



1 2 3 4	Inferring the anthropogenic NO <sub>x</sub> emission trend over the United States during 2003 - 2017 from satellite observations: Was there a flattening of the emission tend after the Great Recession?
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## 11 Abstract

12	We illustrate the nonlinear relationships among anthropogenic NO <sub>x</sub> emissions, NO <sub>2</sub>
13	tropospheric vertical column densities (TVCDs), and NO2 surface concentrations using model
14	simulations for July 2011 over the contiguous United States (CONUS). The variations of $NO_2$
15	surface concentrations and TVCDs are generally consistent and reflect well anthropogenic $NO_x$
16	emission variations for high-anthropogenic-NO <sub>x</sub> emission regions. For low-anthropogenic-NO <sub>x</sub>
17	emission regions, however, nonlinearity in the emission-TVCD relationship makes it difficult to
18	use satellite observations to infer anthropogenic NO <sub>x</sub> emission changes. The analysis is extended
19	to $2003 - 2017$ . Similar variations of NO <sub>2</sub> surface measurements and coincident satellite NO <sub>2</sub>
20	TVCDs over urban regions are in sharp contrast to the large variation differences between surface
21	and satellite observations over rural regions. We find a continuous decrease of anthropogenic
22	NO <sub>x</sub> emissions after 2011 by examining surface and satellite measurements in CONUS urban
23	regions, but the decreasing rate is lower by 9% - 46% than the pre-2011 period.





# 25 **1. Introduction**

26	Anthropogenic emissions of nitrogen oxides ( $NO_x = NO_2 + NO$ ) adversely affect the
27	environment, not only because of their direct detrimental impacts on human health (Greenberg et
28	al., 2016; Greenberg et al., 2017; Heinrich et al., 2013; Weinmayr et al., 2009), but also their
29	fundamental roles in the formation of ozone, acid rain, and fine particles which are unfavorable to
30	human health, ecosystem stabilities, and climate change (Crouse et al., 2015; Kampa and
31	Castanas, 2008; Myhre et al., 2013; Pandey et al., 2005; Singh and Agrawal, 2007). About 48.8
32	Tg N yr <sup>-1</sup> of NO <sub>x</sub> are emitted globally from both anthropogenic (77%) and natural (23%) sources,
33	such as fossil fuel combustion, biomass and biofuel burning, soil bacteria, and lightning (Seinfeld
34	and Pandis, 2016). 3.85 Tg N and 0.24 Tg N of anthropogenic and natural $NO_x$ , respectively,
35	were emitted from the U.S. in 2014 on the basis of the 2014 National Emission Inventory
36	(NEI2014); vehicle sources and fuel combustions accounted for 93% of the total anthropogenic
27	NO <sub>x</sub> emissions (EPA, 2017).
57	
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<ul> <li>38</li> <li>39</li> <li>40</li> <li>41</li> <li>42</li> <li>43</li> <li>44</li> <li>45</li> <li>46</li> </ul>	The U.S. anthropogenic NO <sub>x</sub> emissions during the 2010s declined dramatically compared to the mid-2000s (EPA, 2018; Xing et al., 2013) due to stricter air quality regulations and emission control technology improvements, such as the phase-in of Tier II vehicles during 2004 – 2009 and the switch of power plants from coal to natural gas (De Gouw et al., 2014; McDonald et al., 2018). The overall reduction (about 30% - 50%) of anthropogenic NO <sub>x</sub> emissions from the mid-2000s to the 2010s was corroborated by observed decreasing of vehicle NO <sub>x</sub> emission factors, NO <sub>2</sub> surface concentrations, nitrate wet deposition flux, and NO <sub>2</sub> tropospheric vertical column densities (TVCDs) (Bishop and Stedman, 2015; Li et al., 2018; McDonald et al., 2018; Miyazaki et al., 2017; Russell et al., 2012; Tong et al., 2015). However, the detailed NO <sub>x</sub> emission changes
<ul> <li>38</li> <li>39</li> <li>40</li> <li>41</li> <li>42</li> <li>43</li> <li>44</li> <li>45</li> <li>46</li> <li>47</li> </ul>	The U.S. anthropogenic NO <sub>x</sub> emissions during the 2010s declined dramatically compared to the mid-2000s (EPA, 2018; Xing et al., 2013) due to stricter air quality regulations and emission control technology improvements, such as the phase-in of Tier II vehicles during 2004 – 2009 and the switch of power plants from coal to natural gas (De Gouw et al., 2014; McDonald et al., 2018). The overall reduction (about 30% - 50%) of anthropogenic NO <sub>x</sub> emissions from the mid- 2000s to the 2010s was corroborated by observed decreasing of vehicle NO <sub>x</sub> emission factors, NO <sub>2</sub> surface concentrations, nitrate wet deposition flux, and NO <sub>2</sub> tropospheric vertical column densities (TVCDs) (Bishop and Stedman, 2015; Li et al., 2018; McDonald et al., 2018; Miyazaki et al., 2017; Russell et al., 2012; Tong et al., 2015). However, the detailed NO <sub>x</sub> emission changes after the Great Recession (from December 2007 to June 2009) are highly uncertain. On the one





49	slight impact on the anthropogenic $NO_x$ emission trend, and the anthropogenic $NO_x$ emissions
50	decreased steadily from 2002 to 2017 (Figure S1), although the emission decrease rate slowed
51	down by about 20% after 2010 (-5.8% yr <sup>-1</sup> for 2002 – 2010, and -4.7% yr <sup>-1</sup> for 2010 – 2017,
52	Table 1) (EPA, 2018). Fuel-based emission estimates in Los Angeles also showed a steady
53	decrease of anthropogenic NO <sub>x</sub> emissions after 2000 and a small impact of the Great Recession
54	on anthropogenic NO <sub>x</sub> emission decrease trend (Hassler et al., 2016). The continuous decrease of
55	anthropogenic $NO_x$ emissions was consistent with the ongoing reduction of vehicle emissions
56	(McDonald et al., 2018). On the other hand, Miyazaki et al. (2017) and Jiang et al. (2018) found
57	that the U.S. $NO_x$ emissions derived from satellite $NO_2$ TVCDs, including OMI (the Ozone
58	Monitoring Instrument), SCIAMACHY (SCanning Imaging Absorption SpectroMeter for
59	Atmospheric CHartography), and GOME-2A (Global Ozone Monitoring Experiment - 2 onboard
60	METOP-A), were almost flat from 2010 - 2015 and suggested that the decrease of $NO_x$ emissions
61	was only significant before 2010, which was completely different from the bottom-up and fuel-
62	based emission estimates.

63	A complicating factor in inferring anthropogenic $NO_x$ emission trends from the observations
64	of NO <sub>2</sub> surface concentrations and satellite NO <sub>2</sub> TVCDs is the nonlinearity in NO <sub>x</sub> chemistry (Gu
65	et al., 2013; Gu et al., 2016). Although the decrease rates of both NO <sub>2</sub> surface concentrations and
66	coincident OMI NO2 TVCDs slowed down after the Great Recession over the United States,
67	Tong et al. (2015), Lamsal et al. (2015) and Jiang et al. (2018) found that the slowdown of the
68	decrease rates derived from NO_2 surface concentrations is 12% - 79% less than those of NO_2
69	TVCDs (Table 1). Secondly, the slowdown of the decrease rates of $NO_2$ surface concentrations
70	and OMI TVCDs over cities and power plants (Russell et al., 2012; Tong et al., 2015) is
71	significantly less than those over the whole contiguous United States (CONUS) (Jiang et al.,
72	2018; Lamsal et al., 2015). Moreover, Zhang et al. (2018) found that filtering out lightning-





- affected measurements could significantly improve the comparison of NO<sub>2</sub> surface concentration
- and OMI NO<sub>2</sub> TVCD trends over the CONUS.
- 75 In this study, we carefully investigate the relationships among anthropogenic  $NO_x$  emissions,
- 76 NO<sub>2</sub> surface concentrations, and NO<sub>2</sub> TVCDs over the CONUS and evaluate the impact of the
- relationships on inferring anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emission changes and trends from surface and
- real satellite observations. Section 2 describes the model and datasets used in this study, including the
- 79 Regional chEmistry and trAnsport Model (REAM), the EPA Air Quality System (AQS) NO<sub>2</sub>
- surface observations, and NO<sub>2</sub> TVCD products from OMI, GOME-2A, GOME-2B (GOME2
- 81 onboard METOP-B), and SCIAMACHY. In Section 3, we examine the nonlinear relationships
- 82 among anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, NO<sub>2</sub> surface concentrations, and NO<sub>2</sub> TVCDs using model
- 83 simulations. Accounting for the effects of chemical nonlinearity, we then investigate the
- anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emission trends and changes from 2003 2017 over the CONUS. Finally,
- section 4 gives a summary of the study.

### **2. Model and Data Description**

#### 87 2.1 REAM

88 The REAM model has been applied and evaluated in many research applications including

89 ozone simulation and forecast, emission inversion and evaluations, and mechanical studies of

- 90 chemical and physical processes (Alkuwari et al., 2013; Cheng et al., 2017; Cheng et al., 2018;
- 91 Choi et al., 2008a; Choi et al., 2008b; Gu et al., 2013; Gu et al., 2014; Koo et al., 2012; Liu et al.,
- 92 2012; Liu et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2007; Yang et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2017; Zhang et al.,
- 93 2018; Zhang and Wang, 2016; Zhao and Wang, 2009; Zhao et al., 2009a; Zhao et al., 2010).
- 94 REAM used in this work has 30 vertical layers in the troposphere, and the horizontal resolution is
- $36 \times 36$  km<sup>2</sup>. The model is driven by meteorology fields from a Weather and Research





- Forecasting (WRF, version 3.6) model simulation initialized and constrained by the NCEP 96 97 coupled forecast system model version 2 (CFSv2) products (Saha et al., 2011). The chemistry mechanism is based on GEOS-Chem v11.01 with updated reaction rates and aerosol uptake of 98 isoprene nitrates (Fisher et al., 2016). Chemistry boundary conditions and initializations are from 99 100 a GEOS-Chem  $(2^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ})$  simulation. Hourly anthropogenic emissions on weekdays are based on 101 the 2011 National Emission Inventory (NEI2011), while weekend anthropogenic emissions are 102 set to be two-thirds of the weekday emissions (Beirle et al., 2003; Choi et al., 2012). Biogenic 103 VOC emissions are estimated using the Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature 104 (MEGAN) v2.10 (Guenther et al., 2012). NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from soils are based on the Yienger and
- 105 Levy (YL) scheme (Li et al., 2019; Yienger and Levy, 1995).

#### 106 2.2 Satellite NO<sub>2</sub> TVCDs

107 In this study, we use  $NO_2$  TVCD products from four satellite measurements in the past decade, including SCIAMACHY, GOME-2A, GOME-2B, and OMI, the spectrometers onboard 108 sun-synchronous satellites to monitor atmospheric trace gases. The SCIAMACHY onboard the 109 110 Environmental Satellite (ENVISAT) has an equator overpass time of 10:00 Local time (LT) and a 111 nadir pixel resolution of  $60 \times 30$  km<sup>2</sup>. The GOME-2 instruments on Metop-A (named as GOME-2A) and Metop-B (GOME-2B) satellites cross the equator at 9:30 LT and have a nadir resolution 112 of  $80 \times 40$  km<sup>2</sup>. After July 15, 2013, the nadir resolution of GOME-2A became  $40 \times 40$  km<sup>2</sup> with 113 114 a smaller scanning swath. The OMI onboard the EOS-Aura satellite has a nadir resolution of  $24 \times$ 115 13 km<sup>2</sup> and overpasses the equator around 13:45 LT. More detailed information about these 116 instruments is summarized in Table S1. These instruments measure transmitted, backscattered, and reflected radiation from the atmosphere in the ultraviolet and visible wavelength. The 117 118 radiation measurements in the wavelength of 402 - 465 nm are then used to retrieve NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs. 119 The retrieval process consists of three steps: 1) converting radiation observations to  $NO_2$  slant column densities (SCDs) by using the Differential Optical Absorption Spectroscopy (DOAS) 120





- 121 spectral fitting method; 2) separating tropospheric SCDs and stratospheric SCDs from the total
- 122 NO<sub>2</sub> SCDs; 3) dividing the NO<sub>2</sub> tropospheric SCDs by the tropospheric air mass factors (AMF) to
- 123 compute VCDs.
- 124 The product archives we use in this study include GOME-2B (TM4NO2A v2.3),
- 125 SCIAMACHY (QA4ECV v1.1), GOME-2A (QA4ECV v1.1), OMI (QA4ECV v1.1, hereafter
- 126 referred to as OMI-QA4ECV), OMNO2 (SPv3, hereafter referred to as OMI-NASA), and the
- 127 Berkeley High-Resolution NO<sub>2</sub> products (v3.0B, hereafter referred to as OMI-BEHR). OMI-
- 128 BEHR uses the tropospheric SCDs from OMI-NASA products but updates some inputs for the
- 129 tropospheric AMF calculation (Laughner et al., 2018). These product archives have been
- previously validated (Boersma et al., 2018; Drosoglou et al., 2017; Drosoglou et al., 2018;
- 131 Krotkov et al., 2017; Laughner et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2017; Zara et al., 2018). Generally, the
- 132 pixel-size uncertainties of these products are > 30% over polluted regions under clear-sky
- 133 conditions. We summarize the basic information about these products in Table S2. To keep the
- high quality and sampling consistency of NO<sub>2</sub> TVCD datasets, we chose pixel-size NO<sub>2</sub> TVCD
- 135 data using the criteria listed in Table S3. After the selection, we re-grid the pixel-size data into the
- 136 REAM  $36 \times 36$  km<sup>2</sup> grid cells and calculate the seasonal means of each grid cell with
- 137 corresponding daily values on weekdays (winter: January, February, and December; spring:
- 138 March, April, and May; summer: June, July, and Autumn; autumn: September, October, and
- 139 November). We excluded weekend data in this study to minimize the impacts of weekend  $NO_x$
- 140 emission reduction, leading to different NO<sub>2</sub> TVCDs between weekdays and weekends (Figure
- 141 S2).
- Satellite TVCD measurements can show large variations and apparent discontinuities due in
  part to the effects of cloud, lightning NO<sub>x</sub>, the shift of satellite pixel coverage, and retrieval
  uncertainties (Figure S2; e.g., (Boersma et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018)). However, continuous
  and consistent measurements are required for reliable trend analyses. In addition to the criteria of





- 146 data selection in Table S3, we compute the seasonal relative 90<sup>th</sup> percentile confidence interval,
- 147 defined as  $RCI = (X(95^{th} \text{ percentile}) X(5^{th} \text{ percentile})) / mean(X)$ , where X is the daily NO<sub>2</sub>
- 148 TVCD for a given season. To compute the seasonal trend, we require that RCI is < 50% for the
- selected season every year in the analysis period (Table S3). About 45% of data are removed as a
- 150 result.

#### 151 2.3 Surface NO<sub>2</sub> measurements

152 Hourly surface NO<sub>2</sub> measurements from 2003 - 2017 are from the EPA AQS monitoring network (archived on https://www.epa.gov/outdoor-air-quality-data). Most AQS monitoring sites 153 use the Federal Reference Method (FRM) — gas-phase chemiluminescence to measure NO<sub>2</sub>. Few 154 155 sites use the Federal Equivalent Method (FEM) - photolytic-chemiluminescence or the Cavity 156 Attenuated Phase Shift Spectroscopy (CAPS) method. FRM and FEM are indirect methods, in 157 which NO<sub>2</sub> is first converted to NO and then NO is measured through chemiluminescence measurement of NO<sub>2</sub>\* produced by NO + O<sub>3</sub>. The difference is that FRM uses heated 158 reducers/catalysts for the conversion of NO2 to NO and FEM uses photolysis of NO2 to NO. The 159 160 conversion to NO in the FRM instruments is not specific to NO<sub>2</sub>, and non-NO<sub>x</sub> active nitrogen 161 compounds (NO<sub>z</sub>) can also be reduced by the catalysts, which would cause high biases of NO<sub>2</sub> measurements, while the FEM method is sensitive to the photolysis conversion efficiency of  $NO_2$ 162 to NO (Beaver et al., 2012; Beaver et al., 2013; Lamsal et al., 2015). The CAPS method directly 163 164 determines NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations based on a NO<sub>2</sub>-induced phase shift measured by a photodetector. 165 The CAPS instrument operates at a wavelength of about 450 nm and may overestimate NO<sub>2</sub> 166 concentrations due to absorption of other molecules at the same wavelength (Beaver et al., 2012; Beaver et al., 2013; Kebabian et al., 2005). 167

- 168 Due to the different characteristics of the above three methods and demonstrated biases
- 169 between the FRM and the FEM by Lamsal et al. (2015), we firstly investigate the measurement





- 170 discrepancies among the above three methods. There are three sites having FRM and FEM
- 171 measurements simultaneously during some periods from 2013 2014, two sites having both FRM
- and CAPS data during some periods from 2015 2016, and one site using all three measurement
- 173 methods during some periods in 2015. Figure S3 shows the hourly averaged ratios of FEM and
- 174 CAPS to FRM data, respectively, for 4 seasons during 2013 2016. The CAPS/FRM ratios are in
- the range of 0.94 1.06 and the FEM/FRM ratios of 0.86 1.11. Furthermore, Zhang et al.
- 176 (2018) discussed that the relative trends are not affected by scaling the observation data. As in the
- work by Zhang et al. (2018), we analyze the relative trends in the surface  $NO_2$  data. We,
- therefore, did not scale the FRM data. At sites with FEM or CAPS measurements, we use these
- 179 measurements in place of FRM data. If both FEM and CAPS data are available, we use the
- averages of the two datasets.
- 181 Since NO<sub>2</sub> surface concentrations have significant diurnal variations (Figure S4), we choose
- the data at 9:00-10:00 LT for comparison with GOME-2A/2B data, 10:00-11:00 LT for
- 183 comparison with SCIAMACHY data, and 13:00-14:00 LT for OMI data. The seasonal RCI <
- 184 50% requirement is also used here to be consistent with the analysis of satellite TVCD data. We
- 185 also require that the measurement site must have valid measurements in the aforementioned 3
- 186 hours for at least one season from 2003 2017. The locations of the 179 selected sites using the
- 187 site selection criteria are shown in Figure 1. The region definitions follow the U.S. Census Bureau
- 188 (https://www2.census.gov/geo/pdfs/maps-data/maps/reference/us\_regdiv.pdf).





### **3. Results and Discussions**

190 3.1 Nonlinear relationships among anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, NO<sub>2</sub> surface

#### 191 concentrations, and NO<sub>2</sub> TVCDs

- 192 NO<sub>2</sub> surface concentrations and NO<sub>2</sub> TVCD are not linearly correlated with NO<sub>x</sub> emissions
- due in part to chemical nonlinearity (Gu et al., 2013; Lamsal et al., 2011). Therefore, it is
- 194 necessary to first investigate the nonlinearities among NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, NO<sub>2</sub> surface
- 195 concentrations, and TVCDs over the CONUS before we compare the trends between NO<sub>2</sub> surface
- 196 concentrations and TVCDs. The nonlinearity between NO<sub>x</sub> emission and NO<sub>2</sub> TVCD is analyzed
- 197 by examining the local sensitivity of  $NO_2$  TVCD to  $NO_x$  emissions (Gu et al., 2013; Lamsal et al.,
- 198 2011; Tong et al., 2015), which is defined as  $\beta$  in Equation (1). We further define  $\gamma$  as the
- sensitivity of NO<sub>2</sub> surface concentration to NO<sub>x</sub> emission:

$$200 \qquad \frac{\Delta E}{E} = \beta \frac{\Delta \Omega}{\Omega} \tag{1}$$

201 
$$\frac{\Delta E}{E} = \gamma \frac{\Delta c}{c}$$
(2)

where *E* denotes NO<sub>x</sub> emission and Δ*E* denotes the change of NO<sub>x</sub> emission; Ω denotes NO<sub>2</sub>
TVCD, *c* denotes surface NO<sub>2</sub> concentration, and ΔΩ and Δ*c* denote the corresponding changes.

We computed  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  values for July 2011 over the CONUS using REAM. To compute local  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  values, we added another independent group of chemistry species ("group 2") in REAM in order to compute the standard and sensitivity simulations concurrently. The original chemical species in the model ("group 1") were used in the standard simulation. For group 2 chemical species, anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions were reduced by 15%. In model simulation, we first computed the advection of group 1 tracers. The horizontal tracer fluxes were therefore





210	available. All influxes into a grid cell for group 2 tracer simulation were from group 1 tracer
211	simulation; only outfluxes were computed using group 2 tracers. The outflux was one way in that
212	nitrogen species were transported out but the transport did not affect adjacent grid cells because
213	the influxes were from group 1 tracer simulation. Using this procedure, the effects of
214	anthropogenic NOx emission reduction were localized. The $\beta$ and $\gamma$ values were computed by the
215	ratio of TVCD and surface concentration changes to 15% change of anthropogenic NO <sub>x</sub>
216	emissions, respectively.
217	Figure 2 shows the distributions of our $\beta$ and $\gamma$ ratios as a function of anthropogenic NO <sub>x</sub>
218	emissions for July 2011 over the CONUS. Results essentially the same as Figure 2 were obtained
219	when a perturbation of 10% was used for anthropogenic NO <sub>x</sub> emissions. While the model
220	simulation is for one summer month, several key points on the surface and column concentration
221	sensitivities to anthropogenic NO <sub>x</sub> emissions have implications for comparing the trends of AQS
222	and satellite TVCD data. (1) Both $\beta$ and $\gamma$ values are negatively correlated with anthropogenic
223	NO <sub>x</sub> emissions due to chemical nonlinearity and background NO <sub>x</sub> contributions (Gu et al., 2016;
224	Lamsal et al., 2011). It is consistent with the distribution of $\beta$ as a function of NO <sub>x</sub> emissions in
225	China (Gu et al., 2013), although the $\beta$ ratios for the US are generally larger than for China due
226	primarily to different emission distributions of NOx and VOCs and regional circulation patterns
227	(Zhao et al., 2009b). (2) The uncertainties of $\beta$ and $\gamma$ values increase significantly as
228	anthropogenic $NO_x$ emissions decrease, which means regions with low anthropogenic $NO_x$
229	emissions are more sensitive to environmental conditions, such as NO <sub>x</sub> transport from nearby
230	regions which may even produce negative $\beta$ and $\gamma$ values. (3) The value of $\gamma$ is generally less than
231	$\beta$ , especially for low-anthropogenic-NO <sub>x</sub> emission regions, which reflects the significant
232	contribution of free tropospheric $NO_2$ to $NO_2$ TVCD but not to $NO_2$ surface concentrations. (4)
233	The variations of $\beta$ and $\gamma$ values in anthropogenic NO_x emission bins tend to be larger at 10:00 –
234	11:00 than at 13:00 – 14:00 LT, reflecting a stronger transport effect due to weaker chemical





235	losses at $10:00 - 11:00$ . (5) Both $\beta$ and $\gamma$ values are significantly less than 1 at $13:00 - 14:00$ LT
236	( $\beta = 0.74$ and $\gamma = 0.84$ ) when anthropogenic NO <sub>x</sub> emissions are > 4 × 10 <sup>12</sup> molecules cm <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> , but
237	they are close to 1 at $10:00 - 11:00$ LT ( $\beta = 0.96$ and $\gamma = 1.02$ ), which reflect stronger chemistry
238	nonlinearity at $13:00 - 14:00$ than in the morning.

The largely varying  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  values for anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions < 10<sup>11</sup> molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> 239 s<sup>-1</sup> imply that the trends derived from satellite TVCD data do not directly represent anthropogenic 240 241 NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and that the variations of TVCD data may not be comparable to the corresponding surface NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. We define a region "urban" if anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions are >242 10<sup>11</sup> molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. All the other regions are defined as "rural". Figure 3 shows the 243 distributions of anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and urban and rural regions defined in this study. 244 Such defined urban regions account for 69.8% of the total anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over the 245 CONUS, the trend of which is, therefore, representative of anthropogenic emission changes. A 246 247 caveat is that some "urban" regions would become "rural" if anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions decreased after 2011 as the EPA anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emission trend suggested (Figure S1). In a 248 249 sensitivity study, we define an urban region using a stricter criterion of anthropogenic  $NO_x$ emissions >  $2 \times 10^{11}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and the analysis results are similar to those shown in the 250 251 next section.

3.2 Trend comparisons between NO<sub>2</sub> AQS surface concentrations and coincident
 satellite NO<sub>2</sub> tropospheric VCD over urban and rural regions

By using anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions of  $10^{11}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> as the threshold value, 157 AQS sites are urban, and the rest 22 sites are rural. Their properties are summarized in Table 2. Figure 4 shows the relative annual variations of AQS NO<sub>2</sub> surface measurements at 13:00 – 14:00 and coincident OMI-QA4ECV NO<sub>2</sub> TVCD data from 2005 – 2017 in each season for urban and rural regions. The contrast between the two regions is apparent in all seasons. For comparison





- purposes, we scale the time series of TVCD and AQS surface NO<sub>2</sub> to their corresponding 2005 259 260 values, and the resulting data are therefore unitless. Over urban regions, NO2 surface concentrations are highly correlated with NO<sub>2</sub> TVCDs (TVCD =  $1.03 \times AQS + 0.11$ , R<sup>2</sup> = 0.98), 261 reflecting the comparable and stable  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  values (Figure 2). However, over rural regions, the 262 scaled TVCD data significantly deviate from AQS NO<sub>2</sub> data (TVCD =  $1.15 \times AQS + 0.09$ , R<sup>2</sup> = 263 264 0.87). It is noteworthy that the discrepancies between urban and rural data are smaller in winter than in spring, summer, and autumn due to a more dominant role of transport than chemistry and 265 266 lower natural NO<sub>x</sub> emissions in winter. 267 We also examine the correlations of AQS NO2 surface concentrations with coincident OMI-NASA, OMI-BEHR, SCIAMACHY, GOME-2A, and GOME-2B TVCD measurements. The 268 results of OMI-NASA and OMI-BEHR are similar to those of OMI-QA4ECV (Figure 4). 269 SCIAMACHY and GOME-2B TVCD observations at 9:00-11:00 LT also show large contrast 270 271 between urban (SCIAMACHY: TVCD =  $0.92 \times AQS - 0.005$ ,  $R^2 = 0.94$ ; GOME-2B: TVCD =  $0.54 \times AQS + 0.56$ ,  $R^2 = 0.96$ ) and rural regions (SCIAMACHY: TVCD =  $0.77 \times AQS + 0.83$ ,  $R^2$ 272 = 0.63; GOME-2B: TVCD =  $0.46 \times AQS + 0.73$ , R<sup>2</sup> = 0.59). The correlation of coincident 273 274 GOME-2A NO<sub>2</sub> TVCD data with AQS surface concentrations is poor for rural (TVCD =  $0.65 \times$ 275 AQS + 0.56,  $R^2 = 0.44$ ) and urban (TVCD =  $0.31 \times AQS + 0.56$ ,  $R^2 = 0.21$ ) regions (Figure S5), which likely reflects the degradation of the GOME-2A instrument causing significant increase of 276 277 NO<sub>2</sub> SCD uncertainties (Boersma et al., 2018). Therefore, we excluded GOME-2A in the analysis 278 hereafter. We further investigate the sensitivities of OMI-QA4ECV NO<sub>2</sub> TVCD relative annual 279 variations from 2005 - 2017 to different anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over the CONUS in Figure 280
- 281 5. We find clear flattening of  $NO_2$  TVCD variations as anthropogenic  $NO_x$  emissions decrease,
- which is consistent with the above analysis. Similar to Figure 4, the spread of TVCD variation is
- 283 much less in winter than the other seasons. The differences between Figures 5 and 4 are due to a





- 284 much larger dataset used in the former than the latter. Only coincident AQS and OMI-QA4ECV
- data are used in Figure 4, but all OMI-KMNI data are used in Figure 5.

#### 286 3.3 Trend analysis of AQS NO2 surface concentrations, satellite TVCDs, and

#### 287 updated EPA NOx emissions

- 288 We first updated the CEMS measurement data used in the EPA NO<sub>x</sub> emission trend datasets
- 289 with the newest datasets obtained from <u>https://ampd.epa.gov/ampd/</u>. As shown in Figure S1, the

290 updated CEMS data lead to a reduction of anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions during the Great

- 291 Recession (2008 2009) and a recovery period in 2010 2011. The sharp drop during the Great
- 292 Recession and the flattening trend right after the Great Recession are captured by OMI NO<sub>2</sub> and
- 293 SCIAMACHY TVCD products (Figures 4, 6, and S6) and AQS NO<sub>2</sub> surface measurements
- (Figures 4, 6, and S4) and are also noted by Russell et al. (2012) and Tong et al. (2015) (Table 1).

295 In Figure 6, we show the comparisons among the relative variations of the updated EPA 296 anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, AQS NO<sub>2</sub> surface measurements at 10:00-11:00 and 13:00-14:00, 297 and coincident satellite NO2 TVCDs for urban regions in 4 seasons from 2003 to 2017. Also 298 shown are the comparisons among the updated EPA anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and satellite NO<sub>2</sub> TVCDs. There are many more data points for the latter comparison because the data 299 300 selection is no longer limited to those coincident with the AQS surface data, and therefore, the 301 uncertainty spread is much lower. The comparisons, in general, show consistent results that the 302 updated EPA anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, AOS surface measurements, and satellite TVCD 303 data are in agreement. The agreement of decreasing trends among the datasets is just as good for the post-2011 period as the pre-2011 period. This result differs from Miyazaki et al. (2017) and 304 305 Jiang et al. (2018), who suggested no significant decreasing trend for OMI TVCD data and 306 inversed NO<sub>x</sub> emissions after 2010. The disagreement can be explained by the results of Figure 5. 307 Including the low anthropogenic  $NO_x$  emission regions leads to underestimates of  $NO_x$  decreases.





308	Since the area of low anthropogenic $NO_x$ emission regions is larger than high anthropogenic $NO_x$
309	emission regions (Table 2), the arithmetic averaging will lead to a large weighting of rural
310	observations, which do not reflect anthropogenic NO <sub>x</sub> emission changes. Miyazaki et al. (2017)
311	and Jiang et al. (2018) included all regions in their analyses, but we exclude rural regions. Figure
312	S6 shows the seasonal variations if the TVCDs over rural regions are included; the result shows a
313	much lower decreasing rate of TVCDs over the CONUS. The much slower satellite TVCD trends
314	for regions with low $NO_x$ emissions was previously discussed by Zhang et al. (2018). In addition,
315	Miyazaki et al. (2017) and Jiang et al. (2018) conducted NO <sub>x</sub> emission inversions by using the
316	Model for Interdisciplinary Research on Climate (MIROC)-Chem with a coarse resolution of $2.8^{\circ}$
317	$\times2.8^\circ\!,$ which was insufficient to separate urban and rural regions and might distort predicted $NO_2$
318	TVCDs and inversed NO <sub>x</sub> emissions due to nonlinear effects (Valin et al., 2011; Yu et al., 2016),
319	which is another possible reason for their find of flattening NO <sub>x</sub> emission trends after 2010.
320	We summarize the decreasing rates of NO <sub>2</sub> after the Great Recession in Table 3. To

321 minimize the effect of the sharp decrease and the subsequent recovery, we chose to analyze the post-2011 period. Table 3 summarizes the results for each season, while Table 1 gives the 322 averaged annual decreasing trends. Generally, Tables 1 and 3 confirm the continuous decreases of 323 324 AQS surface observations, satellite NO<sub>2</sub> TVCD, and updated EPA anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions 325 after 2011 as in Figure 6, but decreasing rates are lower than the pre-2011 period. Over the AQS urban sites, the slowdown magnitudes are 9% for AQS surface observations and 20% - 40% for 326 satellite NO<sub>2</sub> TVCD measurements, which may reflect in part smaller  $\gamma$  than  $\beta$  values (Table 2). 327 Our estimated slowdown magnitudes are significantly lower than Lamsal et al. (2015) and Jiang 328 329 et al. (2018) but comparable to the results by Tong et al. (2015) (Table 1). The agreement with 330 Tong et al. (2015) is because we select urban AQS sites based on anthropogenic  $NO_x$  emissions 331 and they chose eight large cities, while Lamsal et al. (2015) and Jiang et al. (2018) used all AQS 332 sites.





333	Over the CONUS urban regions, updated EPA anthropogenic NO <sub>x</sub> emissions show a
334	slowdown of 22% compared to 29% - 46% for three OMI NO $_2$ TVCD products. The difference is
335	partially due to the $\beta$ ratio of 2.3 ± 0.9 at 13:00 – 14:00 over the CONUS urban regions (Table 2).
336	Satellite $NO_2$ TVCD measurement uncertainties also contribute to the difference. From 2013 –
337	2017, GOME-2B NO2 TVCDs decrease more than OMI products, especially in spring, autumn
338	and winter (Tables 1 and 3). Finally, trend analyses in different regions (Figure 7 and Table S4)
339	indicate that generally, the Midwest has the least slowdown of the decreasing rate for urban OMI
340	NO <sub>2</sub> TVCD (-14% on average) after 2011 compared to the Northeast (-30%), South (-34%), and
341	West (-28%).

342 The results presented in this study are qualitatively in agreement with the work by Silvern et al. (2019). The two studies were independent. Therefore, the foci of the studies are different 343 344 despite reaching similar conclusions. While we focused on understanding the detailed data 345 analysis of Jiang et al. (2018) and limited the use of model simulation results so that our results 346 can be compared to the previous study directly, Silvern et al. (2019) relied more on multi-year model simulations. As a result, Silvern et al. (2019) can clearly identify the contributions of the 347 348 NO<sub>2</sub> columns by natural emissions and make use of additional observations such as nitrate 349 deposition fluxes. They also identified model biases in simulating the trends of NO<sub>2</sub> TVCDs by 350 natural emissions. Our study, on the other hand, explored the data analysis procedure through 351 which the trend of anthropogenic emissions can be derived from satellite observations and its 352 limitations.

### 353 4. Conclusions

Using model simulations for July 2017, we demonstrate the nonlinear relationship of NO<sub>2</sub> surface concentration and TVCD with anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. Over low anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emission regions, the ratios of anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emission changes to the changes of





- surface concentrations ( $\gamma$ ) and TVCDs ( $\beta$ ) have very large variations and  $\beta > \gamma \gg 1$ . 357 358 Therefore, for the same emission changes, surface concentration and TVCD changes are much 359 smaller and variable than urban regions, making it difficult to use the observations to directly 360 infer anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emission trends. We find that defining urban regions where 361 anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions are  $> 10^{11}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and using surface and TVCD 362 observations over these regions can infer the trends that can be compared with the EPA emission 363 trend estimates. 364 We evaluate the anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emission variations from 2003 - 2017 over the CONUS 365 by using satellite NO2 TVCD products from GOME-2B, SCIAMACHY, OMI-QA4ECV, OMI-366 NASA, and OMI-BEHR, over the urban regions of CONUS. We find broad agreements among 367 the decreases of AQS NO<sub>2</sub> surface observations, satellite NO<sub>2</sub> TVCD products, and the EPA
- anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions with the CEMS dataset updated. After 2011, they all show a
- 369 slowdown of the decreasing rates. Over the AQS urban sites, NO<sub>2</sub> surface concentrations have a
- 370 slowdown of 9% and OMI products show a slowdown of 20% 40%. Over the CONUS urban
- 371 regions, OMI TVCD products indicate a slowdown of 29% 46%, and the updated EPA

anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions have a slowdown of 22%. The different slowdown magnitudes

373 between OMI TVCD products and the other two datasets may be caused by the nonlinear

374 response of TVCD to anthropogenic emissions and the uncertainties of satellite measurements

375 (e.g., GOME-2B TVCD data show a larger decreasing trend than OMI products from 2013 –

376 2017).

We did not find observation evidence supporting the notion that anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub>
emissions have not been decreasing after the Great Recession. In future studies, we recommend
that the nonlinear relationships of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions with NO<sub>2</sub> TVCD and surface concentration be





- 380 carefully evaluated when applying satellite and surface measurements to infer the changes of
- 381 anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions.
- 382 Data availability
- 383 The EPA AQS hourly surface NO<sub>2</sub> measurements are downloaded from
- 384 https://aqs.epa.gov/aqsweb/airdata/download\_files.html#Raw. QA4ECV 1.1 NO2 VCD products
- 385 (OMI-QA4ECV, GOME-2A, and SCIAMACHY) are from http://temis.nl/qa4ecv/no2col/data/.
- 386 GOME-2B NO<sub>2</sub> VCD products are from
- 387 http://www.temis.nl/airpollution/no2col/no2colgome2b.php. OMI-BEHR and OMI-NASA
- 388 archives are from http://behr.cchem.berkeley.edu/DownloadBEHRData.aspx. REAM simulation
- 389 results for this study are available upon request.
- **390** Author contribution
- 391 JL and YW designed the study. JL conducted model simulations and data analyses with
- 392 discussions with YW. JL and YW wrote the manuscript.

#### **393** Competing interests

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

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Slowdown ratios = Trend in "period 3" / Trend in "period 1" – 1.

Trends in our study are calculated based on the national seasonal trends shown in Table 3.

The information on satellite products used in this study is summarized in Table S2.

We updated EPA anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions with the newest Continuous Emission Monitoring Systems (CEMS) datasets. Figure S1 shows the comparison between our updated and original EPA anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions (EPA, 2018). Denote the averaged trends of 13:00 and 10:00 LT based on the values in Table 3.



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Table 1. Summary of trends of satellite NO<sub>2</sub> TVCD products, NO<sub>2</sub> surface measurements, and EPA anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions during from different studies





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<sup>8</sup> The study used NO<sub>2</sub> TVCD from urban and power plant grid cells across the U.S. <sup>9</sup> Since previous studies used linear models to calculate trends and the results are sensitive to their calculation methods and the selection of initial years, we recalculate the trends based on the above exponential model, which makes all the results consistent. Our results are those both numbers inside the prembeses, while the numbers in normal form the original publications. <sup>10</sup> The study uses NO<sub>2</sub> TVCD and suffice concentrations from Los Angeles. Dallas, Honstington, D.C., New York, and Boston. <sup>11</sup> The wostudies used the EPA Air Quality System (AQS) NO<sub>2</sub> sufficements and coincident satellite NO<sub>2</sub> TVCD data over the U.S. 629 630 631 632 633



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type	Surface area fraction <sup>1</sup>	Anthropogenic NO <sub>x</sub> emissions $(\times 10^{10} \text{ molecules cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1})$	$\beta$ at 13:00 – 14:00 LT	$\gamma$ at $13{:}00-14{:}00LT$	β at 10:00 – 11:00 LT	$\gamma$ at 10:00 – 11:00 LT
Urban/CONUS <sup>2</sup>	17.3%	29.9	$2.3 \pm 0.9$	$1.4 \pm 0.3$	$2.4 \pm 1.8$	$1.5 \pm 1.0$
Rural/CONUS	82.7%	2.7	$8.1\pm8.7$	$3.1 \pm 3.9$	$5.9 \pm 8.0$	$2.8 \pm 5.8$
Urban/AQS	87.7%	71.0	$1.5\pm0.7$	$1.2 \pm 0.4$	$1.7 \pm 1.0$	$1.3 \pm 0.5$
Rural/AQS	12.3%	5.7	$5.0 \pm 2.0$	$2.5 \pm 1.3$	$4.3 \pm 3.2$	$2.7 \pm 2.6$
<sup>1</sup> "Fraction" denotes <sup>2</sup> "Urban-CONUS" d	the percentages of lenote CONUS "u	" "urban" or "rural" data points for the rban" grid cells, "Urban-AQS" denote	whole CONUS or all AQS and AQS and AQS and a study of the	sites.		



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		Spri	ng	Sum	mer	Autu	mn	M	inter
		AQS site	CONUS	AQS site	CONUS	AQS site	CONUS	AQS site	CONUS
AQS NO2 VMR	2003 - 2011	$-7.3 \pm 1.4\%$		$-7.4 \pm 0.9\%$		$-6.7 \pm 1.8\%$		$-5.2 \pm 0.8\%$	
at 13:00 -14:00	2011 - 2017	$-5.3 \pm 1.6\%$		$\textbf{-6.4}\pm1.2\%$		$-7.3 \pm 2.5\%$		$-6.0 \pm 2.8\%$	
AQS NO <sub>2</sub> VMR	2003 - 2011	$-7.1 \pm 1.6\%$		$-7.6 \pm 1.5\%$		$-6.2 \pm 2.2\%$		$-4.4\pm1.6\%$	
at 10:00 - 11:00	2011 - 2017	$-4.4\pm1.4\%$		$\textbf{-6.1}\pm1.8\%$		$-6.3 \pm 2.5\%$		$-5.2 \pm 2.4\%$	
SCIAMACHY	2003 - 2011	$-8.8 \pm 3.4\%$	$-6.9 \pm 1.1\%$	$\textbf{-8.2}\pm1.6\%$	$-5.2 \pm 1.2\%$	$-6.8 \pm 2.4\%$	$-5.6 \pm 2.1\%$	$-6.4 \pm 7.4\%$	$-7.5 \pm 5.5\%$
TINUMUNO	2011 - 2017								
	2003 - 2011								
GUMEZB	2013 - 2017	$-10.2 \pm 7.8\%$	$-8.3 \pm 16.9\%$	$-6.4 \pm 14.0\%$	$-5.3 \pm 4.0\%$	$-10.5 \pm 41.6\%$	$-6.9 \pm 13.2\%$	$-13.6 \pm 15.1\%$	$-12.3 \pm 78.9\%$
OMI O A JECU	2005 - 2011	$-9.3 \pm 5.6\%$	$-8.3 \pm 4.6\%$	$-8.3 \pm 2.4\%$	$-5.9 \pm 5.2\%$	$-10.0 \pm 4.2\%$	$-7.4 \pm 2.4\%$	$-8.3 \pm 2.1\%$	$-9.3 \pm 5.2\%$
UMI-QA4ECV	2011 - 2017	$-5.3 \pm 6.0\%$	$-4.3\pm6.5\%$	$-4.2 \pm 3.0\%$	$-4.9 \pm 9.2\%$	$\textbf{-6.0} \pm 1.8\%$	$-3.8 \pm 1.8\%$	$-6.1 \pm 25.6\%$	$-3.8 \pm 3.5\%$
A DATA NAC	2005 - 2011	$-9.4 \pm 5.0\%$	$-9.6 \pm 5.3\%$	$-9.4 \pm 2.8\%$	$-7.1 \pm 2.9\%$	$-9.4 \pm 3.2\%$	$-8.1 \pm 2.8\%$	$-7.8 \pm 3.6\%$	$-9.5 \pm 16.6\%$
ACANI-IIVIO	2011 - 2016	$-4.4\pm18.9\%$	$-3.8 \pm 7.5\%$	$-5.7 \pm 6.7\%$	$-4.5 \pm 5.3\%$	$-6.0 \pm 3.1\%$	$-4.6 \pm 3.9\%$	$-12.8 \pm 7.8\%$	$-11.4 \pm 6.6\%$
	2005 - 2011	$-9.1 \pm 5.3\%$	$-8.9 \pm 5.8\%$	$-8.7 \pm 2.4\%$	$-6.4 \pm 3.2\%$	$-9.2 \pm 3.2\%$	$-8.0 \pm 3.1\%$	$-8.5 \pm 10.6\%$	$-9.4 \pm 23.0\%$
UMI-DEHK	2011 - 2016	$-3.8 \pm 4.4\%$	$-3.0 \pm 4.0\%$	$-5.4 \pm 7.0\%$	$-3.9 \pm 6.6\%$	$-5.6 \pm 13.2\%$	$-4.1 \pm 14.0\%$	$-9.9 \pm 5.2\%$	$-6.7 \pm 5.9\%$
ΕĐΛ	2003 - 2011				-6.5 ±	0.8%			
EFA	2011 - 2017				-5.1 ±	0.3%			

<sup>1</sup> We calculate trends by using the exponential model described in Table 1.









Figure 1. Region definitions and locations of NO<sub>2</sub> surface observation sites used in this study.





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- Figure 3. Spatial distributions of (a) anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions (unit:  $10^{10}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>)
- 657 and (b) "urban" regions satisfying our selection criteria. In (b), light green and blue denote the
- 658 resulting urban and rural regions, respectively.





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Figure 4. Relative annual variations of AQS NO<sub>2</sub> surface concentrations and coincident OMI-QA4ECV NO<sub>2</sub> TVCD in each season from 2005 – 2017 for urban (left panel) and rural (right panel) regions. The observation data are scaled by the corresponding 2005 values. Black and red lines denote AQS surface observations and OMI-QA4ECV NO<sub>2</sub> TVCDs, respectively. Shading in a lighter color is added to show the standard deviation of the results; when uncertainty is small due in part to a large number of data points, shading area may not show up.









669 670 Figure 5. Relative annual variations of OMI-OA4ECV NO2 TVCD for different anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub>-emission groups in each season from 2005 - 2017. "E >= 64" denotes grid cells with 671 anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over  $64 \times 10^{10}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. "E >= 32" denotes grid cells 672 with anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions equal to or larger than  $32 \times 10^{10}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> but less 673 674 than  $64 \times 10^{10}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. "E >= 16" and "E >= 8" have similar meanings as "E >= 32". 675 "E < 8" denotes grid cells with anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions less than  $8 \times 10^{10}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-2</sup> <sup>1</sup>. Shading in a lighter color is added to show the standard deviation of the results; when 676 677 uncertainty is small due in part to a large number of data points, shading area may not show up.





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Figure 6. Relative variations of AQS NO<sub>2</sub> surface measurements at 13:00-14:00 and 10:00-11:00 681 682 LT, updated EPA anthropogenic NOx emissions, and satellite NO2 TVCD data over the AQS 683 urban sites (left column) and the CONUS urban regions (right column) for 4 seasons. AQS NO<sub>2</sub> 684 surface measurements are not included in the right column. All datasets are scaled by their 685 corresponding values in 2011 except for GOME-2B. For GOME-2B, we firstly normalized the values in each season to the corresponding 2013 values and plotted the relative changes from the 686 687 2013 EPA point of each season to make the GOME-2B relative variations comparable to the 688 other datasets. Shading in a lighter color is added to show the standard deviation of the results; 689 when uncertainty is small due in part to a large number of data points, shading area may not show 690 up.





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Figure 7. Pre- and post-2011 OMI NO<sub>2</sub> TVCD trends for 4 seasons in the urban regions of
Northeast, Midwest, South, and West. Black bars denote OMI-QA4ECV NO<sub>2</sub> TVCD trends from
2005 – 2011; gray bars denote the corresponding trends during 2011 – 2017. Blue bars denote
OMI-NASA trends from 2005 – 2011; cyan bars denote NASA-OMI trends from 2011 – 2016.
Red bars denote BEHR-OMI trends from 2005 – 2011; pink bars denote OMI-BEHR trends from
2011 – 2016.