

Background nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) over the United States and its implications for satellite observations and trends: effects of nitrate photolysis, aircraft, and open fires

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20 **Abstract.** Tropospheric nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) measured from satellites has been widely used to track anthropogenic NO_x emissions, but its retrieval and interpretation can be complicated by the free tropospheric NO₂ background to which satellite measurements are particularly sensitive. Tropospheric NO₂ vertical column densities (VCDs) from the OMI satellite instrument averaged over the contiguous US (CONUS) show no trend after 2009, despite sustained decreases in anthropogenic NO_x emissions, implying an important and rising contribution from the free tropospheric background. Here we use the GEOS-
25 Chem chemical transport model applied to the simulation of OMI NO₂ to better understand the sources and trends of background NO₂ over CONUS. Previous model underestimate of the background is largely corrected by the consideration of aerosol nitrate photolysis, which increases the model NO₂ VCDs by 13% on an annual basis (25% in spring), and also increases the air mass factor (AMF) to convert the tropospheric slant column densities (SCDs) inferred from the OMI spectra into VCDs by 7% on an annual basis (11% in spring). The increase in the AMF decreases the retrieved NO₂ VCDs in the satellite
30 observations, contributing to the improved agreement with the model. Accounting for the 2009-2017 increase in aircraft NO_x emissions drives only a 1.4% mean increase in NO₂ VCDs over CONUS and a 2% increase in the AMF, but the combination of decreasing surface NO_x emissions and increasing aircraft emissions is expected to drive a 14% increase in the AMF over the next decade that will be necessary to account for in the interpretation of satellite NO₂ trends. Fire smoke identification with the NOAA Hazard Mapping System (HMS) indicates that wildfires contribute 1-8% of OMI NO₂ VCDs over the western US

35 in June-September and that this contribution has been increasing since 2009, contributing to the flattening of OMI NO₂ trends. Future analyses of NO₂ trends from satellite data to infer trends in surface NO_x emissions must critically consider the effects of a rising free tropospheric background due to increasing emissions from aircraft, fires, and possibly lightning.

1 Introduction

40 Nitrogen oxides (NO_x ≡ NO + NO₂) emitted by combustion, lightning, and soils affect oxidant chemistry, air quality, climate, and ecosystems. NO_x cycles chemically to produce tropospheric ozone and is eventually oxidized to nitric acid (HNO₃), which partitions into the particulate phase and is removed by deposition. Satellite observations of tropospheric NO₂ vertical column densities (VCDs) have been used extensively to infer anthropogenic NO_x emissions and their changes (Martin et al., 2003; Boersma et al., 2008; Russell et al., 2012; Duncan et al., 2016; Miyazaki et al., 2017; Matthew J. Cooper et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020). However, recent studies for North America suggest that the free tropospheric
45 background NO₂ (above ~2 km altitude) could make a large and increasing contribution to the tropospheric NO₂ VCDs measured from space (Silvern et al., 2019; Zhu et al., 2019; Qu et al., 2021; Y. Wang et al., 2021; Jiang et al., 2022). Here we investigate the sources of this NO₂ background over the US and the implications for the retrieval and interpretation of satellite observations.

50 Tropospheric NO₂ has been measured from space by solar backscatter since 1995 with the GOME instrument (Martin et al., 2002). Current instruments include OMI (2004-) (Krotkov et al., 2016), OMPS (2012-) (Yang et al., 2014), TROPOMI (2017-) (van Geffen et al., 2020; Li et al., 2022), and the geostationary GEMS over East Asia (2020-) (Kim et al., 2020). Tropospheric NO₂ is retrieved in three steps: (1) fit the measured backscattered solar spectrum in and around the NO₂ absorption band (400-470 nm) to infer a slant column density (SCD) along the optical path; (2) subtract the stratospheric contribution from the SCD to obtain the tropospheric SCD; (3) convert the tropospheric SCD to a tropospheric vertical
55 column density (VCD) by dividing by an air mass factor (AMF). The AMF accounts for the photon path between the Sun and the satellite instrument in relation to the vertical distribution of NO₂. It is calculated by convolving altitude-dependent detection sensitivities (scattering weights) computed from a radiative transfer model with a local NO₂ normalized vertical profile (shape factor) provided by an independent chemical transport model (CTM) (Palmer et al., 2001). The detection
60 sensitivity typically increases by a factor of 5 from the surface to the upper troposphere because of atmospheric scattering (Martin et al., 2002; Boersma et al., 2016; M. J. Cooper et al., 2020), so that the tropospheric VCD measurement can be most sensitive to free tropospheric NO₂ even under fairly polluted conditions (Travis et al., 2016). The CTM must then properly represent this free tropospheric NO₂ background. Although cloud-slicing methods have been used to isolate the free tropospheric contribution in satellite NO₂ retrievals, these products have large errors that limit their usefulness (Choi et al.,
65 2014; Belmonte Rivas et al., 2015; Marais et al., 2018; Marais et al., 2021).

The importance of characterizing the free tropospheric NO₂ background was brought to the fore by the use of OMI NO₂ data to infer NO_x emission trends in the contiguous United States (CONUS) (Jiang et al., 2018; Silvern et al., 2019; Qu et al., 2021; Y. Wang et al., 2021; He et al., 2022; Jiang et al., 2022). The OMI NO₂ data over CONUS show a steady decrease from 2005 to 2009 (Russell et al., 2012; Duncan et al., 2013; Duncan et al., 2016; Krotkov et al., 2016), consistent with the decreases of NO_x emissions reported in the EPA National Emission Inventory (NEI), but Jiang et al. (2018) found that the trend flattened after 2009 despite sustained decreases in NO_x emissions according to the NEI and supported by NO₂ surface data (Silvern et al., 2019). This flattening of the trend was attributed by Silvern et al. (2019) to an increasing relative contribution to the OMI NO₂ VCD from the free tropospheric background as the anthropogenic NO_x emissions decrease.

Further evidence for this large background contribution emerged from the COVID-19 economic shutdown in 2020 when the response of OMI observations to the decrease of NO_x emissions in CONUS was much less than the response of surface NO₂ observations (Qu et al., 2021). Silvern et al. (2019) pointed out that the post-2009 flattening was most evident for non-urban summer conditions, when background NO₂ would be relatively large, while urban winter conditions showed continued decrease. Y. Wang et al. (2021) explained flattening by an increase in lightning NO_x emissions over the 2009-2019 period, compensating for the sustained decrease in anthropogenic NO_x emissions because of the greater sensitivity of the satellite observations to the free troposphere. Previous studies with the GEOS-Chem CTM underestimated free tropospheric NO₂ over CONUS relative to aircraft observations (Travis et al., 2016; Silvern et al., 2018), but Shah et al. (2023) found that this could reflect in part positive interferences in the aircraft NO₂ measurements, and in part a missing source of free tropospheric NO_x from photolysis of aerosol nitrate.

Aircraft and wildfires could also contribute to the background NO₂ trend but this has not been studied so far. Aircraft emissions increased at a rate of 3.3% per year over the past decade (Lee et al., 2021). Aircraft emission inventories in the CTMs used for satellite retrievals tend to be outdated and do not account for this rapid growth (Boersma et al., 2018; Lamsal et al., 2021). Large NO₂ enhancements have been detected by satellites at fire locations (Mebust et al., 2011; Griffin et al., 2021; Jin et al., 2021), but little is known about the more general contribution of fires to the tropospheric NO₂ background. A recent study reported that 19-56% of peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN) detected in the free troposphere over the western US in summer 2018 by the Cross-Track Infrared Sounder (CrIS) was associated with fire smoke (Juncosa Calahorrano et al., 2021). Wildfires have become increasingly frequent and intense in the US over the past two decades (Westerling, 2016; Jaffe et al., 2020) and the fire season has lengthened (Cattau et al., 2020), both of which would contribute to an increase in background NO₂.

Here we combine GEOS-Chem simulations and data analysis to better understand the sources and trends of the free tropospheric background NO₂ (and more generally background NO_x) in CONUS by (1) investigating the role of aerosol nitrate photolysis as a source of NO_x (Shah et al., 2023), (2) quantifying the effect of increasing aircraft emissions with the Aircraft Emissions Inventory Code (AEIC; Simone et al., 2013), and (3) quantifying wildfire influence with the NOAA

Hazard Mapping System (HMS) smoke product (Rolph et al., 2009). Increasing NO₂ in the model free troposphere increases the AMF and thus decreases the NO₂ tropospheric VCDs retrieved from satellite. We will see that this significantly improves agreement between GEOS-Chem and OMI observations of NO₂ in different seasons.

2 GEOS-Chem model

105 We use the GEOS-Chem global CTM version 13.1.2 (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5014891>) driven by MERRA-2 meteorology (Gelaro et al., 2017) in a simulation of oxidant-aerosol chemistry over CONUS in 2009 and 2017. The simulation is at the native MERRA-2 0.5° × 0.625° resolution over North America (10–70° N, 140–40° W), nested in a 4° × 5° global simulation with boundary conditions updated every 3 h. GEOS-Chem 13.1.2 includes a detailed representation of chemistry with recent updates for NO_x uptake by aerosols and clouds (Holmes et al., 2019), isoprene chemistry (Bates and
110 Jacob, 2019), and halogen chemistry (X. Wang et al., 2021). Dry deposition follows a standard resistance-in-series scheme (Wesely, 1989), with HNO₃ updates from Jaeglé et al. (2018). Wet deposition includes in-cloud rainout, below-cloud washout, and scavenging in convective updrafts (Liu et al., 2001). We use a faster washout rate for HNO₃ described in Luo et al. (2019) and previously used in GEOS-Chem simulations over China (Zhai et al., 2021) and the remote oceans (Travis et al., 2020).

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Table 1 gives the CONUS NO_x emissions in the model for 2009 and 2017. Global anthropogenic emissions for individual years are from the Community Emissions Data System (CEDS) (McDuffie et al., 2020). This is superseded for the US by the EPA NEI2016 inventory for 2016 (<https://www.epa.gov/air-emissions-modeling/2016v1-platform>), scaled to 2009 and 2017 using national emission totals (EPA, 2021). Soil NO_x emissions are from Hudman et al. (2012) and updated by Y. Wang et al. (2021) to allow for increased soil NO_x emissions under high temperature conditions (30–40° C) and using soil temperatures from MERRA-2 instead of air temperatures. We reduced the summertime soil NO_x emissions in the midwestern US (38–50° N, 105–95° W) by 50%, as suggested by a previous comparison with OMI NO₂ observations (Vinken et al., 2014). Lightning NO_x emissions are computed following Murray et al. (2012), with lightning flash density spatially constrained by Lightning Imaging Sensor/Optical Transient Detector (LIS/OTD) climatology, interannual variation
125 driven by convective cloud height from MERRA-2, and vertical distribution following Ott et al. (2010). Monthly open fire emissions are taken from the Global Fire Emissions Database version 4 with small fires (GFED4s) (van der Werf et al., 2017), with all releases at the surface. Interannual variations in GFED4s are driven by changes in fuel load, which is a function of meteorology and vegetation type, and burned area and active fire data derived from MODIS satellite observations. Not included in Table 1 is the source from cross-tropopause transport of reactive nitrogen oxides produced in
130 the stratosphere by oxidation of N₂O. This source is included in the model but is negligibly small (0.2 Tg N a⁻¹ globally; Bey et al., 2001).

Table 1. Contiguous US (CONUS) NO_x emissions in 2009 and 2017 [Tg N a⁻¹]^a.

	2009	2017
Total	4.9	3.6
Fuel combustion ^b	3.8	2.3
Lightning	0.43	0.48
Soil	0.55	0.60
Aircraft	0.13	0.16
Open fires	0.03	0.10

^a as used in the GEOS-Chem simulations described in the text.

135 ^b excluding aircraft.

For aircraft emissions, we use an updated inventory for 2019 produced by the Aircraft Emissions Inventory Code (AEIC) developed at MIT (Simone et al., 2013). It includes daily emissions during both landing and take-off (LTO) and at cruise with horizontal resolution of $0.5^\circ \times 0.625^\circ$ and vertical resolution of 36 layers up to 100 hPa. 81% of these emissions are released above 5 km altitude, and 73% above 8 km. AEIC2019 is scaled to individual years and for different continental regions by using the kerosene consumption data provided by the International Energy Agency (IEA, <https://www.iea.org/fuels-and-technologies/oil>). The NO_x emission factor increased by 7% from 2005 to 2019 due to increase in combustor temperatures (Dedoussi, 2021; Lee et al., 2021). As shown in Figure 1, aviation NO_x emissions increased globally by 51% from 2005 to 2019, largely driven by rapid growth in developing countries such as China, and by 17% for CONUS. The dip in 2007-2009 is due to the economic recession (Bows-Larkin et al., 2016). AEIC2019 may underestimate aircraft emissions by 10-40% because it does not consider military aircraft, estimated to account for 10-13% of total emissions (Wilkerson et al., 2010) and because it assumes great circle routes which could underestimate emission by up to 28% (Zhang et al., 2022). The effect of aircraft emissions on upper tropospheric NO_x in GEOS-Chem may further be underestimated by 10% due to nonlinear aircraft plume chemistry increasing the NO_x lifetime (Fritz et al., 2020).

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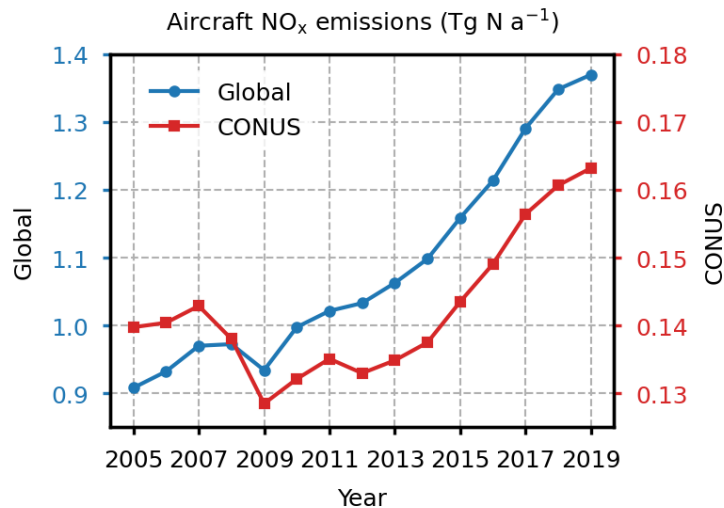


Figure 1: Global and CONUS aircraft NO_x emissions in the AEIC2019 inventory from 2005 to 2019 (Lee et al., 2021).

Table 1 shows a decrease from 2009 to 2017 in fuel combustion emissions (excluding aircraft) but an increase in all other
 155 NO_x emissions. The increase in lightning + soil is consistent though somewhat higher than the 6% increase of these sources
 for 2009-2019 inferred by Y. Wang et al. (2021) from linear regression of the emission time series. Open fire emissions have
 large interannual variability but are negligibly small in the model; we will use an observation-based analysis in Section 5 for
 an independent assessment of the contributions of these emissions to satellite NO₂. Overall, we see from Table 1 that
 CONUS NO_x emissions in the model decreased by 27% from 2009 to 2017, with the 36% decrease in emissions from fuel
 160 combustion offset by increases in other emissions. Because these other emissions are more weighted to the free troposphere,
 they would play a disproportionate role in flattening the OMI NO₂ trend as shown by Y. Wang et al. (2021). They would
 also effectively increase the AMF in the satellite retrievals, so that the flattening would be exaggerated in the observations if
 this AMF increase is not accounted for.

165 We also add in our simulation the photolysis of particulate nitrate (pNO₃⁻) previously introduced in GEOS-Chem by
 Kasibhatla et al. (2018) and Shah et al. (2023) to correct model underestimates of tropospheric NO_x. Gas-phase HNO₃ can be
 recycled to NO_x through photolysis or reaction with OH, but this process is slow with a lifetime of 15-30 days in the
 troposphere (Dulitz et al., 2018). pNO₃⁻ can also be photolyzed at UV wavelengths (>290 nm) and its absorption spectrum
 peaks around 302 nm (Gen et al., 2022). Previous studies have reported a photolysis rate of pNO₃⁻ 10-300 times faster than
 170 that of HNO₃ (Ye et al., 2016; Reed et al., 2017; Ye et al., 2017), , recycling NO_x through two branches producing NO₂ and
 nitrous acid (HONO). This process has been found to be an important missing source of NO_x over the remote oceans (Ye et
 al., 2016; Reed et al., 2017; Kasibhatla et al., 2018; Shah et al., 2023; Andersen et al., 2023). The enhancement factor (EF)

of nitrate photolysis relative to HNO₃ photolysis could be promoted by the coexistence of halides (Wingen et al., 2008; Richards et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2020) and organic matter (Scharko et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2021), and is further affected
175 by aerosol pH (Scharko et al., 2014) and the nature of cations (Richards et al., 2015).

Shah et al. (2023) found that incorporating aerosol nitrate photolysis in GEOS-Chem largely corrected the model's underestimation of NO_x over the oceans during the ATom aircraft campaign. Here we follow their approach to calculate EF as a function of the molar concentrations of sea salt aerosol [SSA] and nitrate [pNO₃⁻]:

$$180 \quad EF = 100 \times \max\left(\frac{[SSA]}{[SSA] + [pNO_3^-]}, 0.1\right), \quad (1)$$

The resulting EF values range from 10 in continental air with low SSA to 100 in marine air, and a 2:1 branching ratio for the HONO:NO₂ branches is assumed.

Figure 2 shows the effect of pNO₃⁻ photolysis as described above on the simulated NO₂ vertical profiles over CONUS.
185 Extensive evaluation of pNO₃⁻ concentrations in GEOS-Chem including vertical profiles from aircraft is presented in Luo et al. (2019, 2020) and shows no significant bias. We find that photolysis is negligible as a sink of pNO₃⁻ (~1%; Figure S1) because deposition dominates, and is also negligible as a source of NO_x in the boundary layer (BL) below 2 km altitude because direct NO_x emission dominates. However, pNO₃⁻ photolysis increases NO₂ concentrations in the free troposphere by about 25% on an annual basis at all altitudes, the stronger radiation in the UT compensating for the lower pNO₃⁻
190 concentrations. The largest increase in free tropospheric NO₂ is in spring due to a combination of high pNO₃⁻ concentrations and strong radiation. The implications for simulation of OMI observations will be discussed in Section 3.

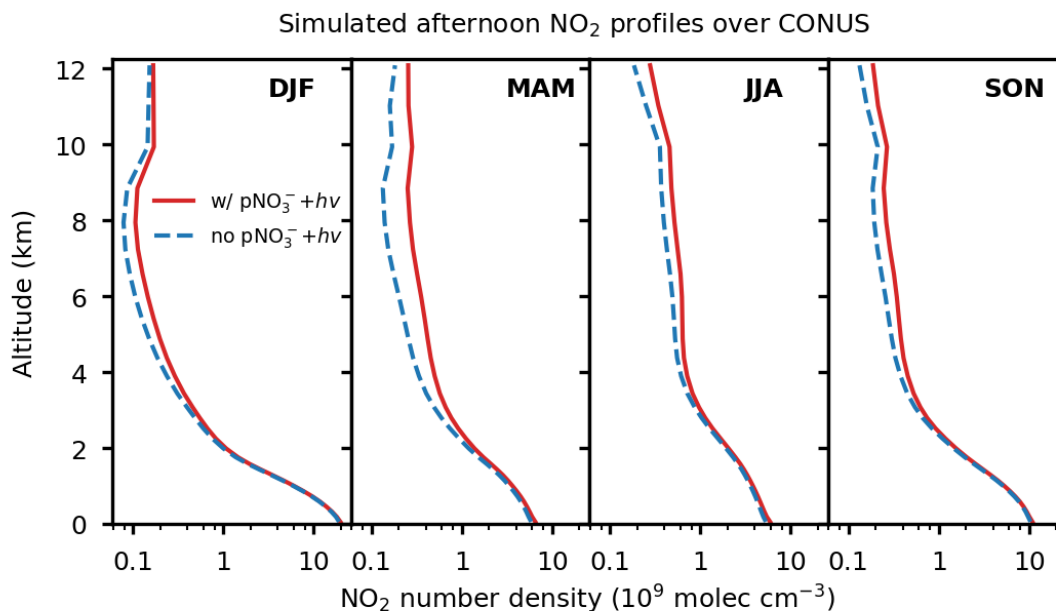


Figure 2: Mean vertical profiles of NO_2 number density simulated by GEOS-Chem over the contiguous US (CONUS) in 195 2017 at the OMI overpass time of 13-14 local time (LT) and in different seasons. Solid/dashed lines indicate the NO_2 profiles with/without particulate nitrate photolysis ($\text{pNO}_3^- + h\nu$). Note log scale for abscissa.

3 Effect of nitrate photolysis on simulation of satellite NO_2 observations

Figure 3 compares OMI observed and GEOS-Chem simulated tropospheric NO_2 VCDs over CONUS in 2017. The OMI instrument onboard the Aura satellite provides daily global coverage at 13:30 local time (LT) with $13 \times 24 \text{ km}^2$ nadir pixel resolution. Here, we use NO_2 retrievals from version 4.0 of the NASA OMI NO_2 level 2 product (OMNO2; 200 https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets/OMNO2_003/summary) (Lamsal et al., 2021), filtered by removing pixels with cloud fraction >0.2 , surface reflectivity >0.3 , solar zenith angle $>75^\circ$, view zenith angle $>65^\circ$, as well as pixels affected by the so-called row anomaly (Dobber et al., 2008). The OMNO2 product uses vertical shape factors from the Global Modeling Initiative (GMI) CTM in its AMF calculation. To conduct a consistent comparison with GEOS-Chem, we recompute the 205 AMFs and hence the OMI retrievals (now referred to as OMI-GC) using local GEOS-Chem NO_2 shape factors sampled at 13-14 LT (Boersma et al., 2016; M. J. Cooper et al., 2020).

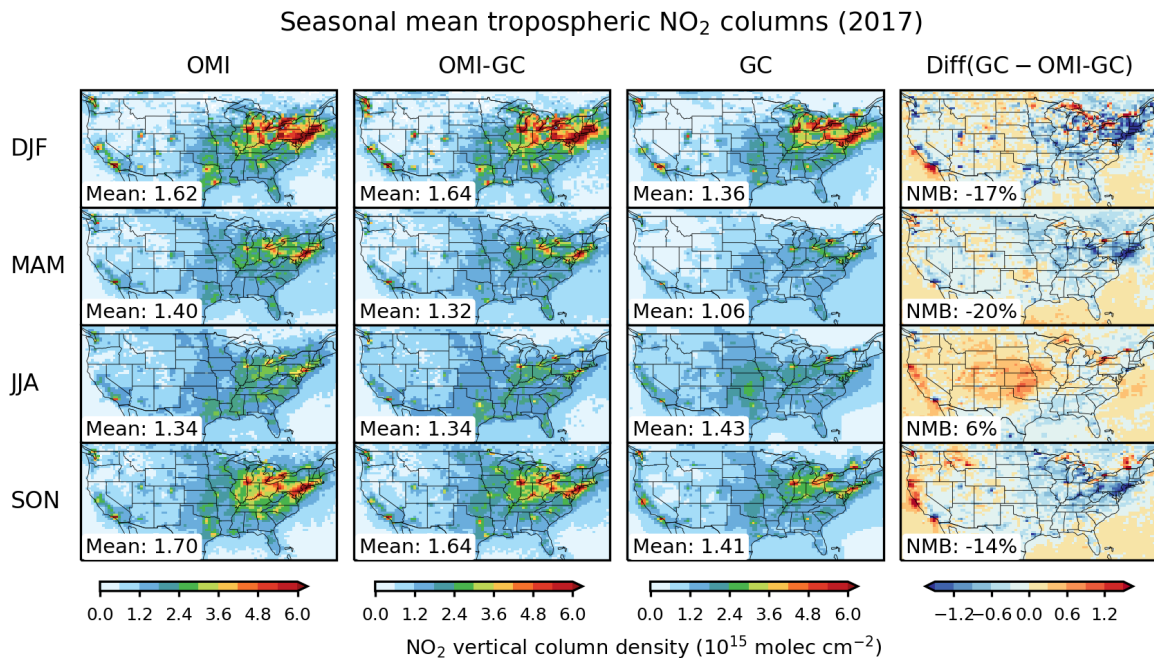


Figure 3: Seasonal mean tropospheric NO₂ vertical column densities (VCDs) over CONUS in 2017. From left to right are the OMNO₂ OMI retrievals with AMFs computed using the GMI NO₂ vertical profiles (OMI), the OMI retrievals with AMFs computed using the GEOS-Chem NO₂ vertical profiles (OMI-GC), the GEOS-Chem simulation (GC), and the difference between GC and OMI-GC. Mean values over CONUS and normalized mean bias (NMB) between GC and OMI-GC are given inset.

GEOS-Chem generally captures the observed spatial distribution and seasonal variation of tropospheric NO₂ VCDs in CONUS. The normalized mean bias (NMB) is -17% in winter, -20% in spring, +6% in summer, and -14% in fall. In comparison, the NMB without nitrate photolysis is -24% in winter, -43% in spring, -14% in summer, and -26% in fall. Adding nitrate photolysis greatly improves the agreement, and its effect on NO₂ VCDs and AMFs in 2017 is shown in Figure 4. It increases simulated tropospheric NO₂ VCDs by 13% over CONUS, with the largest increase in spring (25%). In figure 4b, we calculate the monthly AMFs by using scattering weights from OMNO₂ v4 and GEOS-Chem NO₂ shape factors with and without nitrate photolysis to determine the effect of nitrate photolysis on NO₂ retrievals. Annual mean AMF increases by 7% and spring AMF increases by 11% with nitrate photolysis because the shape factor is shifted to higher altitudes (Figure 2). As a result, the NO₂ VCDs retrieved using the GEOS-Chem NO₂ shape factor (OMI-GC) with nitrate photolysis is 7% lower than that retrieved using the shape factor without nitrate photolysis (Figure 4a), and this further improves agreement with the model simulation. The annual mean AMF using the GEOS-Chem shape factor with nitrate photolysis is now 1.21, closer to the AMF calculated using the GMI shape factor (1.19). GMI does not include nitrate

photolysis but has slower NO_x loss from N_2O_5 chemistry than GEOS-Chem (Shah et al., 2023). Better agreement is also found in year 2009 between simulated and retrieved tropospheric NO_2 VCDs with the addition of nitrate photolysis (Figure S2). The NMB improves from -8% to 1% and the corresponding AMFs increases by 3%. The nitrate photolysis effect is smaller in 2009 than in 2017, mostly because of larger surface anthropogenic emissions increasing NO_2 in the PBL relative to the free troposphere. Previous studies found that GEOS-Chem could not fully reproduce the flattening of the NO_2 trend over CONUS seen by OMI (Silvern et al., 2019; Qu et al., 2021; left panel of Figure 5). Inclusion of nitrate photolysis significantly corrects the discrepancy, reducing by 45% the difference between modeled and retrieved changes over the 2009-2017 period (right panel of Figure 5).

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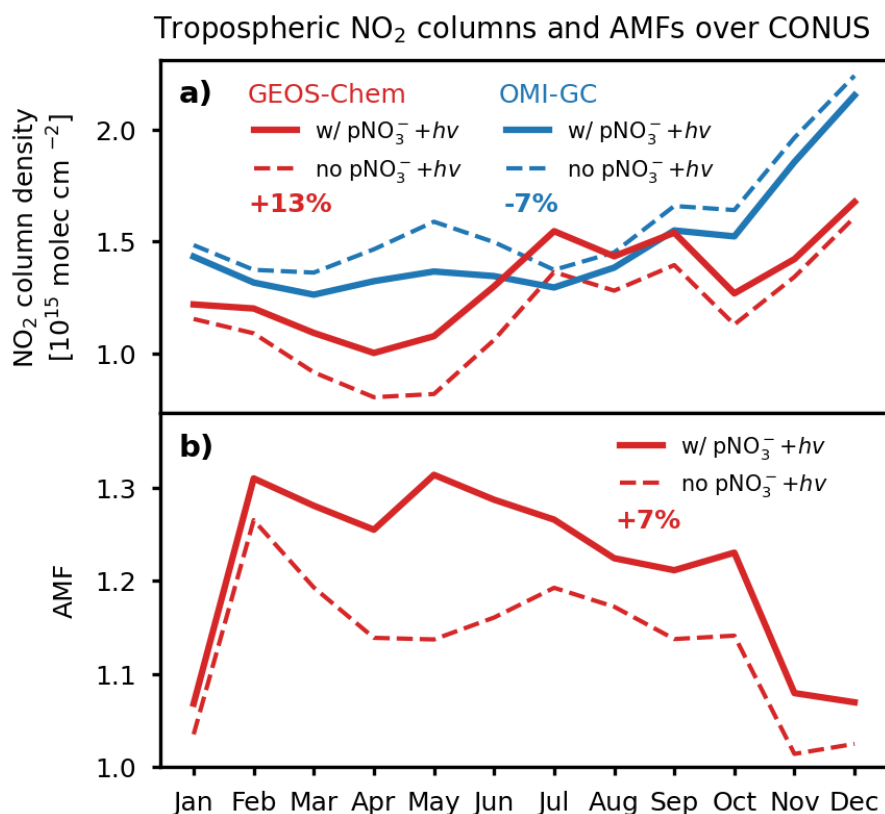
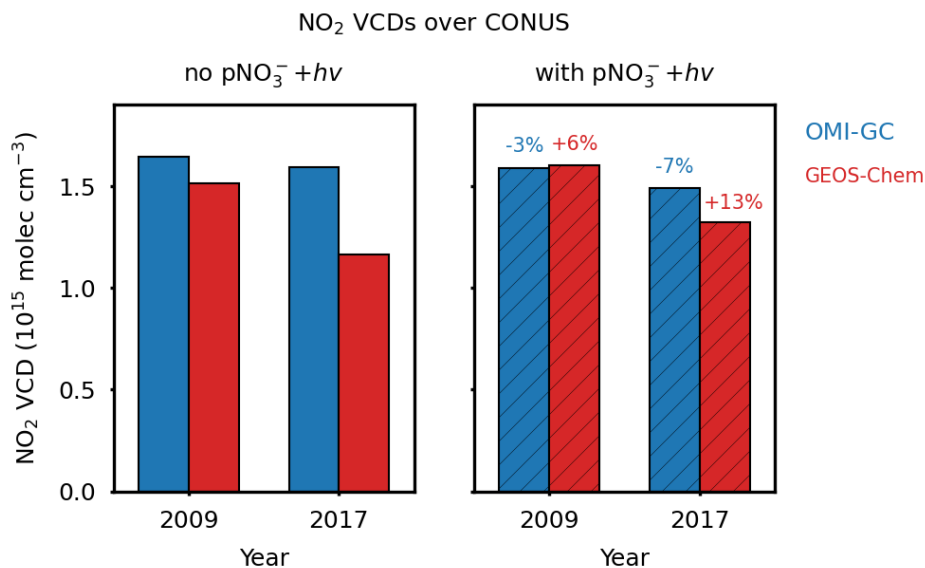


Figure 4: Sensitivity to particulate nitrate photolysis of tropospheric NO_2 vertical column densities (VCDs) simulated by GEOS-Chem and retrieved from OMI satellite observations over CONUS. The top panel shows 2017 monthly mean GEOS-Chem NO_2 VCDs with and without nitrate photolysis, and the OMI retrieval using GEOS-Chem shape factors (OMI-GC) with and without nitrate photolysis. The bottom panel shows the monthly mean air mass factor (AMF) for OMI tropospheric NO_2 retrievals with and without nitrate photolysis. Numbers inset give annual mean percentage differences for the different quantities with versus without nitrate photolysis.

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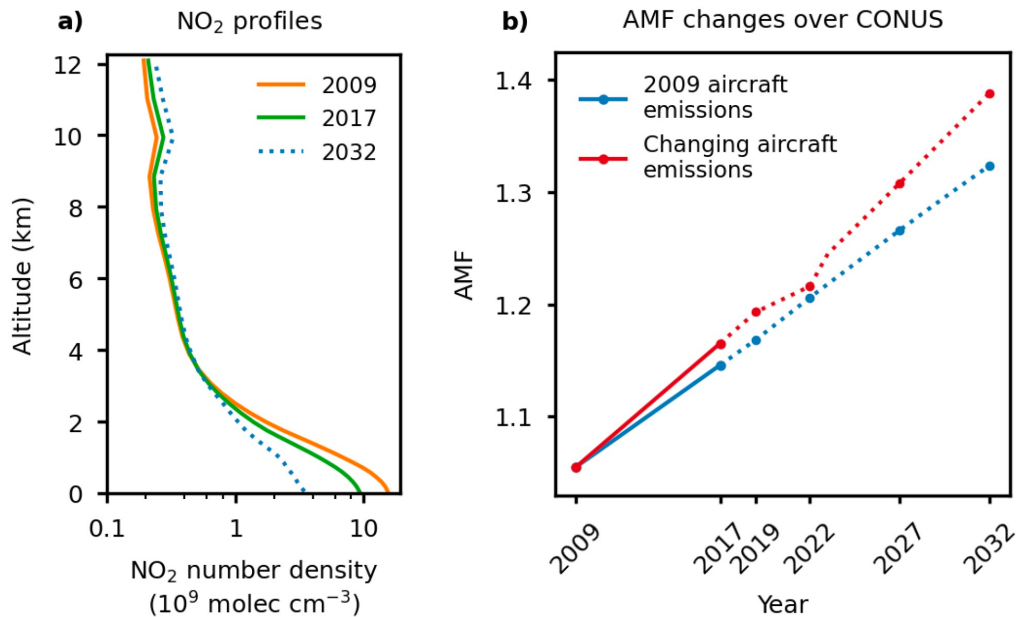
245 Figure 5. Changes in NO₂ vertical column densities (VCDs) over the contiguous United States (CONUS) between 2009 and 2017 as observed by OMI (OMI-GC) and simulated by GEOS-Chem. Values are annual means averaged spatially over CONUS. The OMI-GC retrievals use GEOS-Chem vertical shape factors and are therefore sensitive to the relative vertical distribution of NO₂ simulated by GEOS-Chem. The left panel shows results for the standard GEOS-Chem simulation without particulate nitrate photolysis, and the right panel shows results from the simulation with particulate nitrate
 250 photolysis. The percent changes resulting from the addition of particulate nitrate photolysis are indicated on top of each bar.

Overall, our GEOS-Chem simulation including pNO₃⁻ photolysis is consistent with the OMI observations within their 35% estimated uncertainty (Lamsal et al., 2021), reflecting the combined and opposite effects of pNO₃⁻ photolysis on the simulated NO₂ VCDs and on the satellite retrieval. Figure 3 still shows some regional discrepancies between GEOS-Chem
 255 and OMI. Low biases are found in urban areas that may reflect biases in model chemistry at 50 km resolution but also bias in the satellite NO₂ retrievals (Laughner and Cohen, 2019; Laughner et al., 2019). There is a high bias in the central US during the summer, even before the inclusion of nitrate photolysis, partly due to the use of the updated soil NO_x scheme of Y. Wang et al. (2021) in GEOS-Chem that increases emissions at high temperatures (2021). On the west coast, high biases are found in fire-influenced areas but that may be due to OMI retrievals being too low. Most current operational NO₂ retrieval algorithms
 260 including OMNO2 v4 treat aerosols implicitly (Liu et al., 2020; Vasilkov et al., 2021), resulting in low retrieved NO₂ in fire plumes (Griffin et al., 2021). Travis et al. (2016) previously found a 30% GEOS-Chem overestimate of the NASA OMI NO₂ v2.1 retrieval over the Southeast US in summer, which they attributed to the NEI2011 emissions being too high, but that

model bias is largely corrected in our simulation due both to downward revision of NO_x emissions in NEI2016 and to 10-40% higher OMI NO₂ retrievals in version 4 of OMNO2 relative to previous versions (Lamsal et al., 2021).

265 4 Effect of aircraft emissions and future AMF projections

We isolated the effect of the 2009-2017 increase in aircraft emissions (Fig. 1) on NO₂ VCDs and AMFs over CONUS by conducting sensitivity simulations with the AEIC emission trends but with all other conditions fixed for 2017 including anthropogenic surface emissions. The increase in aircraft emissions since 2009 leads to a 1.4% increase in the simulated annual mean tropospheric NO₂ VCDs over CONUS, with 75% of the increase above 6 km. The AMF increases by 1.7% as
270 the vertical distribution of NO₂ shifts from the boundary layer to the upper troposphere. This influence from aircraft emissions is expected to increase in the future, as shown in Figure 6 with a projection to 2032. In this projection, anthropogenic emissions over CONUS are assumed to continue to decrease at the current rate of 5.9% a⁻¹. Global aircraft emissions are 20% lower in 2022 than in 2019 due to the pandemic. We assume they return to 2019 levels in 2023, and increase at a rate of 3.6% a⁻¹ in the following decade (Airbus, 2022; Boeing, 2022). We calculate the resulting AMFs by
275 applying scattering weights from OMNO2 v4 to the extrapolated NO₂ vertical profiles and find an AMF increase of 20% over the 2017-2032 period, including 80% from decrease in surface emissions and 20% from increase in aircraft emissions. Increasing aircraft emissions will likely play an increasing role in increasing the AMF in the future.



280 **Figure 6:** Effect of changing surface anthropogenic and aircraft emissions on tropospheric NO₂ vertical profiles and air mass factors (AMFs) for satellite retrievals over the 2009-2032 period. a) Mean NO₂ afternoon profiles over CONUS in 2009,

2017, and 2032 (projected), accounting for changes in surface and aircraft emissions. b) AMFs for tropospheric NO₂ retrievals over CONUS from 2009 to 2032, with the red line calculated using NO₂ profiles with reduced anthropogenic surface emissions and increased aircraft emissions, and the blue line with reduced anthropogenic surface emissions only and fixed aircraft emissions for 2009. Solid lines are from GEOS-Chem simulations for 2009 and 2017, while dashed lines scale the 2009-2017 NO₂ simulation differences to the projected changes in emissions beyond 2017.

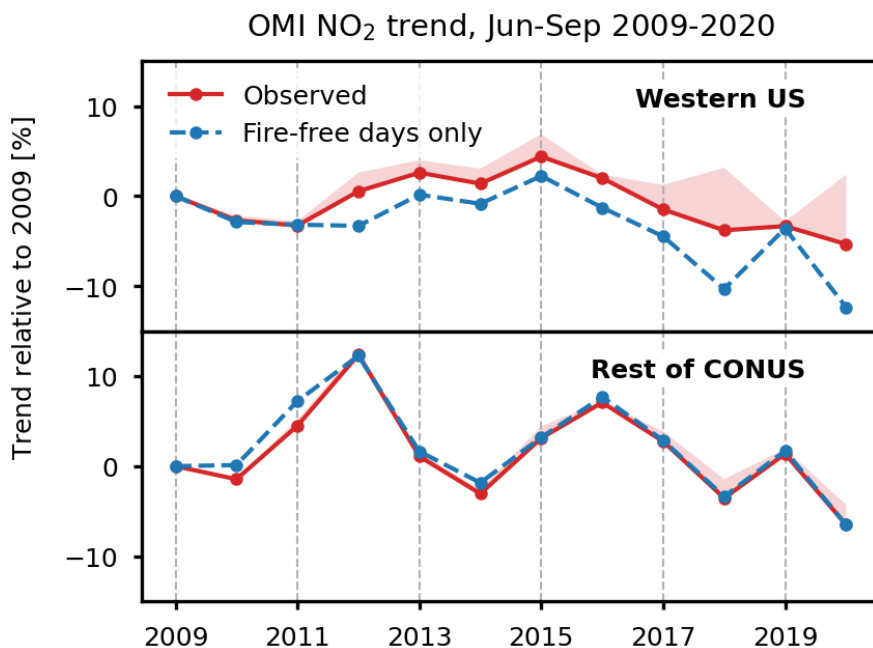
5 Effect of open fire emissions

Open fire emissions make a very small contribution to the mean CONUS NO_x budget in GEOS-Chem (Table 1), but they could be of seasonal importance in the western US in June-September (Jaffe et al., 2020). Simulation of fire NO_x in models such as GEOS-Chem is affected by uncertainties not only in emissions (Carter et al., 2020) but also in plume lofting and chemistry (Zhu et al., 2018; Palm et al., 2021; Peng et al., 2021). Interpreting fire NO₂ observations by satellites is complicated by scattering and absorption from the smoke aerosols (Castellanos et al., 2015; Griffin et al., 2021) as well as plume lofting (Jin et al., 2021) and any differences in vertical distribution between NO₂ and the smoke aerosols.

Here we use the Hazard Mapping System (HMS) product (Rolph et al., 2009) from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) to identify fire-impacted OMI retrievals and estimate from there the contribution of fire to NO₂ VCDs as observed by OMI. HMS provides daily daytime locations and extent of smoke plumes as determined by human analysts using satellite imagery to delineate smoke-affected areas. The dataset has been widely used to identify such areas (Brey and Fischer, 2016; Fischer et al., 2018; Juncosa Calahorrano et al., 2021). We use the fire-season (June-September) HMS data from 2009 to 2020 (<https://www.ospo.noaa.gov/Products/land/hms.html#data>) and grid it to a horizontal resolution of 0.25°x0.25°. For each grid cell, we define days associated with smoke plumes in the HMS data as fire-affected days and the remaining days as fire-free days. Fire-free days may still have some influence of aged fire emissions such as through PAN decomposition, so the distinction offered by the HMS data is for relatively fresh fire emissions over a few days. We thus infer the contribution of fresh fire emissions to the NO₂ VCDs from the difference between the seasonal mean NO₂ VCDs and the average NO₂ VCDs for fire-free days. Previous studies have found that the implicit correction for aerosols in current NO₂ retrieval algorithms as effective clouds could introduce low biases of up to 50% in the retrieved NO₂ VCD in areas of high aerosol loading, such as fire plumes (Lorente et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2020). Therefore, we also examine the effect of increasing tropospheric NO₂ VCDs on fire-affected days by 50%.

Figure 7 shows the contribution of fresh fire emissions to the OMI observations over the western US (130°-114° W, 30°-50° N) and the rest of CONUS in June-September 2009-2020. The red envelope shows the effect of increasing tropospheric NO₂ VCDs on fire-affected days by 50% to account for aerosol-induced bias, and this defines the upper range of fire influence. We find that fires contribute 1-8% (upper range 1-15%) to the OMI NO₂ VCDs over the western US in June-September of

individual years, with a maximum contribution in 2020 which was a particularly high fire year. The fire contribution in the rest of CONUS is negligible. In the absence of fires, we see from Figure 6 that OMI NO₂ over the western US would have significantly decreased over the 2009-2020 period. Increasing fire activity over the past decade contributed to the flattening of the OMI trend. We see no such effect over the rest of CONUS, where open fires have negligible influence, and increasing lightning could be mostly responsible for the flattening of OMI NO₂ there (Y. Wang et al., 2021).



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Figure 7: Trends of OMI tropospheric NO₂ VCDs over the western US and the rest of CONUS for June-September 2009-2020, examining the effects of fires. Trends are shown relative to 2009. The overall trend from the OMI observations (OMNO2 retrieval) is shown in red, and the trend for the subset of fire-free days is shown as dashed. Fire-free days are identified from the NOAA HMS product (see text). The red envelope shows the effect of a 50% bias correction of the OMI NO₂ retrieval on fire-affected days. The western US domain is defined as (130°-114° W, 30°-50° N).

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6 Conclusions

OMI satellite observations of tropospheric NO₂ vertical column densities (VCDs) over the contiguous US (CONUS) show a flattening trend after 2009 despite continuous decrease in surface anthropogenic NO_x emissions. This suggests a large and rising contribution from background NO₂ in the free troposphere (above 2 km) to the tropospheric NO₂ VCDs observed from space, but previous simulations with the GEOS-Chem chemical transport model have been unable to account for this

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background. Here, we used the GEOS-Chem chemical transport model including a new mechanism for particulate nitrate photolysis and the AEIC2019 inventory for aircraft emission trends, together with the NOAA Hazard Mapping System (HMS) smoke product, to better understand the magnitude and trends of free tropospheric background NO₂ and the implications for retrieval and interpretation of satellite data.

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Inclusion of particulate nitrate photolysis as a secondary source of NO_x in GEOS-Chem, following recent field and laboratory evidence, increases the annual mean tropospheric NO₂ VCDs over CONUS by 13% with the maximum effect in spring (25%). It also increases the air mass factor (AMF) for the satellite tropospheric NO₂ retrieval by 7% on an annual basis (11% in spring) because of the increased contribution of the free troposphere to the tropospheric NO₂ VCD. The combination of these two effects provides an improved fit of GEOS-Chem to the OMI satellite NO₂ data, particularly in the spring when the model underestimate was worst. The consideration of nitrate photolysis in 2009 and 2017 corrects 45% of the discrepancy between GEOS-Chem and OMI NO₂ changes over that period, because it increases the free tropospheric contribution to the NO₂ VCDs while the surface anthropogenic emissions decline.

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Aircraft NO_x emissions increased by 38% globally from 2009 to 2017 and by 20% over CONUS but this has generally not been taken into account in the models used to derive vertical shape factors for satellite NO₂ retrievals. The associated increase in the annual mean AMF is only 2% because aircraft emissions remain relatively low compared to lightning. Sustained increases in aircraft emissions in the future, combined with sustained decreases in surface anthropogenic emissions, are expected to increase the AMF by 14% over the next decade with major implications for interpretation of NO₂ trends from satellite data.

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The contribution of open fires to the free tropospheric NO₂ background is difficult to diagnose in GEOS-Chem due to uncertainties in plume lofting and chemistry. Instead, we used the NOAA Hazard Mapping System (HMS) to separate fire-free from fire-affected days in the OMI NO₂ data during the June-September fire season in the western US. We find that fires contribute only 1-8% of the seasonal OMI NO₂ in that region for individual years, but with an increasing trend over 2009-2017 that could offset the decrease in anthropogenic emissions and contribute to the flattening of the OMI NO₂ tropospheric VCD trend during that period.

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Our work demonstrates the importance of properly accounting for the free tropospheric background in interpreting NO₂ observations from space. Better understanding is needed of the role of aerosol nitrate photolysis, which remains highly uncertain. Increasing contributions to the tropospheric NO₂ VCD from free tropospheric sources including aircraft and fires, combined with decrease in surface anthropogenic emissions, will be critical to consider in future analyses of NO₂ trends from satellite data.

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Data availability

365 The OMNO2 product are available at https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets/OMNO2_003/summary. The HMS data can be downloaded from <https://www.ospo.noaa.gov/Products/land/hms.html#data>. The AEIC2019 inventory is now in the default GEOS-Chem version13.4. All other model results are available on request from the corresponding author.

Author contributions

370 DJJ and RD designed the study. RD conducted model simulations and analyzed satellite and model data. VS contributed nitrate photolysis in GEOS-Chem and supported data analysis. SDE and FT provided aircraft emission inventory and supporting guidance. JW and YW contributed soil NO_x emission scheme in GEOS-Chem. LJM and TL helped with interpretation and discussion related to HMS product. RD and DJJ wrote the manuscript and all authors contributed to the revision of the paper.

Competing interests

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

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