



# 1 TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub> for urban and polluted areas globally from 2019 to 2 2024

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10 **Abstract.** We present a global assessment of space-based urban nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) observation trends from 2019 to 2024  
11 using annual and monthly mean tropospheric vertical column densities (VCDs) from the TROPOspheric Monitoring  
12 Instrument (TROPOMI). Across 11,500 cities defined by the Global Human Settlement Layer-Settlement Model (GHS-  
13 SMOD), we find population-weighted annual mean urban NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs declined between 2019 and 2024 in Asian (-17%),  
14 European (-13%), and North American (-4%) cities, with seasonal decomposition indicating that most of the annual changes  
15 are driven by wintertime concentration decreases. South American (-2%) cities exhibited lesser population-weighted changes  
16 on average, while African (+3%) cities experienced a gradual increase in NO<sub>2</sub>. Over this timeframe, Tehran had the largest  
17 NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs ( $>30 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>) and Seoul had the largest reduction (-40%). We further identify changes in NO<sub>2</sub> near  
18 fossil fuel operations and note conflict-related changes in NO<sub>2</sub>, highlighting the responsiveness of satellite NO<sub>2</sub> to certain  
19 societal disruptions. We then calculate NO<sub>2</sub> VCD urban enhancements (VCD<sub>ENH</sub>) by removing background concentrations  
20 from urban signatures and compare VCD<sub>ENH</sub> to changes in nitrogen oxide (NO<sub>x</sub>) emissions from the Emissions Database for  
21 Global Atmospheric Research (EDGARv8.1), to highlight regions with potential inventory discrepancies. We find VCD<sub>ENH</sub>  
22 and EDGARv8.1 NO<sub>x</sub> change at a similar rate from year to year in Europe and North America, with worse agreement in the  
23 Global South. This work demonstrates the value in space-based remote sensing being an accountability agent for air pollution  
24 emissions on a global scale and to identify changes in NO<sub>2</sub> in otherwise unmonitored regions.

## 25 1 Introduction

26 Nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) is a harmful air pollutant that originates from both anthropogenic and natural emissions sources,  
27 including fossil fuel combustion, biomass burning, lightning, and soils (Dix et al., 2020; Jin et al., 2021; Schuman & Huntrieser,  
28 2007; Huber et al., 2024), with fossil fuel combustion accounting for ~45% of total global nitrogen oxide emissions (Song et  
29 al., 2021). Only a small amount of NO<sub>2</sub> is emitted from these sources directly, with nitric oxide (NO) being the primary  
30 emissions product that quickly cycles to NO<sub>2</sub> in the presence of oxidants such as ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) or peroxy radicals (HO<sub>2</sub> or RO<sub>2</sub>).



31 The summed concentrations of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> are referred to as nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub> = NO + NO<sub>2</sub>), as the concentrations of  
32 NO and NO<sub>2</sub> are inherently linked. NO<sub>2</sub> is more commonly targeted by regulatory measures than NO, as it constitutes the  
33 majority of atmospheric NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations and is linked to increased morbidity and mortality from long-term exposure,  
34 particularly within urban environments (Chen et al., 2024). While NO<sub>x</sub> is commonly associated with health risks, the direct  
35 association between NO<sub>x</sub> exposure and adverse health outcomes remains uncertain (Anenberg et al., 2022). Despite this, NO<sub>x</sub>  
36 contributes to known harmful secondary pollutants, including O<sub>3</sub> and fine particulate matter.

37 NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are measured using: (1) in-situ monitoring, e.g. chemiluminescence analyzers at the surface, or (2) remote  
38 sensing instrumentation leveraging the unique spectral properties of NO<sub>2</sub> that absorbs light most efficiently in the visible  
39 portions (405 – 465 nm) of the electromagnetic spectrum (Lamsal et al., 2015). The latter method relies upon spectrometers  
40 detecting in the UV-Visible spectral range to infer NO<sub>2</sub> vertical column densities (VCDs), defined as the summed concentration  
41 of NO<sub>2</sub> in a column from the surface to an upper limit of the atmosphere, with the tropopause often used as the upper limit.  
42 Spectrometers have been used to measure NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs from ground-level directed upward, from aircraft directed downward, or  
43 from space-based satellites directed downward, including from the TROPOspheric Monitoring Instrument (TROPOMI)  
44 onboard the Sentinel-5P satellite (Herman et al., 2009; Fishman et al., 2012; Veefkind et al., 2012).

45 The earliest space-based spectrometers detecting NO<sub>2</sub> were flown on low-earth polar orbiting satellites, and were launched  
46 within the mid-1990s to mid-2000s. These include the Global Ozone Monitoring Experiment (GOME; Burrows et al., 1999)  
47 and GOME-2 satellites, the SCanning Imaging Absorption spectroMeter for Atmospheric CHartographY (SCIAMACHY;  
48 Bovensmann et al., 1999) and the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI; Levelt et al., 2006). The data collected using these  
49 instruments provided unique insight into atmospheric chemistry and composition across the globe, including in mostly  
50 unmonitored regions. OMI, launched in 2004, provided NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs at a spatial resolution of 13 x 24 km<sup>2</sup> at nadir and has  
51 remained operable for more than two decades at the time this was written, providing a valuable long-term record of NO<sub>2</sub>  
52 globally. OMI remained the highest resolution space-based NO<sub>2</sub> product until TROPOMI launched in 2017, which ultimately  
53 provided NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs at a spatial resolution of 3.5 x 5.5 km<sup>2</sup> at nadir. Observations at this resolution facilitated the evaluation  
54 of satellite NO<sub>2</sub> at previously unprecedented spatial scales, including at the intra-urban level (Goldberg et al., 2021; Goldberg  
55 et al., 2024).

56 NO<sub>2</sub> trends have been characterized in urban and broader environments using space-based instruments. Earlier satellite studies  
57 used the GOME and SCIAMACY satellites to identify increasing NO<sub>2</sub> VCD trends in China from the mid-1990s to the mid-  
58 2000s (Richter et al., 2005; Stavrakou et al., 2008; Van der A et al., 2008), driven primarily by economic growth and  
59 industrialization. Later studies, incorporating OMI observations, highlighted further increases in China through the early  
60 2010s, with VCDs and satellite-inferred surface concentrations steadily declining since (Miyazaki et al., 2017; Jiang et al.,  
61 2022). Europe has exhibited steady NO<sub>2</sub> VCD declines since the start of the satellite NO<sub>2</sub> record (Richter et al., 2005; Krotkov  
62 et al., 2016; Duncan et al., 2016), driven largely by the implementation of various emissions control technologies. In the United  
63 States, NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations increased through roughly 2005, then decreased substantially through the early to mid-2010s



64 (Lamsal et al., 2015), with VCD decreases more gradual since, in part due to an increased influence from regional background  
65 NO<sub>2</sub> levels (Jiang et al., 2018; Dang et al., 2023). Additionally, numerous studies have highlighted the influence that the  
66 COVID-19 pandemic had on NO<sub>2</sub> globally, with most regions exhibiting broad NO<sub>2</sub> decreases in 2020 during numerous  
67 lockdowns and subsequent, regionally-distinct rebounds in emissions (Lonsdale et al., 2023; Fisher et al., 2024).

68 Satellite studies have been used to characterize trends within the urban environment specifically, using different methods to  
69 characterize the urban extent. Geddes et al. (2016) used GOME, SCIAMACHY and GOME-2 oversampled to a 0.1° x 0.1°  
70 grid to highlight NO<sub>2</sub> VCD trends globally, as well as in select urban areas, with the urban region defined as the surrounding  
71 ~ 200 km x 200 km. Fioletov et al. (2022) and Fioletov et al. (2025) used urban density from the Gridded Population of the  
72 World (SEDAC, 2017) as a proxy for the extent of the urban environment to identify changes in urban NO<sub>x</sub> emissions.  
73 Anenberg et al. (2022) used urban boundaries provided from the 2019 version of the Global Human Settlement Layer-  
74 Settlement model (GHS-SMOD) to evaluate NO<sub>2</sub> trends from 2000 – 2019 using surface NO<sub>2</sub> estimates derived from  
75 TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub> and a land-use regression model.

76 Here, we use TROPOMI tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs to quantify general NO<sub>2</sub> trends globally from 2019 to 2024, with a particular  
77 focus on urban areas. The urban boundaries are defined by the 2023 version of GHS-SMOD, which provides urban cluster  
78 boundaries for all urban regions globally. We evaluate urban NO<sub>2</sub> trends against a NO<sub>x</sub> emissions database, and evaluate the  
79 influence of different seasons on annual trends. We additionally note changes in select oil, gas, and other mining regions,  
80 which exhibit the largest changes globally outside of urban areas. This study represents the first detailed global-scale analysis  
81 of urban TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub> trends from 2019 to 2024. Our findings illustrate how NO<sub>2</sub> responded to specific societal events  
82 during this timeframe, such as the impact of clean air policies, population migration away from urban areas due to war, the  
83 increased demand for fossil fuels and rare-Earth minerals, and the emergence and waning of a global pandemic. Furthermore,  
84 by directly linking observed NO<sub>2</sub> urban enhancements with NO<sub>x</sub> emission inventory data from the updated EDGARv8.1, our  
85 work provides valuable insights into regions where emissions inventories align closely with observations, as well as areas  
86 exhibiting potential inventory discrepancies. This work underscores the critical value of satellite-derived NO<sub>2</sub> as a tool for  
87 urban air quality assessment and emissions management.

## 88 2 Data and Methods

### 89 2.1 Global Human Settlement Layer Urban Cluster Boundaries

90 The Global Human Settlement Layer-Settlement Model (GHS-SMOD; Schiavina et al., 2023) is a dataset developed by the  
91 Joint Research Centre of the European Commission containing spatial boundaries and population estimates for all urban areas  
92 globally with a population of at least 50,000, which can be used to subset gridded or spatially-disaggregated data for any built-  
93 up area on Earth. GHS-SMOD uses satellite remote sensing to identify the spatial extent and boundaries of all cohesive built-  
94 up areas globally at a spatial resolution of 1 km<sup>2</sup>, with each separate, cohesive built-up area referred to as an “urban cluster”.



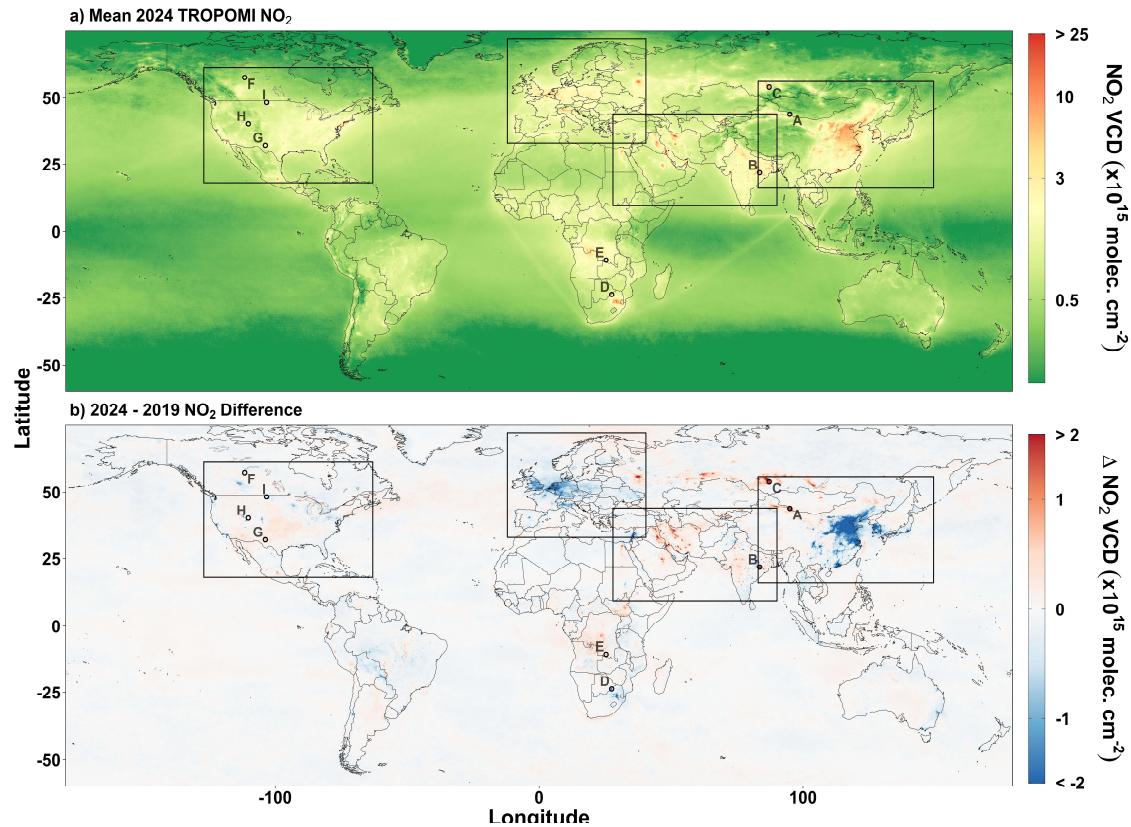
95 In this study, we use the terms “urban cluster” and “city” interchangeably, although we note that GHS-SMOD urban clusters  
96 do not necessarily align with administrative city boundaries. The 2023 version of GHS-SMOD provides boundaries for  
97 approximately 11,500 urban clusters, along with population estimates for the year 2020 (Fig. S1). We note that GHS-SMOD  
98 urban clusters do not reflect the traditional boundaries of individual cities as we may understand them, and as such, GHS-  
99 SMOD urban clusters can span multiple cities, regions or even countries. For example, the urban cluster encompassing San  
100 Diego, California includes the city of San Diego, but also the adjacent surrounding suburbs, as well as the entirety of Tijuana,  
101 Mexico (Fig. S2). In such cases, attribution of an urban cluster to one particular city is not possible.

102 We use the GHS-SMOD boundaries to subset monthly- and annually-averaged satellite NO<sub>2</sub> column concentration data for all  
103 urban clusters, as described in Section 2.2.1.

104 **2.2 TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub> vertical column densities**

105 The TROPOspheric Monitoring Instrument (TROPOMI) is a pushbroom spectrometer on board the Sentinel-5P satellite  
106 traveling in low earth orbit, with approximately one overpass each afternoon (Veefkind et al., 2012). Launched in October,  
107 2017, TROPOMI detects radiation in spectral bands ranging from the ultraviolet to shortwave infrared to infer concentrations  
108 of various atmospheric constituents, including nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>), which is best inferred from the near-UV and visible  
109 portions of the spectrum. We use Level 3 monthly- and annually-averaged TROPOMI tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> vertical column  
110 densities (VCDs) on a 0.1° global grid (Goldberg, 2024), which were created by oversampling daily Level 2 TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub>  
111 VCDs, with a spatial resolution of 3.5 x 5.5 km<sup>2</sup> at nadir, derived from version 2.4+ of the European Space Agency retrieval  
112 algorithm (van Geffen et al., 2022). The TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub> data used in this study span six full calendar years from January 2019  
113 to December 2024 (Fig. 1); we use the RPRO version from 1 January 2019 – 25 July 2022 and the OFFL version from 26 July  
114 2022 – 31 December 2024. On 7 September 2024 there was an update of the surface reflectivity assumptions and on 16  
115 November 2024 there was an update to the cloud retrieval, both of which induce a small positive step change in the data, but  
116 likely does not meaningfully affect the 2024 annual average.

117



118  
119 **Figure 1:** (a) Global 2024 annual average NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs colored on a log-scale and (b) the difference in VCD from 2019 to 2024 colored  
120 on a symmetric log-scale. Points labeled A-I correspond with locations of oil, gas and mining operations highlighted in Fig. 3. Boxes  
121 indicate select focus regions in Section 3.

122 **2.2.1 Quantifying average TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs for GHS-SMOD urban clusters**

123 For each urban cluster, we subset the oversampled TROPOMI data for grid cells that are located within 0.1° of the urban  
124 cluster boundary. For most cities, this results in approximately 20-25 grid cells, depending on the extent of the individual  
125 cluster. Given that the spatial resolution of GHS-SMOD is roughly an order of magnitude finer than that of the oversampled  
126 TROPOMI data (1 km vs. 0.1°) we interpolate the subsetted TROPOMI data to the 0.01° × 0.01° resolution of GHS-SMOD  
127 using a nearest neighbor approach. We then calculate an area-weighted average of interpolated grid cells that have a grid cell  
128 center falling within the urban cluster boundary (Fig. S2). This approach allows for the portions of oversampled 0.1° × 0.1°  
129 grid cells that may not be centered within an urban cluster boundary, but that still overlap with a cluster, to be accounted for  
130 within the average NO<sub>2</sub> column estimate.



131 To evaluate the changes in VCDs for broader regions, e.g. countries containing multiple urban clusters, we can calculate a  
132 population-weighted average VCD, taking into account varying population sizes in different urban clusters.

$$133 VCD_{PW} = \frac{\sum_i (POP_i \times VCD_i)}{\sum_i (POP_i)}, \quad (1)$$

134 In Eq. 1,  $VCD_{PW}$  represents the population-weighted VCD for a given country,  $POP_i$  represents the 2020 GHS-SMOD-  
135 estimated population for a given urban cluster  $i$ , and  $VCD_i$  represents the mean  $\text{NO}_2$  VCD for  $i$ .

### 136 2.3 Accounting for background $\text{NO}_2$

137 To account for changes in upwind background  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations that may influence urban  $\text{NO}_2$  VCDs, we quantify an urban  
138  $\text{NO}_2$  enhancement.

$$139 VCD_{ENH} = VCD_{UC} - VCD_{BG}, \quad (2)$$

140 In Eq. 2,  $VCD_{ENH}$  is the urban  $\text{NO}_2$  VCD enhancement,  $VCD_{UC}$  is the  $\text{NO}_2$  VCD within each urban cluster as described in  
141 Section 2.2.1, and  $VCD_{BG}$  is the background concentration for an urban cluster. We define  $VCD_{BG}$  as the 10<sup>th</sup> percentile of  
142  $\text{NO}_2$  VCDs extending 0.5 degrees in any direction from an UC boundary (de Gouw et al., 2020).

### 143 2.4 EDGAR NOx emissions

144 We use version 8.1 of the Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGARv8.1; Crippa et al., 2024) to evaluate  
145 NOx emissions. EDGAR provides summed total and sector-specific NOx emissions at  $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$  spatial resolution globally.  
146 EDGAR NOx emissions include contributions from energy generation, industrial sources, transportation, residential sources  
147 and agriculture. EDGAR emissions are produced using a bottom-up method that combines activity data together with sector-  
148 specific emissions factors to produce gridded annual emissions. Similar to the handling of TROPOMI data (Sec. 2.21), we use  
149 GHS-SMOD to quantify mean NOx emissions for each urban cluster.

## 150 3 Global TROPOMI $\text{NO}_2$ vertical column densities from 2019 to 2024

151 The following subsections describe the  $\text{NO}_2$  VCDs and trends in four global subregions: Asia and Oceania, Africa, Europe,  
152 North and South America.

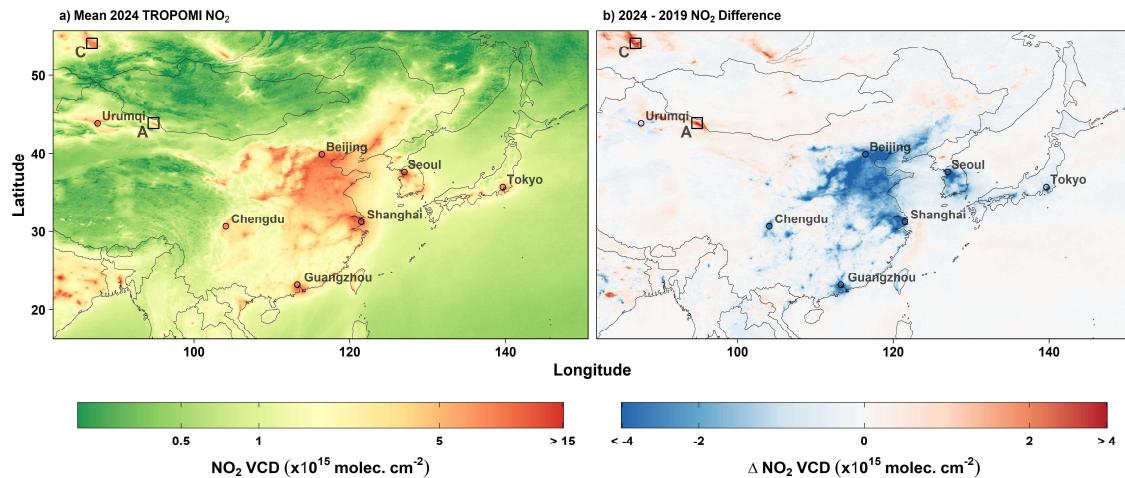
### 153 3.1 Asia and Oceania

154 North and East China, one of the most populated regions globally with approximately 11% of the 1000 largest GHS-SMOD  
155 cities, produced the broadest continuous expanse of 2024 annual mean  $\text{NO}_2$  VCDs at or above  $5 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$  (Fig.  
156 2a). Despite this, substantial decreases were observed in this region from 2019 to 2024 (Fig. 2b). While  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations  
157 had already been decreasing in China prior to 2019 (Liu et al., 2016; de Foy et al., 2016), the decrease accelerated after the



158 onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, coinciding with reduced emissions during numerous lockdowns throughout the country  
159 from 2020 to 2022 (Zheng et al., 2021; Ma et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2024). The decrease in NO<sub>2</sub> also coincided with general  
160 Chinese government policies directed at reducing emissions, including stricter emissions controls for industrial sources, energy  
161 generation and the transportation sector (Shi et al., 2022; Li et al., 2024). Few regions in China experienced increased VCDs,  
162 with the most notable increases occurring outside of major urban areas. The most substantial increase in VCD over China  
163 through 2024 was observed in the sparsely-populated Santanghu Basin (Fig. 3a), a region in eastern Xinjiang Province with a  
164 relatively nascent coal mining industry (Zhang et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2018). Annual mean NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs in the basin increased  
165 by  $1.9 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>, or +172%, from 2019 to 2024. The expansion of mining operations is clearly evident in visible  
166 satellite imagery (Fig. S3).

167



168

169 **Figure 2: (a) Mean 2024 TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs and (b) relative changes in TROPOMI VCDs from 2019 to 2024, centered on**  
170 **East Asia. Labeled black squares indicates the locations of mining regions highlighted in Fig. 3.**

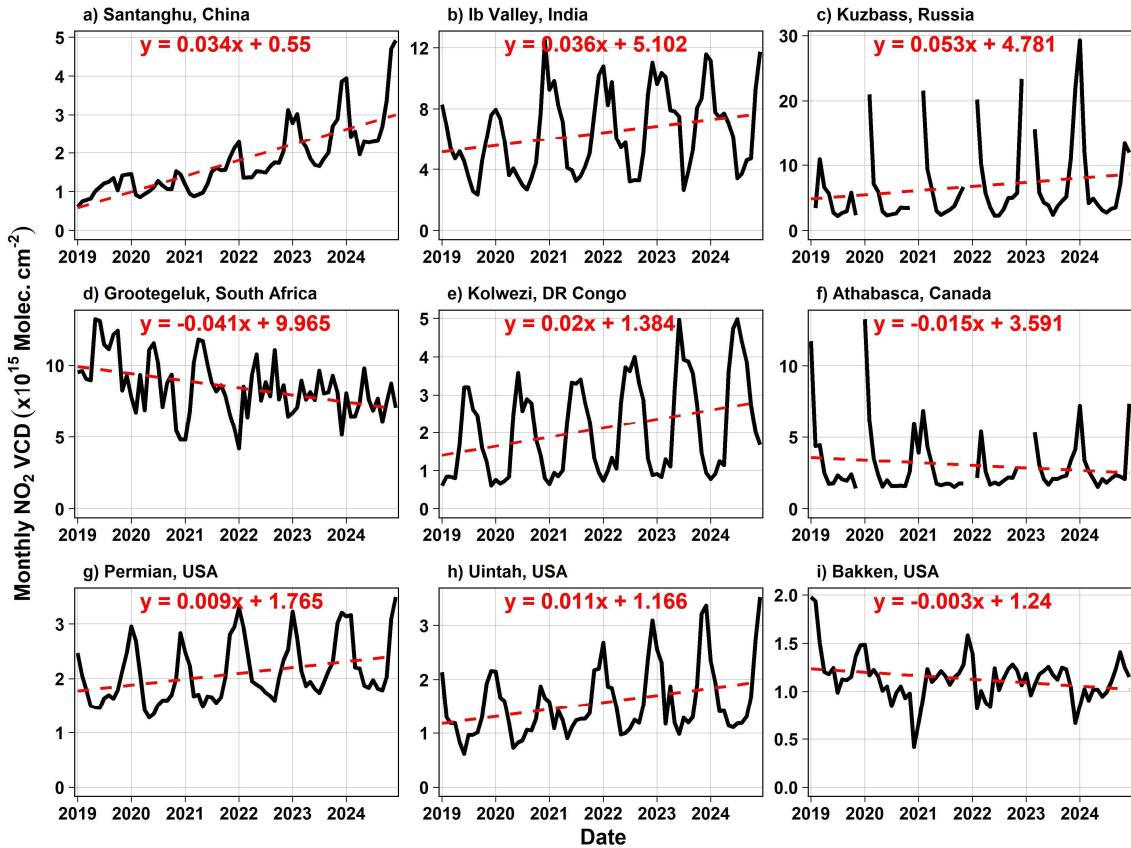
171

172 In India, elevated NO<sub>2</sub> near numerous coal-fired power plants and coal mines is a common feature (Panda et al., 2023),  
173 evidenced by the many apparent point sources in the 2024 annual average TROPOMI VCDs throughout the country (Fig. 4a).  
174 NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs increased at many of these point sources from 2019 to 2024 (Fig. 4b), suggesting an increase in emissions from  
175 energy production and use. The largest regional increase in VCD anywhere in India from 2019 to 2024 (+ $2.1 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  
176 cm<sup>-2</sup>; +37%) was observed in the Ib Valley in northwestern Odisha state (Fig. 3b), a region with multiple surface coal mines  
177 and coal-fired power plants (Varma et al., 2015). NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs near numerous other coal mines and power plants throughout  
178 India exhibited changes, but NO<sub>2</sub> VCD increases were more prevalent than decreases. Of the major urban regions in India, the



179 largest decreases from 2019 to 2024 were observed in New Delhi ( $-1.6 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ; -18%) and Mumbai ( $-1.0 \times 10^{15}$   
180 molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ; -15%).

181



182

183 Figure 3: Monthly time series of NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs over select oil, gas, and other mining regions. Black lines denote monthly mean VCDs,  
184 and red lines represent trends characterized by ordinary least-squares regression for each site. The slope of each trend line  
185 represents the change in NO<sub>2</sub> VCD per month, with the y-intercept representing the intercept for January, 2019. Months with  
186 missing data lacked quality-assured TROPOMI observations. Note the differing y-axis extents for each panel.

187

188 Urban regions in Middle Eastern countries experienced some of the highest NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs globally in the TROPOMI record. Near  
189 the Iranian capital of Tehran, 2024 annual average NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs of individual grid cells exceeded  $40 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$  (Fig.  
190 4a), the highest urban annual average among all global cities. Much of the Middle East exhibited substantial increases in  
191 population-weighted, urban NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs from 2019 to 2024, most notably in regions of Saudi Arabia (+5%), Iraq (+18%), and  
192 Iran (+10%), with broad increases that extend beyond the urban environment. One of the most salient VCD decreases in the

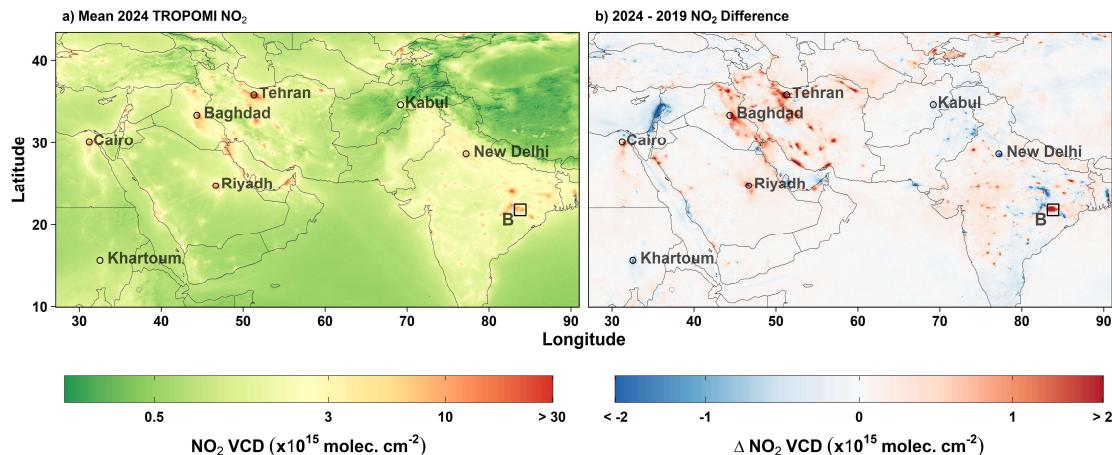


193 Middle East occurred in Lebanon (-39%), coinciding with the country's severe economic and financial crisis that began in late  
194 2019 (Harake et al., 2019). VCD decreases through 2024 were particularly stark in the Lebanese capital Beirut ( $-6.7 \times 10^{15}$   
195 molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ; -37%). Additional Middle Eastern countries that exhibited decreased urban  $\text{NO}_2$  VCDs through 2024 include  
196 much of Israel (-27%), Kuwait (-5%), Qatar (-17%), and Afghanistan (-13%).

197 Nearly all urban regions in eastern Russia (Siberia) exhibited increased  $\text{NO}_2$  VCDs, as did regions coinciding with known  
198 mining operations. In the Kuzbass Region of Siberia, one of Russia's largest coal mining regions, annual mean VCDs increased  
199 by  $2.4 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$  from 2019 to 2024, representing a 58% increase (Fig. 3c). A previous study identified a correlation  
200 between space-based  $\text{NO}_2$  observations and regional coal production in the Kuzbass region (Labzovskii et al., 2022), providing  
201 relevant context for the observed VCD increases.

202 Other notable changes in  $\text{NO}_2$  VCD in Asia include extensive decreases throughout Japan (-22%), South Korea (-39%),  
203 Thailand (-7%), Pakistan (-14%) and Australia (-14%). Urban increases were observed in much of Central Asia, including  
204 Turkmenistan (+21%), Kazakhstan (+22%) Mongolia (+75%).

205



206

207 **Figure 4:** Same as Fig. 2, but centered on the Middle East. Labeled black squares indicate the locations of mining regions highlighted  
208 in Fig. 3.

### 209 3.2 Africa

210 Johannesburg, South Africa and the surrounding region exhibited the largest  $\text{NO}_2$  VCD for the African continent in 2024 (Fig.  
211 S4). Numerous surface coal mines and coal-fired power plants, particularly to the east of Johannesburg, contribute to the  
212 region's  $\text{NO}_2$  signature (Shikwambana et al., 2020). Despite these elevated  $\text{NO}_2$  levels, 2024 mean  $\text{NO}_2$  VCDs in the city of  
213 Johannesburg were 8% lower than in 2019. Northwest of Johannesburg in Limpopo Province, mining operations at the



214 Grootegeluk surface coal mine, together with two adjacent power plants (Faure et al., 2010; Shikwambana et al., 2020), produce  
215 one of the largest NO<sub>2</sub> point sources in Africa, despite annual mean NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs at the site decreasing by  $3.5 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  
216 cm<sup>-2</sup> from 2019 to 2024, or a decrease of 32% (Fig. 3d). The Cairo, Egypt urban region, in Northern Africa, represents the  
217 second largest urban NO<sub>2</sub> signature in Africa in 2024. The 2024 annual mean NO<sub>2</sub> VCD in Cairo was  $9.4 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>,  
218 and elevated VCDs extend along the Nile River south of Cairo, as well as north into the Nile River Delta. Cairo exhibited  
219 increased VCDs from 2019 to 2024 (+8%), as did regions immediately adjacent to the Nile River, while regions north into the  
220 Nile River Delta exhibited decreased NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs.

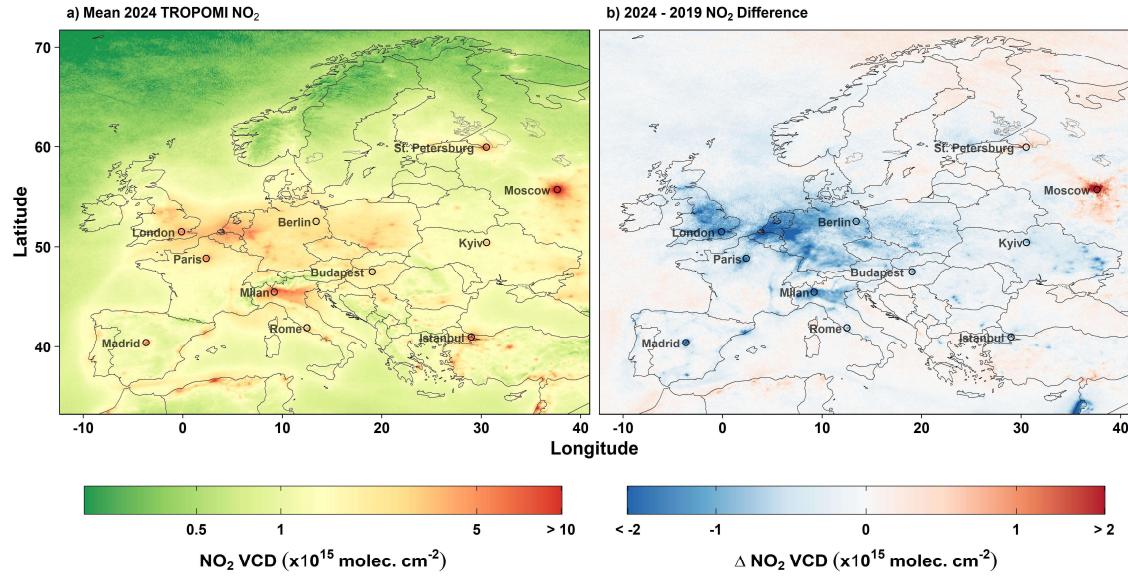
221 In the Sudanese capital of Khartoum, NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs started decreasing in 2023, coinciding with the onset of conflict within Sudan  
222 (Guo et al., 2023). This resulted in annual mean VCDs decreasing by 58% from 2019 to 2024 (Fig. S5). In a mining region  
223 known as the Copperbelt in the south of the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), broad NO<sub>2</sub> VCD increases were  
224 observed, including at a large surface mine near Kolwezi. VCDs at the Kolwezi mine increased by  $1.4 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>  
225 from 2019 to 2024, or an increase of 64% (Fig. 3e). Numerous surface mines exist in the region, with most observing increases  
226 in NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from mining operations in recent years (Martínez-Alonso et al., 2023). Throughout the remainder of Africa,  
227 moderate VCD enhancements were observed near most urban centers, with mean VCDs near most cities typically at or below  
228  $4 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> (Fig. 1a). Along the African Mediterranean coast, most urban areas showed increased NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs  
229 through 2024. Other national capitals and major cities exhibited increased VCDs, including Abidjan, Ivory Coast (+41%);  
230 Addis Ababa, Ethiopia (+34%); Kinshasa, DRC (+20%); and Dakar, Senegal (+15%).

### 231 3.3 Europe

232 NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs in Europe were largest in urban areas, with the largest 2024 mean VCD occurring in Moscow, Russia ( $15.5 \times 10^{15}$   
233 molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>) (Fig. 5a). Broad enhanced 2024 annual mean VCDs exceeding  $4 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> were observed in a  
234 region encompassing Belgium, the Netherlands and western portions of Germany, with values exceeding  $5 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  
235 cm<sup>-2</sup> in the Po River Valley of northern Italy.

236 From 2019 to 2024, decreases in NO<sub>2</sub> VCD occurred in 61% of all urban clusters in Europe. All cities with a population greater  
237 than 1,000,000 experienced decreases, with the exception of Moscow (+29%) and other cities of western Russia, which  
238 experienced increases (Fig. 5b). The broad decreases across large Europe cities are likely due to a combination of (1) continued  
239 decreased emissions trends that accelerated during the COVID-19 pandemic, (2) continued transition to alternative energy  
240 sources following the start of the Russia-Ukraine war in 2022 and (3) existing policies implemented within the EU (Matthias  
241 et al., 2021; Rokicki et al., 2023; Cifuentes-Faura, 2022). These policies include the European Green Deal and European  
242 Climate Law, which promote zero-emission vehicles, stricter vehicle emissions targets and updated industrial emissions  
243 regulations.

244



245

246 **Figure 5: Same as Fig. 2, but centered on Europe.**

### 247 3.4 North America and South America

248 Throughout North America, 2024 annual mean NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs were largest in urban regions, including Los Angeles ( $7.4 \times 10^{15}$   
249 molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ), New York ( $7.0 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ), Chicago ( $5.0 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ), Mexico City ( $11.3 \times 10^{15}$   
250 molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ) and Toronto ( $4.3 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ), as well as near fossil fuel-fired power plant and mining operations  
251 (Fig. 6a). A majority of cities in the U.S. and Canada exhibited decreased or unchanged NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs (Fig. 6b), with notable  
252 exceptions being Phoenix, Arizona (+10%) and Dallas, Texas (+6%), which experienced increases (Fig. S6).

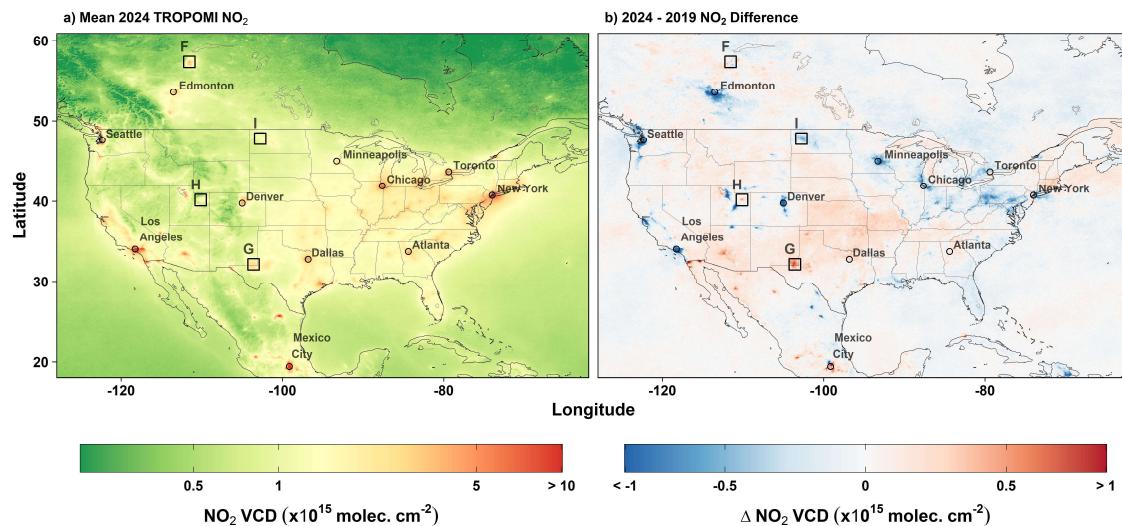
253 In Canada, the largest VCD decreases were observed in Alberta Province in and around Edmonton (-19%). In the U.S., aside  
254 from decreases in urban environments, the largest changes were observed in remote areas near power plants, e.g. near the  
255 decommissioned Navajo Generating Station in northern Arizona, the Four Corners Generating Station in northern New  
256 Mexico, and the Hunter and Huntington Power Plants in central Utah (Goldberg et al., 2021). Oil, gas, and coal mining  
257 operations influenced regional VCD changes as well, with annual mean NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs decreasing from 2019 to 2024 in the  
258 Athabasca oil sands (+1%) in Northern Alberta (Fig. 3f), increases in the Permian (+29%) and Uintah (+35%) Basins in the  
259 southwestern U.S. (Fig. 3g-h), and decreases in the Bakken (-16%) in North Dakota (Fig. 3i). Apparent within the U.S. is a  
260 slight increase in background concentrations in rural regions, particularly in the Central and Western U.S. It is unclear if this  
261 is due to an extension of the NO<sub>2</sub> lifetime due to decreasing VOCs and O<sub>3</sub> over this 6-year period (e.g., Laughner & Cohen  
262 2019) or due to increased NOx emissions in rural areas or both. Further work should investigate this.



263 In Mexico, Central America and the Caribbean, the largest VCDs are observed near Mexico City ( $11.3 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ) and Monterrey, Mexico ( $7.7 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ), with numerous other urban signatures. The largest increases were  
264 observed at sites in Northern Mexico, including Mexicali (+31%) and Hermosillo (+32%) as well as a handful of regions with  
265 decreased VCDs in northern Mexico, including Monterrey (-9%). VCDs also decreased near the capital city of Santo Domingo,  
266 Dominican Republic (-28%), and increased near Havana, Cuba (+39%).

267  
268 In South America, the largest VCDs are observed near Lima, Peru ( $6.3 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ); Santiago, Chile ( $9.7 \times 10^{15}$   
269 molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ); and Sao Paulo, Brazil ( $7.3 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ) (Fig. S7). Regions near Santiago experienced some of the  
270 largest decreases in VCD in South America (-19%), while Quito, Ecuador experienced the largest increase (+86%).

271



272

273 **Figure 6: Same as Fig. 2, but for North America. Squares and numbers represent select oil and gas regions highlighted in Fig. 3.**

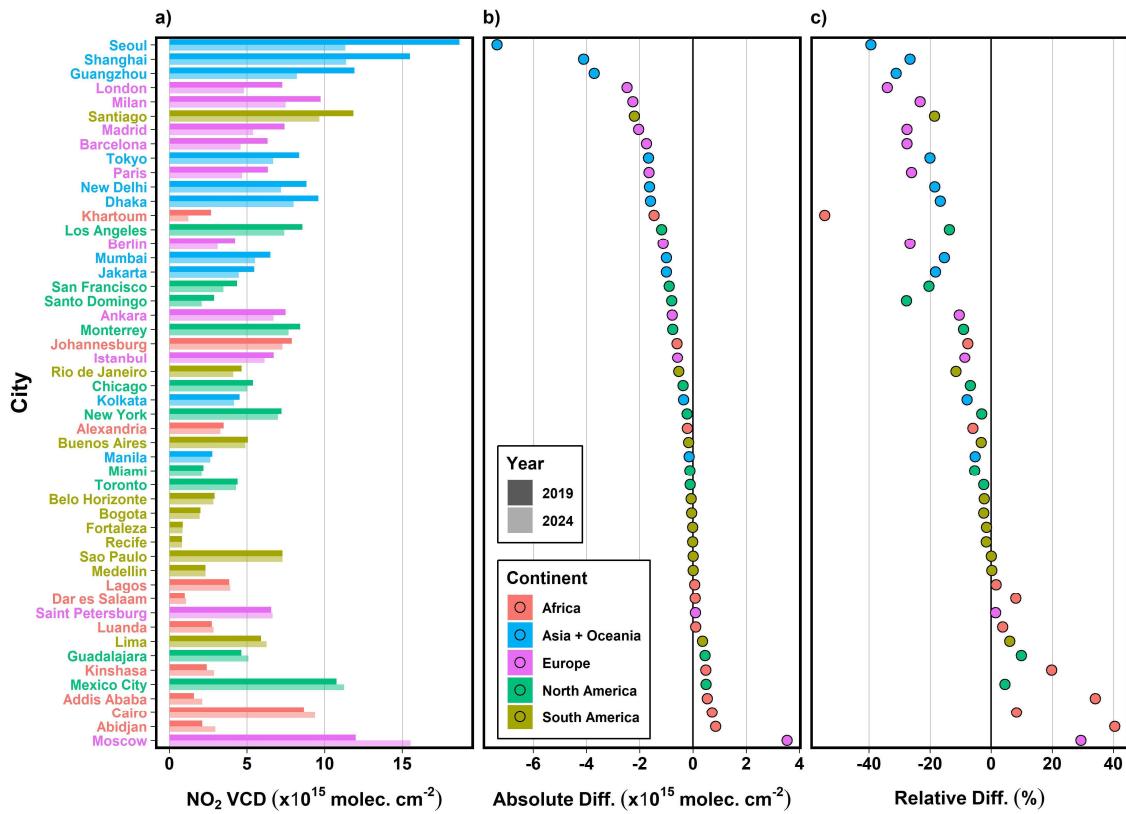
#### 274 **4 Urban-level NO<sub>2</sub> VCD trends**

275 Using the method outlined in Section 2.2.1, the GHS-SMOD urban cluster boundaries are used to determine mean TROPOMI  
276 NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations for all urban clusters globally with a minimum population of 50,000. Looking at VCD changes from 2019  
277 to 2024 in the 50 cities representing the ten most populous urban clusters on each continent, with Asia and Oceania considered  
278 jointly, East Asian cities represent four and European cities represent five of the ten largest VCD decreases (Fig. 7a). Seoul  
279 experienced the greatest reduction in NO<sub>2</sub> VCD of any of these 50 cities, with annual average levels from 2019 to 2024  
280 decreasing by  $7.4 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$  (Fig. 7b), or nearly -40% (Fig. 7c). London, England produced the greatest NO<sub>2</sub> VCD



281 decrease of the ten most populous European cities, with a mean decrease of  $2.5 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$  (Fig. 7b), or -34%. This  
282 decrease occurred alongside the introduction of the city's ultra-low emission zone introduced in 2019 and expanded in 2023,  
283 which has been shown to decrease local  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations (Hajmohammadi and Heydecker, 2022).

284 Large South American cities generally experienced minimal changes in  $\text{NO}_2$  VCD, with relative changes typically less than  
285  $\pm 5\%$  (Fig. 7c). The most notable exception is Santiago, Chile, which experienced a mean VCD decrease of nearly 20% from  
286 2019 to 2024. The largest North American cities mostly experienced moderate VCD decreases, with the largest absolute  
287 decreases occurring in Los Angeles (-13.7%) and the San Francisco Bay Area (-20.4%), and largest increases occurring in the  
288 Mexican cities of Guadalajara (+9.9%) and Mexico City (+4.6%). Chicago and New York City, two of the largest cities in the  
289 U.S., also experienced decreases, though less pronounced.



290

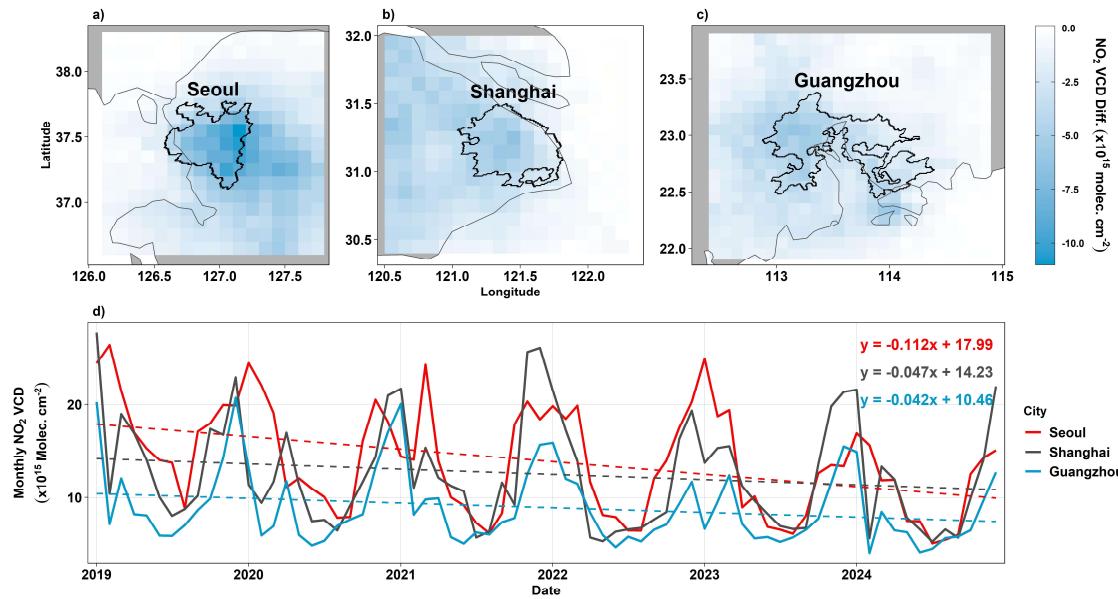
291 Figure 7: (a)  $\text{NO}_2$  VCD in 2019 (dark bars) and 2024 (light bars) for the 10 most populous urban clusters on each continent, based  
292 on GHS-SMOD populations. (b) Absolute difference in  $\text{NO}_2$  VCD for each city from 2019 to 2024. (c) Relative percent change in  
293 VCD from 2019 to 2024. Colors correspond to the respective continent for each city. Cities are ordered by magnitude of absolute  
294 VCD decrease.



295 Most of the largest African cities experienced increased NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs from 2019 to 2024, with Abidjan, Ivory Coast experiencing  
296 the largest urban increase of  $0.85 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> (Fig. 7b), or an increase of 40.5% (Fig. 7c). Additional notable African  
297 increases are Cairo, Egypt (+8.3%), Addis Ababa, Ethiopia (+34.1%) and Kinshasa, DR Congo (+19.9%). The largest decrease  
298 on the African continent was observed in the Sudanese capital of Khartoum, which experienced an average decrease of  $1.46 \times$   
299  $10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> (Fig. 7b) or a decrease of 54.5% (Fig. 7c). These strong VCD decreases in Khartoum coincide with conflict  
300 in the country, causing large portions of the city to be displaced, impacting NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (see Sec. 3.2).

301 Of the cities presented in Fig. 7, the three largest absolute decreases between 2019 and 2024 were in the East Asian cities of  
302 Seoul, South Korea (Fig. 8a), Shanghai, China (Fig. 8b) and Guangzhou, China (Fig. 8c). Seoul experienced decreases greater  
303 than  $7 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> from 2019 to 2024, largely due to effective policies implemented by the South Korean government  
304 since the early 2000s to reduce local emissions, as well as trends in emissions that began following the COVID-19 pandemic  
305 (Ho et al., 2021; Seo et al. 2021). The observed annual decreases in these East Asian cities were primarily driven by decreases  
306 during the winter months (Fig. 7d). European cities also experienced some of the largest decreases in VCD, with the three  
307 largest decreases occurring in London, UK (-34%); Milan, Italy (-23%); and Madrid, Spain (-28%) (Fig. S8). Three cities with  
308 notable increases include Moscow, Russia (+29%), Baghdad, Iraq (+17%) and Riyadh, Saudi Arabia (+13%) (Fig. S9).  
309 Moscow experienced the largest NO<sub>2</sub> VCD increase of any GHS-SMOD city through 2024, with a mean increase of  $3.5 \times 10^{15}$   
310 molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> (Fig. 7b). The increasing trend in Moscow accelerated in early 2022 (Fig. S9), following the onset of the  
311 Russia-Ukraine war in Ukraine, when monthly mean NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs for March reached  $59 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> (see Sec. 3.3).

312



313

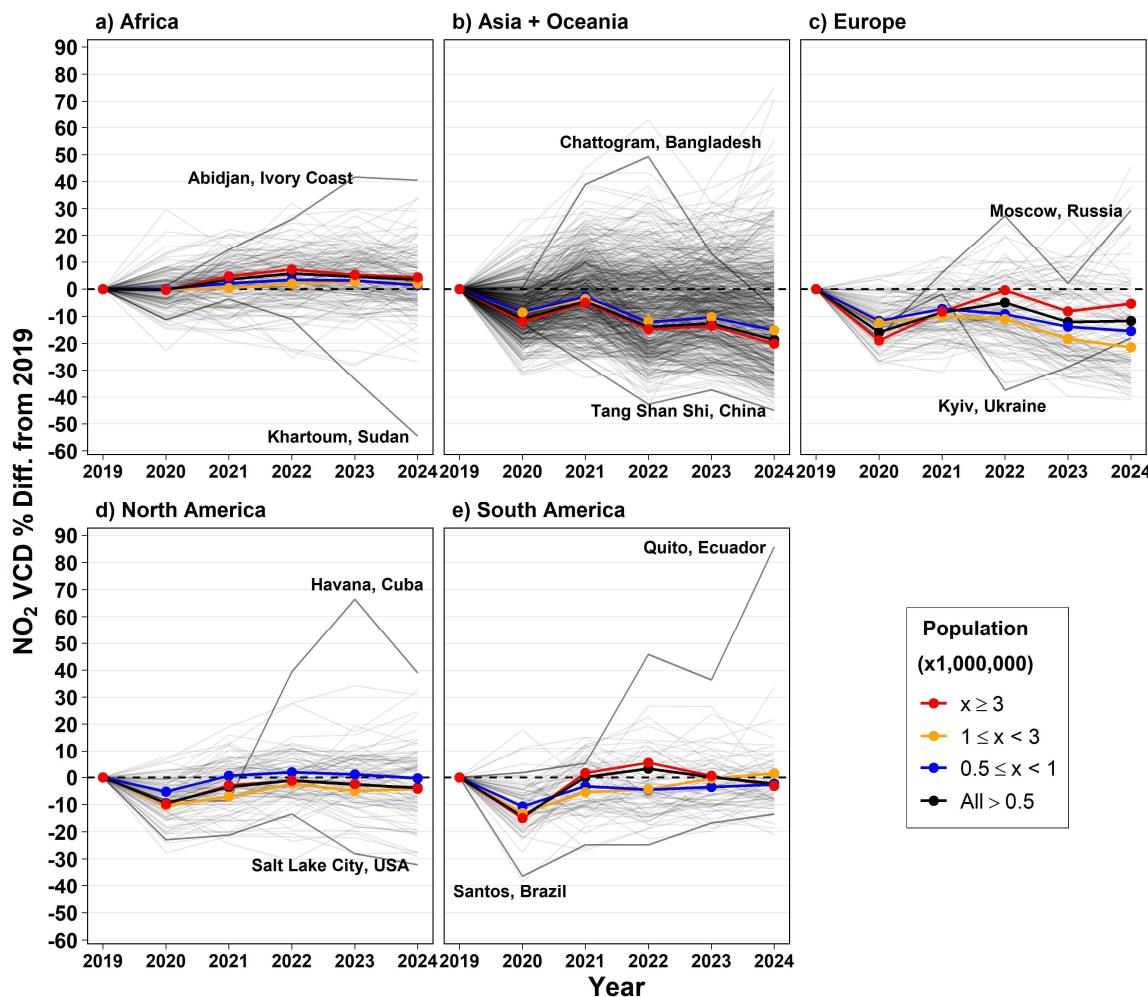
314 **Figure 8: Absolute change in mean annual NO<sub>2</sub> VCD from 2019 to 2024 for three East Asian cities: (a) Seoul, South Korea, (b)**  
315 **Shanghai, China and (c) Guangzhou, China. Colors in panels a-c show magnitude of VCD change, thin lines show national borders**  
316 **or coastlines, and thick lines show the GHS-SMOD urban boundary. (d) Solid lines show monthly mean TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub> VCD from**  
317 **01/2019 through 12/2024, colored by city. Dashed lines and equations show ordinary least-squares regression trends, with the slope**  
318 **representing the change in NO<sub>2</sub> VCD per month, and the y-intercept representing the intercept for January, 2019.**

## 319 5 Aggregated trends in urban TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub>

320 TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub> changes from 2019 to 2024 for larger urban clusters (i.e. clusters with a population greater than 500,000) are  
321 shown in Fig. 9. This represents approximately 1000 of the most populated urban clusters, or just over 9% of all urban clusters  
322 in the GHS-SMOD dataset. 15.2% of these cities are in Africa, 57.8% are in Asia and Oceania, 10.9% are in Europe, 9.1% are  
323 in North America and 6.9% are in South America. On average, annual mean NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs are characterized by a decrease of  
324 about 10% from 2019 to 2020; previous work has attributed such decreases to the COVID-19 pandemic (Cooper et al., 2022).  
325 Africa was the exception to these 2020 decreases (Fig. 9a), which saw average VCDs largely unchanged for that year. Through  
326 2024, African cities experienced a gradual increase in VCD, with larger cities exhibiting a larger fractional increase in NO<sub>2</sub>  
327 (Fig. 9a). The largest percent increase occurred in Abidjan, the capital city of Ivory Coast, which experienced an increase in  
328 NO<sub>2</sub> VCD of more than 40% from 2019 through 2024. Khartoum, Sudan experienced the largest percent decrease of any large  
329 African City, with mean VCDs decreasing by nearly 60% through 2024, with most of that decrease accelerating in the Spring  
330 of 2023 (Fig. S5). This decrease coincides with the onset of conflict within Sudan, which heavily impacted the capital city of  
331 Khartoum, leading to the displacement of much of the Khartoum population outside the city (Guo et al., 2023).



332



333

334 **Figure 9: Percent change in annual mean TROPOMI tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> vertical column densities (VCD) for individual GHS-SMOD**  
335 **urban clusters with a population of at least 500,000 (gray lines), relative to 2019 values. Population-weighted percent change is shown**  
336 **for urban clusters with a population between 500,000 and 1 million (blue), between one and three million (yellow), greater than three**  
337 **million (red) and all clusters with a population greater than 500,000 (black). Results are separated by continent for (a) Africa, (b)**  
338 **Asia and Oceania, (c) Europe, (d) North America and (e) South America.**

339 Asian cities, representing a majority of all urban clusters globally, experienced an average population-weighted NO<sub>2</sub> VCD  
340 decrease of approximately 19% from 2019 to 2024 (Fig. 9b). Urban clusters with a population greater than 3 million  
341 experienced the largest decreases, with mean VCDs in those cities decreasing by 20% through 2024, with the majority of these



342 decreases occurring in Chinese cities. One notable decrease in Asia occurred in the Chinese city of Tangshan Shi, located to  
343 the east of the Chinese capital of Beijing, which experienced an NO<sub>2</sub> VCD decrease of nearly 45% from 2019 to 2024. The  
344 largest increase in Asia through 2024 occurred in the Mongolian capital of Ulaanbaatar, where VCDs have increased by more  
345 than 70%. Numerous Bangladeshi cities, including Chattogram, experienced substantially increased VCDs from 2020 through  
346 2022, with VCDs decreasing again by 2024 to the near 2019 levels (Fig. S10). Tehran, Iran by far has the largest annual average  
347 VCD in the TROPOMI tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> record for all GHS-SMOD cities, with annual mean values remaining above  $30 \times$   
348  $10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> throughout the entirety of the TROPOMI record (Fig. S11).

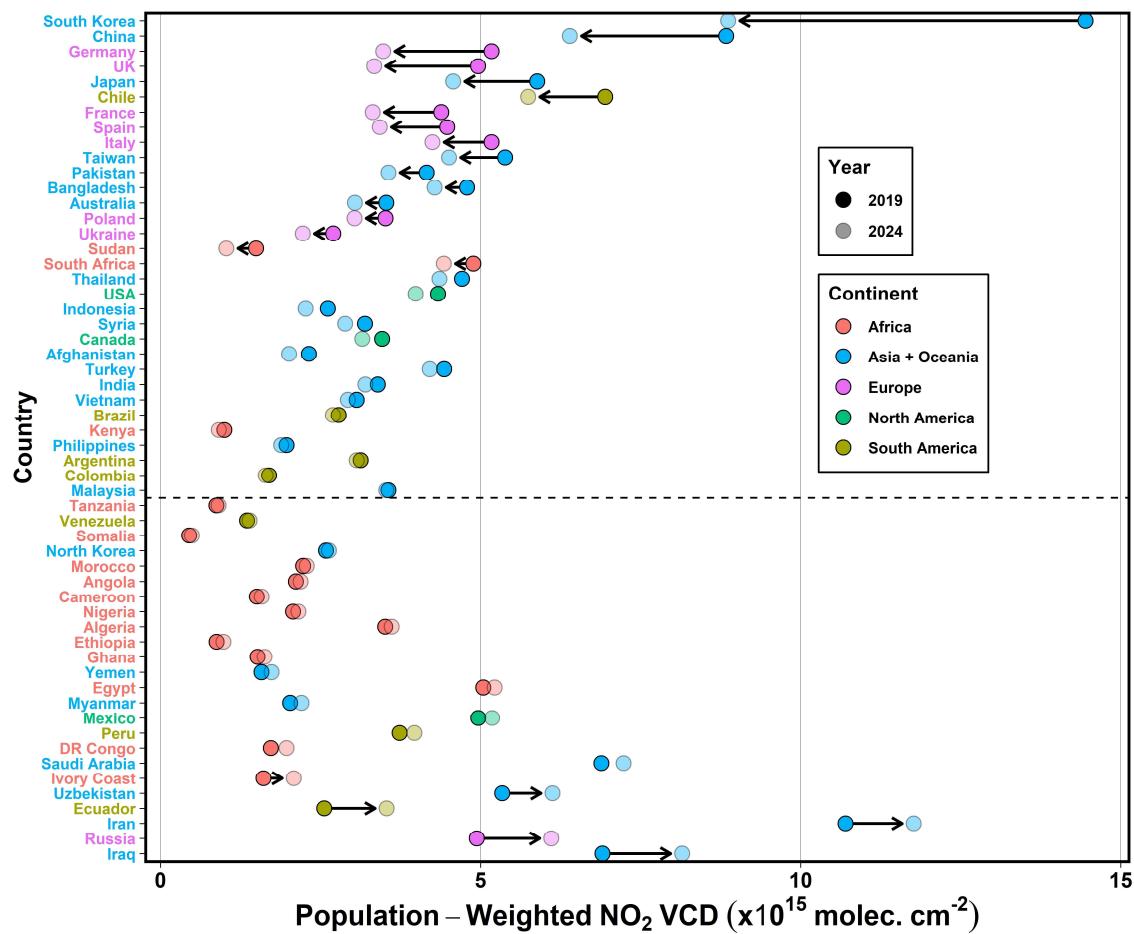
349 The impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs is particularly stark in Asia, due to the multiple waves of COVID-19  
350 related lockdowns and closures in China, leading to reduced NO<sub>2</sub> levels. Initial lockdowns in 2020 led to widespread VCD  
351 decreases in China, which were followed by a rebound in levels in 2021 (Fig. S12). A resurgence of the virus in 2022 led to  
352 multiple further lockdowns throughout the year, some lasting for months (Zheng et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2024), that ultimately  
353 resulted in reduced VCDs. Chinese cities continued to experience decreased NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs in 2023 and 2024, in large part due to  
354 effective emissions reduction policies (Li et al., 2024).

355 Column NO<sub>2</sub> in European cities experienced the most pronounced decrease in column NO<sub>2</sub> of any continent in 2020, with  
356 larger cities with a population greater than three million experiencing a nearly 20% reduction in population-weighted VCD  
357 (Fig. 9c). NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs rebounded marginally in 2021 and 2022, followed by decreases into 2023 and 2024, although decreases  
358 are more pronounced when only analyzing cities in the 27 member countries of the European Union, as of 2024 (Fig. S13).  
359 One notable feature within the European annual average VCDs are the contrasting VCD trends in Russian and Ukrainian cities  
360 in 2022, at the onset of the Russia-Ukraine War (Fig. S14). In the Ukrainian capital of Kyiv, annual VCDs dropped nearly  
361 40% in 2022 relative to 2019, coinciding with a large portion of the city fleeing due to conflict in and near the city. To contrast  
362 this, VCDs increased nearly 30% in the Russian capital of Moscow during the same period. Following 2022, VCDs in Kyiv  
363 increased steadily, while in Moscow, concentrations decreased in 2023 then increased sharply again in 2024.

364 In North America, most cities experienced a decrease in annual NO<sub>2</sub> VCD of less than 10% in 2020, with concentrations  
365 generally rebounding to 2019 levels by 2024 (Fig. 9d). Havana, Cuba was a notable exception of North American cities, with  
366 VCDs increasing by nearly 70% through 2023 relative to 2019, with a slight decrease in 2024. Cities in the western U.S., such  
367 as Salt Lake City and Denver experienced some of the largest percent decreases on the continent, decreasing by approximately  
368 30% through 2024. In South America, most cities experienced a 10% VCD decrease in 2020, with mean concentrations  
369 rebounding to 2019 values by 2021 and remaining around those levels through 2024 (Fig. 9e). One notable exception is Quito,  
370 Ecuador, which experienced a VCD increase of over 85% through 2024. Santos, Brazil, an active port town southeast of São  
371 Paulo, experienced one of the largest VCD decreases in South America, with a 35% decrease in VCDs from 2019 to 2020,  
372 followed by sustained, gradual annual increases through 2024.



373 Aggregating the NO<sub>2</sub> VCD changes to the country level and taking into account the population of each urban cluster (Eq. 1),  
374 the urban and population-weighted NO<sub>2</sub> VCD decreases for countries with an urban population of at least nine million were  
375 largest in the East Asia, including South Korea, China and Japan, as well as countries of Western and Central Europe (Fig.  
376 10). Urban population-weighted VCD decreases in South Korea were particularly pronounced, with concentrations decreasing  
377 by  $5.6 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> from 2019 to 2024. Germany experienced the largest VCD decrease in Europe through 2024,  
378 with a decrease of  $1.7 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>. Chile saw the largest decrease in urban NO<sub>2</sub> VCD of any South American country,  
379 due in large part to VCD decreases in the capital city of Santiago.



380

381 Figure 10: Urban population-weighted NO<sub>2</sub> VCD changes from 2019 to 2024 for the 56 countries with an urban population of at  
382 least nine million, based on urban cluster populations provided from GHS-SMOD. Countries are ordered by the magnitude of VCD  
383 decrease and colored by continent. Darker points represent 2019 VCDs and lighter points represent 2024 VCDs. Arrows indicate



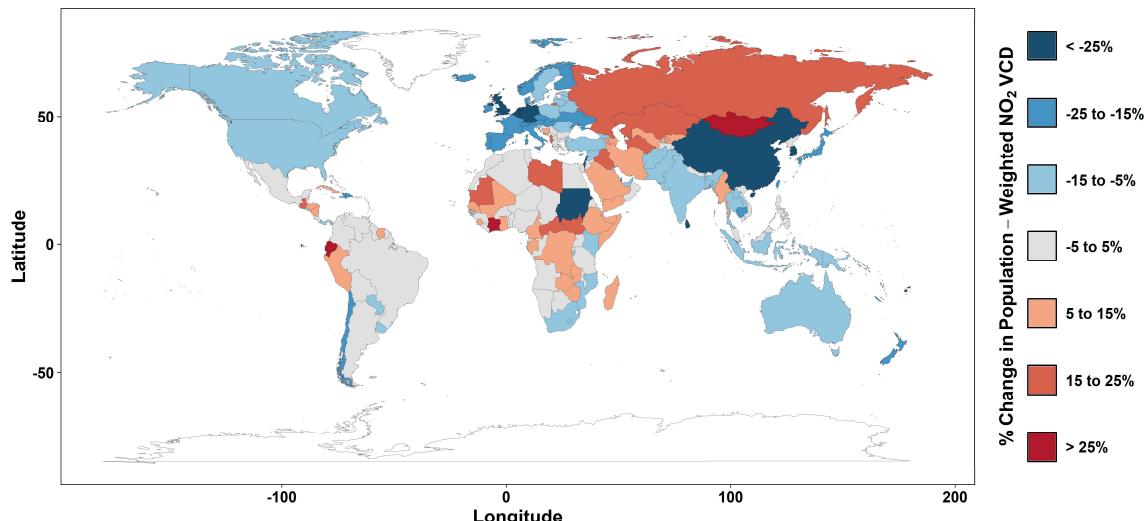
384 the direction of VCD change from 2019 to 2024. The dashed line separates countries that experienced population-weighted VCD  
385 decreases (above line) and increases (below line).

386

387 Of countries with increased VCDs and an urban population greater than nine million, about half were in Africa. The majority  
388 of increases in these African countries were relatively minor, with country-level urban VCDs typically increasing by less than  
389  $0.25 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$  through 2024 (Fig. 10). Middle Eastern and Central Asian countries experienced some of the largest  
390 urban VCD increases, with Iraq experiencing the largest increase of any larger country ( $+1.2 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ). Of the  
391 most-populous European countries, Russia was the only country to experience increased population-weighted  $\text{NO}_2$  VCDs  
392 through 2024 ( $+1.16 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ).

393 We further identify notable changes in countries with a GHS-SMOD urban population less than nine million and therefore  
394 excluded from Fig. 10. Less-populated countries in Africa saw either increasing or little-changed  $\text{NO}_2$  VCDs from 2019 to  
395 2024 (Fig. 11). In Asia, Mongolia experienced an increase of  $2.05 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$  through 2024, or an increase of 75%,  
396 the largest population-weighted percent increase of any Asian country. We note that Mongolia has just three GHS-SMOD  
397 urban clusters, two of which are located in or near the capital city of Ulaanbaatar, where the bulk of the country-level increases  
398 were observed. In Sri Lanka, VCDs decreased by  $0.5 \times 10^{15}$  molecules  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ , or a decrease of 27%, one of the larger decreases  
399 for Asian countries. In Europe, both Belgium and the Netherlands experienced VCD decreases through 2024 that exceed 30%.

400



401

402 Figure 11: Spatial representation of the percent change in urban population-weighted  $\text{NO}_2$  VCD for all countries globally from 2019  
403 to 2024, binned by the magnitude of percent change. Increases greater than 5% are shown in reds, decreases less than 5% in blues,  
404 and countries with a change between -5% and 5% in gray.

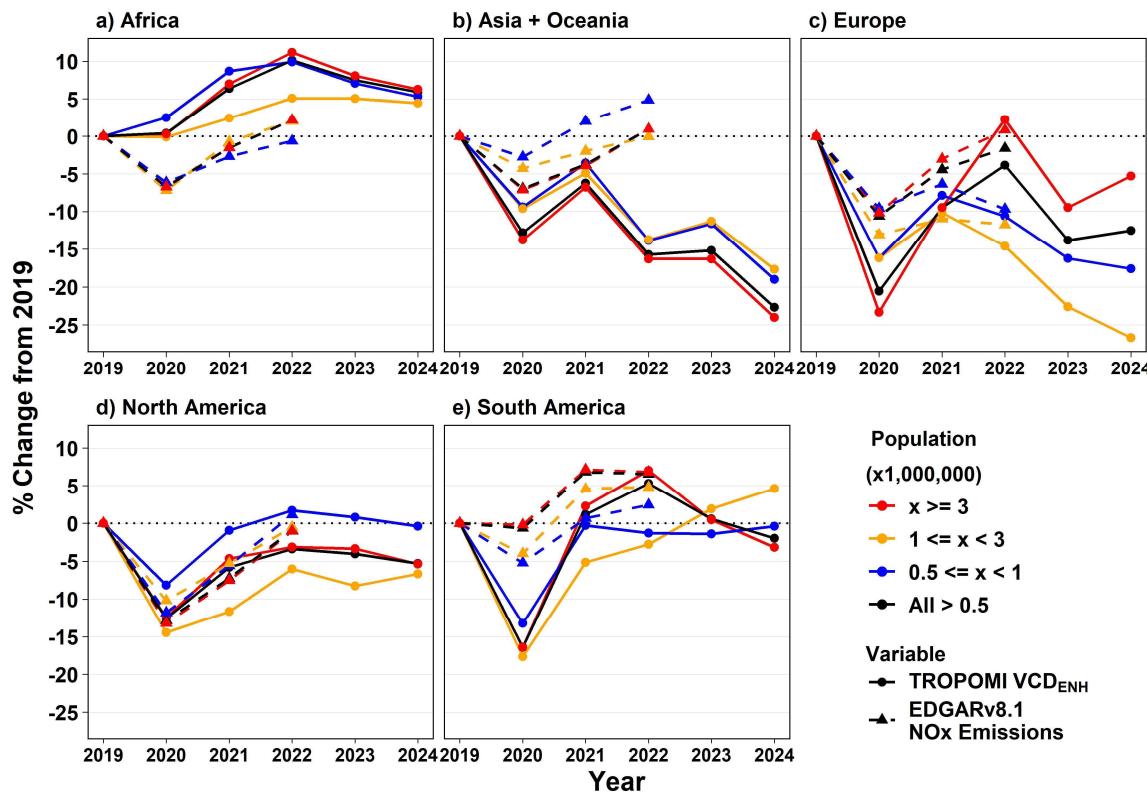


405 **6 Influence of background NO<sub>2</sub> and seasonal variability on urban NO<sub>2</sub>**

406 Urban NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are not only influenced by local emissions, but also by advection of upwind pollutants into the urban  
407 boundary. We account for the role that upwind background concentrations may play in urban NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations by identifying  
408 changes in the urban enhancement of NO<sub>2</sub> (VCD<sub>ENH</sub>), represented by the difference between NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs in the urban cluster  
409 and the background. By removing the background concentrations, VCD<sub>ENH</sub> more closely represents the portion of the urban  
410 VCD that is primarily a result of local, urban emission sources.

411 In Africa, moderate-sized cities with a population between one and three million experienced the smallest relative increase in  
412 VCD<sub>ENH</sub> through 2024 (+4.9%), while smaller and larger cities experienced larger increases (Fig. 12a). Notably, African cities  
413 on average did not experience decreased VCD<sub>ENH</sub> in 2020 at the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, a distinct feature observed  
414 on all other continents. Regardless of population size, African cities experienced an average VCD<sub>ENH</sub> increase of +6% through  
415 2024. In Asia and Oceania, cities experienced sustained decreases in VCD<sub>ENH</sub> regardless of the city population, with a mean  
416 decrease of -22.7%, although larger cities experienced more pronounced decreases (Fig. 12b). In contrast, changes in VCD<sub>ENH</sub>  
417 in European cities largely depended on the population of the city, with smaller (-17.6%) and moderate-sized (-26.7%) cities  
418 exhibiting the largest decreases, while larger cities (-5.3%) experienced lesser decreases on average (Fig. 12c). In North  
419 America, smaller cities between 500,000 and 1 million saw a -8% decrease in VCD<sub>ENH</sub> in 2020, but quickly rebounded in 2021  
420 to near 2019 levels, which were sustained through 2024 (Fig. 12d). Moderate and large North American cities also rebounded  
421 following the dip in 2020, however VCD<sub>ENH</sub> remained approximately 7.5% below 2019 levels by 2024. In South America,  
422 cities experienced a VCD<sub>ENH</sub> decrease of 16% on average in 2020, with concentrations in cities of all populations rebounding  
423 to near 2019 levels by 2024 (Fig. 12e).

424



425

426 Figure 12: Percent change in population-weighted TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub> VCD urban enhancements (solid lines; 2019 - 2024) and  
427 EDGARv8.1 NOx emissions (dashed lines; 2019 - 2022) for GHS-SMOD urban clusters, relative to 2019 levels. Colors represent  
428 urban cluster population range, and results are separated by continent (a-e).

429

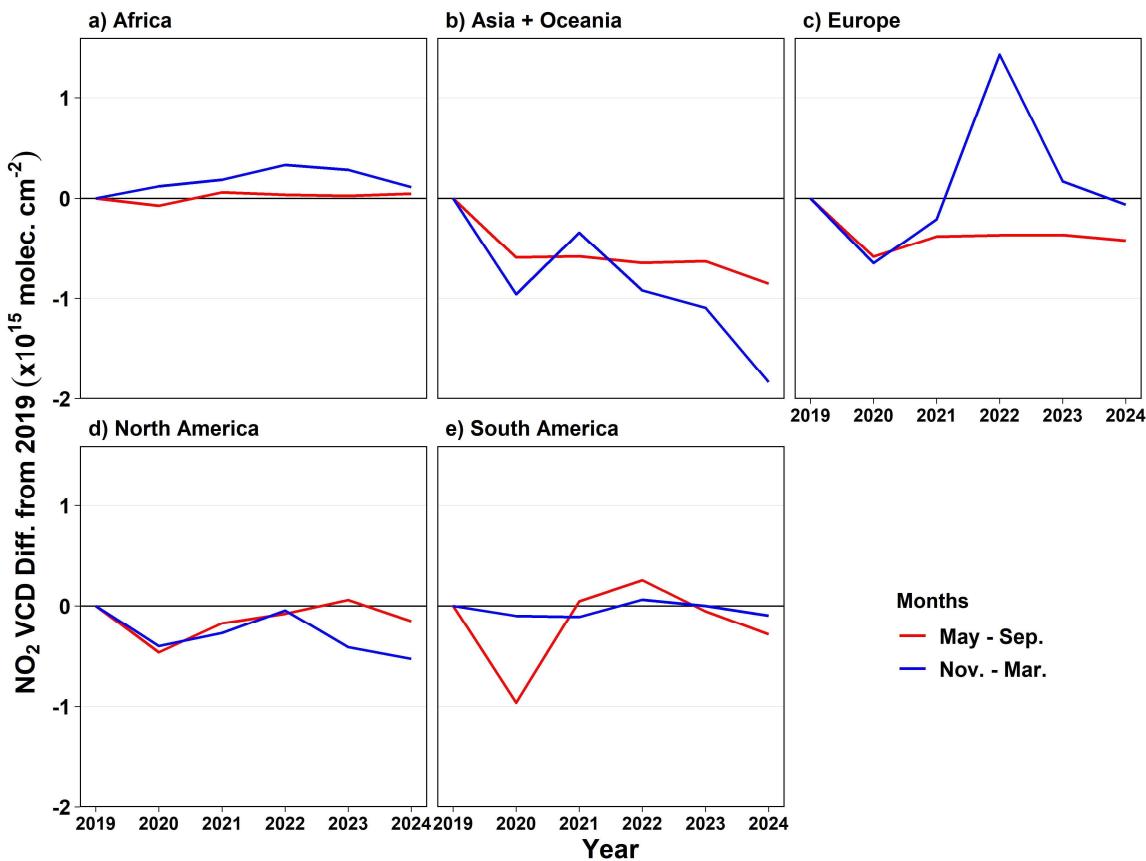
430 Assuming that the percent change in VCD<sub>ENH</sub> relative to a baseline year can be attributed to changes in NOx emissions within  
431 each urban cluster, we additionally evaluate changes in EDGAR NOx emissions averaged for each continent, with emissions  
432 estimates available through 2022. In African cities, a mean difference of -7.7% was exhibited between the percent changes in  
433 EDGAR NOx emissions and VCD<sub>ENH</sub> relative to 2019, indicating a potential underestimate in EDGAR NOx emissions for this  
434 period (Fig. 12a). Cities in Asia and Oceania experienced VCD<sub>ENH</sub> that tracked relatively well with EDGAR NOx emissions  
435 from 2019 to 2021, with a mean difference of +4.2% between emissions and VCD<sub>ENH</sub>. However, emissions showed further  
436 increases in 2022, while VCD<sub>ENH</sub> exhibited a sharp decrease for that year. This resulted in a percent difference of +16.7%  
437 between emissions and VCD<sub>ENH</sub> in 2022 relative to 2019 levels (Fig. 12b). The 2022 VCD<sub>ENH</sub> decrease coincided with large  
438 lockdowns in China related to the COVID-19 pandemic, suggesting that EDGAR emissions may not reflect emissions



439 decreases during that lockdown period. In Europe and North America, EDGAR NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and VCD<sub>ENH</sub> exhibited a  
440 similar change relative to 2019 levels through 2022, with a mean difference of +5.7% and +0.2%, respectively, suggesting  
441 more accurate EDGAR NO<sub>x</sub> emissions for cities on those continents (Fig. 12c,d). In South America, the mean percent change  
442 relative to 2019 was +7.6% higher for EDGAR NO<sub>x</sub> emissions than VCD<sub>ENH</sub> (Fig. 12e); however, EDGAR emissions do  
443 correlate with changes in VCD<sub>ENH</sub>, e.g. a flat or slower increase from 2021 to 2022 for both VCD<sub>ENH</sub> and EDGAR. The better  
444 agreement in Europe and North America than other continents could be due to a higher availability of observational constraints  
445 on emissions, leading to more accurate changes in emissions from year to year.

446 To identify the impact that different seasons may have on annual trends, we evaluate changes in urban population-weighted  
447 NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs for May – September and November – March. In African cities (Fig. 13a), mean VCDs increased by  $0.1 \times 10^{15}$   
448 molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> during November – March through 2024, with little to no change occurring on average during May –  
449 September. In Asian (Fig. 13b) and North American cities (Fig. 13d), the bulk of the observed annual decreases through 2024  
450 occurred during the winter months, with average winter decreases of  $-1.8 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> and  $-0.5 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup>,  
451 respectively. Despite the generally larger absolute changes during winter months in Asia and Oceania, the relative percent  
452 changes for the summer and winter months exhibited more similar behavior (Fig. S15). In European cities, population-weighted  
453 VCDs decreased by  $-0.4 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> (-10%) through 2024 during the summer months, while winter month changes  
454 remained negligible, despite a sharp increase in winter-time levels in 2022 during the onset of the Russia-Ukraine war (Fig.  
455 13c). Seasonal changes impacted South American cities less than cities on other continents through 2024 (Fig. 13e), with mean  
456 winter and summer VCDs both changing by less than  $0.3 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> through 2024.

457



458

459 Figure 13: Change in population-weighted urban NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs averaged for GHS-SMOD urban clusters from 2019 to 2024 for May –  
460 September (red lines) and November – March (blue lines) in (a) Africa, (b) Asia and Oceania, (c) Europe, (d) North America and (e)  
461 South America.

## 462 7 Conclusions

463 We present a global analysis of urban TROPOMI tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> trends from 2019 to 2024 using GHS-SMOD-defined  
464 urban boundaries, encompassing more than 11,500 cities. Our results reveal widespread decreases in NO<sub>2</sub> across cities in Asia  
465 and Oceania (-17% on average), Europe (-17%), and North America (-5%), with particularly strong reductions in cities  
466 including Seoul (-40%), Guangzhou (-30%), and London, England (-34%). These decreases generally reflect a combination of  
467 long-term emissions control policies and economic incentives, indicating policies to tackle NO<sub>2</sub> pollution have broadly worked.  
468 COVID-19 induced reductions in activity often caused a temporary NO<sub>2</sub> reduction but is unlikely to have caused much of the  
469 long-term changes between 2019 and 2024. Conversely, urban NO<sub>2</sub> in Africa has gradually increased over the same period,



470 with Abidjan (+40%) and Addis Ababa (+35%) leading the continent's upward trend. With the exception of May-September  
471 in 2020, South America exhibited little mean VCD change from 2019 to 2024, with being Santiago (-19%) being a notable  
472 exception. Population-weighted NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs increased in countries in the Middle East and much of Africa, highlighting a  
473 potential degradation in air quality in regions of the world that lack extensive ground-level monitoring.

474 Evaluating annual changes in TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub> urban enhancements (VCD<sub>ENH</sub>)—the difference between mean urban and  
475 background VCDs—against changes in EDGAR NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, we show that changes in VCD<sub>ENH</sub> scales best with changes  
476 in EDGAR NO<sub>x</sub> in European and North American cities, with mean percent differences of +5.7% and +0.2% relative to 2019  
477 levels, respectively, and scale worse in other parts of the globe, revealing potential discrepancies in emissions inventories. This  
478 mismatch is particularly evident in African (-7.7%) and Asian (+8.3%) cities, and may stem from rapidly evolving emission  
479 sources or limitations in the EDGAR bottom-up inventory methods. Similar discrepancies in emissions inventories in the  
480 Global South have been reported in previous studies (Ahn et al., 2023), suggesting a systematic emissions underestimation in  
481 regions where unmonitored emissions activity may be significant.

482 In most regions, VCD trends from 2019 to 2024 were driven by changes during the colder months (November – March). This  
483 was most pronounced in Asian cities, where mean cold season VCDs decreased by  $-1.2 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> (-18%) on from  
484 2019 to 2024, compared with warm season VCD decreases of  $-0.5 \times 10^{15}$  molecules cm<sup>-2</sup> (-13%). Large changes in NO<sub>2</sub> were  
485 not confined to urban regions alone. We identified localized increases near fossil fuel and other mining operations, including  
486 in the Santanghu Basin in China (+172%), the Permian (+19%) and Uintah (+35%) Basins in the U.S., and the Copperbelt  
487 region of the DRC (+64%), signaling expanding industrial activity. In Khartoum and Kyiv, conflict and displacement drove  
488 sharp reductions in NO<sub>2</sub>, demonstrating the utility of satellite data in detecting societal disruptions.

489 Several limitations of this work should be noted. First, satellite NO<sub>2</sub> column densities may not always reflect surface-level NO<sub>2</sub>  
490 concentrations, particularly in regions with vertically elevated sources. In urban areas dominated by surface-based  
491 transportation emissions, NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs are likely more representative of surface exposure. However, in areas with tall-stack  
492 sources, such as power plants, NO<sub>2</sub> columns may be decoupled from near-surface levels. Second, we assume static city  
493 boundaries defined by the 2023 version of GHS-SMOD, with population estimates from 2020. This is likely a reasonable  
494 approximation for urbanized regions in Europe and North America, where built-up area changes are slow, but may introduce  
495 uncertainty in rapidly urbanizing regions of Africa and Asia over a six-year period. Future analyses could incorporate time-  
496 varying urban boundaries to address this.

497 Taken together, these results demonstrate the utility of high-resolution satellite instruments for characterizing both broad  
498 regional trends and localized pollution changes, and linking with anthropogenically induced factors such as urban growth,  
499 industrial expansion, policy interventions, and conflict. This highlights potential in using TROPOMI observations as an  
500 accountability agent to determine how local changes in human activities affect local and global air pollution. As the TROPOMI  
501 record lengthens and newer, geostationary satellites come online and begin to detect changes in atmospheric composition,



502 continued space-based monitoring will be essential for improving our understanding of atmospheric composition and chemistry  
503 around the globe.

504 **Data Availability.**

505 The level 3 annual and monthly average TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs are available at 10.5067/ACADNS5UBWPQ and  
506 <https://doi.org/10.5067/KKPPL39PEIGE>, respectively. The GHS-SMOD urban boundaries can be downloaded from  
507 <https://human-settlement.emergency.copernicus.eu/download.php?ds=smod>. The EDGARDv8.1 NO<sub>x</sub> emissions can be  
508 downloaded from [https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/dataset\\_ap81](https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/dataset_ap81).

509 **Supplement.**

510 The supplement contains additional figures related to the study, including: S1 All GHS-SMOD urban clusters. S2 Data  
511 disaggregation example. S3 Satellite view of surface mines. S4 Spatial plot of African NO<sub>2</sub>. S5 Khartoum NO<sub>2</sub> time series. S6  
512 NO<sub>2</sub> increases in three U.S. cities. S7 Spatial plot of South American NO<sub>2</sub>. S8 Annual mean NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs for Bangladeshi cities.  
513 S9 Annual mean NO<sub>2</sub> in Iran. S10 Annual mean VCDs in Chinese cities. S11 Annual mean NO<sub>2</sub> changes in the European  
514 Union. S12 Annual mean NO<sub>2</sub> changes in Russian and Ukrainian cities. S13 Seasonal NO<sub>2</sub> changes by continent.

515 **Author Contribution.**

516 D.H. and D.G. contributed to the project design. D.G. processed and provided the annually- and monthly-averaged NO<sub>2</sub> vertical  
517 column densities. All authors edited the manuscript.

518 **Competing Interests.**

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

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