

Expanding the Geostationary Atmospheric Composition Constellation: Towards Global Coverage

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1. Executive Summary

This white paper proposes a collaborative global framework to expand geostationary (GEO) atmospheric composition monitoring to populated, undermonitored areas facing severe environmental threats. Currently, significant observational gaps exist across Africa, parts of Latin America and the Caribbean, the Pacific Islands, most of Asia (excluding Japan and South Korea), and Oceania (including Australia and New Zealand).

Expanding coverage to these regions is critical due to rapid population growth and urbanization. Future megacities will concentrate populations, intensify environmental pressures, and alter land use. While high-income countries benefit from extensive ground monitoring, this resource is severely lacking in low- and middle-income nations. Without robust monitoring systems, epidemiologists cannot track health impacts, and policymakers lack the real-world observations required to evaluate pollution exposure and develop effective mitigation strategies.

To complement the proposed satellite expansion, this paper also highlights the need to strengthen existing ground-based networks. By identifying coverage gaps, assessing data quality, promoting capacity building, standardizing methodologies, and enforcing quality control, the global community can enable harmonized data utilization for model validation and provide reliable datasets to inform data-based policies in developing countries. This harmonized data will also benefit global air quality models improving the skill of forecast models in developed countries. GEO satellite data is uniquely suited to fill these monitoring gaps. While Low Earth Orbit (LEO) satellites provide daily global data and ground stations capture high-frequency local conditions, GEO sensors offer a synoptic view of the daytime diurnal cycle. Their hourly measurements capture the rapid atmospheric composition changes driven by shifting emissions, transport, and chemical reactions, comprehensively covering areas between and without ground stations. This proposed expansion builds upon a highly successful foundation of existing satellite observations, which already form the cornerstone for monitoring air pollution, characterizing emission trends, and improving atmospheric chemistry forecasting. Today, data assimilation successfully combines satellite and ground-based observations with model predictions to produce corrected analyses that feed critical environmental information services.

Presently, the ‘GeoAQ Constellation’ operates three UV-visible-near infrared spectrometers (GEMS on GEO-Kompsat-2B, TEMPO on Intelsat 40e, and Copernicus Sentinel-4 on MTG-S1) to observe ozone (O₃), nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), formaldehyde (HCHO), and sulfur dioxide (SO₂) (CEOS, 2011, 2019). This white paper proposes to expand the GeoAQ Constellation by strategically adding four geostationary satellites over Africa, South America, the Middle East and India, and Oceania.

2. Introduction

Air quality, determined by the concentration of tropospheric pollutants near the surface, profoundly impacts human health and the global environment. The most critical air pollutants, particulate matter (PM), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), sulfur dioxide (SO₂), volatile organic compounds (VOCs), ozone (O₃), ammonia (NH₃), carbon monoxide (CO), and lead (Pb), originate from a complex mix of natural and anthropogenic sources. PM is a heterogeneous mixture of organic compounds, sulfates, nitrates, metals, black carbon, and biological materials that forms directly from combustion and mechanical processes, or secondarily through atmospheric reactions. Anthropogenic emissions, such as NO_x from high-temperature fuel combustion, SO₂ from sulfur-containing fuels, VOCs from industrial and household activities, and NH₃ from agriculture, combine with natural emissions like biogenic VOCs from vegetation,

volcanic SO₂, and NO_x from soils and lightning. Together, these precursors drive the photochemical formation of secondary pollutants like O₃, while CO serves as a primary indicator of incomplete combustion from biomass burning.

While developed nations have successfully reduced pollutants through strict regulations (<https://gispub.epa.gov/air/trendsreport/2024/#welcome>), and countries like China have seen significant drops over the last decade (Science, 2026), pollution from natural and anthropogenic sources still dominates much of the world. In India, for example, winter smog is severely exacerbated by crop residue burning combined with trapped urban emissions (Kajino et al., 2025; Kaskaoutis et al., 2014). In the Southern Hemisphere, Africa and Southeast Asia experience consistent seasonal fires and dust, whereas South American and Australian wildfires are extreme and episodic. The rapid emergence of megacities in these Southern regions urgently warrants continuous monitoring and policy development.

To address this global pollution grand challenge, the science of atmospheric composition monitoring has matured significantly. Space-based observation evolved from Low Earth Orbit (LEO) instruments like GOME and SCIAMACHY, which required several days for global coverage, to the high-resolution, daily capabilities of modern sensors. Historical milestones include the Tropospheric Ozone Residual method, which pioneered satellite-based ozone quantification from 1979 to 2005 (Gaudel et al., 2018), and GOME's profile retrievals, which, combined with OMI, created near-continuous O₃ records (Gaudel et al., 2018). NASA further advanced the field by combining OMI and MLS data via assimilation (Ziemke et al., 2011). Today, Sentinel-5P TROPOMI is revolutionizing air quality monitoring. Its tropospheric NO₂ retrievals are widely used for emissions tracking and forecast improvement

(<https://atmosphere.copernicus.eu/>), as well as assessing impacts like the COVID-19 lockdowns (Levelt et al., 2022). Furthermore, thermal infrared (TIR) observations from IASI and CrIS have enabled the measurement of NH₃ (Cao et al., 2022; Whitburn et al., 2016), peroxyacetyl nitrate (Payne et al., 2022), isoprene (Wells et al., 2020), and other VOCs (Franco et al., 2022; Wells et al., 2025).

Historically, the CEOS Atmospheric Composition Virtual Constellation (AC-VC) relied on LEO missions for daily global observations, leaving a glaring gap in our ability to observe pollutants diurnally. Geostationary (GEO) instruments like GEMS, TEMPO, and Sentinel-4 (which adds NH₃, CO, and IR-absorbing VOC capabilities) now fill this gap, capturing diurnal variations driven by time-dependent emissions like rush-hour traffic and daytime photochemistry.

However, the current GeoAQ Constellation only covers the Northern Hemisphere where air quality policies are already mature (Millet et al., 2024), underscoring the need for an expanded GeoAQ Constellation capable of continuous, diurnally resolved global coverage.

Moving forward, LEO and GEO capabilities will operate in synergy. The LEO follow-on to TROPOMI, Sentinel-5/UVNS, launched in August 2025. Orbiting beneath the GeoAQ Constellation, Sentinel-5 and Sentinel-5P measure at 9:30 AM and 1:30 PM respectively, serving as vital transfer standards for cross-calibrating GEO sensors at different times. As a second generation of GeoAQ Constellation sensors approaches, synergistic retrievals combining imagers and spectrometers will become the norm. For example, using VIIRS to inform TROPOMI methane algorithms about cloud cover enhances the derived air quality data.

Additionally, fusing TIR and UV/VIS observations greatly improves retrieval sensitivity in the lower troposphere. Studies have shown that combining IASI and GOME-2 increases the degrees of freedom for lowermost tropospheric ozone detection (Cuesta et al., 2013), while multispectral synergy enhances the detection of boundary layer pollution (Fu et al., 2018). MOPITT also utilizes this combination, merging TIR profile data with near-infrared column information to boost sensitivity to near-surface CO, particularly in areas with low thermal contrast (Worden et al., 2010). Ultimately, this integrated constellation of LEO and GEO sensors supports a host of

advanced applications, from deriving hourly top-down anthropogenic emissions to real-time hazards monitoring and species-specific exposure studies.

3. The Consequence: Where Measurement Gaps Exist and Their Impact

In the Northern Hemisphere, geostationary satellites (Figure 1) have unequivocally proven the transformative value of continuous, high-temporal-resolution atmospheric monitoring. Transitioning from daily to hourly surface PM_{2.5} estimates, such as those derived from the GOES Advanced Baseline Imager (Zhang et al., 2022), has revolutionized air quality nowcasting, providing alerts that could save an average of 1,200 lives and \$13 billion in healthcare costs annually (O'Dell et al., 2024).

High-resolution NO₂ observations from instruments like TEMPO effectively capture complex diurnal cycles driven by morning traffic, industrial activity, and boundary layer dynamics (Fioletov et al., 2025; Nawaz et al., 2025; Zhang et al., 2025). These continuous daytime scans allow for unprecedented spatial fidelity in estimating hourly NO_x emissions (Sun et al., 2025) and reveal critical shifts in metropolitan ozone production, which frequently moves from NO_x-saturated regimes in the morning to NO_x-limited regimes in the afternoon (Jin et al., 2025). Assimilating this hourly NO₂ data into chemical transport models demonstrably reduces biases in emission inventories and improves regional ozone forecasting (Hsu et al., 2026). Furthermore, the data is robust enough to capture sharp gradients over challenging wintertime snowscapes when proper corrections are applied (Griffin et al., 2026), and has proven vital for identifying highly polluted, localized hotspots that currently lack ground sensors (Siu et al., 2025). Beyond NO₂, TEMPO expands our monitoring capabilities to track the diurnal variability of formaldehyde (HCHO), though continuous ground-based validation remains necessary (Ortega et al., 2026), and provides high-cadence SO₂ measurements for the rapid hazard mitigation of anthropogenic and volcanic plumes (Li et al., 2025). Maximizing these capabilities, however, requires rigorous calibration; studies evaluating TEMPO and TROPOMI alongside WRF-Chem models highlight that failing to account for cloudy conditions leads to systematic underestimations of NO₂ (Goldberg et al., 2025).

Despite these remarkable advances in the Northern Hemisphere, severe observational gaps persist in the Southern Hemisphere (SH). Currently, there are no geostationary UV/VIS satellites capable of measuring the diurnal cycles of NO₂, SO₂, VOCs, and aerosol optical depth (AOD) over highly populated regions outside the USA, Europe, and parts of Asia. For example, Low Earth Orbit (LEO) satellites, even with three VIIRS instruments available, cannot capture the full diurnal variation of smoke from Amazonian fires. This blind spot is alarming given the unprecedented population growth in the SH, a severe lack of ground-based measurements, and the expectation that global emissions will increasingly shift southward.

This geographic gap is compounded by technological and instrumental limitations over the global South. Existing geostationary infrared (IR) sounders like IRS (covering Africa), IASI, and CrIS were built primarily for meteorology, meaning their air quality products are not an operational priority. While they suffer from limited near-surface sensitivity (Clerbaux et al., 2009), making these products an operational priority would vastly improve our understanding of NH₃, isoprene, and CO over Africa. There is still some work to do in exploring the capabilities and optimal retrieval strategies of geostationary sounders like MTG IRS and GIIRS-2 (Liang et al., 2024; Sheng et al., 2025; Zeng et al., 2024), especially given the algorithmic discrepancies between LEO and GEO platforms and the vertically dependent sensitivity of thermal IR sounders to VOCs and ammonia.

The current GeoAQ Constellation missions lack co-located carbon monoxide (CO) measurements alongside precursor gases. CO is a vital indicator of incomplete combustion and a major precursor to ozone formation (Seinfeld & Pandis, 2016). Without simultaneous CO

observations, scientists cannot easily disentangle the complex chemical processes driving air pollution episodes, accurately attribute pollution sources, or evaluate the effectiveness of emission control measures. While IASI and IRS can be used to track pollution transport, fully addressing this gap would require adding SWIR instrumentation or a MOPITT-type sensor, especially since the GeoCARB mission, which was designed to measure CO₂, CH₄, and CO from geostationary orbit, was ultimately canceled (Polonsky et al., 2014). While noting their importance, CO and greenhouse gases are beyond the scope of this white paper.

4. The GeoAQ Constellation and the Geostationary Advantage

Geostationary (GEO) satellites offer a transformative approach to Earth observation, fundamentally changing how we monitor the atmosphere by providing continuous, real-time surveillance of targeted regions. Positioned at an altitude of 35,786 kilometers, these satellites orbit at the exact rate of the Earth's rotation. This unique vantage point allows them to hover over a single geographic location, capturing new imagery every 5 to 15 minutes. Rather than relying on fleeting glimpses, GEO platforms watch atmospheric chemistry, pollution events, and weather systems dynamically unfold throughout the day.

The continuous monitoring capability of TEMPO, Sentinel-4 and GEMS satellites (Figure 1), becomes indispensable when studying transient atmospheric events that evolve over hours rather than days. For example, the diurnal cycle of urban air pollution is highly dynamic, fluctuating rapidly with shifting traffic emissions, sunlight-driven photochemical reactions, and boundary layer changes. A LEO satellite might capture a clean morning snapshot and a polluted afternoon snapshot, but it completely misses the gradual accumulation, the midday intensification, and the evening decline. GEO satellites, conversely, reveal the complete lifecycle of these pollutants. Furthermore, this high-frequency temporal advantage is vital for detecting and responding to sudden environmental disasters, such as volcanic eruptions, industrial accidents, or power plant malfunctions. If an emission event occurs shortly after a LEO satellite passes overhead, it might remain undetected for over 12 hours, by which time the hazardous plume could have dispersed beyond recognition or traveled hundreds of kilometers. GEO satellites capture these emergencies the moment they happen, tracking the movement, spread, and dilution of plumes hour by hour to inform critical air quality, emergency response, and aviation safety decisions.

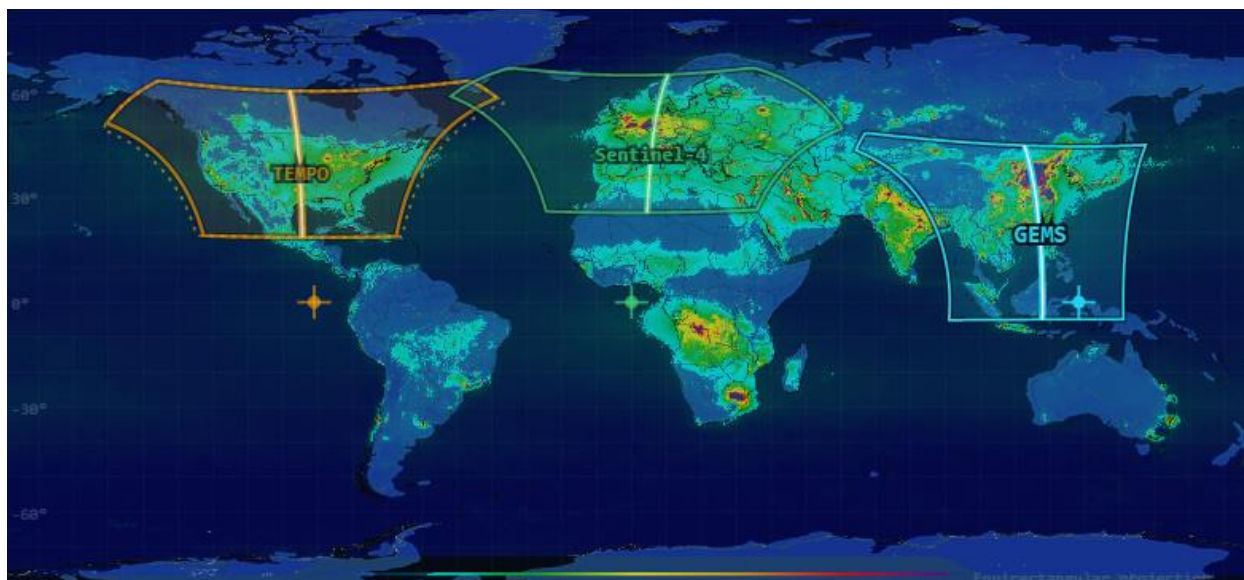


Figure 1. The current "GeoAQ Constellation" of geostationary air quality satellites overlaid on a map of global tropospheric NO₂ concentrations. This foundational constellation comprises TEMPO over North

America, Sentinel-4 over Europe, and GEMS over East Asia. Together, these instruments provide unprecedented continuous, hourly daytime monitoring of short-lived pollutants and their diurnal cycles. However, as the map illustrates, their fields of regard are largely confined to the Northern Hemisphere, leaving polluted regions in Africa, South America, Middle East and India, and Oceania.

5. Evaluating Orbital Architectures: The Case for an Expanded GEO Constellation in Global Air Quality Monitoring

When designing a global air pollution monitoring system, LEO constellations initially seem attractive due to their proximity to the Earth, typically operating between 400 and 800 kilometers. This lower altitude affords LEO satellites superior spatial resolution to observe highly localized emission sources and the ability to achieve truly global coverage, sweeping over the high latitudes and polar regions that other GEO orbits, with the exception of the inclined GEO orbits, inherently miss. However, the critical flaw for air pollution studies of LEO architecture lies in its poor temporal resolution. Air quality is highly dynamic, fluctuating wildly with weather patterns, sunlight, and rush-hour traffic, yet a reasonably sized LEO constellation of 4 LEOs can only capture isolated snapshots of a specific location each day.

Conversely, GEO satellites, stationed at roughly 35,786 kilometers, offer an observational paradigm that perfectly aligns with the fleeting, fast-moving nature of atmospheric pollutants. While their extreme distance requires larger optics for high spatial resolution and results in a complete blind spot over the poles, GEO satellites compensate by providing a continuous, staring gaze over specific regions. This allows a GEO network to deliver the hourly or sub-hourly temporal resolution necessary to track the entire diurnal life-cycle of pollution, from morning industrial emissions to afternoon photochemical ozone formation and unexpected wildfire plumes. Because the vast majority of the human population lives outside the polar zones, capturing these rapid, real-time atmospheric shifts over major continental landmasses is vastly more critical for actionable public health forecasting than the static, a few times-a-day snapshots provided by a reasonably sized LEO network.

Weighing these trade-offs, a dedicated constellation of four new GEO satellites emerges as the superior and recommended architecture. Such a configuration creates a highly robust, strategically overlapping system (*cf.* Figure 2). This overlap optimizes viewing angles to reduce data distortion at the edges of each satellite's footprint, ensures uninterrupted monitoring of pollution transport, and localizes the risk of a single-point hardware failure to a single region. This white paper assumes that there will be a few polar-orbiting LEO satellites operating in conjunction with the expanded GEO constellation providing complementary measurements especially at the poles where the LEO orbit tracks are dense and the repeat cycle is only a few hours. Additionally, an inclined geostationary orbit dedicated to the high latitude regime may be the most efficient way to observe this region.

6. Closing the Observational Gap: The Public Health Imperative for a Global Geo-Belt

To visualize this comprehensive global solution, Figure 2 maps the complete, expanded geostationary constellation over a global composite of tropospheric NO₂ concentrations. The foundational GeoAQ Constellation, comprising TEMPO, Sentinel-4, and GEMS, is expanded by integrating four additional dedicated platforms into this network: Geo SA (South America), Geo S (Africa), MEASMA Geo N (Middle East and India), and Geo OCN (Oceania), to effectively close these geographic blind spots.

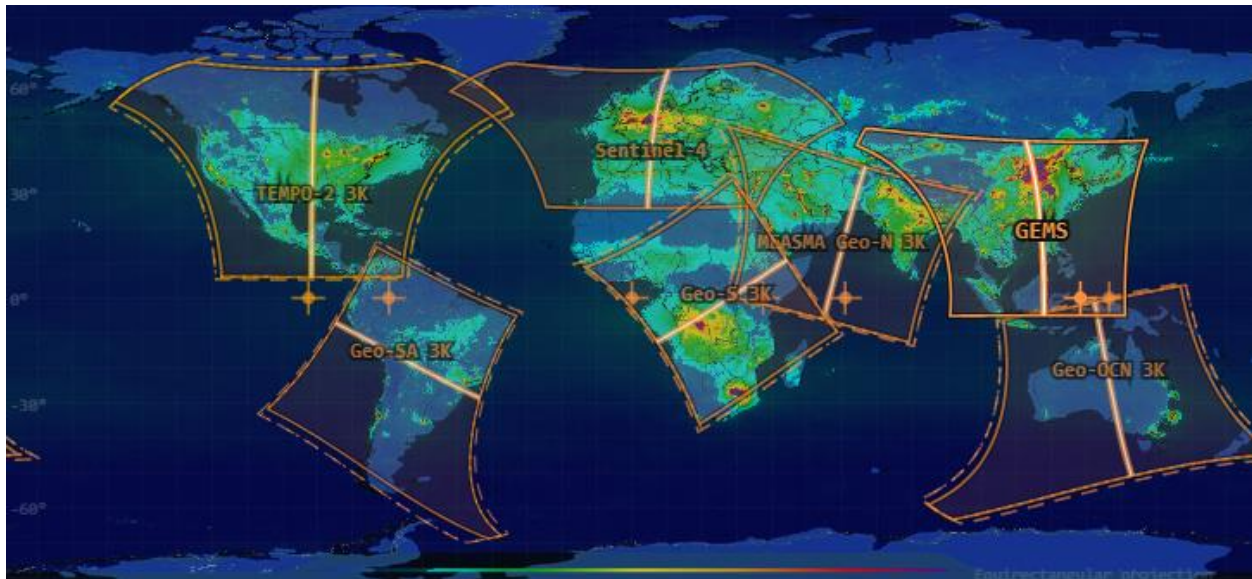


Figure 2. Vision for an expanded global geostationary air quality constellation, the ‘Geo-Belt’ overlaid on a map of global tropospheric NO₂ concentrations. The original GeoAQ Constellation satellites and their follow-ons are expanded by four new platforms: Geo SA (South America), Geo S (Africa), MEASMA Geo N (Middle East and India), and Geo OCN (Oceania) to extend this critical capability and achieve continuous, hourly monitoring of short-lived pollutants across a majority of the Earth’s populated surface.

As illustrated, this strategic expansion, the ‘Geo-Belt’, aligns continuous satellite coverage with the severe, under-monitored pollution hotspots of in unmonitored regions extending the capability of daytime diurnal monitoring to the vast majority of the Earth’s populated surface. A dedicated **Africa (Geo S)** satellite is urgently needed as the continent rapidly urbanizes and transitions from seasonal biomass burning to anthropogenic fossil fuel emissions. African PM_{2.5} levels far exceed WHO guidelines (Abera et al., 2021), and satellite estimates reveal that PM_{2.5} associated infant mortality in the region is double standard global estimates (Heft-Neal et al., 2018). Continuous observations are vital to design targeted health interventions.

For the **Middle East and India (MEASMA Geo N)**, continuous monitoring is essential to track soaring urban NO₂ and complex particulate matter mixtures. In the Middle East, sustained PM_{2.5} exposure is a staggering public health crisis, contributing to approximately 389,000 deaths in 2019 alone (Faridi et al., 2023). Similarly, India experiences some of the highest global PM_{2.5} exposures, driving severe respiratory diseases and premature mortality (Chatterjee et al., 2023; Vohra et al., 2021, 2022).

A **South America (Geo SA)** platform will allow scientists to disentangle overlapping urban plumes, soil NO_x, and massive Amazonian wildfire emissions (Fioletov et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2023). High-cadence data is required to evaluate exposure-relevant ozone levels and support actionable, accountable public health policies (Huber et al., 2026).

Finally, an **Oceania (Geo OCN)** satellite is vital for tracking rapidly expanding, pyro-convective megafires that trigger profound public health crises, such as the thousands of cardiovascular and respiratory hospitalizations caused by the 2019–2020 bushfires (Borchers Arriagada et al., 2020). It will also resolve the region’s unique photochemistry, where biogenic VOCs drive severe, localized ozone episodes (Utembe et al., 2018).

Together, this expanded constellation will provide the hourly, actionable exposure data required to protect vulnerable populations worldwide.

7. A Tale of Two Hemispheres: The Impact of Geographic Measurement Gaps

Relying exclusively on Low Earth Orbit (LEO) observations leaves blind spots across the Southern Hemisphere, demonstrating that periodic satellite snapshots cannot adequately substitute for continuous diurnal monitoring. This limitation is clearly illustrated in Figure 3 which maps the diurnal variation of aerosol optical depth in the Amazon. Because fire intensity, emission rates, and boundary layer dynamics fluctuate rapidly and intensely throughout the day, continuous observation is essential.

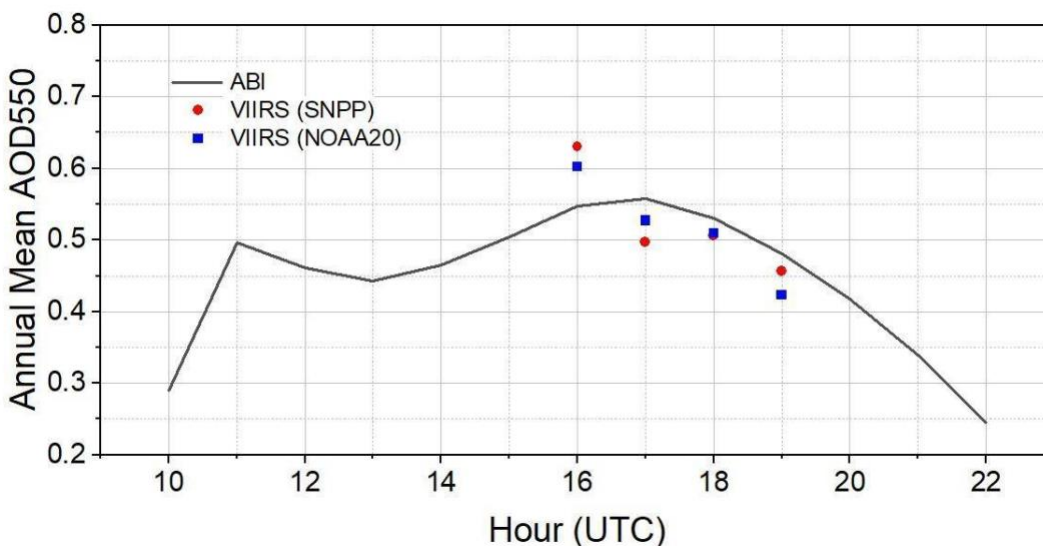


Figure 3. Diurnal variation of 2024 annual mean aerosol optical depth observed from ABI on NOAA's GOES-19 satellite shown in solid line with two VIIRS instruments on NOAA-20 and Suomi NPP observing aerosol optical depth over a specific time during the afternoon overpasses. VIIRS observations come from three overpasses for SNPP and four for NOAA-20. Note LEOs can provide multiple observations for the same region, especially at high latitudes, due to overlapping orbits but observations are made with different geometries. Observations reported here are for 70°W-60°W, 15°S-5°S (Ref).

Even with two separate VIIRS instruments actively monitoring the region, their staggered, infrequent overpasses fail to capture the full extent and rapid evolution of the smoke's daily cycle. By missing the peak emission hours and the subsequent transport of these hazardous plumes, this reliance on LEO architectures ultimately restricts our ability to accurately assess regional air quality, model short-term chemical transport, and issue timely public health warnings.

These dense diurnal observations identify previously unrecognized polluted hotspots that lack ground-level sensors (Siu et al., 2025). TEMPO also extends capabilities to trace gases like formaldehyde (HCHO), though continuous ground-based validation remains essential to correct systematic biases (Ortega et al., 2026), and provides high-cadence SO₂ measurements vital for tracking anthropogenic and volcanic plumes (Li et al., 2025). Maximizing these instruments, however, requires robust methodologies. Studies examining clear-sky versus cloudy-sky NO₂ differences using TROPOMI, TEMPO, surface monitors, and WRF-Chem models (Goldberg et al., 2025) highlight the necessity of proper calibration and accounting for environmental variables to refine top-down emissions inventories. Given the southward shift of global emissions and rapid population growth, coupled with sparse ground-based measurements, enhanced air quality monitoring is an urgent health imperative.

8. Geographic Gaps: Specific focus on Ozone (O₃), Nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) and Particulate Matter (PM) in Africa, Middle East, South America, India, Oceania

Ozone (O₃), nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), and fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) are primary criteria pollutants with profound human health impacts, originating from both vegetation fires and anthropogenic fossil fuel combustion. Globally, these emissions exhibit a stark hemispheric asymmetry as shown in Figure 4.

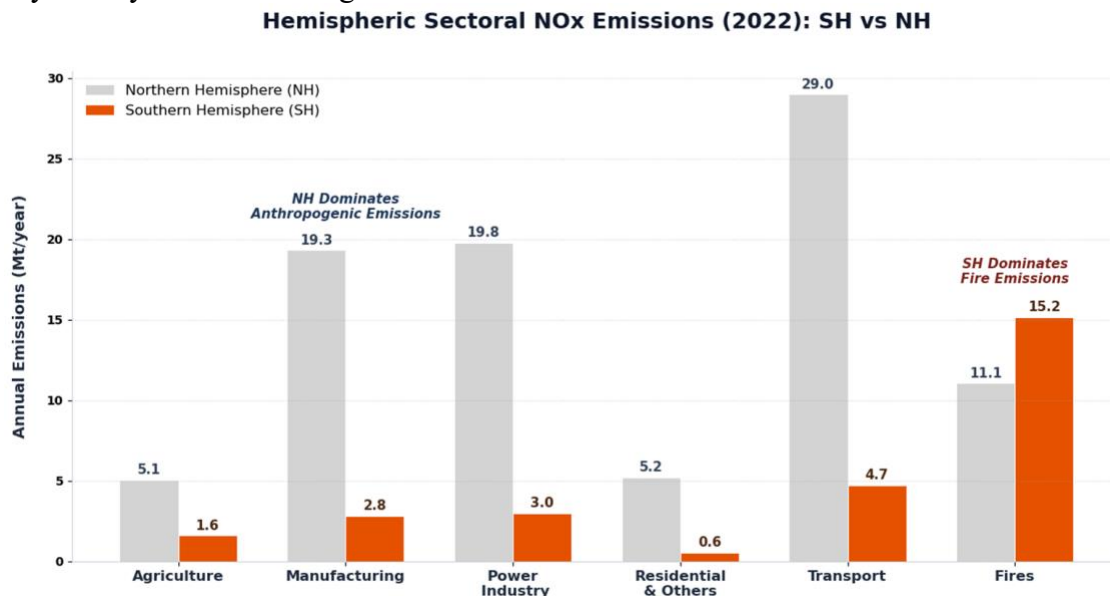


Figure 4. NO_x emissions from different source sectors (Agriculture, Manufacturing, Power Industry, Transportation (gray bars) are higher than fire emissions in the northern hemisphere whereas in the southern hemisphere fire emissions are substantially higher than in the northern hemisphere. Anthropogenic emissions were obtained from the EDGAR database.

Northern Hemisphere pollution is primarily driven by fossil fuel consumption due to higher population densities, whereas Southern Hemisphere pollution is dominated by biomass burning. Because NO₂ is a short-lived precursor that drives the sunlight-dependent formation of both O₃ and ammonium nitrate aerosols (key components of PM_{2.5}), these pollutants are inextricably linked. These chemical interconversions occur rapidly, often over just a few hours.

Consequently, single daily satellite snapshots are completely inadequate for capturing their dynamic diurnal cycles. Continuous, high-temporal-resolution observations from geostationary platforms are therefore essential to accurately track the fast-paced evolution of these interdependent pollutants and assess their true health impacts.

Surface concentrations of O₃, NO₂, and PM_{2.5} exhibit significant spatial and diurnal variability driven by local emission sources, land use, and atmospheric processes (Huber et al., 2026). For instance, diurnal cycles are heavily dictated by the timing of agricultural fires or afternoon peaks in biogenic isoprene emissions. While regulatory actions and technological improvements have successfully reduced these pollutants in many countries, rapidly developing regions continue to face dangerously increasing exposure levels (HealthEffectsInstitute, 2025; Malashock et al., 2022; Vohra et al., 2022; WHO, 2023).

Furthermore, meteorological conditions, such as temperature, wind, humidity, and atmospheric stagnation play a critical role in influencing pollutant dispersion, deposition, and chemical transformation (Seinfeld & Pandis, 2016). This complex dynamic is increasingly compounded by both natural climate variability and anthropogenic climate change. These shifting climate factors alter the frequency and severity of heatwaves, droughts, and wildfire-favorable conditions,

ultimately intensifying severe air pollution episodes across the globe (Byrne et al., 2024; Cooper et al., 2024; Lin et al., 2025; WHO, 2026).

In Africa, air quality challenges are dominated by high PM levels, largely from desert dust (e.g., Sahara), biomass burning (e.g., Savannah fires), and urban emissions. Limited monitoring infrastructure makes assessment difficult. NO₂ is rising in rapidly growing cities due to traffic and diesel use (Vohra et al., 2022), and industrial hotspots such as the highveld region in South Africa (Figure 5). O₃ formation is influenced by strong sunlight and precursor emissions from fires and urban pollution, often with weak regulatory control. Due to the predominant influence of fires, O₃ peaks in the dry burning season.

The Middle East experiences extreme PM concentrations driven by frequent dust storms and arid conditions. Urban NO₂ pollution is significant due to traffic, fossil-fuel-based energy systems, and extraction and refinement of crude oil. O₃ concentrations are often high because of intense solar radiation combined with anthropogenic precursor emissions, making photochemical smog a persistent issue. Air quality in South America varies widely: NO₂ and PM_{2.5} in urban areas is elevated due to transport and industry, while rural regions are heavily impacted by seasonal biomass burning occurring in August-October (e.g., Amazon). O₃ pollution is a concern in large cities due to photochemical reactions and large influence from natural O₃ precursors like isoprene from the Amazon forest. Monitoring networks exist but remain spatially uneven, limiting the regional consistency and continuity of air-quality observations. India experiences some of the world's highest PM_{2.5} exposure levels, arising from multiple sources, including residential fuel combustion, industry, power generation, transport and agricultural-residue burning (Chatterjee et al., 2023; Vohra et al., 2021). Rapidly growing cities in South Asia have also experienced increasing pollutant exposure and associated premature mortality (Vohra et al., 2022).

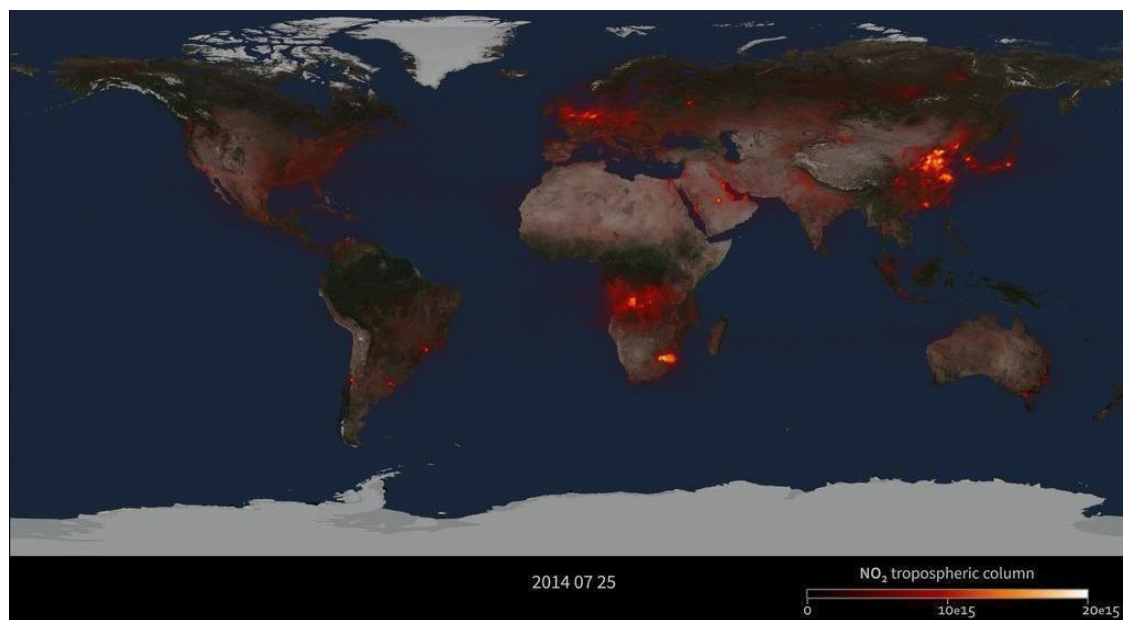


Figure 5. Tropospheric NO₂ column densities retrieved by the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) on July 25, 2014. High column densities over the South African Highveld region are associated with high power plant and industrial emissions in the region. Elevated column densities over south equatorial Africa are associated with dry season biomass burning activity

NO₂ concentrations are high in urban corridors due to dense traffic and energy production. O₃ is an emerging issue, especially in peri-urban and rural areas, where precursor transport and strong sunlight enhance formation. The Oceania region is characterized by generally lower pollution levels, but episodic events dominate. PM spikes occur during bushfires and dust events. NO₂ is mainly an urban traffic issue (e.g., Sydney, Melbourne). O₃ episodes can occur in cities under favorable meteorological conditions, though overall levels are lower compared to other regions. Unique to Oceania is the larger relative influence than other regions of oceanic emissions on regional O₃ and PM from natural sources, but also from anthropogenic activities at ports. NO₂, O₃ and PM are inextricably linked pollutants that must be observed concurrently to fully understand air quality. As a short-lived, highly reactive precursor, NO₂ drives the sunlight-dependent formation of both O₃ and ammonium nitrate aerosols which eventually manifest as PM_{2.5}. Because these chemical interconversions occur rapidly over a matter of hours, single daily satellite snapshots cannot capture their dynamic diurnal cycles. Continuous, high-temporal resolution observations from a geostationary platform or multiple satellites from LEO platforms are therefore essential to track the rapid evolution of these interdependent pollutants throughout the day, enabling a precise assessment of shifting geographic emissions and their health impacts.

9. Africa (Geo-S)

Traditionally, Africa's ozone (O₃) and particulate matter (PM) profiles have been dominated by desert dust and dry-season biomass burning, which release massive quantities of organic aerosols, VOCs, CO, and NO_x (Sauvage et al., 2005). Seasonal open fires remain the continent's largest source of NO₂ (Jaeglé et al., 2005). However, a 21st-century decrease in burned savanna area (Andela & Guido, 2014; Andela et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2023; Zubkova et al., 2019) has led to declining dry-season NO₂ concentrations over north equatorial savannas (Hickman et al., 2021; Ossouhou et al., 2019) and a corresponding drop in surface O₃ (Donnou et al., 2024). Natural emissions also exert a profound influence. Soil microbes release massive NO pulses upon wet-season re-wetting, accounting for up to half of regional annual emissions (Hudman et al., 2012; Jaeglé et al., 2004; Vinken et al., 2014) and driving regional O₃ enhancements (Bouarar et al., 2011; Saunio et al., 2009). Furthermore, tropical Africa is a global hotspot for aloft NO_x generated by lightning (Albrecht et al., 2016; Cecil et al., 2014), which is highly efficient at O₃ production and is increasing in frequency due to climate change (Harel & Price, 2020; Qie et al., 2020). Cloud-sliced satellite data is currently used to constrain these lightning NO_x emissions in models (Marais et al., 2018). Ultimately, meteorology and non-NO_x sources continue to dominate the interannual variability of African O₃ (Qu et al., 2020). Despite declining fire emissions (Figure 6), the air quality benefits are being rapidly erased by urbanization, population growth (Figure 7), and rising anthropogenic pollution (Lioussé et al., 2014; Hickman et al., 2021). While African urban NO₂ levels remain less than half of those in Northern Hemisphere cities (Achakulwisut et al., 2019; Geddes et al., 2016) and historically lack the large combustion sources that titrate O₃ (Marais & Wiedinmyer, 2016), fossil fuel combustion is surging (Jaeglé et al., 2005; Schneider et al., 2015), particularly over the South African Highveld (Beirle et al., 2023; Lourens et al., 2012). From 2000 to 2019, urban NO_x increased 1–2% annually (Anenberg et al., 2022; Sicard et al., 2023), accelerating to 3–6% in the fastest-growing cities (Vohra et al., 2022). Consequently, large cities are shifting from NO_x-limited (Saunio et al., 2009; Marais et al., 2025) to NO_x-saturated O₃ production regimes (Vohra et al., 2022). The transition from fuelwood to charcoal (Bockarie et al., 2020), a projected doubling of electricity and transport NO_x by 2030 (Marais et al., 2019), and exponential soil NO spikes expected from increased fertilizer use (Hickman et al., 2017) point to rapidly deteriorating urban air quality.

This anthropogenic shift is severely compounding Africa's PM_{2.5} public health crisis. Local urban PM sources, including aging vehicles, road dust, and charcoal production (Marais and Wiedinmyer, 2016; Bockarie et al., 2020; Keita et al., 2021, Bililign et al., 2024), mix with secondary PM formed from agricultural ammonia, NO_x, and VOCs (Hallquist et al., 2009; Shrivastava et al., 2017; Vakkari et al., 2018). Sulfates are largely localized to Rift Valley volcanoes, South African industry, and offshore powerships (Marais et al., 2022). Strikingly, only six sub-Saharan countries possess long-term PM data (Abera et al., 2021). Available data reveals city PM_{2.5} ranges of 40–260 µg/m³, far exceeding WHO guidelines and US/European levels, with no exposure

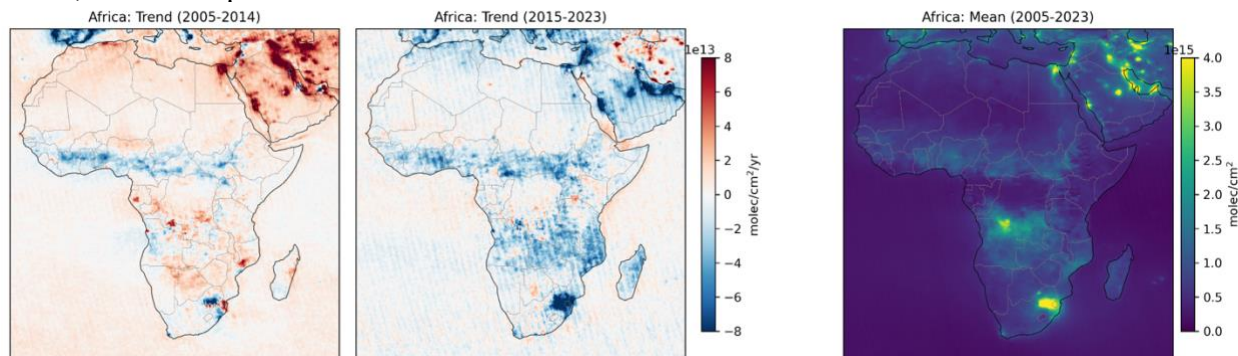


Figure 6. Trends and long-term mean in tropospheric NO₂ over Africa as observed by the Ozone Monitoring Instrument. [Note: these trends were calculated using L3 data. Because the OMI row anomaly affects different rows over the lifetime of the instrument, this analysis is based on a varying number of valid OMI observations over time, which may introduce artefacts into the analysis. As such, these should be treated as illustrative and interpreted with caution]

decline over the last 15 years (Abera et al., 2021). Because global models drastically underestimate this burden, satellite estimates reveal that a 10 µg/m³ PM_{2.5} increase in Africa causes a 9% rise in infant mortality, double standard global estimates (Heft-Neal et al., 2018).

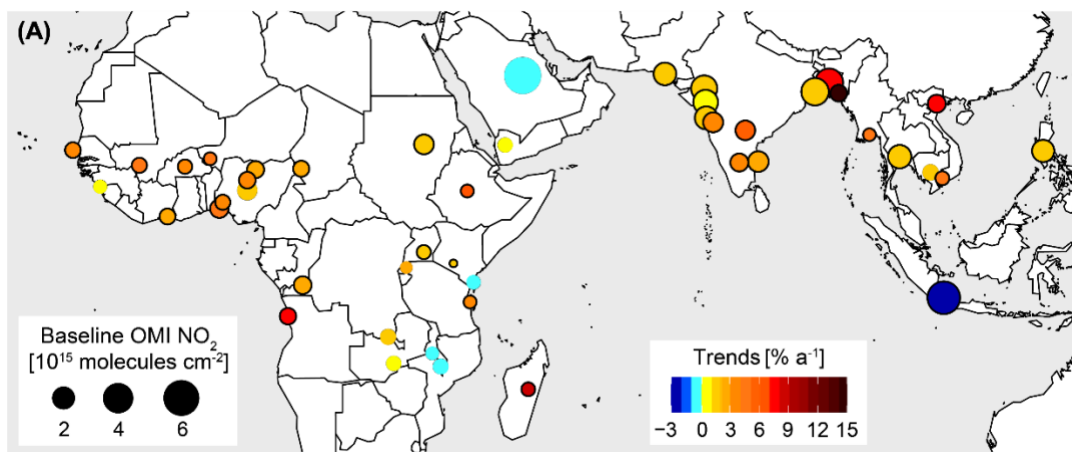


Figure 7. Changes in NO₂ concentrations across fast-growing tropical cities from 2005 to 2018. The diameter of each circle represents the baseline NO₂ level at the start of the observation period. The fill colors illustrate the direction and magnitude of the relative annual trends, with warm hues denoting an increase and cool hues signifying a decrease. Circles with borders indicate trends that are statistically significant at the 95% confidence interval.

While urban centers drive substantial global emissions (Crippa et al., 2021), Africa's specific contribution remains poorly quantified, largely because our understanding of its diurnal pollution variability is flawed. Recent studies in Addis Ababa (Figure 8) demonstrated that sharp morning

PM_{2.5} peaks, driven by household cooking and rush-hour traffic, are missed entirely by standard models unless updated with hourly emission profiles (Li et al., 2024).

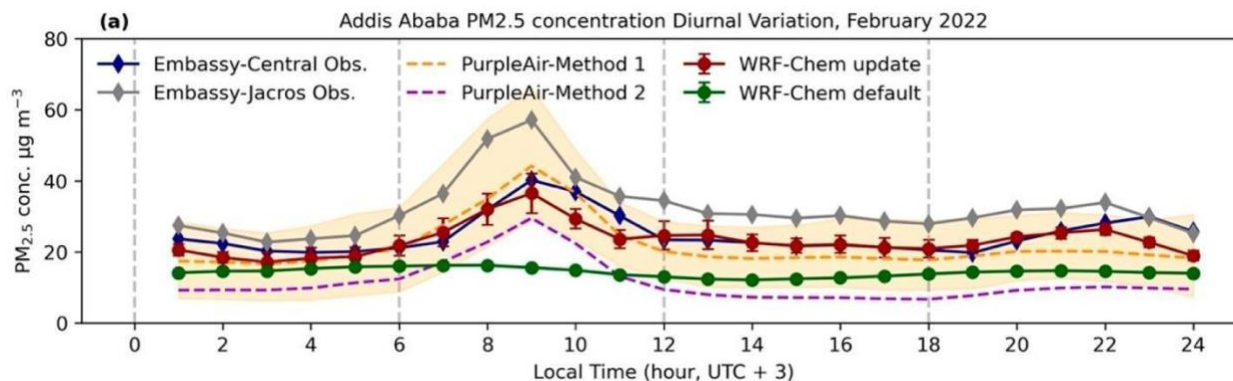


Figure 8. (a) Average diurnal variation of ground level PM_{2.5} concentration during February 2022 in Addis Ababa from surface measurements and UI-WRF-Chem simulations. Green dotted line represents the model simulation with default emission diurnal profile and red dotted line with updated diurnal profile. Blue and gray dotted lines represent the measurement from the Beta Attenuation Monitor (BAM) instrument at the U.S. Embassy Central and Jacrossite. Orange dashed line and Purple dashed line represent averaged diurnal variation from seven PurpleAir measurements using two different methods, and the orange shaded area is the range of PurpleAir diurnal variation from the first correction method. See details in (Li et al., 2024)

This highlights the critical need for continuous, diurnal satellite observations to accurately capture and mitigate Africa's escalating air quality crisis. Hourly adjustments can be achieved using an inversion method that applies hourly scaling factors (Li et al., 2024). Because Low Earth Orbit (LEO) satellites typically pass overhead near midday, they miss the critical early morning and late afternoon peaks in PM_{2.5}. Consequently, models that convert LEO aerosol optical depth (AOD) into surface PM_{2.5} concentrations often significantly underestimate daily exposure, which can severely skew epidemiological studies of PM_{2.5}-related mortality. Utilizing continuous, diurnal AOD observations from geostationary platforms, complemented by surface measurements is essential to mitigate these uncertainties and capture the true public health burden.

10. Middle East and India (MEASMA Geo-N)

The Middle East and India are experiencing severe air quality degradation driven by surging anthropogenic emissions. In the Middle East, NO_x emissions stem almost entirely from fossil fuel combustion (Chen et al., 2023; Vinken et al., 2014), though lightning remains a major source along the Red Sea coast seasonally (Bond et al., 2002). Consequently, urban per capita NO₂ emissions in the Middle East are the highest globally (Fioletov et al., 2025). Between 2005 and 2014, regional NO_x emissions increased by 20% per decade (Miyazaki et al., 2017), driven by rapid expansion in urban centers, ports, power plants, and refineries (Barkley et al., 2017; Lelieveld et al., 2015; Sicard et al., 2023). While some cities saw increases exceeding 5% annually (Lelieveld et al., 2015; Schneider & van der A, 2012), regional trends show complex variability influenced by air quality controls, economic fluctuations, and armed conflict (Lelieveld et al., 2015; Miyazaki et al., 2017; Sicard et al., 2023). However, NO₂ over oil and power infrastructure continued rising steeply through at least 2015 (Barkley et al., 2017). This intense NO₂ loading, combined with atmospheric subsidence, generates a persistent year-round

ozone hotspot exceeding 80 ppb (Lelieveld et al., 2009), leaving most countries failing the WHO 8-hour ozone guideline (WHO, 2026).

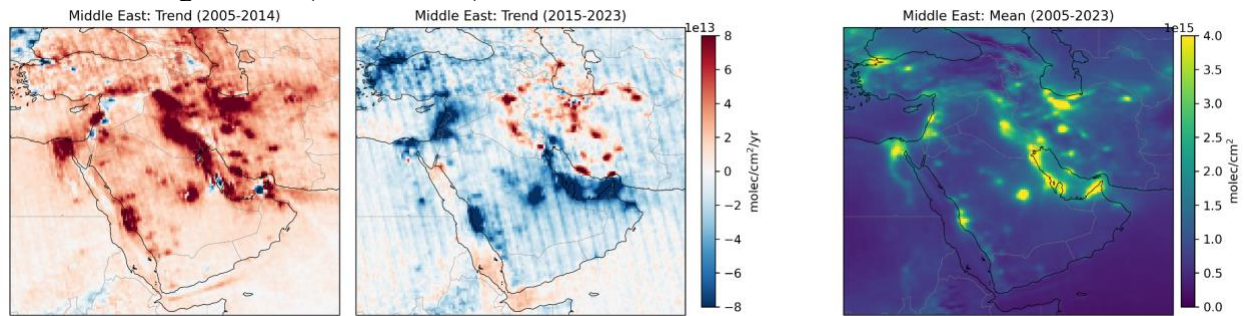


Figure 9. Trends and long-term mean in tropospheric NO₂ over the Middle East as observed by the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI).

Figure 9 shows the trends in the last two decades showing decreases in this decade and increases in the 2005-2015 decade using Level 3 OMI data. Because the OMI row anomaly affects different rows over the lifetime of the instrument, this analysis is based on a varying number of valid OMI observations over time, which may introduce artefacts into the analysis. As such, these should be treated as illustrative and interpreted with caution.

In contrast India has seen substantial tropospheric NO₂ increases over the past two decades (Ghude et al., 2013; Pathak & Kuttippurath, 2022; Singh et al., 2023; Vohra et al., 2022). Fast-growing Indian cities experience NO₂ increases up to 5% annually due to rising transportation and industrial combustion (Vohra et al., 2021). Satellite data reveals winter NO₂ peaks over the densely populated Indo-Gangetic Plain (Singh et al., 2023; Vohra et al., 2021), while pre-monsoon peaks in eastern and southern India are driven by coal-fired power plants and agricultural fires (Singh et al., 2023).

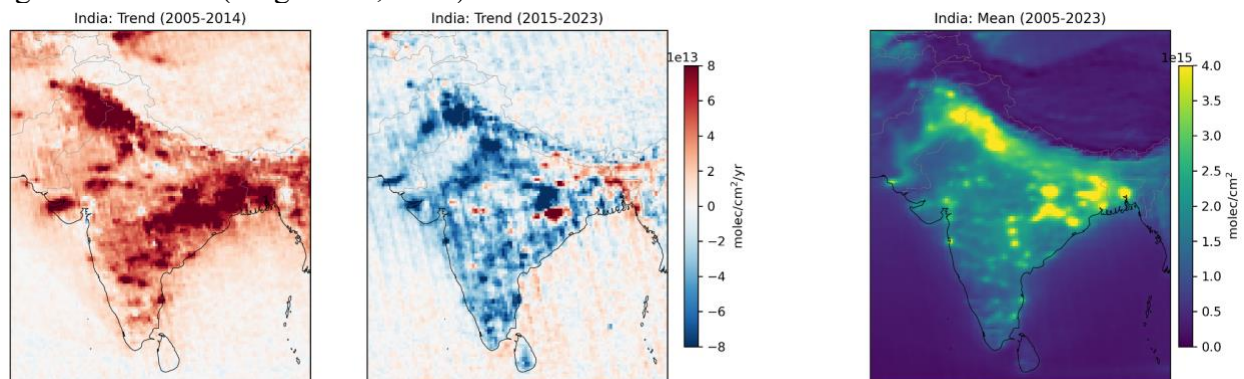


Figure 10. Trends and long-term mean in tropospheric NO₂ over India as observed by the Ozone Monitoring Instrument. [Note: these trends were calculated using L3 data. Because the OMI row anomaly affects different rows over the lifetime of the instrument, this analysis is based on a varying number of valid OMI observations over time, which may introduce artefacts into the analysis. As such, these should be treated as illustrative and interpreted with caution].

Also note that in Figure 10, in many regions, the strong positive trends in tropospheric NO₂ appear to have reversed starting in the mid-2010s. Because ground observations are heavily concentrated in urban areas (Vohra et al., 2025), satellite monitoring is crucial for tracking rural NO₂ growth, which is rising ~25% slower than in urban areas (Pathak & Kuttippurath, 2022). Ultimately, these Indian emissions drive significant O₃ enhancements, forming an "ozone river" extending over the Indian Ocean (Tocquer et al., 2015). Beyond NO₂ and O₃, both regions face catastrophic particulate matter (PM) crises. In the Middle East and Eastern Mediterranean Region, anthropogenic pollution is layered over massive natural dust emissions. Windblown dust

from the Tigris and Euphrates valleys and the Arabian Peninsula is mobilized by powerful shamal winds (Karagulian et al., 2019), accounting for roughly 51% of regional PM_{2.5} exposure (Faridi et al., 2023). Individual transboundary dust storms push PM₁₀ concentrations beyond 3,200 to 4,899 µg/m³ (Maleki et al., 2022), traverse countries (Hussein et al., 2020), and severely cut surface solar radiation (Karagulian et al., 2019). Layered upon this is the growing anthropogenic burden from urbanization, petrochemicals, vehicular traffic, and open waste burning (Shahid et al., 2024), making PM_{2.5} a leading mortality risk that contributed to ~389,000 deaths in 2019 (Faridi et al., 2023; Shahid et al., 2024).

India experiences similarly elevated PM pollution that regularly exceeds WHO guidelines, altering the regional climate and radiation budget (Agarwal et al., 2024; Lin et al., 2022). Historical analyses show steady increases in PM_{2.5} and O₃ from 1995 to 2014, driving regional mortality (Luo et al., 2025). Without policy interventions, PM_{2.5} levels could elevate further by the 2050s (Pommier et al., 2018). India's PM sources are highly heterogeneous: industrial emissions are the primary domestic contributor (Venkataraman et al., 2018; Zhou et al., 2025), while household solid fuel combustion creates sharp daily pollution peaks tied to mealtimes (Rooney et al., 2019). Furthermore, groundwater conservation policies have delayed the rice growing season, pushing agricultural crop residue fires later into the year (Chang and Song, 2010). These delayed fires coincide with cooler temperatures and lower boundary layers, trapping smoke near the surface (Liu et al., 2022). This modifies aerosol optical properties and transports smoke across the Indo-Gangetic Plain (Kaskaoutis et al., 2014), extending southward to suppress the boundary layer in cities like Chennai (Ali et al., 2025). Secondary aerosol formation driven by photochemical reactions further interacts with the planetary boundary layer, causing atmospheric stagnation and prolonged haze (Agarwal et al., 2024; Lin et al., 2022). To capture these highly dynamic crises, continuous observation is critical. While scientists utilize ground networks, low-cost sensors, chemical transport models, and remote sensing to bridge spatial gaps and optimize emission models (Kajino et al., 2025; Bali et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2025), current polar-orbiting satellites provide only limited daily snapshots. They often underestimate emissions when obscured by clouds or smoke (Kajino et al., 2025) and cannot capture the rapid, 24- to 48-hour lifecycle of severe Middle Eastern dust storms (Karagulian et al., 2019; Maleki et al., 2022) or the daily mealtime emission spikes in India. Thus, continuous geostationary observations are vital to track these complex, hour-by-hour atmospheric hazards.

11. South America (Geo-SA)

South America's air quality is shaped by a highly complex, overlapping mix of massive biomass burning, intense natural biogenic emissions, and evolving urban anthropogenic sources. Deforestation and agricultural burning, particularly within the Amazon basin, are major sources of particulate matter (PM) and aerosols that profoundly alter regional climate, air quality, and the hydrological cycle (Artaxo et al., 2006). South and Central America account for roughly 8.6% of the global burned area (Chen et al., 2023) and produce about 15% of global wildfire emissions, driven largely by repeated deforestation fires (Morton et al., 2008; van der Werf et al., 2010), alongside significant agricultural and cerrado burning (Castellanos et al., 2014). Satellite observations reveal that NO_x emission factors from these fires are highly variable by season and fire type, meaning static inventories often misrepresent fire contributions during droughts (Castellanos et al., 2014). While the annual burned area decreased by roughly 2% yr⁻¹ between 2001 and 2020 due to agricultural declines (Chen et al., 2023), anthropogenic climate change is estimated to have caused 28.9% more area to burn between 2003 and 2019 than would have occurred otherwise (Burton et al., 2024). Extreme events, such as the 2017 central Chile megafires, further compound this by producing massive regional plumes containing CO,

aerosols, and O₃, severely perturbing radiation and boundary-layer dynamics (Lapere et al., 2021; Seguel et al., 2024).

In remote regions like the Amazon, the atmosphere's background oxidizing capacity is heavily driven by large soil NO_x emissions (Kaplan et al., 1988; Torres & Buchan, 1988; Verchot et al., 2000; Vinken et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2016; Shrivastava et al., 2019). Soil rewetting pulses account for about a third of annual NO_x emissions in dry forests (Davidson et al., 1991), though much of this is intercepted by the forest canopy (Jacob & Bakwin, 1991). Lightning serves as a minor NO_x source outside of the austral summer (Bond et al., 2002). Because of massive biogenic VOC emissions and modest NO_x levels, remote Amazonian regions are generally expected to be NO_x-limited (Tripathi et al., 2025). However, when urban NO_x plumes transport into these forested areas, they dramatically alter the local chemistry, driving secondary organic aerosol (SOA) and O₃ enhancements of 50–200% (Nascimento et al., 2022; Shrivastava et al., 2019; Wei et al., 2019). Overall, meteorology and non-NO_x sources tend to drive the interannual variability in O₃ more strongly than NO_x emissions alone (Qu et al., 2020). Figure 11 shows the NO₂ trends in South America.

Urban pollution trends add another layer of complexity. Surface O₃ monitoring remains highly limited, but recent reviews indicate increasing exposure in subtropical/extratropical cities like Santiago and São Paulo, with little change in tropical, high-altitude cities like Bogotá and Quito (Seguel et al., 2024). While South American urban NO₂ levels are among the lowest globally (Fioletov et al., 2025), emissions can rival those of large North American and European cities (Beirle & Wagner, 2024; Rocha et al., 2022). Regionally, NO_x emissions were estimated to decrease by 12.2% per decade between 2005 and 2014 (Miyazaki et al., 2017). Yet, city-level trends vary: between 2000 and 2019, NO₂ increased by 1–2% yr⁻¹ in over half of the continent's urban areas, with distinct increases in Bolivia, Peru, and Uruguay, but decreases in Venezuela (Sicard et al., 2023). Recent TROPOMI data (2019–2024) indicates aggregated urban NO₂ changes are not statistically significant continent-wide, though Santiago showed a notable decrease (Huber et al., 2026).

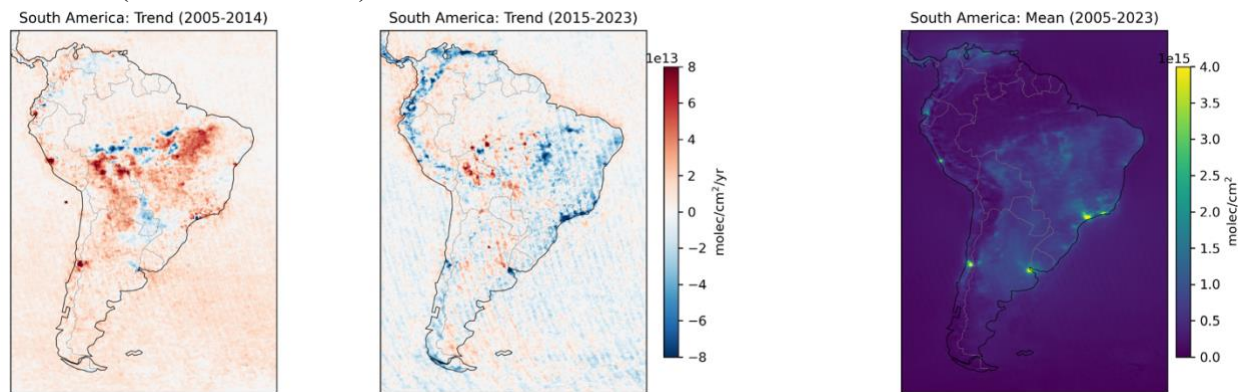


Figure 11. Trends and long-term mean in tropospheric NO₂ over South America as observed by the Ozone Monitoring Instrument. [Note: these trends were calculated using L3 data. Because the OMI row anomaly affects different rows over the lifetime of the instrument, this analysis is based on a varying number of valid OMI observations over time, which may introduce artefacts into the analysis. As such, these should be treated as illustrative and interpreted with caution].

Because background, fire, lightning, and urban sources heavily overlap in South America, satellite NO₂ columns can be difficult to interpret. Fortunately, recent TROPOMI-based methods successfully decompose NO₂ into urban, industrial, and background components (Fioletov et al., 2022). This separation capability is crucial for accountability; during the COVID-19 lockdowns, urban NO₂ fell by 40–50% in step with mobility reductions while background levels remained

stable, demonstrating satellite nitrogen dioxide's effectiveness as an accountability tool for transportation and industrial policies (Fioletov et al., 2022; Huber et al., 2026). Ultimately, managing this air quality requires navigating complex chemical regimes. Many better-monitored South American cities exhibit VOC-limited or NO_x-saturated behavior, meaning NO_x reductions alone can inadvertently increase O₃ under certain conditions (Cazorla et al., 2025; Seguel et al., 2024). Box models for Quito and Santiago confirm that while VOC reductions consistently lower O₃ production, NO_x reductions can actually spike morning O₃ in Santiago (Cazorla et al., 2025). This intricate chemical balance demands simultaneous, high-frequency observations of NO₂, VOC proxies like HCHO, O₃, aerosols, and meteorology data that a dedicated geostationary satellite would uniquely provide.

12. Oceania (Geo-OCN)

Oceania faces a highly complex atmospheric profile driven by immense biogenic emissions, shifting urban pollution, and catastrophic environmental events. Australia has the second-highest urban per capita NO_x emissions globally, yet soil and fire represent larger regional NO_x sources (Jaeglé et al., 2005), and continental background NO_x remains among the lowest in the world (Fioletov et al., 2025). Urban NO_x emissions in Australian cities grew by roughly 2% yr⁻¹ from 2000–2010 before reversing to decrease by ~1% yr⁻¹ from 2010–2019 (Miyazaki et al., 2017; Sicard et al., 2023), a downward trend that continues today (Fioletov et al., 2025). Over the same periods, New Zealand's urban emissions steadily decreased, while Papua New Guinea saw rapid urban NO_x growth that later slowed. Beyond urban centers, natural NO_x sources display distinct spatial and temporal patterns: lightning produces over 80% of NO_x during the northern Australian austral summer (Bond et al., 2002), while soil emissions, though modest compared to other global regions (Hudman et al., 2012), exhibit a pronounced seasonal cycle (Vinken et al., 2014) heavily linked to precipitation (Metz et al., 2023).

This NO_x landscape interacts with Oceania's uniquely massive biogenic volatile organic compound (BVOC) emissions to complicate regional ozone (O₃) dynamics. Australia's coastal cities border vast eucalyptus forests, which are among the globe's highest emitters of isoprene and monoterpenes (Utembe et al., 2018). Figure 12 shows the general trends in the NO₂ means. Contradicting standard models, Australian monoterpene emissions are not solely light-dependent; they emit heavily during hot nights, fundamentally altering the expected diurnal cycle of precursor gases (Emmerson et al., 2016; Emmerson et al., 2018). During extreme heatwaves, these biogenic emissions spike exponentially (Utembe et al., 2018). Because regional airsheds are predominantly NO_x-limited, even modest anthropogenic NO_x from local traffic interacting with this massive natural VOC load triggers rapid, severe photochemical O₃ production (Paton-Walsh et al., 2019; Utembe et al., 2018). Figure 13 shows the trends in NO₂ from the OMI instrument over the past two decades.

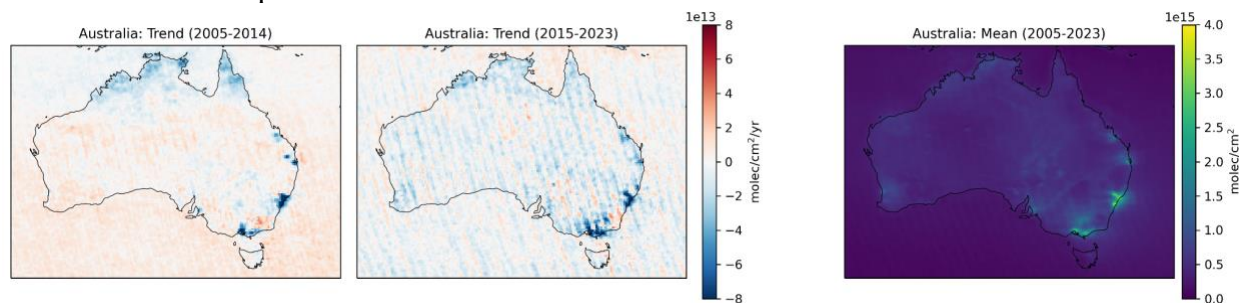


Figure 12. Trends and long-term mean in tropospheric NO₂ over Australia as observed by the Ozone Monitoring Instrument. [Note: these trends were calculated using L3 data. Because the OMI row anomaly affects different rows over the lifetime of the instrument, this analysis is based on a varying

number of valid OMI observations over time, which may introduce artefacts into the analysis. As such, these should be treated as illustrative and interpreted with caution].

Urban photochemistry in the region is highly unusual. Instead of depleting at sunrise, nitrous acid (HONO) shows unexpected midday peaks, acting as a powerful, localized engine for hydroxyl radical (OH) production driven by uncharacterized photo-activated ground or soil emissions (Ryan et al., 2018). This chemistry is trapped and recirculated by complex coastal meteorology, including nocturnal katabatic drainage and afternoon sea breezes (Paton-Walsh et al., 2019). Compounding these modeling challenges is a shifting baseline: historically urban-centric monitoring limits the understanding of continental background O₃ (Riley et al., 2022), but recent rural data reveals background O₃ in eastern Australia is higher than regulatory models assumed and has steadily trended upward over two decades (Riley et al., 2022; Riley et al., 2023). Because standard ground-based UV monitors suffer from chemical interference during bushfires (Riley et al., 2022), high-resolution satellite instruments like TROPOMI are essential for mapping hotspots like formaldehyde (HCHO) to untangle this intricate biogenic chemistry (Ryan et al., 2020).

Compounding these photochemical challenges is Oceania's extreme particulate matter (PM) burden, dominated by mineral dust and biomass smoke (Yang et al., 2021). Synoptically driven dust storms routinely mobilize immense PM₁₀ plumes from the western deserts and Lake Eyre Basin, devastating visibility and air quality in eastern coastal cities like Sydney (Attiya and Jones, 2022). Furthermore, while average burned area across Oceania decreased by ~3% yr⁻¹ from 2001 to 2020 (Chen et al., 2023), the frequency of megafires and fall/winter fires has increased exponentially (Canadell et al., 2021). The catastrophic 2019–2020 "Black Summer" bushfires were unprecedented in both area (Rumpff et al., 2023; Wan et al., 2023) and high-severity occurrence (Collins et al., 2021). These megafires released immense NO_x emissions (Wan et al., 2023), driving Victorian NO₂ concentrations 12.7% higher than expected, though without substantial O₃ enhancements (Ryan et al., 2021), and unleashed toxic fine PM_{2.5} that caused hundreds of excess deaths and thousands of hospitalizations (Borchers Arriagada et al., 2020). The pyro-convective scale of these plumes even crossed the Pacific to South America, depositing nutrients that triggered anomalous phytoplankton blooms in oligotrophic marine ecosystems (Li et al., 2021).

Additionally, stealthy, localized PM₁₀ enhancements near open-cut coal mines pose a chronic health risk to rural communities; tracking this pollution requires advanced machine learning to separate mining dust from meteorological variables like soil moisture (Mallet, 2021). Ultimately, tracking the explosive, hour-by-hour transport of dust fronts and bushfire plumes, as well as resolving localized mining dust and complex coastal sea-breeze recirculation, is impossible with sparse ground networks and the once-daily snapshots of Low Earth Orbit (LEO) satellites (Attiya & Jones, 2022; Yang et al., 2021). A dedicated geostationary satellite is essential to continuously map aerosols, issue real-time public health warnings, and track transboundary ecological impacts (Li et al., 2021; Mallet, 2021).

13. Technical Feasibility and Implementation Considerations

Proposed GEO instruments to observe unmonitored regions of the world would draw on the heritage of GEMS, TEMPO and Sentinel-4, whose optical and orbital characteristics are shown in Table 1. These differ in their respective architectures due to science and mission requirements. GEMS and TEMPO are both step-stare instruments which use a scan mirror to point and dwell the imaging spectrometer's field of view while framing for an integration time that maximizes signal to noise ratio (SNR) while minimizing saturation. Frames are co-added on-board, and the raw data are downlinked to be processed into science products. The number of co-added frames

contributes to the SNR optimization as it has an impact on read-out noise. The dwell time at each scan mirror position, scan time between positions, and return scan to the start position are the temporal constraints for defining the full field of regard in the East-West direction. Sentinel-4 also employs a scan mirror but uses a continuous push-broom scan pattern to cover the full field of regard from East to West. North-South coverage for all 3 instruments is constrained by the slit length, telescope focal length, and detector pixels.

While the scanning approaches are different, the three GeoAQ Constellation instruments all use custom frame-transfer charge-coupled devices (CCDs). Storage areas on the CCDs allow for frames to be read while continuing to integrate on the imaging regions. The spectral ranges of each instrument are constrained by the number of CCDs and the number of pixels per CCD as well as the spectral dispersion. GEMS has one CCD which covers the 300-500 nm range at 0.2 nm/pixel sampling (0.6 nm at full width half maximum (FWHM)). TEMPO has the same spectral dispersion but includes a second CCD to cover the 540-740 nm range for enhanced sensitivity to O₃ nearer the surface. Sentinel-4 also has two CCDs, but covers 305-500 nm at 0.5 nm FWHM and 750-775 nm at 0.12 nm FWHM. As mentioned above, Sentinel-4 prioritizes the NIR at very high spectral resolution and their spectral range is made possible with two spectrometers. TEMPO only uses one spectrometer but has a specialized grating to accommodate such a large range and forgoes the near infra-red (NIR) part of the spectrum.

Table 1: Key Parameters of GeoAQ Constellation Instruments

Parameter	GEMS	TEMPO	Sentinel-4
Wavelength Range	300-500 nm	290-490, 540-740 nm	305-500, 750-775 nm
Spectral Resolution	0.6 nm (0.2 nm / pixel)	0.6 nm (0.2 nm / pixel)	0.5 nm (0.125m/pixel), 0.12 nm (0.04 nm/pixel)
N/S Field of View (Swath)	7.79°	4.76°	4.0°
E/W Field of Regard	11.5°	14.4°	13.8°
Nominal Spatial Sampling Distance	7 km x 8 km at 38° N	2.1 km x 4.7 km at 33.5°N	8 km x 8 km at 45°N
Detector Imaging Dimensions (Spatial x Spectral)	1028 x 2048	1028 x 2048, 1028 x 2048	600 x 1290, 600 x 713

These instrument differences offer opportunities to evaluate and leverage different priorities for different regions. Geographical extent is likely the biggest driver for future architecture. Coverage larger than the current fields of regards with the current on-orbit technology would require conceding on spatial resolution and/or temporal revisit. One of the largest drivers for new GEO architectures is the larger-format Complementary Metal-Oxide-Silicon (CMOS) detectors. With upwards of 3000-4000 pixels, the possibility of larger fields of regards from a single instrument become more feasible. To measure over landmasses larger than the current FORs in

the current GeoAQ Constellation, one could consider longer revisits to accommodate larger scan ranges. These priorities should be considered for specifying mission requirements. Figure 13 shows an ideal orbital configuration for the satellite constellation of the Geo-Belt.



Figure 13. Vision for an expanded global geostationary air quality constellation, the ‘Geo-Belt’ overlaid on a map of global tropospheric NO₂ concentrations. The original GeoAQ Constellation satellites and their follow-ons are expanded by four new platforms: Geo SA (South America), Geo S (Africa), MEASMA Geo N (Middle East and India), and Geo OCN (Oceania) to extend this critical capability and achieve continuous, hourly monitoring of short-lived pollutants across a majority of the Earth’s populated surface. 3K denotes the 3000 pixels afforded by the new CMOS detectors.

14. Addressing High-Latitude Observing Gaps with Inclined Geosynchronous Orbits (IGOs)

While geostationary (GEO) orbits provide the advantage of frequent temporal revisit rates, their equatorial alignment degrades data quality poleward of $\sim 58^\circ$ latitude due to extreme view zenith angles. Consequently, critical high-latitude regions sit at the absolute limit of current observing ranges, such as TEMPO’s view of the Canadian oil sands (57°N). Continuous monitoring of these high latitudes is increasingly vital, as intensifying boreal megafires and oil sands excavation drive severe air pollution. This localized pollution drastically degrades regional air quality and disproportionately threatens vulnerable, remote populations who lack robust ground-based monitoring infrastructures.

To observe these circumpolar regions, highly elliptical orbits (HEO) are often proposed, as two HEO satellites can provide quasi-geostationary coverage. Space agencies globally have considered HEO missions (Trichtchenko et al., 2014), and the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) recommends HEO for continuous high-latitude viewing in its Vision for the Integrated Observing System (WIGOS) in 2040 (WMO 2019). Canada has specifically explored HEO for atmospheric composition monitoring (Nassar et al., 2019; Nassar et al., 2023). However, Canada’s current Arctic Observing Mission (AOM) concept prioritizes meteorology and infrared sounding over UV-visible spectrometers. While AOM will successfully measure aerosol optical depth (AOD) and gases like CH₄ and NH₃, it will miss critical pollutants like NO₂ and HCHO.

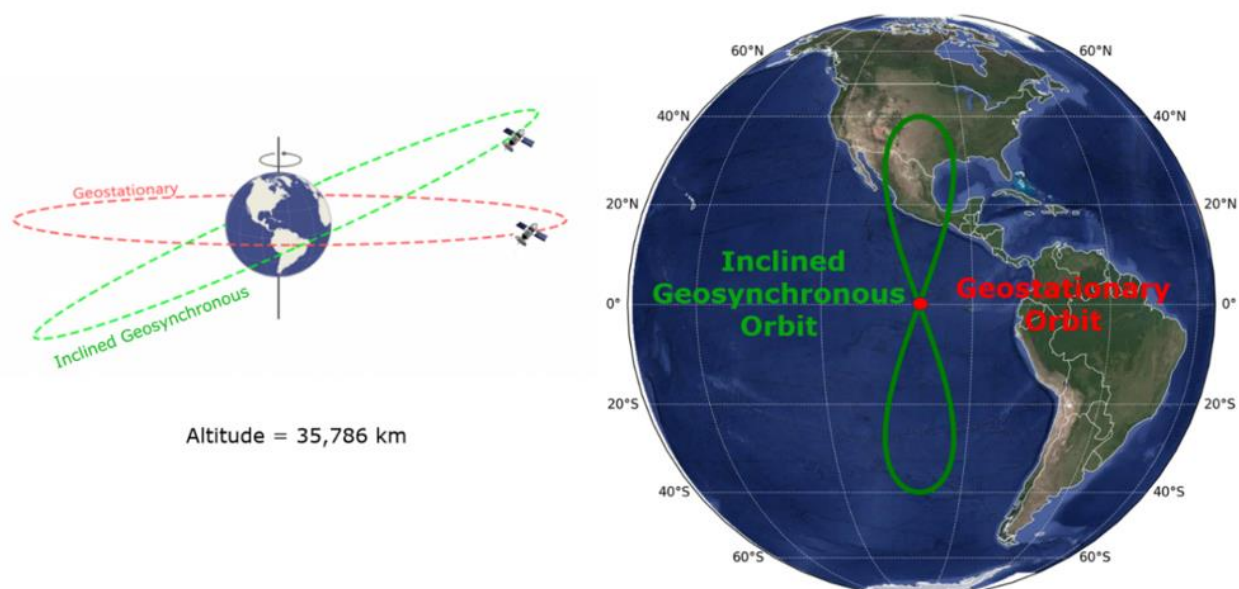


Figure 14 An inclined geosynchronous orbit (IGSO) is compared with a common GEO (left) and their ground tracks (right). Both orbits have the same altitude (35,786 km) and a period synchronized with Earth's rotation, but the IGSO has an orbit track that traces out at an analemma with highest latitude equal to the orbital inclination.

To provide observations in very high latitudes not covered by the measurements of the GeoAQ Constellation (*cf.* Figure 1), Inclined Geosynchronous Orbits (IGOs) offer a solution. Operating at GEO altitude (35,786 km) but with a non-zero inclination, an IGO traces a figure-8 analemma daily. IGOs are ideal for daytime observations focused on a single hemisphere. For instance, an IGO satellite with a 30–40° inclination could cover the U.S., Canada, and Mexico with vastly improved viewing angles compared to standard GEOs, achieving the same revisit rates far more efficiently than deploying multiple HEO satellites.

IGOs also present distinct operational advantages. By maintaining a constant altitude, they easily avoid the Van Allen radiation belts that constrain HEO eccentricities. Furthermore, the emergence of cost-effective micro-GEO buses makes stand-alone IGO air quality missions economically viable. Finally, as Low Earth Orbit (LEO) becomes increasingly congested with mega-constellations and orbital debris, exploiting higher, less crowded orbits like IGOs is a highly advisable strategy for the future of atmospheric monitoring.

15. Ground-Truthing the Geo-Belt: Expanding Surface Monitoring Infrastructure

The success of geostationary missions like GEMS, TEMPO, and Sentinel-4 relies heavily on reliable, co-located surface observations to "ground truth" satellite retrievals of pollutants like O_3 , NO_2 and $PM_{2.5}$. Ironically, the regions that most urgently require satellite monitoring, such as Africa, South America, the Middle East, India, and to some extent Oceania, also suffer from severe ground-level data gaps, presenting a major challenge for validation. Addressing this requires a dedicated, preemptive program to leverage existing infrastructure, establish new observation 'super sites', and train local scientists to ensure the long-term sustainability of these networks.

A survey of current global networks provides a foundational starting point for data assimilation but also highlights critical regional blind spots. For example, distribution maps of the WMO Global Atmosphere Watch (GAW, Figure 15) stations, the Pandonia Global Network (PGN, Figure 16) for Pandora instruments, and the Tropospheric Ozone Assessment Report database

starkly illustrate the lack of surface ozone and atmospheric composition monitoring across the Global South. Furthermore, while MAX-DOAS instruments provide valuable measurements of HCHO, NO₂, and total column O₃ (with some data accessible via the FRM4DOAS project), they currently lack the global coordination seen in networks like Pandonia. Figure 15 shows the publicly available operational WMO GAW stations making at least one measurement of atmospheric composition around the world, illustrating the relative scarcity of observations in the southern Hemisphere, South Asia and the Middle East.



Figure 15. Global distribution of operational WMO Global Atmosphere Watch (GAW) stations making at least one measurement of atmospheric composition. Source: GAWSiS, <https://gawsis.meteoswiss.ch/GAWSIS>

Conversely, the Surface Particulate Matter Network (SPARTAN) demonstrates how targeted ground networks can successfully enhance satellite capabilities. SPARTAN is a global network that evaluates and improves satellite-based PM_{2.5} estimates by co-locating air samplers, which measure PM_{2.5} mass and detailed chemical composition, with sun photometers that measure aerosol optical depth (AOD) at established AERONET sites. This specific combination provides the critical empirical data necessary to translate satellite AOD column measurements into accurate ground-level PM_{2.5} concentrations (Snider et al., 2015). SPARTAN deploys these stations in highly populated, historically under-monitored regions.

The network archives standardized data on components like black carbon, trace metals, and inorganic ions, ultimately improving both global chemical transport models and public health exposure estimates (Weagle et al., 2018).



Figure 16. Current global distribution of Pandora instruments. Source: Pandonia Global Network (PGN), <https://www.pandonia-global-network.org/home/>

The AERosol RObotic NETwork (AERONET, Figure 17) is a globally distributed network of ground-based sun-and-sky radiometers operated by NASA, and numerous international partners to monitor atmospheric aerosols. Recognized as the gold standard for aerosol measurement, AERONET instruments continuously measure aerosol optical depth (AOD) and derive advanced optical, microphysical, and radiative properties across hundreds of sites worldwide. Because it provides highly accurate, continuously calibrated, and open-access data, AERONET serves as the primary "ground truth" for validating satellite aerosol retrievals and evaluating chemical transport models, making it an indispensable tool for understanding regional air pollution, aerosol transport, and climate forcing.

For the proposed expansion of the geostationary GeoAQ Constellation across the Global South, AERONET will be a critical tool for continuous validation. Because the new GEO satellites will provide hourly observations of aerosol optical depth (AOD) rather than once-daily snapshots, AERONET's high-frequency daytime measurements are uniquely suited to validate the rapid diurnal variations captured from space such as morning pollution spikes, fast-moving dust storms, or evolving wildfire smoke plumes. By anchoring these continuous GEO retrievals with highly accurate AERONET ground data, scientists can significantly refine the algorithms used to translate satellite column AOD into ground-level PM_{2.5} concentrations. Expanding AERONET and co-located PM sensor networks in under-monitored regions like Africa, South America, and the Middle East will ensure that the high-cadence data generated by the new GEO satellites is robust, accurate, and immediately useful for public health and policy decisions.



Figure 17. Distribution of AERONET sites on April 5, 2026 color coded by magnitude of the aerosol optical depth.

16. Advancing Predictive Capabilities: The Geo-Belt Satellites Integration in Atmospheric Modeling

Satellite-derived atmospheric composition products have fundamentally transformed the accuracy and reliability of chemical transport models (CTMs), numerical weather prediction (NWP), and air quality forecasting and reanalysis systems (e.g., Benedetti et al., 2018; Xian et al., 2019; Inness et al., 2019; Di Tomaso et al., 2022). Today, these observations play a central role across four major predictive frameworks:

First, in data assimilation systems, integrating variables like aerosol optical depth (AOD), aerosol layer height, NO₂ columns, and ozone profiles continuously corrects model states toward actual atmospheric conditions. This reduces uncertainties in pollutant concentrations and meteorological interactions, leading to measurable improvements in reproducing observed air pollution patterns (Inness et al., 2019; Di Tomaso et al., 2022). Second, these products enable robust emissions estimation. By providing ‘top-down’ estimates from space, satellites help quantify natural and anthropogenic emissions, identifying critical biases in traditional ‘bottom-up’ regional inventories. Third, advanced inverse modeling utilizes these datasets for source attribution, distinguishing between complex origins like biomass burning, dust transport, volcanic activity, and urban emissions to support targeted mitigation strategies (Wu et al., 2022). Finally, in forecast verification frameworks, models are routinely evaluated against satellite data to assess predictive skill, detect systematic biases, and refine representations of chemical reactions, aerosol dynamics, and boundary-layer processes (Akritidis et al., 2018; Eskes et al., 2024).

Looking ahead, the next generation of geostationary and high-resolution hyperspectral satellites is expected to significantly enhance these predictive capabilities. Improved spatial resolution and temporal cadence will allow models to capture street-level urban pollution gradients, rapidly changing emissions, and small-scale atmospheric processes like boundary-layer turbulence, deep convection, and haboobs. Furthermore, it will enable the resolution of episodic, high-impact

phenomena such as wildfire-driven pyro convection. These observational leaps, operating in parallel with rapid advances in artificial intelligence, machine learning, and hybrid modeling (Bertrand et al., 2023; Gui et al., 2026), promise to further revolutionize the integration of satellite data into global and regional atmospheric prediction systems.

17. Strategic Implementation of the Geo-Belt: Policy, Partnerships, and Data Readiness

To realize the full societal benefit of the Geo-Belt, orbiting hardware must be paired with robust, on-the-ground implementation. This requires establishing equitable global partnerships, investing in comprehensive capacity building, and aligning with established international environmental frameworks. Ultimately, the success of this expanded constellation depends on transforming raw satellite observations into harmonized, decision-ready data that empowers policymakers, strengthens equitable air-quality governance, and protects public health worldwide.

a) Fostering Global Partnerships for Geo-Belt

Building the Geo-Belt into a sustainable, globally operating network requires a partnership framework grounded in equitable collaboration. By engaging regional stakeholders, including environmental and health agencies, meteorological services, research institutions, and civil society, across the entire process from problem definition to evaluation, the mission's objectives and data products can be tailored to actual regional decision-making contexts. This participatory model is vastly preferable to a purely top-down approach; sustained stakeholder involvement improves product relevance, usability, and long-term local ownership, ultimately lowering costs and building distributed expertise across regions rather than relying on a single set of institutions (Vargas et al., 2022).

To successfully foster this global cooperation, a multi-level consortium must be established. International space agencies (such as NASA, ESA, JAXA, and KASA) can provide essential mission expertise, calibration support, and interoperability standards, while regional and national institutions define priority pollutants and target policy applications. Concurrently, research institutes and private-sector actors will play crucial roles by providing data retrieval training, AI processing tools, and cloud-based infrastructure to empower local scientists and reduce operational burdens. Because the uptake of satellite data is often hindered by fragmented responsibilities, weak communication, and limited organizational capacity, overcoming these barriers requires formal, cross-sector working groups that unite data providers, regulators, health institutions, and academic analysts into strong, iterative expert networks (Potts et al., 2024). Finally, this collaborative expansion should adopt a phased, staged pathway. Near-term efforts must prioritize regional pilot programs, validation campaigns, and interoperable data services. Fusing satellite observations with ground-based measurements and atmospheric models is widely used and essential for improving the spatial continuity, interpretability, and policy applicability of air-quality information while addressing the inherent limitations of any single data source (Diao et al., 2019). In the medium term, these collaborations can evolve into regional centers of excellence and shared data-processing hubs. Ultimately, this staged approach will build the long-term institutional and technical foundation necessary to support dedicated geostationary missions in the Southern Hemisphere and other under-observed regions, where sparse ground networks and a lack of geostationary coverage currently constrain scientific understanding and environmental monitoring (Paton-Walsh et al., 2022).

b) From Observation to Action: Policy Implications and Capacity Building

Air pollution remains a leading global health risk, yet many regions lack the ground-based monitoring systems necessary to manage it. GEO atmospheric composition observations are not merely scientific endeavors, but as essential public-interest infrastructure. By capturing diurnal emissions, tracking transboundary transport (such as wildfires and dust), and filling massive surface monitoring gaps, the Geo-Belt will yield compounding returns. It provides the critical exposure data required for epidemiology, empowers early warning systems, ensures equitable access to environmental monitoring, and removes the data-scarcity barriers that so often paralyze local policy action.

However, providing open access to satellite data is not enough to guarantee societal benefit. Robust capacity building is essential if Earth observation data is to successfully support science-based decision-making in practice (Kansakar & Hossain, 2016). Therefore, capacity building must be integrated as a core operational requirement of the Geo-Belt, rather than an afterthought. Successful frameworks already demonstrate this necessity: EUMETSAT's *Destination 2030* explicitly links the delivery of atmospheric services to a wider enabling environment, including digital infrastructure and dedicated capacity-building efforts with a particular focus on Africa (EUMETSAT, 2021). Similarly, the Copernicus CAMS National Collaboration Programme drives the national uptake of atmospheric products through co-designed activities, localized training, and seamless integration with existing in-situ monitoring networks (Copernicus, 2026). These established programs prove that atmospheric data becomes operationally valuable only when embedded within broader, user-facing services, such as public air quality indices, health-relevant tools, and policy-support platforms. Consequently, Geo-Belt requires investments that go beyond simply teaching users how to download data. A credible capacity-building package must cultivate the institutional, technical, and digital ecosystems necessary to transform raw satellite observations into trusted, actionable services. This includes sustained workforce development for analysts and regulators, supporting regional calibration and validation campaigns, creating open-access processing workflows, and establishing regional data hubs that can seamlessly convert atmospheric observations into policy-ready information.

c) Supporting Global Air Quality Frameworks and Collaborations

Air pollution is a systemic global challenge that arises from interconnected sources, including transport, industry, agriculture, and household combustion requiring highly coordinated international action. Organizations such as the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), the World Health Organization (WHO), the World Meteorological Organisation (WMO), and the Climate and Clean Air Coalition (CCAC) play central roles in strengthening air quality governance and mitigation strategies. Consequently, the Geo-Belt should not be framed as a standalone technical initiative, but rather as a foundational infrastructure designed to empower and strengthen these existing international efforts, particularly in under-monitored regions. International conventions have historically driven crucial action on transboundary pollution. For example, the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe's (UNECE) Convention on Long Range Transboundary Air Pollution (LRTAP) and its European Monitoring and Evaluation Programme (EMEP) have successfully utilized monitoring and modeling to establish legally binding commitments for reducing emissions across borders. The GeoAQ Constellation is highly relevant to these frameworks, as it provides the robust, harmonized observational systems needed for transboundary assessment and comparable reporting. Even in regions lacking strong regulatory mechanisms like LRTAP, the Geo-Belt can provide the common evidence base necessary to foster emerging cross-border cooperation and shared monitoring standards. As such, the Geo-Belt is a global asset that is in the national interest of all countries.

Reliable data is the backbone of these global assessments. The WHO currently tracks global air quality through its database and analytical frameworks like the Data Integration Model for Air Quality (DIMAQ) (Shaddick et al., 2020), which fuses ground monitoring, satellite observations, and modeling to estimate population exposure. These efforts are complemented by the WMO's Global Atmosphere Watch (GAW) programme, which standardizes atmospheric composition measurements globally. With the global population projected to reach ~8.5 billion by 2030, massive populations in rapidly urbanizing regions remain at risk. To effectively address this, the Geo-Belt's must align directly with these established global systems, filling critical observational gaps rather than duplicating efforts. By integrating into the wider international data ecosystem, the GeoAQ Constellation will deliver interoperable, decision-relevant air-quality information to regions where sparse in situ networks currently constrain environmental governance.

d) The Need for Harmonized, Analysis-Ready Air Quality Data

The true policy value of Geo-Belt relies on its ability to translate raw satellite observations into trusted, decision-ready products. Raw measurements are rarely sufficient for policymakers; they require harmonized retrievals, explicit uncertainty quantification, and seamless integration into existing forecasting systems. Because satellite observations typically measure column-integrated data rather than direct surface concentrations, converting these measurements into usable air-quality indicators requires careful retrieval design and fusion with ground-based monitors and models. While data fusion improves spatial continuity and practical usability, its performance remains highly sensitive to data quality and the availability of validation data (Diao et al., 2019; Malings et al., 2020).

Therefore, harmonization must be a core design objective from the outset. Standardized retrieval methods ensure that products are comparable across different regions and over time. This is particularly critical in Africa and the Middle East, where high dust loading, bright surfaces, and sparse ground monitors create difficult retrieval conditions. Without harmonized and well-documented methods, the same pollutant fields can be interpreted differently, which undermines confidence and limits policy uptake (Paton-Walsh et al., 2022). Explicit uncertainty quantification must also be integrated so decision-makers understand confidence levels, especially since inconsistencies can arise even among publicly available products that use similar data sources (Diao et al., 2019).

Equally fundamental is robust validation. Satellite products only become trusted operational tools when supported by sustained calibration using ground-based reference sites. In under-observed regions like the Southern Hemisphere, a lack of validation infrastructure can become a severe bottleneck for the entire observing system's reliability (EUMETSAT, 2024). To maximize utility, interoperability must be a central operational principle. Products should be designed with common metadata standards to integrate effortlessly into national monitoring systems, much like the successful approach taken by CAMS (EUMETSAT, 2021).

The Geo-Belt offers an unprecedented opportunity to support the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), particularly in developing countries that often struggle with limited technical capacity and fragmented statistical systems (Andries et al., 2022). For example, Earth Observation and harmonized modeling can help localize SDG 11.6.2 (urban PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ exposure), moving beyond simple national reporting to actively identifying pollution hotspots and guiding interventions (Bailey et al., 2023). Ultimately, GeoAQ Constellation products must go beyond being 'analysis-ready' for scientists to become 'decision-ready' for public authorities. Policymakers do not need raw data; they need timely, comparable formats like hotspot maps and transboundary diagnostics to support immediate action (Potts et al., 2024). The success of the

Geo-Belt will be judged by its ability to deliver authoritative, policy-relevant evidence that drives equitable air-quality governance worldwide.

18. Conclusion

The expansion of the geostationary air quality constellation into a comprehensive global "Geo-Belt" is an urgent scientific and public health imperative. Rapid urbanization, surging anthropogenic emissions, and intensifying climate-driven events across Africa, the Middle East, India, South America, and Oceania expose massive, vulnerable populations to hazardous levels of NO₂, O₃, and PM_{2.5} (Abera et al., 2021; Faridi et al., 2023). Currently, the reliance on the once-daily snapshots of Low Earth Orbit (LEO) satellites and sparse surface monitoring networks fails to capture the rapid, diurnal evolution of these pollutants, leaving critical blind spots in global environmental governance and epidemiological impact assessments (Heft-Neal et al., 2018).

To address this, the global community must leverage the successful design and proven technological heritage of the foundational GeoAQ Constellation instruments: TEMPO, Sentinel-4, and GEMS (CEOS, 2019). Crucially, as we expand to new regions, we must also actively support the continuity of this existing Northern Hemisphere network. Because GEMS was the first of these observatories to launch, the prompt deployment of its successor, GEMS-2, is an urgent international priority to preserve the current constellation and maintain an unbroken climate data record (Yang et al., 2024). Building upon these pioneering spectrometer architectures to deploy similar geostationary platforms over the Global South will yield unprecedented insights into diurnal atmospheric chemistry. When integrated into advanced chemical transport models, these hourly observations will drastically reduce emission inventory biases, enhance predictive forecasting, and enable real-time, life-saving public health interventions (Inness et al., 2019; Di Tomaso et al., 2022; Shu et al., 2023).

However, realizing the full potential of the Geo-Belt requires more than orbiting hardware. It demands a holistic, collaborative approach that includes the expansion of ground-based validation networks, such as SPARTAN and AERONET, to accurately anchor satellite retrievals (Snider et al., 2015; Weagle et al., 2018). Furthermore, it necessitates the production of harmonized, uncertainty-aware data products to ensure interoperability and cross-regional comparability (Diao et al., 2019; Malings et al., 2020). Coupled with sustained institutional capacity building and integration into established global environmental frameworks (Shaddick et al., 2020), this expanded constellation will successfully transform raw satellite observations into decision-ready, actionable evidence (Potts et al., 2024). Ultimately, this coordinated global commitment is essential to drive equitable air-quality management and safeguard public health worldwide.

19. References

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20. Acronyms

21. Appendix