

**Relation between total-column and near-surface NO<sub>2</sub> based on in-situ and PANDORA ground-based remote sensing observations**

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## Abstract

Nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) is a major pollutant which at high concentrations may affect human health. It is also a photochemically reactive gas which is important for the oxidation potential of the atmosphere and acts as a precursor for the formation of aerosol particles and ozone. However, monitoring of near-surface (NS) NO<sub>2</sub> faces the challenge of spatial discontinuity due to large distances between ground-based monitoring stations, whereas satellite remote sensing provides ~~column-integrated~~total vertical column density (VCD)~~concentrations (total column, TC)~~ which ~~are~~is related to ~~N~~near-surface (NS) concentrations in a complicated manner. In this study, the relation between ~~TC~~total VCD and ~~near-surface (NS)~~ NO<sub>2</sub>-concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> is ~~studied~~analyzed using based on total VCDTC NO<sub>2</sub>-~~data~~ from remote sensing observations using a ground-based Pandora spectrometer and NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations from in-situ observations. Both instruments ~~which~~ were located at the Beijing-RADI site (Beijing, China) during January 2022. The ratio between total VCDTC and NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations varies throughout the day with substantially different relations in the morning and afternoon. During the night and morning, the atmosphere was vertically stratified, with disconnected layers which prevented vertical mixing of atmospheric constituents. In the afternoon, these layers connected allowing for vertical mixing and transport between the surface and the top of the boundary layer. Thus the prohibition of vertical transport in the morning and the mixing in the afternoon resulted in different relations between the ~~NS and total VCD and NSTC~~ NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. These different relationships have consequences for the use of satellite remote sensing to estimate NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations.

**Keywords:** Nitrogen dioxide, remote sensing, air pollution, Beijing, winter

## 1 Introduction

Nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) can have adverse effects on human health (Eum et al., 2022, 2019; Nordeide Kuiper et al., 2021; Kornartit et al., 2010). NO<sub>2</sub> plays an important role in atmospheric chemistry, and acts as a precursor for the formation of ozone and secondary aerosols in the atmosphere. The major sources of NO<sub>2</sub> are from fossil fuel burning such as power plants, traffic and households. Because of these anthropogenic sources, together with the relatively short atmospheric lifetime of NO<sub>2</sub>, high tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are usually observed near highly industrialized regions (van der A et al., 2006), densely populated agglomerations (de Souza et al., 2022), and power plants (Tang et al., 2024), as well as along major highways (Goldberg et al., 2021) and shipping lanes (Ding et al., 2018). In addition, NO<sub>2</sub> is produced from some natural sources such as lightning and soil emissions.

Concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere can be measured using satellite-based sensors providing ~~vertical~~-total ~~column~~-and tropospheric column densities, ground-based remote sensing using MAX-DOAS or Pandora instruments, or in situ instruments. Satellite remote sensing is currently a widely used technique, for example using the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI, Levelt et al., 2006) on the Aura satellite, and the TROPOspheric Monitoring Instrument (TROPOMI, Veefkind et al., 2012) on the Sentinel-5 Precursor (S5P) satellite. Satellite data show that the total vertical column density (VCD) of total column (TC) NO<sub>2</sub> ~~concentrations are~~is highly variable in space and time (e.g., Lamsal et al., 2014; Fan et al., 2021). Duncan et al. (2016) analyzed global NO<sub>2</sub> observed by OMI from 2005-2014 and found that NO<sub>2</sub> levels were initially high over China but had significantly decreased over the Beijing, Shanghai and the Pearl River Delta (PRD) regions in 2014, in response to pollution control measures. In particular, over the PRD region the NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations decreased by about 40%. Also in the following years, the NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations over China have ~~been~~substantially ~~reduced~~~~diminished~~~~diminished~~in response to the implementation of emission reduction policy (e.g. van der A et al., 2017; Fan et al., 2021; de Leeuw et al., 2021) and fell below the 2008 level in 2017 (Zhao et al., 2023). However, the decrease seems to have

flattened in recent years (Fan et al., 2021).

The Pandonia Global Network (PGN) of Pandora Spectrometer Instruments has been established in 2018 (<http://www.pandonia-global-network.org/>, last accessed: 10th July 2024) to provide “quality observations of total column and vertically resolved concentrations of a range of trace gases”. The PGN data are used, for instance, for the validation of products from environmental satellites. However, the comparison of OMI ~~total VCD of TC~~ of NO<sub>2</sub> ~~data~~ with Pandora observations at 6 sites in Korea and the USA by Herman et al. (2019) showed that mean and daily Pandora NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were 50% or more higher than those retrieved from OMI at sites that were frequently contaminated, such as Seoul, Busan and Washington DC. Tzortziou et al. (2018) reported that Pandora ~~total VCD of TC~~ NO<sub>2</sub> ~~observations~~ during the KORUS-AQ coastal cruise experiment (Tzortziou, et al., 2015) were 10-50% higher than OMI-derived ~~total VCD of TC~~ NO<sub>2</sub>. ~~Thompson et al. (2019), using data from the same experiment, reported that there is no consistent correlation between TC and NS NO<sub>2</sub> across different cases and that the relation between TC and NS NO<sub>2</sub> is complex. The relationship between total VCD and NS concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub>. Similar results were~~ ~~obtained~~ complex from the analysis of data from the DISCOVER-AQ campaign in the Baltimore-Washington region in July 2011; the discrepancies were suggested to be caused by the large field of view of OMI (Flynn et al., 2014; Knepp et al., 2015; Reed et al., 2015; Tzortziou et al., 2015). Preliminary validation of ~~total VCD of TC~~ NO<sub>2</sub> ~~observations~~ from the Ozone Mapping and Profiler Suite (OMPS) aboard the joint NASA/NOAA Suomi National Polar-orbiting Partnership (Suomi NPP) satellite by Huang et al. (2022) in the USA showed that OMPS ~~total VCD of TC~~ NO<sub>2</sub> tends to be lower in polluted urban areas and higher in clean areas/events than Pandora observations. Ialongo et al. (2020) and Zhao et al. (2020) obtained similar results from the validation of TROPOMI ~~total VCD of TC~~ NO<sub>2</sub> using PGN data but the differences were significantly smaller than for the OMI and OMPS data with a coarser spatial resolution than TROPOMI. The validation of TROPOMI ~~total VCD of TC~~ versus Pandora data at the Beijing-RADI site shows the good performance of TROPOMI (Liu et al.,

2024). It is noted that Liu et al. re-sampled the TROPOMI data to a spatial resolution of  $100 \times 100 \text{ m}^2$ , i.e. similar to that of the Pandora observation area.

Satellite-derived total VCD of TC  $\text{NO}_2$  data are often used to determine trends (e.g., van der A et al., 2017; Fan et al., 2021) but, in view of the above, the relation between total VCD and NS concentrations of TC and NS  $\text{NO}_2$  is more complex. For instance, Fan et al. (2021) discussed the total VCD TS/NS relationship for selected major urban regions in China during the first 20 weeks after the COVID-19 lockdown and observed substantial differences (their Figure 9). Chang et al. (2022) analyzed data from the Geostationary Environment Monitoring Spectrometer (GEMS) Map of Air Pollution (GMAP) campaign conducted during 2020–2021. Their results indicate that total VCD and NS concentrations of  $\text{NO}_2$  exhibit a stronger correlation under advective boundary layer conditions at high wind speeds, where the vertical distribution of  $\text{NO}_2$  is more uniform. In contrast, in the presence of plumes from large point sources, either decoupled from the surface or transported from nearby cities, enhance the vertical heterogeneity of  $\text{NO}_2$ . These plumes contribute to a less consistent relationship between total VCD and NS concentrations of  $\text{NO}_2$ . Their results show that TC  $\text{NO}_2$  and NS  $\text{NO}_2$  are better correlated in advective boundary layer conditions at high wind speeds, with a more uniform vertical distribution of  $\text{NO}_2$ , than during mixed boundary layer conditions with plumes from large point sources decoupled from the surface or transported from nearby cities, enhancing the vertical heterogeneity of  $\text{NO}_2$ . Thompson et al. (2019), using data from the same experiment, reported that there is no consistent correlation between TC and NS  $\text{NO}_2$  across different cases and that the relation between TC and NS  $\text{NO}_2$  is complex. — Similarly, Liu et al. (2024) show different relations between total VCD and NS concentrations of TC and NS  $\text{NO}_2$  for low and high concentrations which are qualitatively explained in terms of transport and local emissions. Moreover, Thompson et al. (2019), using data from the KORUS-AQ coastal cruise experiment, reported that there is no consistent correlation between total VCD and NS concentrations of  $\text{NO}_2$  across different cases and that the relation between total VCD and NS concentrations of  $\text{NO}_2$  is complex. Thus, to accurately assess  $\text{NO}_2$

pollution in China and effects on air quality, accurate ground-based observations are needed.

Although a large number of ground-based NO<sub>2</sub> observation stations have been established in China since 2012 by the China National Environmental Monitoring Center (CNEMC) of the Ministry of Ecology and Environment of China (MEE) for the provision of the ground-based monitoring data (available at <http://www.mee.gov.cn/>; last access: 08 July 2024), there are still large areas for which no data are available. Satellite data can fill these gaps by converting satellite observations of aerosols and trace gases from ~~total VCD and NS TC to NS~~ concentrations. Such data are usually provided from sensors flying on polar-orbiting satellites with global coverage but with a single overpass per day which at most latitudes cannot provide the daily variability of NO<sub>2</sub> characteristics. However, with the launch of geostationary satellites, spatial and temporal distributions of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations can be obtained within the satellite field of view throughout the day. The GEO-KOMPSAT-2B geostationary satellite, launched by the National Institute of Environmental Research (NIER) under the Ministry of Environment, Korea, in February 2020, carries the Geostationary Environment Monitoring Spectrometer (GEMS), which provides high-resolution measurements of ~~total VCD TC concentrations~~ of key air quality components (Kim et al., 2020). With the launch of GEMS, the Asian region was the first to achieve coordinated hour-by-hour monitoring of pollutants. GEMS will form a constellation of satellites to monitor air quality globally with high temporal and spatial resolution, together with the Tropospheric Emissions: Monitoring Pollution (TEMPO) mission, launched by NASA on 7 April 2023 to cover the North American region (<https://tempo.si.edu/overview.html>) and Sentinel-4 planned to be launched on the Meteosat Third Generation Sounder (MTG-S) ~~planned to be launched~~ by the European Organisation for the Exploitation of Meteorological Satellites (EUMETSAT) in 2024 2025 (<https://www.eumetsat.int/meteosat-third-generation-sounder-1-and-copernicus-sentinel-4>, last visited 18 April 2025EUMETSAT, 2024).

While geostationary satellites enable continuous daytime observations of total

VCD of NO<sub>2</sub>, discrepancies between total VCD and NS concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations remain a critical challenge. The weak correlation between NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and satellite-derived total VCD of NO<sub>2</sub> (Lamsal et al., 2014) is closely tied to differences in their vertical distribution, atmospheric lifetimes, and chemical reaction pathways (Xing et al., 2017). Despite extensive efforts to derive NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations from total VCD measurements (Chang et al., 2025; Wei et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2022; Dou et al., 2021), the dynamic complexity of the planetary boundary layer introduces substantial uncertainties. Moreover, prior studies have emphasized the roles of vertical NO<sub>2</sub> distribution (Sun et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2023; Kang et al., 2021) and regional pollutant transport contributions (Yin et al., 2025; Dong et al., 2020; Chang et al., 2019; Li et al., 2017), but research explicitly linking regional transport processes to vertical NO<sub>2</sub> concentration gradients and elucidating their interactive effects remains limited. Song et al. (2024) obtained the NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations based on the Himawari-8 geostationary satellite using machine learning, which has good performance in the noon and afternoon, and relatively poor performance in the morning. These knowledge gaps are further exacerbated by satellite data limitations in resolving NS pollution, which has direct implications for human health assessments. To address these challenges, we need to integrate ground-based remote sensing observations with in situ NS NO<sub>2</sub> measurements to investigate vertical decoupling phenomena, and investigate the influence of distinct pollutant transport pathways on NS NO<sub>2</sub> pollution dynamics. Although geostationary satellites can make continuous observations of TC NO<sub>2</sub> during the day, the difference between TC and NS NO<sub>2</sub> remains an important challenge. The weak correlation between NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and satellite derived TC NO<sub>2</sub> (Lamsal et al., 2014), is closely related to their vertical distribution, lifetime in the atmosphere, and chemical reactions (Xing et al., 2017). Although geostationary satellites can make continuous observations of TC NO<sub>2</sub> during the day, the difference between TC and NS NO<sub>2</sub> remains an important challenge. The weak correlation between NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and satellite derived TC NO<sub>2</sub> (Lamsal et al., 2014), is closely related to their vertical distribution, lifetime in the atmosphere, and chemical



~~reactions (Xing et al., 2017). To study the relation between TC and NS NO<sub>2</sub>, accurate information is needed on both the TC NO<sub>2</sub> and the NO<sub>2</sub> vertical structure in the atmosphere, together with the temporal evolution, which until recently was not available for China.~~

The first operational Pandora instrument in China has been installed at the Beijing-RADI site in 2021, for the ground-based remote sensing of several trace gases, including (e.g. NO<sub>2</sub>). The Beijing-RADI Pandora instrument is part of the PGN network and all data are publicly available via the PGN website (<https://data.pandonia-global-network.org/Beijing-RADI/Pandora171s1/>, last accessed: 22 Jan 2025) within one day of the observations. The aim of this study is to analyze the relationship between total VCD of TC-NO<sub>2</sub> obtained by remote sensing and NS measurements during a field experiment at the Beijing-RADI site during January 10-29, 2022. In order to better determine and understand the relation between total VCD and NS concentrations of TC and NS-NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, we also used auxiliary data such as simultaneous measurements of PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass concentrations, lidar observations, meteorological parameters, and satellite observations. Section 2 presents the experiments and data, Section 3 presents the main results, and the conclusions and discussion are presented in Section 4.

## 2 Materials and Method

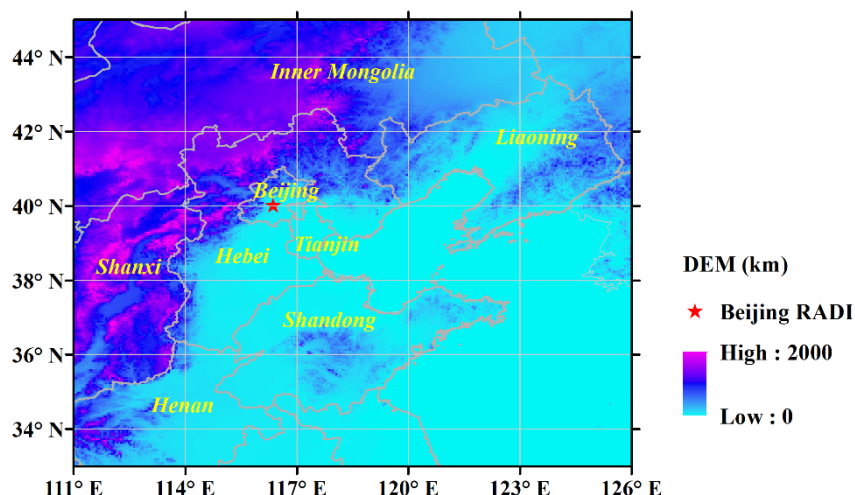
### 2.1 Site description

Beijing is a metropolis with an area of 16,800 square kilometers and a population of nearly 22 million (2023) (<https://worldpopulationreview.com/world-cities/beijing-population>, last accessed: 22 Jan 2025). High mountains are located to the north and west of Beijing~~Beijing is surrounded by high mountains to the north, east, and west~~ (Figure 1). The rapid economic development of Beijing and the topography of the area lead to emission of pollutants which may either disperse or accumulate, depending on wind direction and wind speed. During northwesterly winds, clean air is



transported from the mountains, whereas during southerly winds polluted air is transported from the highly industrialized North China Plain. The southerly airflow is blocked by the mountains to the west and north and thus pollution accumulates, in particular during certain weather conditions conducive for the formation of smog, such as low wind speed. Photochemical processes may further contribute to the build-up of pollution which may result in the formation of haze.

The Beijing\_RADI site is located at the roof (22 m above the surface) of the Aerospace Information Research institute of the Chinese Academy of Sciences (40.004° N, 116.379° E, elevation 59 m), which in turn is located in the north of Beijing between the Fourth and Fifth Ring Roads at the edge of the Olympic Parc. The site is representative for an urban background affected by vehicle exhaust, combustion and domestic emissions including those from heating during wintertime.



**Figure 1.** Digital elevation map of the study area showing the location of the Beijing-RADI site (40.004° N, 116.379° E, altitude at 59 m) (red star) and surrounding mountains.

A short-term field experiment was carried out at the Beijing-RADI long-term observation site during January 10-29, 2022. Pandora provided total VCD of TC and NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in 4 layers, information on the spatial distribution of total VCD of TC NO<sub>2</sub> was obtained from TROPOMI and a lidar provided aerosol backscatter profiles showing the vertical structure and evolution of the atmospheric boundary layer.

The NS parameters were measured with instrumentation mounted near the Pandora on the roof of the AirCAS building, as described in the following sections.

## 2.2 Observations of Column-Integrated Parameters and Vertical Profiles

### 2.2.1 Pandora

Pandora is a UV-visible spectrometer which can provide high-quality measurements of spectrally resolved direct-sun/lunar or sky scan radiances. It uses direct solar measurements to obtain total VCD of  $\text{NO}_2$ , and sky measurements to obtain the vertical layer concentrations of  $\text{NO}_2$ , with a FOV of  $2.6^\circ$  in direct sun mode and  $1.5^\circ$  in sky mode (Cede et al., 2024). Based on the Beer-Bouguer-Lambert law, the spectra observed at 400~470 nm in direct-sun mode are used to invert total VCD of  $\text{NO}_2$  using the differential optical absorption spectroscopy (DOAS) technique of trace gas spectral fitting. Pandora's direct sun measurements depend only on the geographic location with a known solar zenith angle which simplifies the air mass factor for correction of the atmospheric light path (Chang et al., 2022). Pandora measures total VCD of  $\text{NO}_2$  with a clear-sky precision of 0.01 DU and a nominal accuracy of 0.1 DU (Herman et al., 2009). In view of this high precision, we use total VCD of  $\text{NO}_2$  from the nvs3 product in this study and select products-data with quality control flag of L10. Diffuse (scattered) radiation is measured at 5 pointing zenith angles (PZAs) in sky mode which, together with the direct sun measurement, provides information on the tropospheric VCD and on the surface concentrations. The PZAs are  $0^\circ$ ,  $60^\circ$ ,  $75^\circ$ ,  $88^\circ$  and a maximum angle taken as  $89^\circ$ . The measurements are taken in a V shape (all angles are measured twice around a central angle) as described in Cede (2024). Four partial columns of  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations are provided by the PANDORA inversion. The first step is the estimation of the effective height corresponding to a given PZA, and then calculate differential air mass factors for the  $\text{NO}_2$  and the air-gas for each layer. The profile shape of the partial columns is determined as a variation of the air-gas shape. The average number density of the  $\text{NO}_2$  in each layer is then calculated. The partial column amounts can be obtained from the concentrations multiplied with the layer width as described in the Manual for Blick Software Suite (Cede, 2024), Section 6.7.

The ~~se data~~NO<sub>2</sub> of the partial column can be obtained from the uvh3 product ~~are used~~  
~~to derive vertical profiles as described in the ATBD (Cede, 2024) Section 6.7, which~~  
~~were was~~ downloaded from the PGN website. ~~Pandora data are public and can be~~  
~~downloaded from the PGN website~~ (<https://pandonia-global-network.org>, last accessed:  
22 Jan 2025). We converted these partial column concentrations into layer-averaged  
volume mixing ratios and interpolated them to 6 standard levels (0.2, 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0,  
2.5 km) for visualization.

### 2.2.2 Lidar

A small lidar developed by the Hefei Institute of Physical Sciences, Chinese Academy of Sciences, was used for continuous measurements of aerosol backscatter profiles during day and night. The GBQ L-01 aerosol lidar consists of a laser, optical unit, control unit board, high-speed signal acquisition card, industrial motherboard and communication module. The GBQ L-01 aerosol lidar uses a high-frequency pulse laser emitting linearly polarized light at a wavelength of 1064nm. The optical unit consists of a transmitter and a receiver. The optical transmitter unit emits laser light pulses, which are expanded before they are emitted into the atmosphere. The optical receiver unit consists of a telescope which focuses the back-scattered light onto an optical detector which in turn is connected to an amplifier unit. The vertical and parallel polarized components of the back-scattered light are separated by the polarizing prism in the receiving channel. The industrial motherboard carries lidar acquisition and control software and data analysis software to control the overall operation of the system.

### 2.2.3 TROPOMI

The TROPOMI (TROPOspheric Monitoring Instrument) is a passive-sensing hyperspectral nadir-viewing imager aboard the Sentinel-5 Precursor (S5P) satellite, launched on 13 October 2017. S5P flies at an altitude of 817 km in a near-polar sun-synchronous orbit. The local equator overpass time in the ascending node is 13:30, and the repetition period is 17 days (KNMI, 2017). TROPOMI's four separate spectrometers cover wavelengths in the ultraviolet (UV), UV-visible (UV-VIS), near-

infrared (NIR) and short wavelength infrared (SWIR) spectral bands (Veefkind et al., 2012). The ~~TC~~-NO<sub>2</sub> used in this study is derived from spectral measurements of solar radiation in TROPOMI's UV-VIS wavelength bands (van Geffen et al., 2015, 2019). Compared to the relatively small field-of-view of the Pandora instrument, the size of the TROPOMI ground pixel (3.5 km × 5.5 km; across × along track) is relatively large. In addition, only tropospheric vertical column densities (VCDs) for NO<sub>2</sub> were available during the time period of this study. The TROPOMI tropospheric VCDs for NO<sub>2</sub> are only used as a qualitative reference for upwind concentrations for the evaluation of effects of long-range transport using air mass backward trajectories and not for quantitative analysis.~~Therefore, TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub> products are only used as a reference for upwind concentrations during backward trajectory tracking and not for quantitative analysis.~~ Furthermore, tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> column densities are used because these are more representative of near-surface NO<sub>2</sub>.

## 2.3 Near Surface Measurement

### 2.3.1 Trace Gas Analyzer

The Thermo Fisher Scientific Model 42i Trace Level Chemiluminescence NO-NO<sub>2</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub> Analyzer was used to measure NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. This instrument first transforms NO<sub>2</sub> into nitric oxide (NO) using a molybdenum NO<sub>2</sub> to NO converter heated to about 325 °C. Then, NO and ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) react to produce a characteristic luminescence with an intensity linearly proportional to the NO concentration (Model 42i Trace Level Manual, 2007). NO<sub>2</sub> values are derived by subtracting NO from NO<sub>x</sub> measurements. Measurements were made every minute during the observation period.

### 2.3.2 Beta attenuation monitor

Ground-based near-surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations were measured using the beta attenuation monitor Met One BAM-1020 (BAM 1020 particulate monitor operation manual) equipped with a PM<sub>2.5</sub> inlet. The Met One BAM-1020 collects aerosol particles on glass filter tape. PM<sub>2.5</sub> is measured using beta rays generated by a small <sup>14</sup>C source (<https://metone.com/products/bam-1020/>). At the start of every measurement cycle, the flux of beta rays is measured across clean filter tape, to determine a zero reading. Next,

the filter tape is advanced and ambient air is sampled at the same spot, with a controlled air flow, thereby impregnating the tape with PM<sub>2.5</sub>. After the sampling is completed, the tape retracts and PM<sub>2.5</sub> samples are dried (in an environment with relative humidity lower than 40% which removes most of the water content) by a built-in heater. Then the concentration of PM<sub>2.5</sub> collected on the filter tape is measured as described above. Samples are taken every hour.

### 2.3.3 Auxiliary meteorological data

In addition to the above observations, we also use weather maps, meteorological surface observations and sounding observations published by the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) to aid in our analyses. Weather maps for the Asian region are published by the Korea Meteorological Administration and can be downloaded at [http://222.195.136.24/chart/kma/data\\_keep](http://222.195.136.24/chart/kma/data_keep) (last accessed: 22 Jan 2025). We downloaded the surface and sounding observations of meteorological station 54511 in Beijing, located at 39.93N, 116.28E, which is part of the WMO network. These data are available from the website of the University of Wyoming (<http://weather.uwyo.edu/surface/>) (last accessed: 22 Jan 2025). Although this station is far away from our experimental site (about 23 km), it is representative of the macroscopic changes of the meteorological conditions in Beijing.

## 2.4 HYSPLIT Model

To better understand the regional transport pathways and source regions at different altitudes, backward trajectories from the Hybrid Single Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT; Draxler & Hess, 1998) model were used. The HYSPLIT model assumes that the parcel trajectory is formed through time integration and spatial differences when moving in the wind field. The path of the air mass is mainly related to the air flow situation, pressure system movement and topography (Draxler & Hess, 1998). The HYSPLIT model has the ability to deal with a variety of meteorological input fields and physical processes, and can also be used to describe atmospheric transport, diffusion and deposition of pollutants and harmful substances (Stein et al., 2015). In this study, the backward trajectories were initialized for arrival

at the Beijing-RADI site at 300 [m](#), 500 m, and 1000 m. The HYSPLIT model was run at [https://www.ready.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT\\_traj.php](https://www.ready.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT_traj.php), with the input meteorological field data ( $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$ ) provided by the Global Forecasting System.

### 3 Results and Analysis

#### 3.1 Data overview

Time series of the measured NS and ~~total VCD of TC concentrations~~ of NO<sub>2</sub> during the study period are presented in Fig. 2a. For comparison of NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations with Pandora observations, they are expressed in mg m<sup>-3</sup>. Fig 2a shows the common diurnal variation of the NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, i.e. a gradual decrease in the morning to a minimum around mid-day, followed by a gradual increase in the afternoon to a maximum value during the night. This diurnal variation is due to photochemical reactions during daytime, meteorological effects and anthropogenic emissions during certain hours (for instance during rush hour) (e.g., Atkinson, 2000; Boersma et al., 2009; ~~Y.~~ Zhang et al., 2016; Cheng et al., 2018; Li et al., 2021). ~~Total VCD of TC~~ NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations can only be measured with Pandora during day time. The diurnal variations between 8:00 and 16:00 local Beijing time (UTC+8; throughout this paper local time, LT, will be used) at the Beijing-RADI side are similar to those of NS NO<sub>2</sub>. Based on the variation of the NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (Fig. 2a) three periods are considered during the study period: Period I: 10 to 18 January, with strong diurnal variations and high NO<sub>2</sub> concentration peaks; Period II: 19 to 24 January, NS NO<sub>2</sub> sharply decreases and then increases with stronger fluctuations, but ~~total VCD of TC~~ NO<sub>2</sub> ~~observations~~ are not available due to the presence of clouds; Period III: 25 to 30 January, a sudden drop occurred on January 25, and low NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations with some narrow peaks lasted until the 30<sup>th</sup>.

The time series of the NS PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations in Fig. 2b shows four peaks in Period I, with maximum values during the night and very low concentrations ( $<10 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) during daytime. The maxima were relatively low on 12 and 17 January ( $\sim 25 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), whereas on 14 and 18 January the PM<sub>2.5</sub> peak concentrations were  $\sim 120$  and  $\sim 70$

$\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . During Period II, the  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentration increased steadily from less than 25  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  on 20 January to more than 125  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  on the 24<sup>th</sup>, with similar day/night variations as in Period I. During Period III, the  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentrations were relatively low ( $<25 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) and there was no clear diurnal variation.

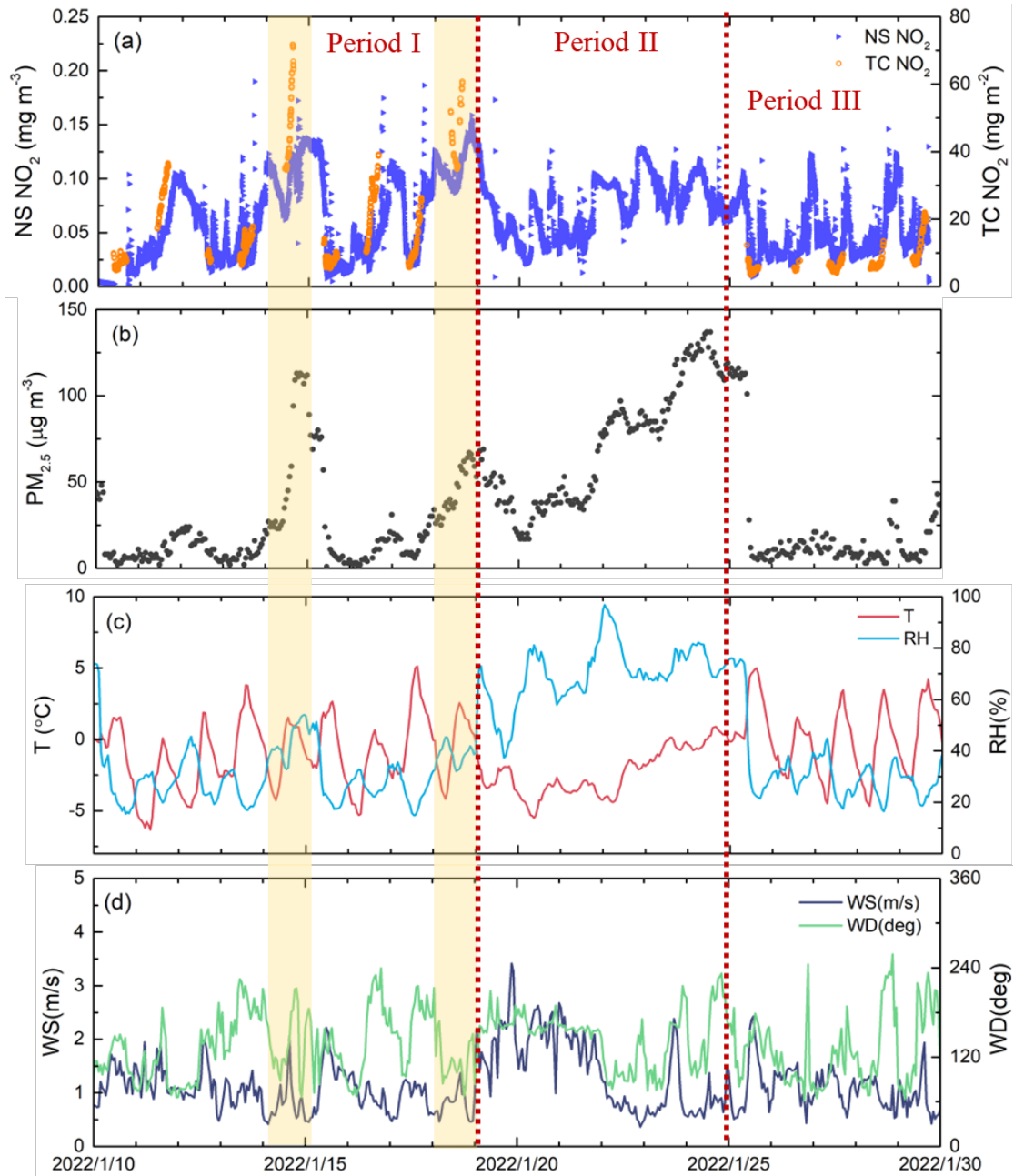
The air temperature and relative humidity (RH) during the study period are presented in Fig. 2c and the wind speed and wind direction are presented in Fig. 2d. During Period I, air temperature, RH and wind speed all varied strongly with a clear diurnal pattern: elevated wind speed during the day, with daily maxima between about 7 and 13  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ , and very low wind speed during the night ( $<2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ); day time air temperatures around  $0^\circ\text{C}$  and night time temperatures around  $-10^\circ\text{C}$ ; dry air during the day (RH~20%) and more humid during the night (RH of 60-80%). The wind was mostly from northerly directions (NW-NE) and veering during the night. During Period II, the air temperature increased gradually from about  $-5^\circ\text{C}$  to about  $0^\circ\text{C}$ , with small diurnal variations, and RH increased initially from 40% to 60% on 20 January and then gradually to about 70%, with little day/night variations. ~~\_, whereas d~~ During the nights of 22-25 ~~\_~~ January the humidity was very high, the RH sensor saturated and reported maxima close to 100%. Wind speed during this period was low ( $< 3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) and wind direction was mostly SE. During period III, day/night temperature and RH fluctuations occurred, with day time air temperatures above  $0^\circ\text{C}$  and gradually rising and RH varying between 20% during the day and 60% during the night. Wind speeds were higher during the day, mostly a little higher than  $3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , than during the night (close to  $0 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) and wind direction was mostly northerly.

The variations of the  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentrations were similar in the sense that the minimum and maximum peak concentrations occurred at about the same time, but with differences in the ratios between minima and maxima. The occurrence of peak concentrations during the night is consistent with the variation in meteorological conditions, with maxima during low wind speed and low air temperature, conducive for the formation of a nocturnal boundary layer in which the concentrations accumulate near the surface. This is observed during Periods I and III. During Period II, however,



there were no Pandora observations during day time due the occurrence of clouds. This suggests that clouds may also have been present during the night. Hence radiative cooling was reduced and air temperature did not decrease as much as during the other periods. Wind speed was low, thus pollutants were not transported away and accumulated in the area, as also indicated by the high RH. Hence the concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub>, as well as RH, gradually increased during period II, with relatively small diurnal variations.

For further analysis, we selected two cases for which both total VCD and NS concentrations of TC and NS NO<sub>2</sub> data were available, including lidar observations and air mass trajectories. The selected cases are the periods when both NO<sub>2</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations were high, i.e. on 14 and 18 January, when the 24-hour average NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations exceeded 80 mg m<sup>-3</sup>. The first pollution episode (case 1) started in the afternoon of January 14 and ended in the morning of January 15. The other pollution episode with high NS NO<sub>2</sub> occurred on January 18 (case 2). The diurnal variation of the NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations was similar in both cases, while the air temperature, RH, wind speed and wind direction show that also the meteorological situations were similar. However, differences are observed in the temporal variations of total VCD of TC NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations versus NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and in PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations.



**Figure 2.** Time series of observed parameters from Jan 10 to 29, 2022 (a) total VCD and NS concentrations of TC and NS-NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, (b) NS PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration, (c) temperature and related humidity, and (d) wind speed and wind direction from WMO meteorological station 54511 in Beijing. The vertical dotted lines mark the boundaries between the three periods and the yellow shaded rectangles mark the two cases discussed in Section 3.2.

## 3.2 Variations of total VCD and NS concentrations of TC and NS NO<sub>2</sub> during the two selected cases

Many studies (Yin et al., 2025; Dong et al., 2020; Chang et al., 2019; Li et al., 2017) ~~have already~~ indicated that the pollution in Beijing mainly originates from three pollution transport patterns: SW (Southwest), SE (Southeast), and SM (South-mixed). Among them, the most representative are the SW transport path from Shanxi province to Shijiazhuang-Baoding-Beijing and the SE transport path from Shandong province to Cangzhou-Langfang-Tianjin-Beijing. However, few studies have explored the vertical transport of pollution types. ~~We observed Cases 1 and 2 –two~~ are representative cases corresponding to the widespread SW and SE patterns, respectively. ~~The evolution of the TC and NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and their ratio during the two high pollution episodes identified in Section 3.1 are discussed in detail. Processes influencing the concentrations and their ratio are identified based on lidar data, providing information on the boundary layer structure, together with large scale weather maps and air mass trajectory analyses, providing information on sources of pollutants and their transport over a wider area. Our study primarily focuses on the correlation between total VCD and NS concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub>. Total VCD of NO<sub>2</sub> are provided by the passive remote sensing instrument PANDORA, which does not provide reliable observations on cloudy days, as mentioned above. This is the reason why we only selected cases during Period I and did not obtain cases during Period II, when pollution was more severe.~~

### 3.2.1 Case 1: Disconnected boundary layers merging (14 January, 2022)

Time series of the total VCD and NS concentrations of TC and NS NO<sub>2</sub> ~~concentrations~~ on 14 January 2022 (Fig. 3a) show their different evolution throughout the day. The NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are available for every minute during the whole day and show a gradual decrease from about 0.11 mg m<sup>-3</sup> between midnight and 04:00 to about 0.065 mg m<sup>-3</sup> at 10:30. After 10:30 the concentrations increased to 0.11 mg m<sup>-3</sup> at 13:30 and hardly changed until about 16:00 after which they strongly fluctuated (0.04-0.175 mg m<sup>-3</sup>) and then reached a steady value of about 0.12 mg m<sup>-3</sup> from 19:00

till midnight. The strong fluctuations may have been caused by emissions during evening rush hour, domestic heating and other activities producing NO<sub>2</sub>, followed by stabilization during the evening.

Pandora uses direct sun observations and during this campaign in the winter time, high quality total VCD and NS concentrations of TC NO<sub>2</sub> ~~data~~ are only available between 10:30 and 15:30. The data in Fig. 3a show initially a similar behavior of total VCD and NS concentrations of TC and NS NO<sub>2</sub> ~~concentrations~~, with little variation between 10:30 and 11:30. Thereafter, both NS ~~and TC~~ concentrations and total VCD increased, initially slower for the total VCD TC than for the NS concentrations. After 13:00 the NS concentrations levelled off while the total VCD TC concentrations increased much faster. Between 12:00 and 15:00 the total VCD TC concentrations increased from 40 mg m<sup>-2</sup> to 72 mg m<sup>-2</sup>, almost a doubling, then decreased to 64 mg m<sup>-2</sup>. The difference in the temporal behavior between the total VCD and NS concentrations of TC and NS NO<sub>2</sub> ~~concentrations~~ is amplified in Fig 3b which shows a scatterplot between the ~~TC~~ total VCD and NS concentrations. Observations before and after 13:00 are plotted with different symbols and color coded in blue and red, respectively. For each of these two data sets, before and after 13:00, TS and NS concentrations are well correlated with linear correlation coefficients R of 0.94 and 0.85, respectively, but with significantly different slopes.

The different behavior of the total VCD and NS concentrations of TC and NS NO<sub>2</sub> ~~concentrations~~ can be explained by considering the dynamical behavior of the boundary layer structure. Lidar observations reveal the vertical structure of the atmospheric boundary layer from the variation of the lidar signal as a function of height. A 3-D plot of the vertical variation of the lidar signal, measured on 14 January 2022 at the Beijing-RADI site, close to the Pandora and the ground-based measurements, is presented in Fig. 3c. The lidar signals are color-coded according to the scale to the right of Fig. 3c and each vertical line shows the variation of the lidar signal with height, plotted along the primary vertical axis. The time of measurement of each profile is plotted along the horizontal axis. The lidar signal in this figure is range-corrected, i.e. corrected for

attenuation as the laser light propagates in the atmosphere away from the emitter and, after backscattering by aerosol particles, back to the receiver. The time between emission of the laser pulse and receiving the backscattered signal is a measure for the height where the backscattering takes place (after correction of the slant to a vertical optical path) and the intensity is a measure for the aerosol concentration. This is illustrated with the data in Fig 3d3c. For example, the data show an aerosol layer between 08:00 and 13:00, located at a height between about 800 and 900 m, as indicated by the large lidar signal (yellow and red, i.e., between about 1.2 and 2.2), with light blue above and below, indicating lower aerosol concentrations. Between about 400 and 500 m a dark blue area can be observed, which indicates very low backscatter and thus the absence of aerosol, whereas further down toward the surface, backscatter is observed with a varying intensity. The vertical variation of the lidar signal, i.e. indicating the presence of aerosol in the layer adjacent to the surface up to about 400 m, a layer with no aerosol between 400 and 500m and an elevated intense aerosol layer above, indicates a situation of a disconnected boundary structure with two layers which are not connected and thus no material can be exchanged between these layers. Such a situation can occur due to nocturnal cooling when the surface is cold due to radiation cooling and cools the layer adjacent to the surface (Stull, 1988). In this layer, no mixing occurs and material emitted near the surface accumulates. The atmospheric trace gases and aerosol in the warmer layer above are trapped in that layer and exchange with the cold layer below is prohibited due to the temperature gradient. Hence the two layers become disconnect and may separate.

The occurrence of such a situation is consistent with the observations discussed in Section 3.1 and Fig. 2, with low wind speed, lowest air temperature during period I (-12°C) and enhanced RH (indicating trapping of water vapor together with decreased air temperature). Also the lidar data in Fig. 3c indicate the occurrence of such a situation, with a well-mixed shallow boundary layer between midnight and 03:00, an indication of an internal boundary layer starting to form after about 04:00, disconnected from the layer above. The internal boundary layer rises gradually until about 11:00, with the

clean layer above, and a new layer appears around 07:00, probably due to advection. Note that wind direction was south-easterly during a short period of time on 14 January with a wind speed of  $2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , slightly more than during the rest of the day when the wind direction was northerly. During south-easterly winds, polluted air may be advected to the Beijing-RADI site, whereas during northerly wind clean air is advected (Liu et al, 2024).

From 12:00, the lower layer deepened and backscatter is observed from the clean layer indicating that aerosol is gradually mixed into that layer which completely disappears around 14:00. At the same time, the lidar signal from the growing lower layer increases gradually whereas after 13:00 the lidar signal from the upper layer becomes smaller, indicating that the aerosol concentration becomes lower until both layers are mixed around 14:00 into a well-mixed boundary layer. After 15:00, the lidar signal increases, first near the surface and then growing throughout the boundary layer. The increase of the NS concentrations is consistent with the highest  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentrations as presented in Fig. 2b and the overall increase of the lidar signal, indicating increasing aerosol concentrations. This is confirmed by AERONET AOD observations at the Beijing-RADI site ([https://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/cgi-bin/data\\_display\\_aod\\_v3?site=Beijing\\_RADI&nachal=2&level=2&place\\_code=10](https://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/cgi-bin/data_display_aod_v3?site=Beijing_RADI&nachal=2&level=2&place_code=10)) which however were only available until 16:00 LT.

The vertical variation of the  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations, derived from the Pandora sky radiance measurements at four elevations, is presented in Fig. 3d. Pandora data are only available during day time and therefore only the period from 08:00-16:30 can be shown. The  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations are available in 4 layers. Assuming that  $\text{NO}_2$  is uniformly distributed within each layer, the data were interpolated to form a time series of  $\text{NO}_2$  vertical distributions, similar to the lidar profiles. The data in Fig. 3d also show the similar behavior of the  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations and the aerosol backscatter, with increasing concentrations between 12:00 and 17:00 and their vertical mixing. In particular the increase around 15:00 is evident in both the Pandora and lidar observations. However, the Pandora observations do not show the occurrence of disconnected boundary layers

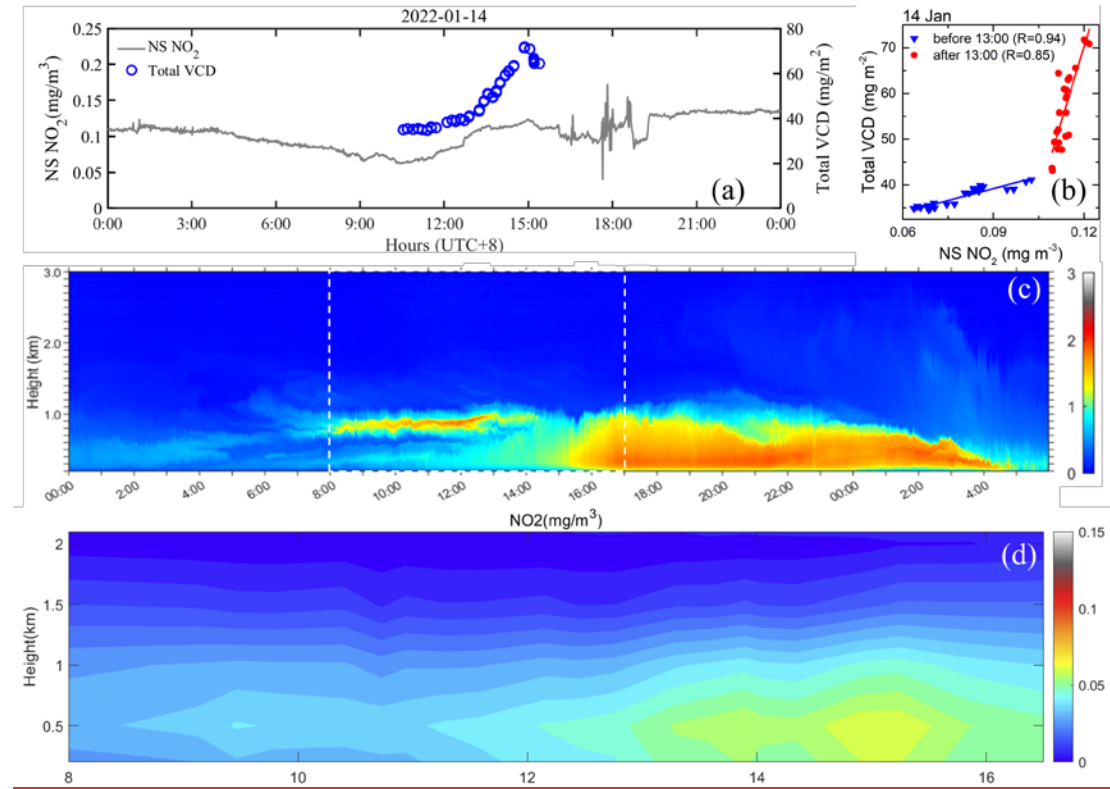
in the morning. Instead, the Pandora observations show an enhanced layer between 300-~~800-800~~ m, rather than the more detailed structure visible in the lidar data. These differences stem from the difference in vertical resolution between the PANDORA and the lidar: the total VCD from PANDORA is divided into two layers (approximately 300-800 m and 800-1700 m) within the detailed stratified height range (300-1000 m) observed by lidar. Consequently, the fine stratified structure within 1000 m cannot be identified with the available PANDORA data.

~~These differences may be due to the absence of elevated NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the aerosol layer between 800 and 900 m, while the layered structure below is not well-resolved by Pandora due to its vertical resolution resulting in lower concentration over a large layer. The latter is in agreement with the observations later in the day.~~

The overall similarity between the variations in the lidar and Pandora observations supports the use of lidar observations to explain the dynamic behavior of the NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. In particular, the different relations between total VCD and NS TC and NS observations before and after 13:00 (Fig. 3b), can be explained by the occurrence of ~~the~~ disconnected layers. The variations of the NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations until 13:00 reflect the effects of chemical processes and emissions within the atmospheric layer near the surface and within the elevated layer where only removal processes influence the NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. As a result, the temporal variation of the concentrations in both layers was in part influenced by the same processes, differences were not large (Fig. 3a) and the relationship between the total VCD and NS concentrations was linear with a small slope (174.24) and well-correlated (R=0.94) (Fig. 3b) and the ratio of the TC/NS concentrations changed little (Fig. 3b). In the afternoon, such processes resulted in the increase of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, but when ~~while also~~ the two layers ~~are~~ connected and which, together with the somewhat enhanced wind speed increased somewhat (Fig 2c, d) ~~resulted in mixing of~~ NO<sub>2</sub> was mixed throughout the whole boundary layer up to about 1000 m. Hence the usual afternoon increase of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations near the surface (Liu et al., 2024) was ~~dampened~~ offset by upward transport, distributing the NO<sub>2</sub> across the whole boundary layer and thus enhancing ~~whereas the increase in the~~



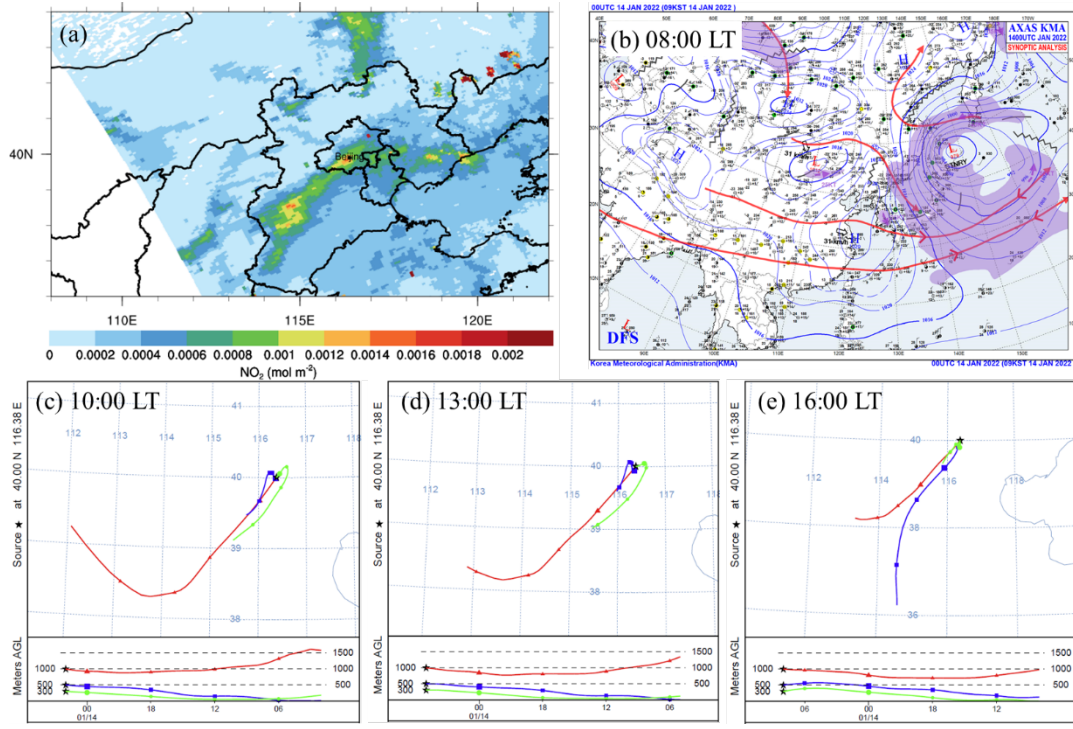
total VCD<sub>TC</sub> concentrations was enhanced, as. This well illustrated by the time series of both NC and total VCD<sub>TC</sub> between 13:00 and 15:00 (see Fig. 3a). As a result, also the total<sub>TC</sub>/NS-relationship between total VCD and NS changed substantially after 13:00 (Fig. 3b).



**Figure 3.** (a) Time series of NS NO<sub>2</sub> (grey line) and total VCD of TC NO<sub>2</sub> (blue circles) at the Beijing RAD site (40.004°N, 116.379°E) on Jan 14, 2022; (b) scatterplots of relationship between total VCD and NS concentrations of TC and NS NO<sub>2</sub> and fits to these data concentrations during the morning (before 13:00) and during the afternoon (after 13:00), showing different relationships as discussed in the text; (c) time series of vertical profiles of range-corrected lidar signal at 1064 nm. Note that the lowest height in Fig. 3c is 100 m; (d) time series of NO<sub>2</sub> vertical profiles derived from Pandora sky radiance measurements. Note that the Pandora profiles are constructed from layer-averaged volume mixing ratios interpolated to 6 standard levels and the lowest level is 0.2 km.

The effect of transport on the NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations at the Beijing-RADI site on 14 January 2022 was analyzed using the data presented in Fig. 4: the spatial distribution

of tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> columns derived from TROPOMI data (overpass time 13:30), the synoptic weather map at 00 UTC and 24-hour backward trajectories for arrival at the Beijing-RADI site at altitudes of 300 m, 500 m and 1000 m, at 10:00, 13:00 and 16:00 LT. The TROPOMI data show the relatively high tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations over the study area, in particular over an elongated area stretching from the SW to the NE over Hebei Province, including Beijing (compare with Fig. 1), and from Beijing eastward. This area is bounded by the Taihang mountains in the west and by the Yan mountains in the north, blocking transport of pollutants. The weather map in Fig. 4b shows the pressure distribution and location of low pressure areas resulting in wind from the SW, i.e. along the direction of the elongated area with elevated NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (see Fig. 4a). This is confirmed by the air mass trajectories in Fig. 4c, all showing overall transport from the SW. However, the trajectories arriving at 10:00 LT show that during the last 8h, the air mass arriving at 300 m came from the NE at low wind speed and the air mass arriving at 500m came from the NW at even lower windspeed. The air mass arriving at 1000 m came from the SW during the last 14 h before arrival and from the NW during the earlier 12 hours. The air masses arriving at 13:00 show similar trajectories. These trajectories are consistent with the lidar observation of disconnected layers, with different air mass trajectories during the last hours before arriving at the Beijing-RADI site and thus possibly different composition. The air mass arriving at 1000 m had been at high elevations during its entire 24 h trajectory and originated from higher than 1500m, but those arriving at 300 and 500 m originated from the surface at different locations separated by tens of km and may thus have been influenced by different sources.



**Figure 4.** (a) Spatial distribution of tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> in the study area derived from TROPOMI data on 14 January 2022; (b) Synoptic weather map at 00:00 UTC (08:00 LT); (c-e) 24-hour backward air mass trajectories arriving at the Beijing-RADI site at 10:00 (c), 13:00 (d) and 16:00 (e) LT, at heights of 300, 100 and 1000 m, calculated using the HYSPLIT model with 6h time steps (00, 06, 12 and 18) and a shorter time step to the arrival time.

### 3.2.2 Case 2: Multi-layer structure on 18 January, 2022

Time series of the total VCD and NS concentrations of TC and NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations on 18 January 2022 are shown in Fig. 5a, together with a scatterplot between the total VCD TC and NS concentrations in Fig. 5b and 3-D plots of the vertical variation of lidar backscatter coefficients in Fig. 5c and of Pandora-derived NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in Fig. 5d. The NS NO<sub>2</sub> time series in Fig. 5a show that the concentrations were higher than on 14 January, but their variation was initially similar, with a decrease to a minimum around 11:30 (later than on the 14<sup>th</sup>) followed by an increase. However, on 18 January, the increase continued non-linearly until about 14:30 when the concentrations plateaued at a value of about 0.12 mg m<sup>-3</sup> during about 1 hour and then increased further, likely due to increased emissions during rush hour and

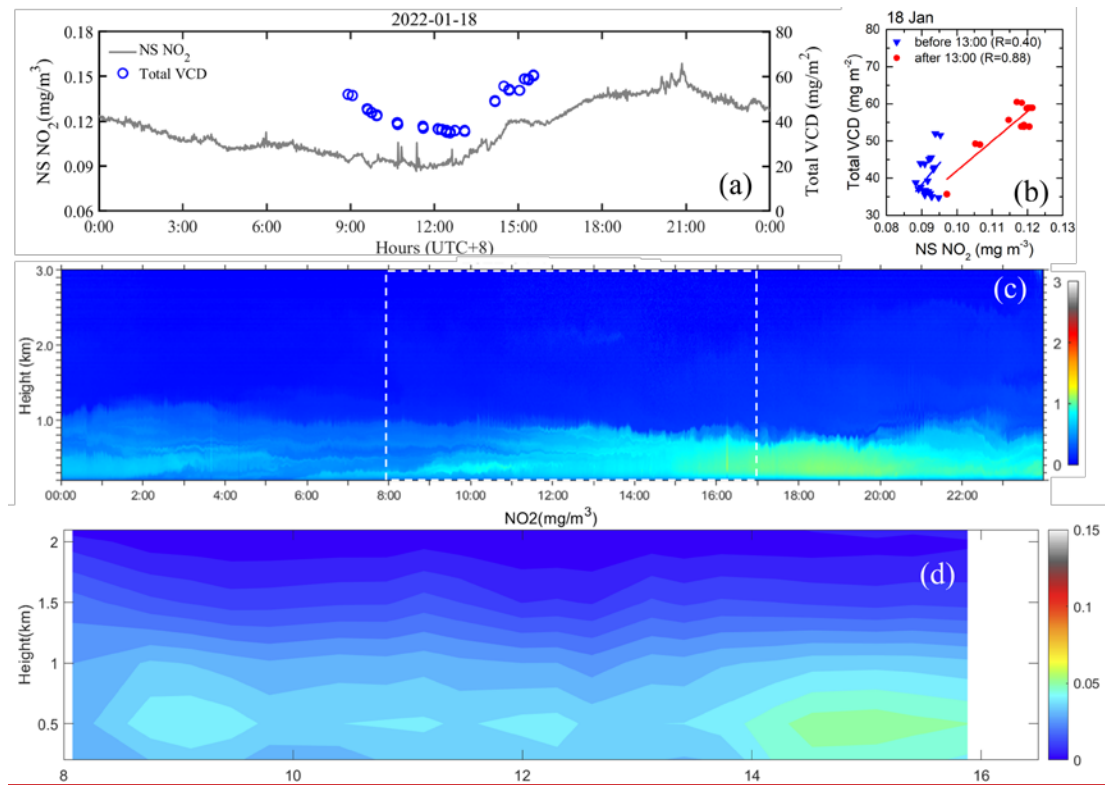
decreasing photochemical sink when the solar radiation intensity decreased in the afternoon. After 18:00 the concentrations plateaued at 0.13-0.14 mg m<sup>-3</sup>, varied between about 20:00 and 21:00 with values fluctuated up to about 0.14-16 mg m<sup>-3</sup> around 21:00 and decreased somewhat toward the end of the day.

The total VCD of TC NO<sub>2</sub> ~~concentrations~~ decreased faster than on 14 January, from the initial 54 mg m<sup>-2</sup> around 08:30 to the minimum of 36 mg m<sup>-2</sup> around 12:30, with a smaller decrease after 11:00. Hence, similar to the situation on 14 January, the total VCD of TC NO<sub>2</sub> ~~concentrations~~—initially decreased while also the NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations decreased, but in contrast to the 14<sup>th</sup>, after 11:30 the total VCD of TC NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations continued to decrease while the NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations increased. As a result, there was no clear correlation between total VCD TC and NS concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations before 13:00, as on 14 January. These morning data could be separated into two groups, before 11:30, when there was no TC total/NS relation, and after 11:30 where the data in Fig. 5b suggest a non-linear relation. Hence, in this situation, it may be difficult to determine NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations from satellite data. After 13:00, the total VCD of TC NO<sub>2</sub> ~~concentrations~~ increased from about 37 mg m<sup>-2</sup> to almost 60 mg m<sup>-2</sup> at 16:30, with a plateau around 15:00. The scatterplot in Fig. 5b shows a good correlation between TS and NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations.

The lidar data in Fig. 5c, with lower intensity than on 14 January, indicate smaller aerosol concentrations on 18 January than on 14 January, consistent with the smaller PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations (in Fig. 2b). The lidar data show the occurrence of multiple layers during the night and morning, with sharp boundaries indicating that aerosol particles are trapped in rather shallow layers with little or no exchange between these layers. After 10:30, the boundaries between layers become less sharp indicating the onset of vertical transport, although the very shallow clear layer (dark blue) between 500 and 600 m indicates a clear separation between the lower and upper layers, prohibiting vertical transport. Around 13:00 this shallow layer disappeared and after 15:00 the atmospheric boundary layer appeared sed well-mixed up to the top at about 800m.

The time series of the NO<sub>2</sub> vertical distributions in Fig. 5e–5d shows that NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were lower on the 18<sup>th</sup> than on the 14<sup>th</sup>, and concentrated below 1000 m. The observation of lower concentrations on the 18<sup>th</sup> and the 14<sup>th</sup> seem to be in contrast with the higher NS concentrations on the 18<sup>th</sup> than on the 14<sup>th</sup> mentioned above. However, the Pandora profiles are constructed from layer-averaged volume mixing ratios interpolated to 6 standard levels and the lowest level is 0.2 km. Hence, in view of the layered structure on the 18<sup>th</sup>, the higher NS concentrations may be disconnected from the lowest layer set at 0.2 km. It is further noted that the Pandora vertical distributions show lower NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations on the 14<sup>th</sup> than on the 18<sup>th</sup> in the morning, whereas they are higher in the afternoon of the 14<sup>th</sup>. –The NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and their vertical distributions varied between 08:00 and 12:30, with an initial increase between 08:00 and 10:00 with a broad elevated maximum centered around 500 m and another small maximum around 11:00. Apart from these, the NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were rather homogeneously distributed up to the top of the atmospheric boundary layer at about 800 m as also indicated by the lidar data. After about 12:00 the NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations increased with a significant enhancement after 14:00.

The evolution of the atmospheric boundary layer, as shown in detail by the lidar data, and the variation of the NO<sub>2</sub> concentration profiles provide a plausible explanation for the evolution of the total VCD and NS concentrations of TC and NS NO<sub>2</sub> ~~concentrations~~ and their ratios, with changes around 11:30 and 13:00. The plateau in the NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations may be indicative of the dilution near the surface due to upward transport and vertical mixing, at the same time increasing the TS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations.



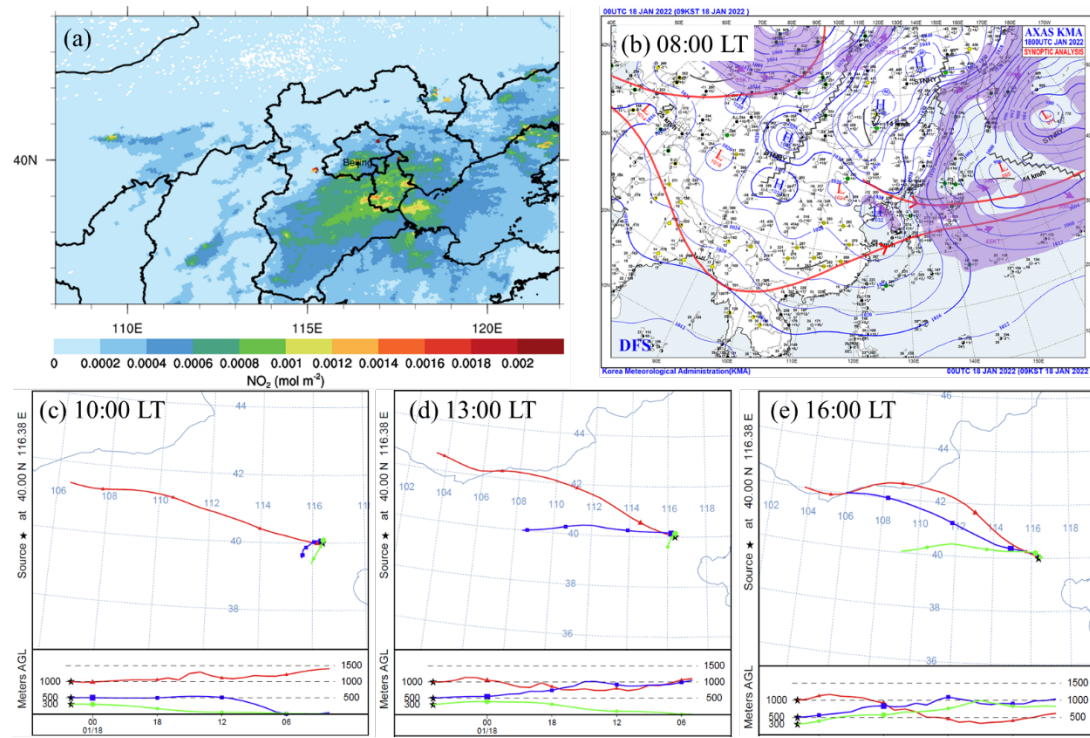
**Figure 5.** Same as Fig. 3 but for 18 January, 2022.

Fig. 6 shows the large scale situation for the study area on 18 January. The TROPOMI data in Fig. 6a show the spatial distribution of the tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs which are highest to the SE of Beijing, in Hebei/Tianjin and over the Yellow Sea. Over Beijing, the tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> VCDs, as indicated by TROPOMI, are substantially lower than in case 1. This can be explained by the transport from clean areas to the W and WNW of Beijing, as indicated by the air mass trajectories arriving in Beijing at 300m, 500 m and 1000m, at 10:00, 13:00 and 16:00 LT (Fig. 6c). The trajectories of the air masses arriving at 10:00 LT show a clear difference between the lower and higher layers visible in the lidar data: where the air arriving at 1000 m originated from the WNW and had traveled during the last 24 h over clean areas (Fig. 6a) over a distance of 1000 km (10°), between heights of 1000-1500 m, the lower air mass was influenced by local air from SSW (at 300 m) and SW (500m) that had traveled during the last 24 h near the surface at heights up to 500 m over moderately polluted areas. Hence the lidar data show higher aerosol content in the lower layer (<500 m) than in the layer above (>600m) and both disconnected layers are from different origin.



This situation changed as indicated by the air mass trajectory arriving at 12:00 LT. The air mass arriving at 300 m had the same characteristics as at 10:00 LT, had traveled an even shorter distance and the layer adjacent to the surface was more stagnant. However, the air mass arriving at 500 m now came from the west, had traveled over clean areas (Fig 6a) at heights between 500 and 1000 m and thus was distinctly different from the layer below. The air mass arriving at 1000 m originated from a bit further north and further away (in Inner Mongolia) than at 10:00 LT, and had travelled at heights between 750 and 1000 m. Hence all three air masses suggest that the layers originated from different regions and likely had different composition.

The trajectories of the air masses arriving at 16:00 LT indicate that the situation had changed, i.e. the pollution episode was finished and pollution was replaced with cleaner air transported from the W to WNW over distances of hundreds of km and originating from elevations of 500-1000 m for air masses arriving at 300m and 500m, whereas the air mass arriving at 1000 m had actually followed a lower trajectory.



**Figure 6.** Same as Fig. 4, but for 18 January, 2022.

A comparative analysis of the two cases reveals distinct characteristics. Case 1, on



January 14<sup>th</sup>, is characterized by a belt-shaped pollution event. The air mass arriving at 1000 m was primarily transported from Shanxi to Beijing arriving from along the SW direction during the last 15 hours (Fig. 4c), while at lower levels the air masses pollutants were carried by the air mass travelled at low altitudes (from near the surface to 500 m) through the polluted area in Hebei (compare Figs. 4 a and c)-. In contrast, Case 2, on January 18<sup>th</sup>, exhibits was a large-scale pollution event covering originating from Shandong, Hebei, and Henan in and the southern part of Beijing (Fig. 6a), but the air mass arriving at 1000 m had been transported from the WNW over a large distance over clean areas. However, at lower levels, the air was stagnant (wind speed was low) in the morning, air masses arriving at 300 and 500 m at 10:00 LT had travelled over very short distances during the last 24 hours and were thus only influenced by local pollution. , with nearly calm winds observed in the SE direction. Notably, in Case 1, elevated pollutant concentrations were recorded in the 800-1000 m altitude layer in the morning, attributable to an air mass originating from Shanxi Province (with no significant pollution observed there) that was transported over the polluted area in Hebei at about 1000 m (Figs. 4a and 4c), and then where the upper-level air mass likely carried pollutant residuals which had been uplifted through vertical mixing processes it may have picked up pollutants possibly as residuals from vertical uplift over the polluted area in Hebei upon reaching Shijiazhuang City in Hebei Province which were where it was detected by the lidar. These pollutants were subsequently advected to Beijing, where their presence was detected by lidar observations. Conversely, in Case 2, pollutants were predominantly transported from the plains, leading to a significant accumulation of pollutants in the near-surface layer. After 13:00, in both cases the distinction between the pollutant layers disappeared when the boundary layers developed in both cases gradually became uniform under the influence of surface heating and increasing wind speed (Fig. 2), thus due to creating mixing by boundary layer turbulence and mixing of NO<sub>2</sub>, aerosols and other constituents. , exhibiting a further increasing in b Both the total VCD and NS concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> increased, with that of e increase in total VCD of NO<sub>2</sub> being more significant. This further suggests

that it is more difficult to obtain NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations using total VCD of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations during the morning hours. However, utilizing the types of pollution spatial distribution and transport patterns can be helpful in indicating NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations.

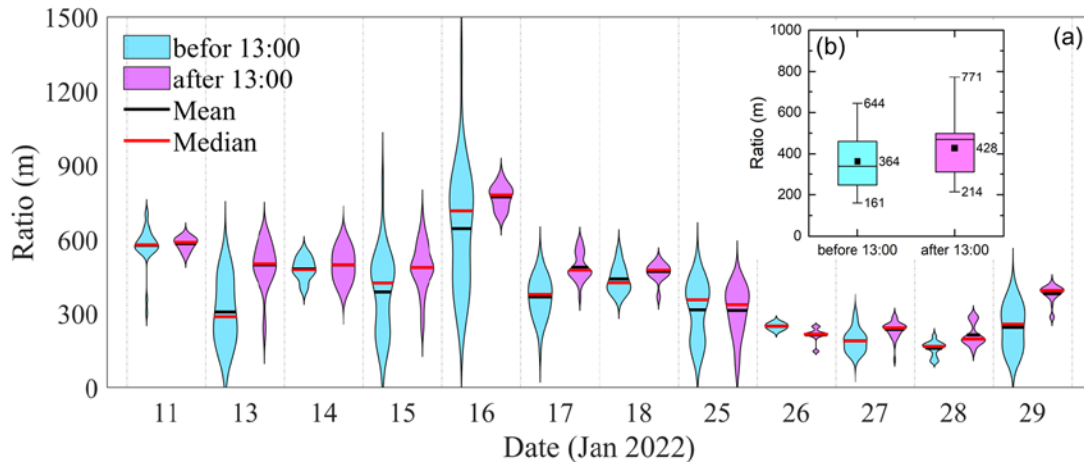
### 3.3 Ratio of total VCD~~TC~~ vs NS NO<sub>2</sub>

The two pollution cases discussed above show that the ratio between total VCD~~TC~~ and NS concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> in the morning (before 13:00) is different from that in the afternoon (after 13:00) during the study period in the winter in Beijing. In order to better understand the relationship between total VCD~~TC~~ and NS concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub>, we calculated the ratio of total VCD~~TC~~ and NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations for each day, while we also differentiated between the morning and afternoon using 13:00 as the split time. The Ratio, defined as the ratio of total to NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, serves a dual purpose: it not only quantifies the changes between total VCD and NS concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> when the correlation is low but also reflects the degree of dispersion between the two measurements. A more variable Ratio indicates higher dispersion and poorer correlation, providing a straightforward yet effective way to assess the reliability of using total VCD of NO<sub>2</sub> to predict NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations.

The results are presented as violin plots in Fig. 7, for each of the 12 days for which data are available. The data in fig. 7 show that the mean and median values of the NO<sub>2</sub> ratio during Period I (10-18 January) were substantially higher than those during Period III (25-30 January), with the exception of 25 and 29 January. During these two days, at the beginning and end of Period III, signify the transition from polluted to clean days (see fig. 2b). On most days the ratio was smaller in the morning than in the afternoon. The difference between the morning and afternoon ratios was small during the two days (14<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup>) with accumulated pollution, while during the four days when wind speed increased, on 13, 15, and 17, the differences were relatively large, with the largest difference of 192 m on the 13<sup>th</sup>. During Period III the difference between the morning and afternoon ratio was basically smaller than 50 m, with a gap of more than 100 m only on the 29<sup>th</sup>. There were no valid observations of total VCD~~ofTC~~ NO<sub>2</sub>

787 ~~concentrations~~ during Period II, so it is not possible to judge the changes in ratio over  
788 multiple consecutive days of pollution. Throughout the observation period, the standard  
789 deviations of the ratio were overall larger in the morning than in the afternoon, when  
790 the winter boundary layer was well-mixed and the relationship between total VCD and  
791 NS concentrations of TC and NS NO<sub>2</sub> ~~concentrations~~ was relatively stable. However, in  
792 the morning, when the boundary layer was developing, the day-to-day variations in the  
793 standard deviation imply relatively large changes in the ratio. The box plot in fig. 7b  
794 illustrates the difference between the morning and afternoon ratios. The mean values  
795 are lower in the morning (364m) than in the afternoon (428m), and the upper quartile  
796 in the afternoon are closer to their median value, suggesting that the ratio is more stable  
797 in the afternoon when it is well mixed vertically. However, although the ratio is quite  
798 stable in the afternoon ~~when the boundary layer is generally well-mixed~~ when the boundary layer is generally well-mixed,  
799 there are still unpredictable extreme values (e.g. 771 m).

800 Generally, the temporal stability of the Ratio is important. The Ratio is  
801 generally overall less variable after 13:00, suggesting that polar-orbiting satellites can  
802 be used to predict NS NO<sub>2</sub> based on total VCD of NO<sub>2</sub> during this period with greater  
803 confidence. This temporal stability is particularly valuable because it offers a feasible  
804 approach for air quality monitoring and forecasting. In contrast, the Ratio is less stable  
805 before 13:00, posing greater challenges for using geostationary satellites for the same  
806 prediction task. It's worth noting that our analysis in winter in Beijing suggests that  
807 considering both the spatial distribution of pollutants and their transport direction has  
808 the potential to enhance the ability of satellites to predict NS NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations based  
809 on total VCD of NO<sub>2</sub>. By incorporating this information into prediction models, the  
810 accuracy and reliability of satellite-based air quality predictions may be improved,  
811 particularly in complex urban environments where pollutant concentrations can vary  
812 significantly over short distances and time periods.



**Figure 7.** (a) Violin plots of the Ratio of total VCD TC and NS concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations for each day when observations were available in January 2022, where the data were differentiated between morning (before 13:00 LT) and afternoon (after 13:00LT). (b) The box-whisker plot of the Ratio averaged over all observations before and after 13:00 in January 2022. The horizontal lines in the boxes and the top and bottom edges represent the mean and upper and lower quartile values of the Ratio, the solid square dots represent the median values, and the bars represent the minimum and maximum values.

#### 4 Conclusion and Discussion and Conclusions

Total column and near surface NO<sub>2</sub> data observed during the winter field experiment from Jan 10 to Jan 29, 2022, at the Beijing RADi site were analyzed together with lidar, PM<sub>2.5</sub> and meteorological data, satellite data, weather maps and air mass trajectories. Based on these observations, the experimental period was sub-divided into three periods: intermittent pollution days, persistent pollution days and clean days. The analysis of the total VCD TC and NS concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations shows substantial differences between the first and third period, while during the second period with persistent pollution no total VCD of TC NO<sub>2</sub> observations were available due to the presence of clouds. During the first period, two episodes with high pollution were identified and analyzed in detail with a focus on the ratio between the variations of the total VCD TC and NS concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and their ratio. The relations between the total VCD TC and NS concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in

the morning and in the afternoon, split at 13:00 LT, appear to be significantly different. These differences have been explained in terms of boundary layer dynamics, using lidar data showing the vertical stratification with disconnected boundary layers at different heights in the morning which connected as the boundary layer developed in the afternoon. In addition, the 4-layer NO<sub>2</sub> column concentrations obtained from Pandora show good agreement with the lidar signal in terms of the temporal and vertical variations of the NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, with differences attributed to the different vertical resolutions of the Pandora and lidar observations, as well as physical properties of NO<sub>2</sub> and aerosols. From this, together with air mass trajectories, weather maps and TROPOMI satellite observations of the NO<sub>2</sub> spatial distribution, a consistent picture was created showing different source regions for disconnected airmasses arriving at different heights and different times of the day.

Data from the full experimental period, with 12 days for which valid data are available, were analyzed in detail to obtain more insight into the variation of the ratio between the total VCD<sub>TE</sub> and NS concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub>. This ratio appears to be overall smaller in the morning than in the afternoon, with larger standard deviations. In addition, the ratios and their standard deviations were overall larger during the more polluted episode I than during the relatively clean period III.

Day-time continuous remote sensing observations of Pandora were used in this study and the results confirm its possible importance in understanding changes in the distribution of NO<sub>2</sub> in the vertical direction. The NO<sub>2</sub> vertical distribution has been analyzed using less than 3 weeks of observation data, which has some limitations, but the research idea is worthy of reference and promotion. In the future, the implementation of larger-scale experiments in different typical regions and seasons will help to provide further understanding of the ideas presented in this study and improve the shortcomings. Moreover, we will broaden the scope of experimental areas and field sites to complement research on the various pollutant emission and transport characteristics. Furthermore, observations over a longer period will allow us to capture more representative cases, thereby enhancing the reliability of our findings.

The overall conclusion from this study during a relatively short period of almost 3 weeks in the winter in Beijing is that the variation between the total column and near surface NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations varies with the concentration level and the time of day. In the afternoon the boundary layer is well developed and satellite observations are sensitive to the NS concentrations, whereas in the morning this depends on meteorological conditions. Hence, satellites with an afternoon overpass are capable to measure total VCD of TCC NO<sub>2</sub> which is representative for NS concentrations, whereas observations earlier in the day may not be. This could possibly affect the interpretation of diurnal variations derived from observations using geostationary satellite.

**Data availability.** Data will be made available on request.

**Author contributions.** YZ and YW conceived and designed the study. OL processed the Pandora data. YC collected and processed the meteorological data. YL processed the Lidar data. YZ and GL prepared the paper with contributions from all coauthors. YXZ and ZL provide project funding.

**Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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