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INFORMATION BOX

2022 NOAA UV-Vis-NIR Workshop

What: Stakeholders and end users with diverse backgrounds in atmospheric science gathered to provide the state of the science and user needs for operational atmospheric composition measurements to inform future NOAA Low Earth Orbit satellite missions.

When: 14-15 June 2022

Where: Virtual (<https://cpo.noaa.gov/News/ArtMID/7875/ArticleID/2541/UV-VIS-NIR-Workshop>)

KEYWORDS

Satellite observations; atmospheric composition; air pollution; aerosols/particulates; air quality and health; ozone; trace gases.

1. Introduction

The US National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) has a long history of satellite observations, including for atmospheric composition. Stratospheric ozone measurements have been made by NOAA since the 1980s and, over the years, NOAA’s weather satellites have added other atmospheric composition capabilities, particularly volcanic ash, dust, smoke aerosols, and limited tropospheric trace gas measurements (e.g., Zhang et al. 2022; Nalli et al. 2020; Shepherd et al. 2020; Wells et al. 2022; Li et al. 2015). These products already support a number of applications, especially timely information about aerosols and wildfire smoke observations provided through AerosolWatch.

Expanding its spaceborne atmospheric composition focus, NOAA has made plans for a dedicated ultraviolet-visible (UV-Vis) instrument aboard its next-generation geostationary constellation, GeoXO, expected to launch in the 2030s. As NOAA begins planning for the next generation of low Earth orbit (LEO) satellites, it is users’ input on the needs for LEO satellite data in the 2040s and beyond, when NOAA’s current operational Joint Polar Satellite System (JPSS) series of satellites will reach end of life. The (virtual) workshop that took place on June 14-15, 2022, discussed applications that require atmospheric composition products from space-based ultraviolet (UV), Visible (Vis), and Near-Infrared (NIR) measurements.

61 **2. Workshop structure and atmospheric composition applications overview**

62 The workshop consisted of two half-days of virtual presentations and discussion.
63 Presentations spanned a range of applications: the public health impacts of poor air quality
64 and environmental justice; greenhouse gas measuring, monitoring, reporting and verification
65 (GHG MMRV); stratospheric ozone monitoring; and various applications of satellite
66 observations to improve models, including data assimilation in global Earth System models.
67 Presentations ranged in scope from large-scale, long-term improvements to NOAA's
68 capabilities in Earth System modeling to tracking and forecasting specific events, such as the
69 impact of western wildfires on air quality in Connecticut and the effects of COVID-19
70 restrictions on air quality.

71 The NOAA JPSS Program opened the workshop and provided the charge for gathering
72 user requirements, with encouragement to consider NOAA's international partnerships with
73 the European Organisation for the Exploitation of Meteorological Satellites (EUMETSAT)
74 and Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA) to deliver LEO measurements for NOAA
75 applications. In this collaborative context, future NOAA LEO satellite data users can expect a
76 more disaggregated architecture, wherein the approach of flying multiple sensors on a single
77 spacecraft would be replaced by individual spacecraft dedicated to individual instruments for
78 greater flexibility and agility within a constellation of satellites. The workshop also
79 encouraged discussion on GEO-LEO synergies, consideration of commercial data, and other
80 opportunities that might emerge in the future.

81 The first session started with a historical overview of UV-Vis-NIR atmospheric
82 composition measurements, including the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI), the
83 TROPOspheric Monitoring Instrument (TROPOMI), Orbiting Carbon Observatory (OCO)-2
84 and -3, GOME, SCIAMACHY, and the Greenhouse Gases Observing Satellite (GOSAT).
85 Examples of available products included ozone, sulfur dioxide (SO₂), formaldehyde, nitrogen
86 dioxide (NO₂), and GHGs, and their applications in recent years, such as the use of OMI NO₂
87 data for air quality monitoring.

88 The second keynote presentation highlighted NOAA's National Air Quality Forecasting
89 Capability (NAQFC), which currently provides 72-hr forecast guidance for ozone, fine
90 particulate matter (PM_{2.5}), smoke, and dust. The NAQFC is being enhanced to ingest satellite
91 NO₂ and aerosol optical depth (AOD) data for improved emissions inventories and better

92 forecast accuracy. Timely delivery of consistent data was highlighted as critical for
93 operational forecasting applications.

94 The third keynote presentation focused on the needs for GHG monitoring as part of an
95 integrated urban monitoring system to complement current ground-based and aircraft
96 measurements. The other two keynote presentations by public health experts highlighted the
97 capabilities of satellite data to both improve the understanding of pollution exposure on
98 human health and address environmental injustice. Existing satellite data (particularly NO₂
99 from TROPOMI) demonstrate the unequal distribution of air pollution in US cities. For
100 example, satellite data show that disparities in NO₂-attributable pediatric asthma are
101 widening. Future operational satellite measurements could provide detailed, timely, high-
102 resolution information about air pollution at the census tract scale, potentially supporting
103 future science-based decisions to lower air pollution exposure

104 **3. Current measurement capabilities**

105 Subsequent sessions of the workshop, summarized below, focused on particular products
106 and applications, including the need for expanding the set of retrieved species, particularly
107 ammonia and volatile organic compounds (VOCs).

108 *3.1 Air quality impacts of trace gases*

109 Currently, tropospheric column retrievals of trace gases that are criteria pollutants
110 impacting air quality are available from a number of LEO instruments, e.g. OMI, TROPOMI,
111 and the Ozone Mapping and Profiler Suite (OMPS). Applications of these data include air
112 quality forecasting, tracking power plant and wildfire smoke plumes, addressing urban air
113 quality challenges, and identifying and quantifying emissions. Operational air quality
114 forecasting at global and regional scales using these satellite products is taking place at the
115 Copernicus Atmosphere Monitoring Service (CAMS), and similar capabilities are emerging
116 at the National Weather Service.

117 NOAA and the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) use similar satellite data for
118 air quality model evaluation. The combination of methane (CH₄), carbon dioxide (CO₂),
119 carbon monoxide (CO), and NO₂ retrievals can improve confidence in emissions inventories
120 and model performance, and together these data products would be of use in future air quality
121 management tools. EPA is moving towards an integrated observing system of trace gases
122 observed in the UV/Vis (i.e., NO₂ and formaldehyde) combining surface and satellite

123 measurements of these species. A similar integrated observing system could be envisioned
124 for gases detectable in the NIR spectrum such as CO, CO₂, and CH₄. The combined suite of
125 longer- and shorter-lived trace gas retrievals and measurement scales would enhance capacity
126 to assess air quality models and emission inventories.

127 The ability to retrieve additional trace gases (e.g., ethane, isoprene, and ammonia) in the
128 thermal IR along with those measured in the UV-Vis-NIR region would be extremely useful
129 for air quality applications, including source apportionment analysis (e.g. for oil/natural gas
130 extraction, biogenic, and agricultural sources). High-resolution near and thermal IR
131 observations on LEO platforms would greatly complement the UV-Vis instruments on
132 current and planned GEO platforms.

133 COVID-19 related lockdowns and the associated reduction in human activity showed the
134 need for near-real-time emission estimates, especially for use in air quality forecasts. The
135 emissions discussed were those from the transportation sector, oil & natural gas production
136 and distribution, and the use of volatile chemical products in personal care, cleaning,
137 construction, and manufacturing. NO₂, CO₂, CH₄, and VOCs (e.g., formaldehyde and
138 glyoxal) satellite products would be of most value for quantifying those emission changes.

139 Another specific example highlighting the need for timely satellite products is air
140 pollution exposure inequalities, such as urban NO₂. Typically this type of work relies on the
141 time averaging of LEO datasets to produce higher spatial resolution products. However,
142 coarser products at daily resolution can still provide useful assessments of the inequalities
143 and temporal variations in pollution distributions. Daily satellite observations capture the
144 degree of intra-urban pollution inequalities, provided at least 30-60% of the city is covered to
145 ensure sufficient sampling of population groups (Dressel et al. 2022).

146 Even more serious air pollution problems are seen globally, in cities without the network
147 of ground-based measurements available in US cities. LEO observations provide the ability
148 to study and intercompare air pollution in the world's urban areas, especially the growing
149 megacities on the African continent that are not covered by the current plans for GEO
150 constellations.

151 Although neither measured routinely nor required operationally so far, VOCs are
152 important species for identifying chemical processes that lead to the formation of ozone and
153 aerosols, and VOCs can help in identifying the sources of air pollution (e.g. anthropogenic vs.
154 biogenic). One such example is tracking emissions from oil & gas production. Satellite NO₂

155 products, such as from OMI or TROPOMI, can track changes in activity in oil & gas
156 producing basins on timescales of days, seasons, and years (Dix et al. 2020). Satellite CH₄
157 retrievals, measured most recently by TROPOMI, can help identify methane leaks and hot
158 spots of drilling and oil & gas production activity (de Gouw et al. 2020). Meanwhile, VOCs
159 such as formaldehyde, observable from OMPS and TROPOMI, are a potentially useful proxy
160 for other hydrocarbons co-emitted during the oil & gas production process and that produce
161 formaldehyde in the atmosphere. Ideally, formaldehyde retrievals would continue on
162 NOAA's post-JPSS LEO platforms.

163 Ozone is produced in the atmosphere through reactions of many of the emitted species
164 discussed above. Ground-level ozone is one of six criteria pollutants for which the EPA sets
165 National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) to protect against human health and
166 welfare effects. While monitoring networks generally measure surface-level ozone, these
167 networks are spatially sparse. Retrieving near-surface ozone from Vis LEO observations
168 would be extremely valuable for improving model performance and assessing the impacts of
169 potential emissions control strategies, as well as for monitoring in regions with inaccurate
170 emission inventories and noticeable lack of measurements (i.e. the tropics).

171 The retrieved species discussed in this section would ideally feed into an integrated data
172 assimilation system, although significant challenges to multi-species chemical data
173 assimilation remain.

174 *3.2 Stratospheric ozone*

175 Stratospheric ozone monitoring using satellites has been a long-term, reliable, and
176 accurate way to assess the status of the ozone hole recovery. Globally, stratospheric ozone
177 and climate change are coupled in complex ways, requiring continuous monitoring to detect
178 long-term trends. For these reasons, data from multiple LEO satellite missions are needed,
179 since no single instrument will cover the period of stratospheric ozone depletion and
180 recovery, while anthropogenically-driven climate change trends extend over decades.

181 One of the desired future improvements over current satellite capabilities includes an
182 ozone profiling capability in both the troposphere and stratosphere. This could be
183 accomplished with increased vertical resolution, particularly by including both nadir and limb
184 measurement capabilities. Additionally, a constellation of small satellite instruments could
185 allow for increased sampling coverage and/or a look at diurnal capabilities.

186 3.3 *Aerosols*

187 Satellite aerosol products are some of the many operational atmospheric composition
188 products provided by NOAA. As noted by keynote speakers, these products have proven to
189 be very useful for the prediction of air quality, especially smoke emitted from wildfires.
190 NOAA has a mandate to provide forecast guidance for concentrations of PM_{2.5} near the
191 Earth's surface across the US. Because of the detrimental impacts of PM_{2.5} on human health,
192 the EPA has established NAAQS for PM_{2.5} which includes a daily standard set at a 24-hr
193 average concentration of 35 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. NOAA provides hourly forecast guidance of surface
194 PM_{2.5} over a 72-hr time period. The forecast guidance is, in turn, used by state and local air
195 quality forecasters to issue Air Quality Index forecasts and issue Air Quality Alerts.

196 Speakers in the aerosol session identified emissions of aerosols and their precursors, both
197 anthropogenic and natural, as critical inputs to the global and regional air quality forecast
198 models. This input can be provided to the models in near real time. Additionally, satellite
199 derived AOD or UV-Vis-NIR reflectances are assimilated into models to adjust aerosol
200 concentrations and provide initial conditions for air quality forecasts.

201 While current NOAA operational satellites produce near-real-time information on
202 biomass burning emissions sources and AOD, the adjustment of aerosol species in current
203 data assimilation schemes can be challenging due to limited information content of Vis-NIR
204 passive sensors and the lack of well-calibrated, vertically-resolved extinction profiles from
205 elastic backscatter lidars. Though techniques to derive aerosol layer height using oxygen
206 absorption bands in the visible are emerging, the full vertical profile is not well resolved (Xu
207 et al. 2017). Having a UV-Vis-NIR sensor on operational satellites allows for the expansion
208 of the current capabilities, allowing for better constraints on aerosol speciation, vertical
209 structure, and absorbing/scattering properties. These improvements, in turn, will advance
210 aerosol data assimilation in atmospheric composition models, leading to better predictions of
211 surface PM_{2.5} and more accurate characterization of aerosol impacts on radiation, clouds, and
212 precipitation. Speakers showed case studies where the knowledge of aerosol composition
213 and height could advance AOD data assimilation in air quality models to improve PM_{2.5}
214 predictions.

215 3.4 *Greenhouse gases (CO₂ and CH₄)*

216 NOAA's global surface network measuring GHGs is relatively sparse and could be
217 complemented by routine and reliable satellite observations with high spatial and temporal
218 coverage, such as from future NOAA operational satellites. To track changes in GHG
219 emissions and distinguish very small biosphere and fossil fuel signals requires high accuracy
220 and precision over time scales of decades. For surface carbon flux estimates, the key
221 instrument feature is spectral coverage in the NIR regions between 0.75 and 3 μm , which is
222 dominated by reflected sunlight. Measurements of GHGs at wavelengths longer than 3 μm ,
223 where the Earth's thermal emissions dominate, have little sensitivity near the surface. For
224 CH_4 , the 1.65 μm band may yield more accurate retrievals as compared to its 2.3 μm band, by
225 references to CO_2 absorption that occurs at close wavelengths, thereby limiting interferences
226 from aerosols, clouds, and surface reflectance.

227 NOAA has looked to existing satellite measurements provided by other agencies, such as
228 those from the NASA OCO-2 to evaluate its CarbonTracker data assimilation system. NOAA
229 provides validation of those satellite datasets through its various in-situ measurements made
230 routinely (e.g. bi-weekly aircraft observations, AirCore) and in targeted field campaigns.
231 NOAA's AirCore in particular has been useful in validating existing CO_2 products from the
232 JPSS Cross-Track Infrared Sound (CrIS) instrument (Nalli et al. 2020). NOAA also
233 cooperates with other institutions carrying out ground-based remote-sensing measurements of
234 GHGs (e.g. the Total Carbon Column Observing Network) that can provide a link between
235 the in-situ observations and satellite retrievals. NOAA's plans for returnable gliders and
236 commercial aircraft measurements offer the promise of expanded validation opportunities for
237 its future space-based GHG capabilities.

238 In addition to existing instruments deployed by NASA, NOAA, and their European and
239 Asian partners, several NGO and private sector entities have focused on delivering space-
240 borne GHG measurements, particularly of methane (e.g., GHGSat, MethaneSat). Carbon
241 Mapper was the primary example discussed at the workshop, which delivers CH_4 and CO_2
242 point-source data that can both inform GHG emission inventories for stock-takes and trend
243 analyses and provide direct GHG mitigation guidance. While informing large-scale
244 inventories is an important use of GHG monitoring data, a large fraction of anthropogenic
245 methane emissions come from a relatively small number of sources. Thus, high-resolution
246 and low-latency data are critical in enabling rapid targeted mitigation of CH_4 emissions.

247 Greater availability of satellite GHG data could enable current and future global data
248 assimilation efforts (e.g. with OCO-2, GHGSat, TROPOMI), with the goal of improving the
249 understanding of human emissions and the natural exchange of CO₂ between the land, ocean,
250 and atmosphere. Data assimilation also provides the ability to track global and regional
251 changes in GHG concentrations as well as to quantify radiative forcing and temperature
252 impacts. As data availability increases, merging multiple satellites should provide a more
253 complete picture of global and regional carbon fluxes. NASA plans to include CO₂ and CH₄
254 state estimation in its upcoming Reanalysis of the 21st Century (R21C), and its evaluations of
255 assimilations of TROPOMI and CrIS retrievals for CH₄ are ongoing. NOAA, whose
256 CarbonTracker data assimilation system currently delivers CO₂ and CH₄ global and regional
257 fluxes, plans to connect these capabilities with its operational Unified Forecast System. As
258 demand for carbon fluxes and concentrations grow, especially for MMRV purposes, it will be
259 important to expand cyberinfrastructure and data services to support easier access and greater
260 interoperability of CO₂ flux and concentration products.

261 **4. Future instrument recommendations**

262 Each of the above applications comes with a specific set of observational requirements,
263 some of which are being addressed with current capabilities that should be continued in post-
264 JPSS LEO constellations. New capabilities should be added as well. Of particular importance
265 for improving NOAA's operational capabilities are greater spectral coverage that includes the
266 entire Vis-NIR region, higher spectral resolution, and higher spatial resolution.

267 Recent NOAA plans for GeoXO, GOES-R's future replacement, have already
268 demonstrated the need for and value of space-based atmospheric composition products.
269 While NOAA's GEO measurements will add tremendous value with their high temporal
270 resolution over much of North America, global coverage of atmospheric composition will
271 still need to be delivered from LEO. LEO observations, especially in the afternoon orbit, will
272 complement morning-orbit instruments deployed by European and Asian partners and those
273 planned by the private sector, especially for GHGs (e.g. MethaneSAT).

274 NOAA is uniquely positioned within the US Government to deliver continuous and
275 reliable operational data. Future NOAA LEO observations should provide information on
276 global air quality, near-real-time estimates of GHG fluxes, surface gas and aerosol pollutants,
277 and monitoring of stratospheric ozone. To that end, it will be important to enhance NOAA's

278 current LEO capabilities with an instrument similar to TROPOMI that is capable of
279 measuring at high spatial and spectral resolution across the UV-Vis-NIR spectral ranges.

280 The workshop highlighted the many challenges of combining satellite and in situ data sets
281 and the ongoing needs for robust satellite validation. NOAA's ground and aircraft-based
282 measurements are well positioned to provide all manner of validation for future space-based
283 observations (e.g., Nalli et al. 2020; Ciren and Kondragunta 2022). Presenters and
284 participants agreed that U.S.-based measurement assets for validation continue to improve
285 and that an integrated approach across the agencies involved in air quality would aid in
286 improving validation resources (CEOS 2019).

287 **5. Final remarks**

288 NOAA's LEO satellites have been and will continue to be a reliable source of operational
289 data for decades, especially for weather forecasting, monitoring of the stratospheric ozone
290 hole recovery, and critical global hazards like the Pinatubo eruption or the 2020 Australian
291 fires. As technology for measuring atmospheric composition from space matures and the
292 demand for such information grows, NOAA should be expected to continue and expand the
293 delivery of atmospheric composition information with the next generation of its LEO
294 satellites. This workshop is a first step in NOAA's planning process by engaging the broader
295 community in refining the requirements for future LEO atmospheric composition capabilities
296 and working with users to maximally exploit these products when they become available.

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