \text{ molec cm}^{-2})^2]^{1/2}.$$

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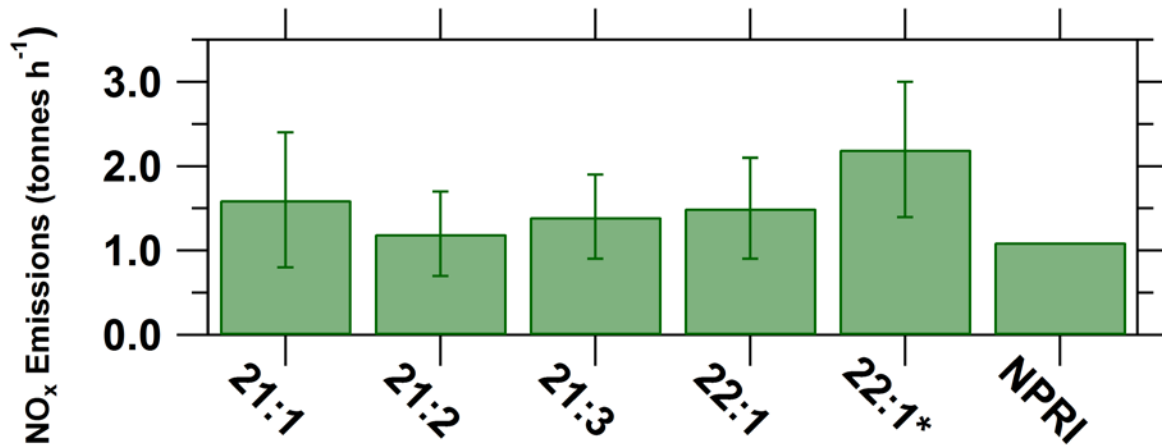


**Figure 6** NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs measured on Day 3 along (a) driving route 1 and (b) driving route 2.



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778 **Figure 7** NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs and NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratios on Day 1 route 1. Detection of Michigan power plants' plume(s) (left) on  
 779 East-West transect & Sarnia plume (right) on North-South transect are highlighted in pink and blue,  
 780 respectively. Uncertainties in measured NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratios are ± 5% (~±0.075). Uncertainties in the NO<sub>2</sub>  
 781 VCD are given by  $\sigma_{\text{VCD}} = [(0.25 \text{ VCD})^2 + (5 \times 10^{14} \text{ molec cm}^{-2})^2]^{1/2}$ .  
 782  
 783



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**Day of Month: Route Number**

785 **Figure 8** Lower limit estimates of NO<sub>x</sub> Emissions from Sarnia on Day 1 and Day 3 and 2016 NPRI emissions. The  
 786 22:1\* NO<sub>x</sub> emission estimate used individual NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratio values for each VCDs rather than a single average  
 787 ratio.

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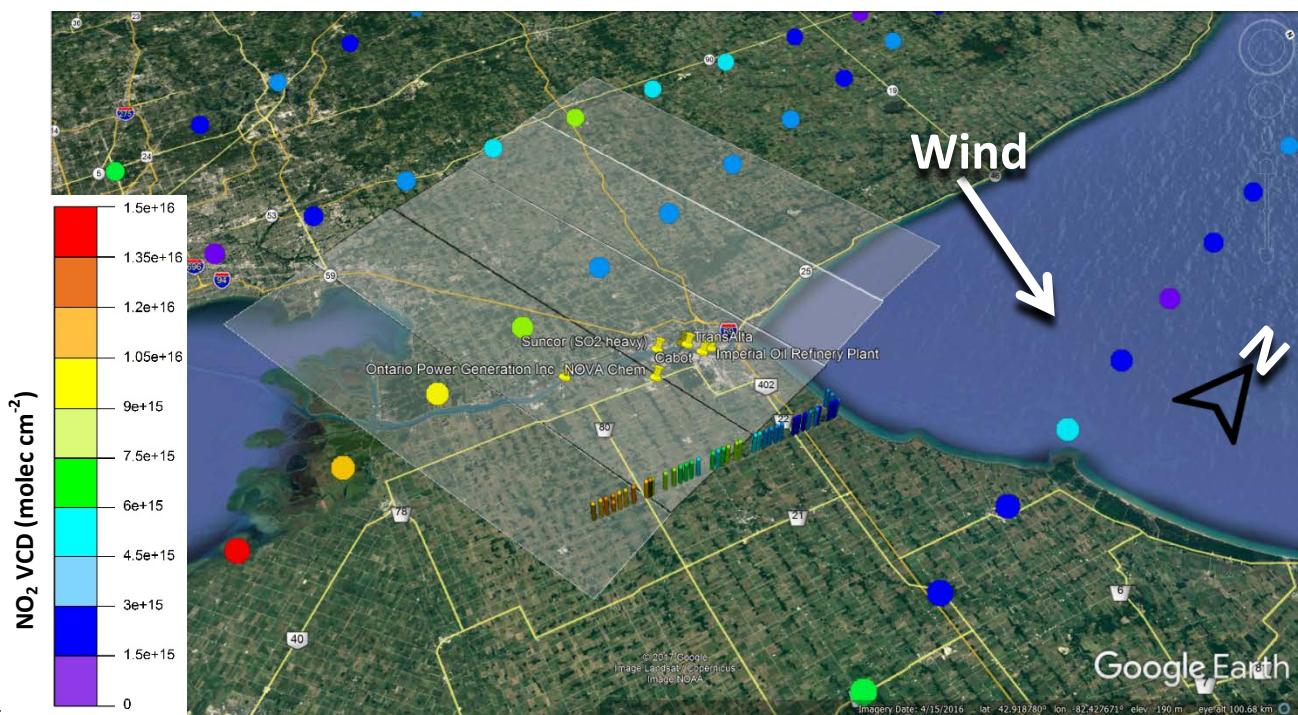
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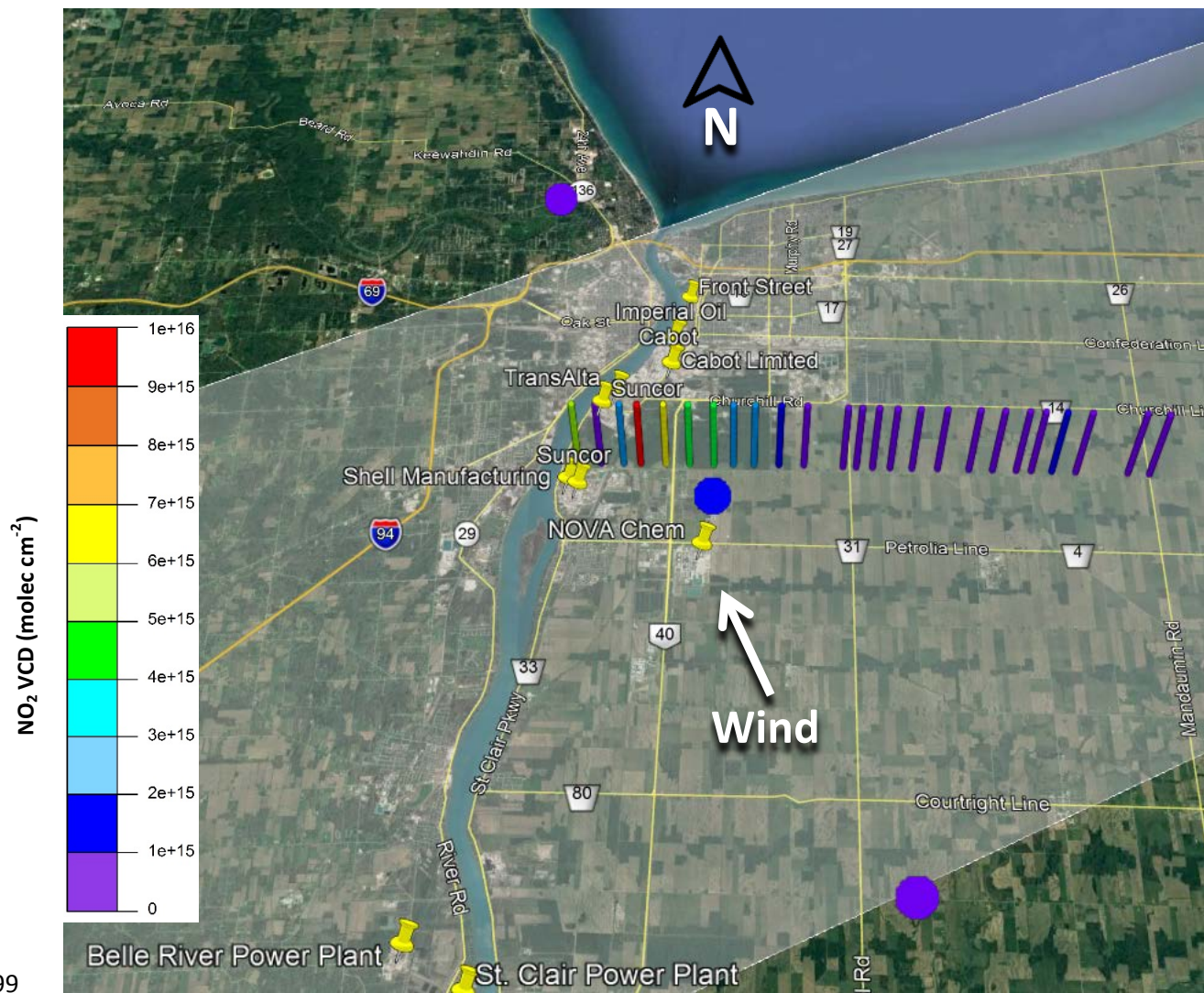
**Figure 9** SO<sub>2</sub> VCDs along route for emission estimate (Day 1 Route 3).

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**Figure 10** Day 1 NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs from OMI satellite VCDs and mobile-MAX-DOAS Route 4. OMI satellite pixels closest to Sarnia were measured at ~18:00 local time. Semi-opaque rectangles centered on the colored dots (indicating satellite VCD value) indicate the spatial extent of the pixel.





799

800 **Figure 11** Day 3 NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs from OMI satellite and mobile-MAX-DOAS Route 1. OMI pixels shown were  
 801 measured at ~18:00 local time. Semi-opaque rectangle centered on the colored dots indicates the spatial extent of the  
 802 pixel.