

1 Assessment of NO₂ satellite observations for en-route aircraft emissions detection

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15 **Abstract**

16 In this work the possible use of satellite remote sensors for the detection of the air traffic
17 emissions produced during the en-route segment of flight in the Upper Troposphere/Lower
18 Stratosphere region (8000-12000 m) has been examined. NO₂ has been considered as the tracer of
19 aircraft's plumes with highest possibility of being successfully detected from space. An analysis
20 of the technical potential of the current orbital sensors capable of measuring NO₂ in the proximity
21 of the tropopause has been developed. In order to estimate an upper bound for NO₂ column
22 related to aircraft emissions, the Canary Islands Corridor has been selected to conduct a simple
23 emission calculation exercise based on real air traffic and operational data and assuming an ideal
24 atmospheric scenario. The result obtained in this approximation has been compared with the
25 actual information retrieved from space sensors. An in-depth inspection of the NO₂ column data
26 for two particular areas (Canary Islands Corridor and North Atlantic Flight Corridor) produced in
27 the last years by SCIAMACHY and OMI has also been carried out.

28 The general conclusions of this viability study are not optimistic. The estimated maximum NO₂
29 column value attributable to aircraft emissions at cruise altitudes were lower than the detection
30 limits associated to SCIAMACHY and OMI for NO₂ column measurements. As a consequence,

31 detecting and quantifying the actual NO₂ levels in aircraft corridors by space remote sensing is a
32 very challenging task

33

34 **1. Introduction**

35 Aviation is a worldwide activity which contribution to the total global anthropogenic CO₂
36 emissions is about 2% (IPCC, 1999), that is, it has a not a very relevant weight in global terms,
37 but with the specificity that a great fraction of its emissions are injected almost directly into the
38 upper free troposphere and lower stratosphere (UT/LS) (Hoinka et al. 1993). The IPCC, as well as
39 other bodies, has been warning of the environmental effects that air traffic emissions in this
40 region could generate, especially for their influence, in the mid to long-term, on climate change
41 (Brasseur et al., 1998; IPCC, 1999; Schumann, 2002).

42 The concern is fundamentally based on results obtained through various research projects which
43 started at the beginning of the 90's (Brennkmeijer, 2006; Brunner et al., 2001; Cammas &
44 Volz-Thomas, 2007; Marenco et al., 1998; Schumann et al., 2000). These scientific researches
45 have widely documented the behaviour of the atmosphere around the tropopause, which
46 corresponds to the cruise segment of flight (8-12 km). As a result of this great research effort,
47 knowledge on the emissions produced by aircraft, together with their influence on the chemical
48 equilibrium of the atmospheric region and their potential implications, in relation to a possible
49 climate change induced by anthropogenic emissions, has greatly improved (Brasseur et al., 1998;
50 IPCC, 2007; Lee et al., 2009; Schumann, 2000). All this knowledge has been achieved through
51 specific research programs, so the documentation of these issues have had no continuity in time.
52 Important efforts have been dedicated to achieve a theoretical quantification of the fuel burn from
53 commercial air traffic as well as the quantification of atmospheric emissions generated by air
54 traffic (Carlier & Jelinek, 2006; Eysers et al., 2004; Jelinek et al., 2004; Kim et al., 2005).

55 However, the quality of the results greatly depends on the data supplied by the aircraft
56 manufacturers, with the inherent difficulty in obtaining an authentic guaranteed validation of the
57 emission indices used.

58 Unlike other productive sectors, in aviation not many means and tools exist to monitor and
59 control real emissions. At present no methodology is available to document in a systematic way
60 the real emissions coming from commercial aviation and the role that space remote sensing could
61 play to this purpose should be evaluated. In this work we present an assessment of the use of
62 satellite remote sensing tools for the detection of NO₂ aircraft emissions produced in the UT/LS
63 region during the en-route segment of flight.

64

65 **2. Aircraft emissions: background information**

66

67 In general, the results of the international projects carried out in the last years demonstrate that the
68 measured concentrations of gaseous tracers in the studied air traffic corridors or their immediate
69 surroundings display a strong variability in space and time and, therefore, a great heterogeneity
70 (Brasseur et al., 1998; Brunner et al., 2001; Emmons et al., 2000; Grewe et al., 2001). Among the
71 multiple causes that explain this, the following are emphasized: the variability of the dispersive
72 conditions; the dependency of the height of the tropopause with season and latitude (9-12 km at
73 midlatitudes, and about 17 km in the tropics); chemical regimes and lifetime of gaseous species;
74 and the interference generated by the transport of pollutants from the surface to the higher
75 troposphere.

76 Up to present, one of the better studied air traffic corridors has been the one crossing the North
77 Atlantic Ocean (North Atlantic Flight Corridor, NAFC). The corresponding results obtained from
78 the in-situ measurements support that aircraft emissions accumulate at corridor altitudes leading

79 to an enhancement of NO_x and particles concentrations in atmospheric regions affected by heavy
80 air traffic. However, the impact of CO_2 , CO , H_2O and SO_2 emissions on the background
81 concentrations is hardly measurable (Ferry et al., 1999; Paladino et al., 2000; Schlager et al.,
82 1999; Schumann et al., 2000; Ziereis et al., 1999, Ziereis et al., 2000;). Table 1 summarizes some
83 data that allow explaining these experimental results (IPCC, 1999; Schumann et al., 1998).
84 It can be observed that the emission of NO_x ($\text{NO} + \text{NO}_2$) per kg of fuel consumed by an airplane is
85 100 to 200 times lower than the corresponding CO_2 quantity. As the natural background for this
86 last one is 10^6 times higher than the first, the CO_2 emission only just influences the closest
87 vicinity of each specific flight trajectory whereas the emissions of NO_x generate a remarkable
88 contrast on the existing background at route scale. Moreover, NO_x lifetime in the upper
89 troposphere (few days up to a week) favours the contrast between NO_x source regions and
90 background regions. The situation for H_2O is similar to the one for CO_2 .
91 Due to the global spatial distribution of the air traffic, the concentration of NO_x in the background
92 for the 8-12 km layer displays a clear latitudinal gradient in the Northern Hemisphere, with
93 minimum values (20-40 pptv) near the Equator and maximum (200-300 pptv) in latitudes 50° - 60°
94 N. Within the strong general variability, the detected concentrations are usually higher in the
95 areas of influence of the air traffic corridors, as demonstrated by the data corresponding to the
96 vertical profiles obtained with in-situ measurements. These results show an inhomogeneous
97 vertical distribution of emission tracers with a significant increase of NO_2 concentrations in the 8-
98 12 km layer (Ziereis et al., 1999; Ziereis et al., 2000).

99

100 **3. Methodology**

101

102 The assessment of the use of satellite remote sensing tools for the detection of NO₂ generated in
103 the UT/LS region from en-route aircraft emissions has been tackled by applying the following
104 two different and complementary approaches:

105 1) Firstly the most powerful orbital sensors capable of measuring atmospheric NO₂ have been
106 selected. The associated products with more possibilities of containing information about the NO₂
107 produced in the vicinity of the UT/LS have been identified. Subsequently, a simple exercise of air
108 traffic emission calculation has been performed in order to establish an upper bound for NO₂ that
109 typically could be associated to any congested air route. From this result an estimation of the
110 corresponding selected NO₂ satellite product has been calculated as retrieved from the selected
111 space sensors. Finally, these results have been compared with the actual space sensor features and
112 measurements. To conduct the calculation exercise real air traffic and operational data from
113 Canary Islands Corridor (CIC) have been used due to its high and stable traffic demand and its
114 data accessibility. Moreover, an ideal atmospheric scenario characterised by unrealistic stable
115 conditions has been considered in order to favour the maximum possible accumulation of NO₂ at
116 cruise altitudes.

117 2) Secondly, a research of any evidence of air traffic emissions in the selected space sensors data
118 sets has been done. OMI and SCIAMACHY instruments have been used for this purpose and a
119 thorough analysis of the respective NO₂ column data retrieved from their measurements over
120 some oceanic corridors has been carried out. CIC and NAFC have been selected as representative
121 of the most congested ones and where spatial gradients of NO₂ concentration are expected. For
122 this analysis available yearly and monthly mean NO₂ column data have been inspected and
123 compared with the spatial global pattern of aircraft NO₂ emissions obtained from emission
124 inventories. This strategy is similar to that one successfully used for the identification of NO₂ ship
125 emissions from space remote sensors for congested maritime routes (Beirle et al., 2004; Franke et

126 al., 2009; Richter et al., 2004). Finally, daily mean NO₂ column maps have been also analysed if
127 no NO₂ signature is detected in the monthly mean NO₂ column data.

128

129 **3.1 Calculation exercise for analysis of space sensor capability to detect aircraft emissions in** 130 **the UT/LS**

131

132 In this section the results of the first mentioned approach, based on a comparison of actual NO₂
133 measuring potential of current space sensors vs. an upper bound calculated for NO₂ concentration
134 in the UT/LS due to aircraft emissions are presented.

135

136 **3.1.1 Current satellite sensors for NO₂ detection.**

137

138 The characteristics of space sensors devoted to NO₂ measurement are presented in Table 2. These
139 systems were specifically designed for obtaining the best yield in terms of space/time resolution
140 and detection limits, according to the state-of-the-art technology in their respective dates. Among
141 these sensors, only MIPAS onboard ENVISAT has been specifically designed for detection of
142 aircraft emissions. MIPAS is a limb sounder which performs measurements in different
143 configurations modes. The named “Aircraft Emission mode” (AE) has been optimized to explore
144 lines of sight parallel to some aircraft corridors. This measuring strategy enables long optical
145 paths in the 7-13 km altitude range with the purpose of detecting the contribution of the air traffic
146 emissions to the existing background concentrations of NO₂ (Fischer et al., 2008). Although
147 supposedly this kind of measurements would allow the detection of aircraft emissions in
148 congested corridors, up to now the analysis of the available data of the most promising case
149 (NAFC) has been unsatisfactory (Holmes, 2007).

150 Apart from MIPAS, there are several sensors capable of performing NO₂ measurements in
151 atmospheric regions that cover the UT/LS, providing two kinds of products: column (total,
152 tropospheric and stratospheric) density values and concentration vertical profiles (see Table 2).
153 The lower altitude involved in the calculations of NO₂ concentration vertical profile is nominally
154 10 km, however, only reliable measurements are obtained above 15 km. Consequently, the
155 information related to gaseous compounds present at altitudes near the tropopause can only be
156 found in column data being SCIAMACHY and OMI the sensors which offer the best technical
157 performance in NO₂ measurements. Table 3 shows the main instrumental characteristics for both
158 systems (Bovensmann et al., 1999; Levelt et al., 2006; OMI Team, 2009; Sierk et al., 2006). In
159 our work, OMI and SCIAMACHY NO₂ tropospheric column density data available from TEMIS
160 and IUP Bremen have been used (TEMIS, 2010; SCIAMACHY DOAS nadir data browser,
161 2010).

162 The algorithms for tropospheric NO₂ vertical column retrievals developed for SCIAMACHY and
163 OMI data have common steps. Briefly, the first step is the determination of the total amount of
164 NO₂ along the effective line of sight (Slant Column, SC) from a spectral fit to the Earth
165 reflectance spectrum by using the Differential Optical Absorption Spectroscopy (DOAS)
166 approach (Platt & Stutz, 2008). The second step is the estimation of the stratospheric contribution
167 to the SC. Finally, the remaining tropospheric SC obtained by subtraction the stratospheric
168 contribution to the total SC is converted to tropospheric vertical column by using a tropospheric
169 air mass factor (AMF), parameter that strongly depends on many factors such as surface albedo, a
170 priori NO₂ profile shapes, cloud retrieval and aerosols (Boersma et al., 2004; Martin et al., 2003;
171 Richter & Burrows, 2002).

172 The primary uncertainties in satellite NO₂ column measurements arise from the slant column
173 fitting, which defines the instrumental detection limit. The most promising areas for space-borne

174 detection of aircraft emissions are the air traffic corridors located over oceanic areas. These areas
175 can be considered as “clean zones” with associated low tropospheric NO₂ column values. In this
176 situation and for cloud free situations, the overall retrieval uncertainty is dominated by the errors
177 in the total slant column and the stratospheric component of the total slant column (Boersma et
178 al., 2004). For instance, in the case of the DOMINO TEMIS (Dutch OMI NO₂) product the
179 uncertainty in the stratospheric slant column is around 1-2 10¹⁴ molec cm⁻², much smaller than
180 the one associated to the total slant column (7 10¹⁴ molec cm⁻²) (Boersma et al., 2007). Hence the
181 detection limit of the DOMINO method is mainly determined by the random total slant column
182 error that can be averaged out by taking large numbers of observations. Similar results have been
183 obtained for SCIAMACHY observations with values ranging 0.5-1 10¹⁵ molec cm⁻² (Richter et
184 al., 2005b; Boersma et al., 2008).

185 Regarding the calculation of the stratospheric component there are different procedures to do it.
186 The Reference Sector Method (RSM) is the simplest one and is based on two principles: 1)
187 assuming the longitudinal homogeneity of the stratospheric NO₂ layers; 2) assuming the total
188 NO₂ column measured on an unpolluted zone (Pacific or Atlantic Ocean) has a negligible
189 tropospheric contribution. The difference between the measured total column and the value
190 determined in the reference sector on the same day at the same latitude is interpreted as a value of
191 tropospheric column. This assumption is considered reasonable at low and middle latitudes but at
192 high latitudes longitudinal variations are not negligible close to the Polar Vortex or during major
193 changes in stratospheric dynamics (Boersma et al., 2004; Richter & Burrows, 2002; Richter et al.,
194 2005a). Consequently, the tropospheric NO₂ column data obtained following this calculation
195 procedure could have a considerable level of uncertainty. As an example, Fig.1 shows the
196 differences between the stratospheric NO₂ vertical column obtained from 2003 to 2006 in two
197 World Meteorological Organisation’s (WMO) ground based stations of the Network for the

198 Detection of Atmospheric Composition Change (NDACC): Izaña (Canary Islands, 28.30°N
199 16.48°W) and Mauna Loa (Hawaii, 19.54°N, 155.58°W) with similar latitudes (only 8° of
200 difference) (NDACC, 2009). These results clearly show that assuming that stratospheric NO₂ is
201 zonally homogeneous and extrapolating stratospheric column data obtained over Pacific Ocean
202 sectors to other zones of similar latitude is not realistic, even for middle-low latitudes.

203 Another procedure to obtain the stratospheric component from the total column of NO₂ consists
204 of assimilating NO₂ slant columns into a global chemistry and transport model (CTM) that
205 include stratospheric chemistry and temperature and wind fields. In this approach the
206 stratospheric zonal variability is taken into account by the calculation reducing the uncertainties
207 due to stratospheric dynamics (Boersma et al., 2004; Boersma et al., 2007; Dirksen et al., 2008).

208 Another source of error in the retrieved tropospheric NO₂ columns is the use of the tropospheric
209 AMF for the conversion of the tropospheric slant column into vertical one. These errors define
210 the relative error for columns well above the detection limit (Boersma et al., 2004; Martin et al.,
211 2003; Richter & Burrows, 2002). Although this error source is the most important for polluted
212 conditions, it also contributes in cases with low tropospheric NO₂ columns. In this situation the
213 main source of error for the calculation of AMF is the uncertainty in profile shapes. The influence
214 of this inaccuracy has been estimated for different conditions. On the one hand, when NO₂ is
215 located in boundary layer the AMF uncertainty is typically 10 %, although for high latitude
216 regions it can be larger than 50% (Boersma et al 2004). On the other hand, when NO₂ is located
217 at higher altitudes, as is the case of lightning, the uncertainty could be even higher (Beirle et al.,
218 2006; Beirle et al., 2009; Boersma et al., 2005; Bucsela et al., 2010; Martin et al., 2006).

219 The use of a priori tropospheric NO₂ profile shapes obtained by CTM are currently the best
220 option, as measurements of tropospheric NO₂ profile shapes are very scarce. SCIAMACHY and
221 OMI TEMIS products use predicted profile shapes from CTM TM4 model (Dirksen et al., 2008;

222 van der A. et al., 2010) that are based on anthropogenic and natural NO_x emissions including free
223 tropospheric air traffic emissions and lightning activity.

224 The important uncertainties related to these profile shapes, such as the undersampling of the
225 model relative to the SCIAMACHY and OMI pixel size, lead to representativeness errors
226 (Boersma et al., 2007; van der A et al., 2010).

227 For cloudy scenes, the AMF uncertainties due to the presence of clouds range from approximately
228 20% for low cloud fraction to 50-80% for high cloud fraction, depending on profile shape and
229 cloud top height (Wenig et al., 2008). In general, tropospheric NO₂ vertical column information
230 available from OMI or SCIAMACHY measurements corresponds to cloud free pixels. This
231 filtering criterion is generally adopted because most of tropospheric NO₂ is located near the
232 surface and the presence of clouds above NO₂ avoids its detection. However, when tropospheric
233 NO₂ is located above clouds the higher albedo of the scene increases the sensitivity for NO₂
234 detection and therefore the AMF values. There are several works which demonstrate the ability of
235 nadir viewing satellite observations for detecting NO₂ at the top and above clouds which is
236 generally associated to biomass burning outflow or lightning activity (Beirle et al., 2006; Beirle et
237 al., 2009; Boersma et al., 2005; Martin et al., 2002; Ritcher & Burrows, 2002; van der A et al.,
238 2008). Considering that UT/LS level is generally above cloud formation height, the presence of
239 clouds in the field of view of satellite sensors could favour, in principle, the detection of aircraft
240 emissions produced in the vicinity of the tropopause.

241 Therefore and despite the uncertainty of this product, the retrieved NO₂ tropospheric vertical
242 column, for all scenes (cloud free and cloudy), could content good information about the presence
243 of aircraft emissions in the UT/LS.

244

245 **3.1.2 Emission calculation exercise**

247 Following the proposed methodology, an air traffic emission calculation exercise has been
248 performed in order to estimate a theoretical maximum NO₂ column value related to aircraft
249 emissions of a representative congested corridor. The CIC, with an on-route length of 800 km
250 approximately and a mean traffic frequency of 400 flights/day, has been selected for this purpose.
251 This corridor connects the Iberian Peninsula and Europe to the Canary Islands (Fig.2). It is
252 composed of a system of four nearly parallel routes (UN866, UA/UN873, UN858 and
253 UA/UN857) that keep constant lateral position within ± 9.25 km and vertical position within 300
254 m (for altitude level above 884 m) (BOE 95, 2002; BOE 64, 2002). These routes are not
255 uniformly spaced, having a minimum separation of 80 km (UN873-UN858), 98 km (UN866-
256 UN873) and 96 km (UN858-UN857). Although the dispersion of an aircraft emission plume is
257 governed by atmospheric stratification and wind shears, and these conditions have a high spatial
258 variability, the lateral dispersion of these kinds of plumes in the UT/LS reaches a typical
259 extension of 15 km after 10 hrs and 200 m along the vertical dimension (Schumann & Konopka,
260 1994; Schumann et al., 2000). As a consequence, these routes of the CIC can be considered
261 independent of each other in terms of spatial overlapping of their emissions.

262 Considering the most recent available data set about annual air traffic on the CIC (AENA 2007),
263 the route with the average highest annual demand is UN858 through VASTO and the highest
264 specific occupation day in this route was December 23rd with 225 aircrafts (see Fig. 3). These
265 specific data have been taken into account to calculate a scenario of NO_x maximum emissions.
266 The calculation has been done with the Advanced Emission Model III (AEM III) developed and
267 supplied by EUROCONTROL (Carrier & Jelinek, 2006; Jelinek et al., 2004). This model is a
268 state-of-the-art tool useful to assess the environmental impact of future airspace and route
269 network planning scenarios. AEM III model allows the estimation of aviation emissions (CO₂,

270 H₂O, SO_x, NO_x, HC, CO, Benzene, Volatile Organic Compounds, and Total Organic Gases) and
271 fuel burn. AEM III uses several databases (aircraft, aircraft engines, fuel burn rates and emission
272 factors) provided by external data agencies in order to assure the quality of the information
273 produced. Emission indices and fuel flow from ICAO Engine Exhaust Emissions Data Bank are
274 adapted to the atmospheric conditions at altitude levels above 3000 feet (around 915 m). This
275 information is combined with air traffic flight profiles. AEM III has been validated for fuel burn
276 and the results are close to actual trip fuel data.

277 The total NO_x emissions generated on 23rd December 2006 along the route through VASTO have
278 been calculated using as inputs in the model the real air traffic and flight data, the technical
279 characteristics of the operating aircrafts (Table 4) and the on-route distance (743.48 km). The
280 total emission estimated by the AEM III model for UN858 through VASTO route on this day was
281 5718.83 kg NO_x. This NO_x emission result has been used for estimating the maximum NO₂ mass
282 that could be generated, assuming an ideal maximum yield of NO₂ production. For this purpose,
283 the maximum ratio NO₂/NO_x reported at cruise altitudes, 40 %, (Ziereis et al., 1999) was used.
284 The result was that the maximum NO₂ mass that could be generated in VASTO on 23rd December
285 2006 would be 2287.53 kg.

286

287 **3.1.3 Cross-checking against satellite sensor detection limits and actual measurements over** 288 **CIC.**

289

290 Maximum NO₂ column values associated to the total NO₂ mass generated in VASTO on 23rd
291 December 2006 have been calculated to be cross-checked against SCIAMACHY and OMI
292 detection limits. For this calculation an unrealistic scenario characterised by the following
293 assumptions has been considered: a) constant cruise speed of each aircraft along the route, b) all

294 the emissions coming from all the aircrafts of the simulation day have been added up, c) in order
295 to favour conditions for maximum accumulation of pollutants, atmospheric diffusion has been the
296 only dispersion process taken into account and advection has not been considered. The input data
297 have been: the total NO₂ mass virtually produced (2287.53 kg), the total on-route distance
298 (743.48 km), the maximum horizontal dispersion of the global plume (15 km after ten hours) and
299 the specific ground pixel sizes at nadir position (minimum observed area) of both sensors (see
300 Table 3). The NO₂ column values obtained in our ideal scenario for SCIAMACHY and OMI
301 minimum observed area were respectively:

302 - NO₂ column (for SCIAMACHY ground pixel at nadir): $0.67 \cdot 10^{14}$ molec cm⁻²

303 - NO₂ column (for OMI ground pixel at nadir): $1.68 \cdot 10^{14}$ molec cm⁻²

304 Taking into account the assumed considerations, these NO₂ column values can be taken
305 respectively as upper bounds that could be also extrapolated to any congested corridor.

306 Obviously, the actual column values should always be much lower than the ones obtained in this
307 exercise. For any very high demand corridor, the actual conditions like the time distribution of
308 flights, the existence of chemical conversion processes producing lower NO₂/NO_x ratios than
309 40%, and of course, the actual atmospheric dispersion phenomena will reduce the actual NO₂
310 columns produced. (Beirle et al., 2009; Meijer et al., 1997; Schumann et al., 2000)

311 Nevertheless, the maximum values obtained for the NO₂ column are lower than SCIAMACHY
312 and OMI detection limits typically reported for individual NO₂ tropospheric column
313 measurements ($0.5\text{-}1 \cdot 10^{15}$ molec cm⁻²) (Boersma et al., 2007; Richter et al., 2005b) and around
314 the same order of magnitude ($0.4\text{-}2 \cdot 10^{14}$ molec cm⁻²) for temporally or spatially averaged NO₂
315 column measurements in some study cases (Boersma et al., 2004; Franke et al., 2009; Richter et
316 al., 2004).

317 It can be concluded that even under these unrealistic favourable conditions, the detection of the

318 NO₂ columns due to air traffic emissions on congested corridors like the VASTO in the CIC
319 would be difficult to achieve.

320 Regardless of this conclusion, an in-depth inspection of available daily data of NO₂ tropospheric
321 vertical column from OMI and SCIAMACHY (TEMIS 2010) for year 2006 has been done in
322 order to ascertain the presence of any NO₂ signature related to aircraft emissions over the area of
323 the CIC. The results of this analysis have been always negative. For the particular case of 23rd
324 December of 2006, unfortunately ENVISAT did not pass through the vertical of the CIC so there
325 were not available SCIAMACHY data. The available OMI daily average values of NO₂ column
326 density are shown in Fig 4.

327 The image available from the TEMIS web, corresponding to the tropospheric vertical column
328 map for cloud free pixels (cloud radiance fraction < 50%) is shown in Fig. 4 left. It can be
329 observed a lack of data for the area of the CIC due to the presence of clouds. As this cloudy
330 situation could be favourable in terms of sensitivity of the sensor cloud free & cloudy pixels were
331 analysed. Tropospheric vertical column data associated to cloudy scenes are available from the
332 DOMINO product in a daily basis from the TEMIS web page in HE5 format (TEMIS, 2010;
333 Boersma et al., 2009). DOMINO data are a pure Level 2 product, i.e. it provides geophysical
334 information for each and every ground pixel observed by the instrument without any additional
335 binning, averaging or gridding. These data were used in conjunction with ArcGis (v. 9.3) to
336 generate NO₂ tropospheric vertical column maps for all scenes (cloud free and cloudy). Mean
337 values are calculated for tropospheric vertical column data associated to areas where OMI orbits
338 overlap.

339 The results for cloud free & cloudy pixels are shown in Fig.4 (right). The scale has been selected
340 in order to differentiate among low tropospheric NO₂ column density values. Tropospheric
341 vertical column values associated to cloudy pixels in the CIC are lower than $1 \cdot 10^{15}$ molec cm⁻².

342 These values are very similar to the ones associated to other zones of the Atlantic Ocean far from
343 the CIC and therefore not affected by aircraft emissions. There is only a spatial zone of the CIC in
344 the south eastern coast of the Iberian Peninsula (35°-36°N, 7°-10°W) which presents values
345 higher than $2 \cdot 10^{15}$ molec cm⁻² ($3\text{-}10 \cdot 10^{15}$ molec cm⁻²). All these values are clearly higher than the
346 NO₂ column results obtained for the ideal scenario of this work. Despite this fact an assessment
347 of the possible sources of the NO₂ detected by OMI in the CIC has been done. For this purpose,
348 three days backward trajectories calculations have been carried out by using HYSPLIT model
349 from NOAA Air Resources Laboratory (Draxler & Rolph, 2003; Rolph, 2003). The trajectories
350 (not shown here) for altitudes ranging from surface to flight level have been calculated for the
351 time that OMI overpass the CIC on 23rd December for two geographical locations (32° N 12° W
352 ;36° N 8° W). The tropospheric vertical column values retrieved over these points were
353 representative of two different ranges $<1 \cdot 10^{15}$ molec cm⁻² and $>2 \cdot 10^{15}$ molec cm⁻² respectively.
354 The results obtained for both cases are very similar and indicate that there is a narrow layer from
355 surface to 500-1500 m altitude with air masses coming from centre and southwest of the Iberian
356 Peninsula. NO₂ present in that area the previous days was transported to the CIC for the day of
357 study. At cruise altitudes (8-12 km) the air masses arriving at those points maintain their height
358 and come from the Atlantic Ocean and the Northern USA and consequently do not contribute to
359 the NO₂ detected by the sensor.

360 It can be concluded that the upper bound obtained for NO₂ column value attributable to aircraft
361 emissions is much lower than the actual retrieved vertical columns from OMI measurements for
362 the zone of the CIC. NO₂ column values around $1 \cdot 10^{15}$ molec cm⁻² are the most frequently
363 reported not only for the CIC but also for oceanic areas far from the influence of aircraft
364 emissions. Backward trajectory calculations have indicated that tropospheric NO₂ detected by
365 OMI for 23rd December 2006 in the area of the CIC is not associated to aircraft emissions but to

366 transport processes from European continental areas.

367

368 **3.2 Analysis of SCIAMACHY and OMI data in other specific air traffic corridors**

369

370 Data from global aviation emissions inventories have been used for the identification of the most
371 suitable corridors to be studied. Data of the fuel burn for all altitudes aggregated for year 2000
372 from SAGE (System for assessing Aviation's Global Emissions v1.5) are shown in Fig. 5 (Kim et
373 al., 2005) and have been used for the selection of target corridors.

374 Finally, the NAFC has been considered the most promising corridor due to its high traffic demand
375 and emissions and its geographical situation (45°-60°N, 10°-60°W). The position of air routes in
376 this corridor is established every day taking into account the meteorological situation and are very
377 frequently grouped in the 50°N-60°N latitude band, although some routes are occasionally located
378 near 45°N (<https://pilotweb.nas.faa.gov/common/nat.html>). Although this corridor does not
379 present the highest values of traffic demand, and emissions, its situation above the Atlantic Ocean
380 connecting North America and Europe favours its possible identification from space remote
381 sensors. Moreover, its geographical distribution almost perpendicular to OMI and SCIAMACHY
382 orbits allows to be observed by these sensors several times per day. Consequently there are more
383 possibilities of detecting aircraft emissions in this corridor than in other one with similar demand
384 but situated with a different orientation, like the case of CIC.

385 Unlike continental corridors crossing Europe and North America, it can be assumed that NAFC is
386 located over a zone nearly free of significant NO₂ surface emissions except the possible
387 contribution of shipping and advection from continent. Although ship emissions can be
388 considered as potential interference for measuring NO₂ from air traffic, their maxima values are
389 produced further South than 50°N. The results from traffic emissions inventories show that NO_x

390 emissions from NAFC and the main shipping areas in the central north Atlantic ocean overlap
391 only between 45°-50°N, (Dalsoren et al., 2009; Eyring et al., 2010; Hoor et al., 2009; Kasibhatla
392 et al., 2000). As a consequence, it is expected that a possible detection of NO₂ column in this area
393 could be related essentially to the stratospheric background, aircraft emissions and lightning, this
394 last one being a minor source (Brunner et al., 1998; Choi et al., 2005; Guerova et al., 2006; Kim
395 et al., 2008; van der A et al., 2008; Richter et al., 2011).

396 A detailed inspection of yearly and monthly mean tropospheric NO₂ column density data from
397 TEMIS and IUP Bremen (TEMIS, 2010; SCIAMACHY DOAS nadir data browser, 2010) has
398 been done in order to find a pattern which corresponds to the aircraft emission spatial pattern
399 estimated from SAGE (see Fig.5). A similar attempt with GOME data has been previously
400 reported but the results were unsatisfactory (Beirle, 2004). In our case the results were also
401 negative as no signature of NO₂ was observed for areas corresponding to NAFC.

402 An example that illustrates this conclusion is shown in Fig. 6 where mean OMI tropospheric NO₂
403 vertical column density values for February and July from 2006 to 2009 are depicted. These
404 months have been selected as representative of low and high air traffic demand conditions in the
405 NAFC respectively (Wilkerson et al., 2010). DOMINO data have been used in conjunction with
406 ArcGis (v. 9.3) to obtain mean values for all scenes (cloud free and cloudy) following the same
407 methodology used for Fig.4 (right). The scale has been selected in order to differentiate low
408 tropospheric NO₂ column density values. The results obtained for both months show that the
409 retrieved NO₂ column values over the corridor are quite homogeneous (below $7 \cdot 10^{14}$ molec cm⁻²)
410 and without a marked spatial pattern of enhanced NO₂ which corresponds to the aircraft emission
411 pattern in NAFC.

412 However, it can be observed in Figure 6, the existence of NO₂ column values around $0.5 - 1 \cdot 10^{15}$
413 molec cm⁻² located below 50°N near the southern limits of the NAFC which can be related to

414 shipping traffic because of its overlap with one of the busiest shipping areas in the northern
415 Atlantic (AMVER 2011; Eyring et al., 2010; Hoor et al., 2009), as it is shown in Fig. 7.

416 These NO₂ columns are observable not only in cloud free scenes but also in cloudy ones (not
417 shown in the paper) for both averages (February and July 2006-2009). This fact has been also
418 reported for tropospheric NO₂ column data associated to one of the most congested Indian
419 maritime routes (Richter et al., 2010) showing that the reduction in NO₂ column values when
420 using all data is much less than expected from cloud shielding. Nevertheless, long range transport
421 of continental pollution and lightning can not be discarded as additional sources of the observed
422 NO₂ in that area as both events are associated to the presence of clouds (Richter et al., 2011).

423 Despite these unsatisfactory results related to the study of the monthly mean NO₂ columns for
424 NAFC area, an inspection of available OMI and SCIAMACHY NO₂ tropospheric column daily
425 mean data from 2004 to 2009 has been done. The objective was to find specific days for which
426 significant NO₂ tropospheric column densities were retrieved over the corridor. More than three
427 hundred cases were identified and twenty were selected for an in-depth analysis. In any case the
428 NO₂ could be associated to aircraft emissions in the NAFC. In very few cases the NO₂ source
429 could be assigned definitely and always the associated process was pollution transport from
430 continents. In order to illustrate this conclusion, three different and representative cases are
431 presented here.

432 The first case shown in Fig. 8 corresponds to NO₂ tropospheric vertical column data from OMI
433 for 11th February 2007. It can be observed that there is an extensive zone (50°-60°N, 15°-40°W)
434 in which the NO₂ column values are $>2 \cdot 10^{15}$ molec cm⁻². To determine the possible source of the
435 NO₂ presented in that area, three days backward trajectories calculations have been carried out by
436 using HYSPLIT model. The trajectories have been calculated for the time that OMI over passed
437 the zone of interest and for several altitudes (from surface to flight altitudes). The results obtained

438 at a representative point (58°N 30°W) of the NO₂ enriched area for 11th February 2007 are shown
439 in Fig.9. There is a wide layer from 500 m to 3500 m altitude with air masses coming from
440 northern European countries. It can be observed that NO₂ was generated in the continent during
441 the previous days and transported to this area for the selected day. For higher altitudes the origin
442 of the air masses is completely disconnected from the continent. At flight altitudes the air masses
443 arriving at that point come from Canada and Greenland and consequently do not contribute to the
444 NO₂ observed in the column measurement.

445 Similar results have been obtained for areas of the NAFC near North America. In the example
446 shown in Fig. 10 corresponding to 23rd July 2006, there is a zone overlapping the corridor with
447 NO₂ column values higher than the mean level found in the surrounding oceanic areas. The
448 continuity of the column values observed from the continent would indicate again that there is a
449 transport process involved. In order to confirm this hypothesis backward trajectories calculations
450 have been done for different points of this area. The results obtained for the geographical location
451 45°N 42°W are shown in Fig. 11 Backward trajectories for the lower altitudes (500-3500 m)
452 point out a well defined transport of air masses coming from the north-eastern area of USA. The
453 trajectories indicate that NO₂ produced in 21st July at surface level over the continent reached the
454 point of interest at 23rd July. The results for altitudes between 4000 and 8000 m indicate that
455 probably there is no contribution of NO₂ coming from surface levels of northern and central USA
456 because the altitudes of the air mass trajectories are higher than the associated mixed layer heights
457 (not shown). Considering the uplift process undergone by trajectories ending in the layer between
458 8500-10000 m, a probable contribution to the NO₂ column values due to air masses coming from
459 surface levels of southern USA areas could also exist. For altitudes up to 12000m the air masses
460 come from zones free of NO₂ at the correspondent altitudes.

461 These two cases are examples of a phenomenon that occurs frequently in the zone associated to

462 the NAFC and suggest that the observed NO₂ in this corridor is mainly transported from the
463 continent (Europe or North America).

464 Other different patterns of NO₂ column values for the corridor area have been identified in OMI
465 and SCIAMACHY data. A significant example of these other situations is shown in Fig.12. In
466 this case NO₂ tropospheric column values $>2 \cdot 10^{15}$ molec cm⁻² cover a wide area in nearly the
467 whole corridor and this spatial pattern could be related somehow to the presence of aircraft
468 emissions. In this particular case two geographical points have been selected to calculate
469 backward trajectories. Fig. 13 and 14 show the results for 60°N 40°W and 55°N 20°W
470 geographical points respectively. For 60°N 40°W, backward trajectories from 500 m to 5000 m
471 indicate that air masses came from northern Canada and near polar zones giving no apportion of
472 NO₂. However, air masses from surface levels located in eastern USA on 18th-19th January were
473 uplifted to a layer between 6000 m and 7000 m during 19-20th and transported to the point of
474 interest. The study of global maps (not shown in the text) of mean sea level pressure for 18th, 19th
475 and 20th January 2009 obtained from the Ready Web server of the Air Resources Laboratory from
476 NOAA (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, USA)
477 (<http://ready.arl.noaa.gov/ready2-bin/metmap1a.pl>) allows to explain this transport process. These
478 maps show the presence of a persistent low pressure system located southern Greenland and a
479 high pressure system over the eastern coast of USA during 18-19th producing a mixed layer height
480 around 1000 m keeping most of pollutants located near surface. The high pressures over this area
481 were lowering during 19th and 20th January developing a new low pressure system that became
482 connected with the one near Greenland. This fact produced the uplift and transport of pollutants
483 from continental surface up to higher altitudes in oceanic areas. In these conditions, the NO₂
484 content of these masses could contribute to the observed NO₂ column values. On the contrary, the
485 trajectories of 7500-12000 m keep their altitude levels over passing Canada and polar zones and

486 do not contribute to the enhancement of the NO₂ column values in NAFC. Concerning the second
487 test point presented in Fig.14, the exploration of backward trajectories calculations from surface
488 to flight levels gave similar conclusions. The results for 500 up to 5000 m altitude indicate that
489 Canada and polar areas are the origin of the air masses. For the altitude range 7000-12000 m, only
490 a thin layer between 6000 to 6500 m could transport part of the NO₂ generated at surface level
491 near the east coast of USA to the point of interest. The rest of calculated trajectories keep their
492 altitude in a roughly constant value and cover an extensive area from north-south to north of the
493 middle east of North America.

494 These last examples support again the conclusion that transport from continental source areas is
495 one of the most probable phenomena related to the increment of NO₂ column levels observed in
496 the NAFC. Nevertheless, it has to be mentioned that besides the other sources previously
497 mentioned (shipping and lightning) the observed NO₂ column values in this corridor could be due
498 to other origin. Considering the vicinity of the Arctic polar vortex, the inflow of polar air masses
499 could produce false NO₂ enhancements due to possible artifacts of the stratospheric assimilation,
500 especially in wintertime.

501

502 **4. Conclusions**

503

504 Results from previous research projects show that aircraft emissions can produce significant
505 increases in the concentration of NO₂ at corridor altitudes in atmospheric regions affected by
506 heavy air traffic. This fact opens the possibility of using this gaseous compound as tracer for
507 detecting air traffic emissions in tropospheric column data obtained by space remote sensing.
508 In this work Canary Island Corridor (CIC) has been taken as representative of high demand
509 corridors. Actual emission data corresponding to maximum demand circumstances in this

510 corridor have been used to estimate upper limits for the associated NO₂ column values. This
511 exercise has been done assuming unrealistic atmospheric dispersive conditions to allow the
512 development of maximum NO₂ concentration in the corridor. Under these constraints, upper
513 bounds for NO₂ columns have been obtained ($0.7 \cdot 10^{14}$ molec cm⁻² for SCIAMACHY and $1.7 \cdot 10^{14}$
514 molec cm⁻² for OMI). These values are lower than the typical reported SCIAMACHY/OMI
515 detection limits for individual NO₂ tropospheric column measurements ($0.5\text{-}1 \cdot 10^{15}$ molec cm⁻²)
516 and similar to the limits obtained in some studies for temporally or spatially averaged NO₂
517 column measurements ($0.4\text{-}2 \cdot 10^{14}$ molec cm⁻²). Obviously, the real physico-chemical atmospheric
518 dynamics is more likely to be considerable for reducing the actual NO₂ concentrations in the
519 UT/LS with respect to the calculated maximum quantities. This conclusion can be extrapolated to
520 air traffic emissions in any oceanic corridor.

521 This fact has been confirmed from the analysis of available yearly, monthly or daily mean
522 tropospheric NO₂ column data obtained for CIC and NAFC corridors. No spatial or temporal
523 pattern related to aircraft emissions have been observed in these oceanic corridors. The
524 background tropospheric NO₂ column values ($\sim 2.5\text{-}7.5 \cdot 10^{14}$ molec cm⁻² for monthly mean)
525 retrieved for these oceanic areas are clearly higher than those NO₂ column upper bounds obtained
526 in the emission calculation exercise with CIC data and ideal atmospheric scenario.

527 Other difficulties for remote sensing of NO₂ related to aircraft activity are intrinsically linked to
528 its presence in the stratosphere or to the existence of multiple potential anthropogenic and natural
529 tropospheric sources. For instance, the influence on the NO₂ column values retrieved for different
530 areas of the NAFC due to long range transport of pollutants from continents and to shipping
531 emissions has been documented in this work. Moreover, the calculation procedures used for
532 retrieving both the NO₂ stratospheric and tropospheric columns also introduce significant errors
533 in these products. These errors are even higher for cloudy scenes which are in principle the most

534 suitable for the detection of NO₂ associated to aircraft emissions at cruise levels.

535 As a consequence of all these circumstances, detecting and quantifying the low NO₂ column
536 density values associated to air traffic in the UT/LS is a very challenging task for space remote
537 sensing.

538

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540

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557

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