



Trace Gases over Land and Ocean Surfaces of China: Hotspots, Trends, and Source Contributions

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Abstract

Trace gases in the atmosphere (NO_2 : nitrogen dioxide; SO_2 : sulfur dioxide) have a major impact on both local and global air quality, human health, climate and ecological conditions. Therefore, the present study investigated 16 years (2005–2020) of Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) based NO_2 and SO_2 in Dobson unit (DU) spatiotemporal distributions and variability, SO_2/NO_2 ratio, trends, and potential source contribution function (PSCF) across ocean and land areas of Jiangsu Province, China. Results demonstrated higher NO_2 and SO_2 concentrations (DU) over land (NO_2 : 0.58 and SO_2 : 0.56) than in the ocean (NO_2 : 0.30 and SO_2 : 0.38) due to more concentrated anthropogenic activities on land surfaces. There were significant seasonal variations in NO_2 and SO_2 , with winter being the highest and summer being the lowest. The SO_2/NO_2 ratio shows land and ocean pollution is caused by NO_2 and SO_2 emissions from ships and industrial processes. Furthermore, OMI-based trace gases and anthropogenic emissions showed a good correlation (NO_2 vs $\text{NO}_x = 0.626$ and SO_2 vs SO_2 emission = 0.871) across land surfaces than the ocean (NO_2 vs $\text{NO}_x = 0.366$). NO_2 and SO_2 levels over land surfaces decreased significantly (at a 95% confidence level) compared to the ocean on annual and seasonal scales, which is attributed to a decrease in NO_x and SO_2 emissions. Furthermore, PSCF analysis shows that local sources have a greater impact on air quality than long-distance sources over land and ocean. It is concluded from this study that Chinese air pollution control policies achieved a satisfactory improvement in Jiangsu's air quality by reducing NO_2 and SO_2 . It is therefore recommended to continue or extend these policies in the future to improve China's air quality, which will benefit its citizens.

Keywords Air quality · Jiangsu Province in China · Hotspots · OMI · PSCF · Trace gases · Trends

1 Introduction

Numerous environmental problems, such as air pollution, have arisen from China's fast industrialization, socioeconomic development, urbanization, and meteorological factors (Chan and Yao 2008; de Leeuw et al. 2021; Wei et al. 2023). Aerosol and gaseous pollutants (e.g., aerosol optical depth: AOD, particulate matters, Ozone, nitrogen dioxide: NO_2 , sulfur dioxide: SO_2) are the leading causes of air pollution (Wang et al. 2021b). Two atmospheric trace gases, NO_2 and SO_2 , play a significant role in chemical reactions. For example, by reacting with hydroxyl radicals (OH), NO_2

produces aerosols and acid rain through an oxidizing process in the atmosphere, which are dangerous to both the atmospheric environment (reducing vegetation and forest, corroding buildings, and contributing to heating worldwide) and health problems (asthma, colds, coughs, flu, bronchitis, and cancer) (Lelieveld et al. 2002; Lelieveld and Dentener 2000; Seinfeld and Pandis 2006). Both anthropogenic activities (e.g., burning of fossil fuel and biomass, electric- and coal-based power plants) and natural sources (volcanoes, oceans, biological decay, and lightning) produce the emission of nitrogen oxides (NO_x) (Lee et al. 1997). Among China's NO_2 emissions in 2010, 39% came from industry, 32% from power plants, 25% from traffic, and 4% from residential activities (Li et al. 2017a, b). Furthermore, SO_2 contributes to producing sulfate aerosols and acid rain, which negatively affect human health (e.g., breathing problems for asthmatic children and adults, cardiovascular or chronic lung disease)

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(Miller 2005), as well as the atmospheric environment (climate and building corrosion) (Hutchinson and Whitby 1977; Pope and Dockery 2006). SO₂ comes from a variety of natural (e.g., volcanoes, fires, and phytoplankton) and anthropogenic sources (e.g., burning of high-sulfur coals and heating oils in power plants, industrial boilers, and metal smelting) (Jain et al. 2016). NO₂ and SO₂ emissions from ships also adversely affect coastal and inland air quality (within a hundred kilometers of the emission sources) (Lv et al. 2018). In addition, the effects of NO₂ and SO₂ on air quality, the climate, human health, terrestrial acidification, and marine ecosystems (Berglen 2004; Seinfeld and Pandis 2006).

Carey et al. (2013) reported that long-term exposure to NO₂ and SO₂ could increase mortality rates. Long-term exposure to NO₂ is also accountable for the significant increase in China's respiratory and cardiovascular mortality rates (Dong et al. 2012; Tao et al. 2012). To account for the effects of NO₂ and SO₂ on human health and the atmospheric environment, several researchers around the globe have investigated the characteristics of these two gaseous pollutants using both ground and satellite observations (Bilal et al. 2021; Hilboll et al. 2013; Krotkov et al. 2016; Lin and McElroy 2011; Zhang et al. 2017a, b; Zheng et al. 2018a, b).

Ground-based observations stations can present accurate and reliable scenarios of gaseous pollutants, providing details of their temporal distributions and their consequences on the climate and human health (Zhang et al. 2017a, b; Zheng et al. 2018a, b). However, the ground-based stations are unevenly and sparsely distributed and thus can fail to identify NO₂ and SO₂ pollution hotspots at fine spatial scales (Wang et al. 2021b). Satellite-based observations provide near-real-time (NRT) long-term data of gaseous pollutants (e.g., NO₂ and SO₂) with global coverage at different spatial resolutions and thus, can overcome the limitations of ground-based measurements. In addition, satellite-based observations allow long-distance NO₂ and SO₂ transportation assessment (Lu et al. 2013; Wang et al. 2011) and identify contributions from different sources (Zhang et al. 2008). Several satellite-based sensors, namely the Global Ozone Monitoring Experiment (GOME) instrument (Burrows et al. 1999; Eisinger and Burrows 1998), the Scanning Imaging Absorption spectrometer for Atmospheric CHartographY (SCIAMACHY) (Bovensmann et al. 1999), GOME-2 (Calles et al. 2004; Munro et al. 2016), the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) (Levelt et al. 2006a, b), and the Tropospheric Monitoring Instrument (TROPOMI) (Veefkind et al. 2012), have been built and launched to acquire accurate evidence about atmospheric gaseous pollutants. However, OMI, in particular, provides long-term observations of the atmospheric gaseous pollutants at high spatial (13 × 24 km, at nadir) with daily global coverage (Krotkov et al. 2016; Levelt et al. 2018). OMI-based measurements have been widely used for monitoring air quality by detecting aerosols, NO₂,

SO₂, and formaldehyde (HCHO) and detecting Ozone (O₃), volcanic emission, and solar radiation. Globally, OMI-based NO₂ showed a good correlation ($r = 0.80\text{--}0.90$) with ground-based measurements (Celarier et al. 2008). A study over the United States also reported a good correlation between satellite (GOME and OMI) and ground-based NO₂ measurements (Penn and Holloway 2020). Consequently, many researchers have used satellite observations worldwide to investigate NO₂ and SO₂ pollution. For example, Krotkov et al. (2016) investigated changes in OMI-based NO₂ and SO₂ pollution over the United States, Asia, and Europe from 2005 to 2015 and reported decreasing and increasing trends in NO₂ and SO₂. Jion et al. (2023) reported increasing trends in NO₂ and SO₂ pollution across Asian countries due to the excess burning of biomass and fossil fuel, and power plants. In addition, Lamsal et al. (2015) evaluated the trends in OMI-based tropospheric NO₂ vertical column density (VCD) against ground-based measurements over the United States. ul-Haq et al. (2015) studied the spatiotemporal distributions and variations of OMI-based NO₂ and its trend from 2004 to 2015 over South Asian countries. Bilal et al. (2021) have characterized polluted cities of Pakistan based on long-term (2004–2019) NO₂ and SO₂ observations from OMI.

Some previous studies also validated and analyzed spatiotemporal distributions and trends of OMI-based NO₂ and SO₂ over mainland China (Cui et al. 2016; Li et al. 2017a, b; Li et al. 2010; Liu et al. 2017, 2016; van der A et al. 2017; Wang et al. 2021b, 2017; Wei et al. 2023; Zhai et al. 2023; Zhang et al. 2017a, b; Zheng et al. 2018a, b). However, none of them attempted to analyze spatiotemporal distributions and variability of OMI-based NO₂ and SO₂ with their trends over the ocean. Only a single study has investigated NO₂, SO₂, and HCHO over the East China Sea using ship-based MAX-DOAS and satellite observations (OMI and Ozone Mapping and Profiler Suite (OMPS)) (Tan et al. 2018). Generally, in marine environments, the concentrations of trace gases are very low because no emission sources exist there, except for some maritime transport and natural sources. Schreier et al. (2015) reported low NO₂ VCD ($< 0.5 \times 10^{15}$ molec/cm²) in the marine environment of the South China and Sulu seas. In addition, they found boundary layer values of NO₂ less than 100 pptv and 30 pptv in the open and clean tropical marine environment of the South China and Sulu seas, respectively. The time-series magnitudes of SO₂ concentrations were consistent with NO₂ in these areas. Takashima et al. (2012) also reported low NO₂ concentrations (~0.2 ppbv) over the western Pacific and Indian oceans. However, concentrations of these pollutants were high close to the shore due to the operations of busy ports and vessels (Schreier et al. 2015; Takashima et al. 2012). These pollutants significantly affect local and regional air pollution in both inland and offshore areas of the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) region (Fan et al. 2016; Zhang et al. 2017a, b). In

recent years they have also affected the ecology and environment of the continental YRD region, including the coast and land areas of Jiangsu province (Chen et al. 2017; Song et al. 2017). Therefore, it is crucial to identify NO_2 and SO_2 pollution hotspots and sources over both the ocean and land regions of Jiangsu Province. This is the first study to identify the pollution hotspots using long-term (2005–2020) OMI-based NO_2 and SO_2 data and their sources over the ocean and land in Jiangsu province, China. The present study is designed based on the following three main objectives: (1) to analyze long-term spatiotemporal distributions and variations of OMI-based NO_2 and SO_2 , their ratio, and trends, (2) to measure the contributions of anthropogenic emissions (NO_x and SO_2) to total NO_2 and SO_2 concentration changes, and (3) to identify the potential source areas using PSCF analysis. This study provides a better understanding of local emission sources over the land and ocean surfaces of Jiangsu, China as a result of the interaction with atmospheric gaseous pollutants in the atmosphere.

2 Study Area

The land and ocean parts of Jiangsu Province cover between $30^\circ 5' - 35^\circ \text{N}$ and $116^\circ 5' - 126^\circ 3' \text{E}$ (Fig. 1). Jiangsu Province is an economically developed province in eastern China, having dense metropolises and large rural areas. Crop residue burning, high traffic volumes, industrial production, and urban construction activities in the province cause significant air pollution (Wang et al. 2021a). The province is

between the YRD and the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH) regions, where air pollution frequently occurs. The coastal waters of the YRD regions (e.g., Jiangsu, Shanghai, and Zhejiang) are the busiest sea area of the East China Sea (ECS), known as the three key Ship Emission Control Zones (ECZs) of China (see Fig. 1). In addition, the continental YRD region is a developed industrial city cluster of China or even the world. More than 15 large ports exist in the YRD coastal port cluster, with a flourishing shipping industry that releases SO_2 , NO_2 , and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in the atmosphere.

3 Materials and Methods

3.1 OMI Data

The OMI, a near-polar orbiting sensor of the Aura satellite, crosses the equator at 13:45 (local time), hovering over 705 km from the earth's surface. It was deployed on 15th 2004 July by NASA with the cooperation of Finland, the United Kingdom, and the Netherlands. This sensor uses 250–500 nm wavelengths to measure the reflected solar radiation daily at a spatial resolution of $13 \times 25 \text{ km}$ at the nadir. OMI UV spectral measurements utilize several algorithms to retrieve total and tropospheric column densities of trace gases such as NO_2 and SO_2 (Krotkov et al. 2016; Carn et al. 2017). In the present study, OMI version 3 (V3) level-3 (L3) daily total column NO_2 (OMNO2d; cloud-screened: cloud fraction $< 30\%$) and SO_2 (cloud radiance

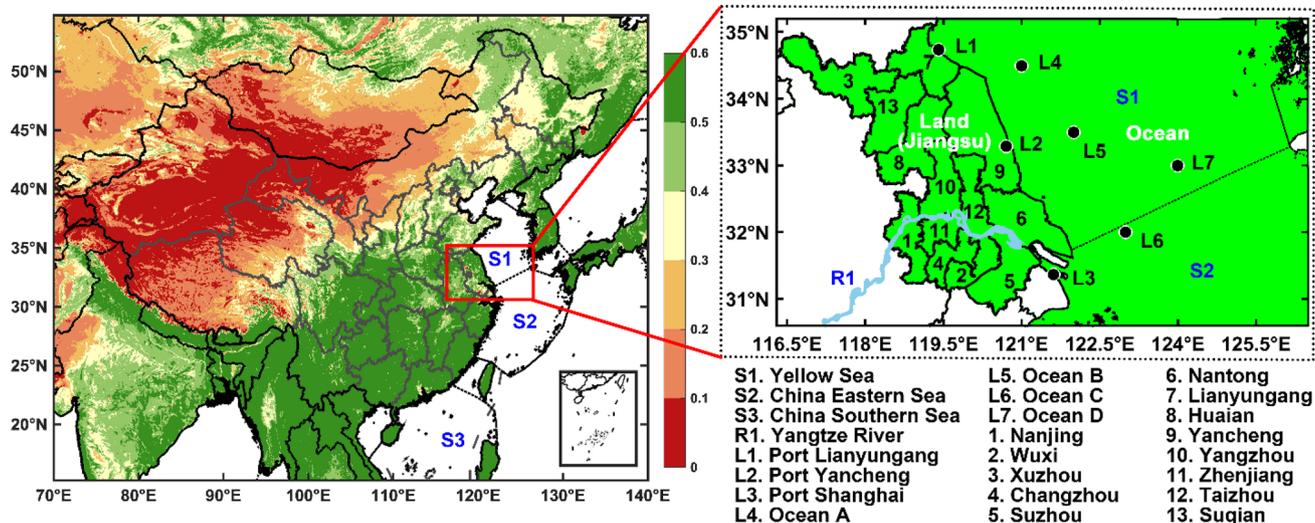


Fig. 1 Map of the study area, including China's ocean and land (Jiangsu Province) surface. The background image reveals the multi-year (2005–2020) averages of MODIS NDVI, with arid surfaces ($\text{NDVI} < 0.2$), lighter or sparse vegetation ($0.2 < \text{NDVI} < 0.4$), moderate vegetation ($0.4 < \text{NDVI} < 0.5$), and dark vegetation ($\text{NDVI} > 0.5$).

Sea boundary is taken from Glaciology and Geocryology Data Center, National Earth System Science Data Sharing Infrastructure, National Science & Technology Infrastructure of China (<http://westdc.geodata.cn/index.htm>)

fraction < 0.2 , OMSO_{2e}) products with a spatial resolution of $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ were used.

Furthermore, OMI-based NO_x and SO₂ emissions were used in this study to clearly understand anthropogenic emission scenarios. This study obtained a satellite-based NO_x emission dataset from the DECSO (Daily Emission Constrained by Satellite Observations) algorithm. DECSO algorithm was developed to estimate NO_x emissions with a spatial resolution of $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ over East Asia, West Asia, South Africa, and India (Mijling and van der A, 2012). This algorithm has been significantly upgraded and validated over South Asia (Ding et al. 2018, 2017b, 2017a). The tropospheric NO₂ column-integrated values were calculated from OMI-based NO₂ concentrations using the QA4ECV algorithm (quality assurance for the essential climate variables) (Boersma et al. 2018) and then used as input to the DECSO algorithm for estimating NO_x emissions. More details can be found in Mijling and van der A (2012) and Ding et al. (2017b). Furthermore, SO₂ emissions were estimated by combining OMI-based measurements with the Multi-resolution Emissions Inventory for China (MEIC) inventory. More details can be found in Theys et al. (2015) and van der A et al. (2017). Anthropogenic NO_x and SO₂ emissions data are accessible through the TEMIS (Tropospheric Emission Monitoring Internet Service) portal.

3.2 Methodology for NO₂ and SO₂

Several methods were applied to detect NO₂ and SO₂ pollution hotspots and identify their potential sources over ocean and land territories:

- An analysis of long-term annual and seasonal averages for the OMI-based total columns of NO₂ and SO₂ was conducted over the entire study area. Furthermore, the shapefile was used to extract area averages for Jiangsu Province's coastal and land areas for seasonal and annual analysis.
- A frequency distribution was used to visualize the variability (lows and highs) of NO₂ and SO₂ concentrations over land and ocean surfaces in Jiangsu Province, China.
- A SO₂/NO₂ ratio was used in order to identify the sources of air pollutants over land and ocean, regardless of whether they originated from mobile sources (traffic emissions) or from point sources (industrial activities). A high value of the SO₂/NO₂ ratio (> 0.60) indicates significant contributions from industrial activities over land (Wang et al. 2021b), while the SO₂/NO₂ ratio > 1.5 reflects the emission of high-sulfur fuel content from ships across the ocean (Cheng et al. 2019b).
- The Mann-Kendal (MK) test (Kendall 1975; Mann 1945) (Mann 1945; Kendall 1975), associated with the Theil-Sen's slope (Sen 1968; Theil 1992), was used to calculate

trends of NO₂ and SO₂ across ocean and land territories for the period of 2005–2020. The significance of NO₂ and SO₂ trends was calculated using a two-tailed test at a 95% confidence level. More details about the methods can be found in Wang et al. (2021a, b).

- The NOAA (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration) HYSPLIT (Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory) model (Stein et al. 2015) was used to calculate the source of air masses (Fleming et al. 2012). This is a complete chemical transformation, dispersion, and transport model. The NOAA HYSPLIT model was combined with PSCF to detect the potential sources of NO₂ and SO₂ concentrations that influence the air quality of ocean and land territories in China. The MeteoInfo TrajStat and HYSPLIT (Wang et al. 2009) were used to compute back trajectories and identify sources of NO₂ and SO₂ concentrations across China. This method was also used in recently published papers in China and Asian countries (Ali et al. 2023; Bilal et al. 2021; Wang et al. 2021b). 72-h back trajectories at 500 m above ground level were computed for every hour at seasonal scales from 2005 to 2020 using meteorological data from GDAS (the Global Data Assimilation System) with a spatial resolution of $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$. The PSCF analysis used OMI-based daily NO₂ and SO₂ concentrations over a grid with a resolution of 0.5° . The PSCF value was calculated based on the assumption that the trajectory endpoint is located within a grid cell (i, j), and the trajectory was assumed to collect pollutants emitted from different pocket emission sources within that cell (i, j). The PSCF value can be explained as a conditional probability that defines the potential contributions of a grid cell to the high NO₂ and SO₂ loadings at the receptor sites. The value of PSCF for the ij^{th} grid cell is calculated based on the following Eq. (2):

$$PSCF = \frac{m_{ij}}{n_{ij}} \quad (1)$$

where n_{ij} is the number of endpoints that fall or pass through the ij^{th} cell, and m_{ij} defines the number of endpoints in the ij^{th} cell having a concentration higher than an arbitrarily set criterion of the 75 percentile. For NO₂ and SO₂, the thresholds were 0.498 (DU) and 0.577 (DU), respectively. To reduce the uncertainty of PSCF which resulted from small n_{ij} , an arbitrary weight function ($W_{i,j}$) is multiplied into the PSCF (Eq. 2):

$$W_{i,j} = \begin{cases} ifn_{ij} > 3\bar{n} \rightarrow 1.00 \\ if1.5\bar{n} < n_{ij} \leq 3\bar{n} \rightarrow 0.70 \\ if\bar{n} < n_{ij} \leq 1.5\bar{n} \rightarrow 0.42 \\ ifn_{ij} \leq \bar{n} \rightarrow 0.15 \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

here, n = average number of endpoints, which is calculated for each cell that has at least one endpoint. Hence, the Weighted PSCF (WPSCF) is computed using Eq. (3):

$$WPSCF = W_{i,j} \times PSCF(i,j) \quad (3)$$

4 Results and Discussion

4.1 Spatial Distributions of OMI NO₂ and SO₂

The annual and seasonal spatial distributions of OMI NO₂ and SO₂ across ocean and land surfaces of Jiangsu Province during 2005–2020 (Fig. 2). The results show higher seasonal and annual of NO₂ and SO₂ across land compared to ocean surfaces (Fig. 2). In particular, the spatial distributions of mean yearly NO₂ and SO₂ were higher (> 0.40 DU) over the northern (Xuzhou, Suqian, and Lianyungang) and southern (Changzhou, Nanjing, Suzhou, Wuxi, and Zhenjiang) cities of Jiangsu province than ocean surfaces (≤ 0.40 DU). Moreover, the 16-year area average NO₂ and SO₂ were comparatively high over land (0.58 ± 0.06 for NO₂ and 0.56 ± 0.11 for SO₂) than over ocean (0.30 ± 0.03 for NO₂; 0.38 ± 0.06 for SO₂) (Table 1). The higher NO₂ and SO₂ over land could be attributed to anthropogenic activities, as reported by Wang et al. 2021b. In contrast, relatively low concentrations over the ocean are due to fewer emission sources on ocean surfaces (Tan et al. 2018). Several studies reported that ships also contribute to NO₂ and SO₂ in marine environments (Corbett et al. 1999; Endresen 2003; Eyring et al. 2010; Matthias et al. 2010). Cheng et al. (2019a) reported that the Ship Emission Control Zones of China (ECZ) in the Pearl River Delta (PRD), the Yangtse River Delta (YRD), and the Bohai Rim (Beijing–Tianjin–Hebei) are the primary source of NO₂ and SO₂ concentrations. Therefore, the Eastern and Southern China seas are hotspots of NO₂ and SO₂ concentrations (Johansson et al. 2017). The pollution level in the marine environment is higher near the coastal areas due to busy ports and ship lanes and lower in remote oceanic regions due to less maritime traffic (Eyring et al. 2010; Fan et al. 2016). Lamsal et al. (2013) reported that dense population and unsustainable anthropogenic emissions from mobile sources (e.g., traffic emissions) also contribute to high NO₂ pollution over land. Increased emissions of SO₂ over the northern cities of Jiangsu Province are mainly attributed to significant local activities (Dahiya and Myllyvirta 2019). According to Jion et al. (2023), the burning of biomass and fossil fuel, power plants, and heavy traffic in China have resulted in higher levels of NO₂ and SO₂ pollution.

Significant seasonal variations in NO₂ and SO₂ concentrations were observed across land and ocean (Fig. 2 and Table 1). For example, the 16-year area-averaged NO₂ and

SO₂ were comparatively high in winter over land surfaces (0.83 ± 0.12 for NO₂ and 0.75 ± 0.16 for SO₂) than the ocean (0.44 ± 0.08 for NO₂; 0.50 ± 0.09 for SO₂) (Fig. 2 and Table 1). This is attributed mainly to stable meteorological conditions, weak photochemical conversion, and coal burning for winter room heating (Qi et al. 2012; Zhang et al. 2017a, b). In winter, the stable atmospheric conditions and low boundary layer height accumulate and slow down the NO₂ washing-out process in the atmosphere, resulting in high NO₂ in the total column (Bilal et al. 2021; Mhawish et al. 2020; Qi et al. 2012; Zhang et al. 2017a, b). In spring, the NO₂ (0.56 ± 0.08) and SO₂ (0.60 ± 0.15) were the second-highest over land than the ocean (0.29 ± 0.03 for NO₂; 0.44 ± 0.09 for SO₂) (Table 1). In summer, the NO₂ and SO₂ were lowest both over land (NO₂ = 0.34 ± 0.02; SO₂ = 0.33 ± 0.06) and ocean (0.20 ± 0.01 and 0.23 ± 0.03), which is attributed to the plenty of precipitation, rapid photochemical conversion, and better atmospheric diffusion (Feng et al. 2001; Qi et al. 2012). Higher NO₂ and SO₂ (0.58 ± 0.05 and 0.54 ± 0.14) over land surface compared to the ocean (0.25 ± 0.03 for NO₂; 0.34 ± 0.05 for SO₂) were also noticed in autumn (Table 1). High NO₂ and SO₂ in winter were also reported by several studies conducted over China (Meng et al. 2010; Wang et al. 2021b; Xue et al. 2020; Zhang et al. 2017a, b; Zheng et al. 2018a, b; Zheng et al. 2014).

4.2 Frequency Distributions of OMI NO₂ and SO₂

The annual and seasonal frequency distributions of daily OMI NO₂ and SO₂ over ocean and land for 2005–2020 (Fig. 3). The occurrence frequency of NO₂ and SO₂ were calculated for each 0.15 (DU) interval (Fig. 3). At annual timescale, the NO₂ and SO₂ occurrence frequencies over the ocean were highest for the 0.15–0.30 bin (e.g., NO₂ = 65.70% and SO₂ = 36.65%). On the other hand, the highest NO₂ and SO₂ occurrence frequencies over land were observed for 0.30–0.45 bin (NO₂ = 32.12% and SO₂ = 21.82%) (Fig. 3). The occurrence of high NO₂ (> 0.45 DU) was higher over land than over ocean (Occurrence frequency: land ~ 52%; ocean ~ 12%). Similarly, the occurrence of high SO₂ (> 0.45 DU) was also higher over land (53%) than over the ocean (25%). A previous study also reported that the land surfaces of Jiangsu Province are affected mainly by moderate (0.30–0.45 DU) NO₂ and SO₂ pollution (Wang et al. 2021b). Notably, very high NO₂ and SO₂ pollution (bin > 0.60) also affect both land (NO₂ = 33%; SO₂ = 34%) and ocean (NO₂ = 7%; SO₂ = 12%) surfaces (Fig. 3). The ship traffic density and atmospheric dispersion are the main drivers of SO₂ and NO₂ variations over ocean surfaces (Cheng et al. 2019b). Furthermore, the NO₂ and SO₂ occurrence frequencies display a marked seasonal cycle (Fig. 3). Seasonally, the winter NO₂ and SO₂ occurrence frequencies

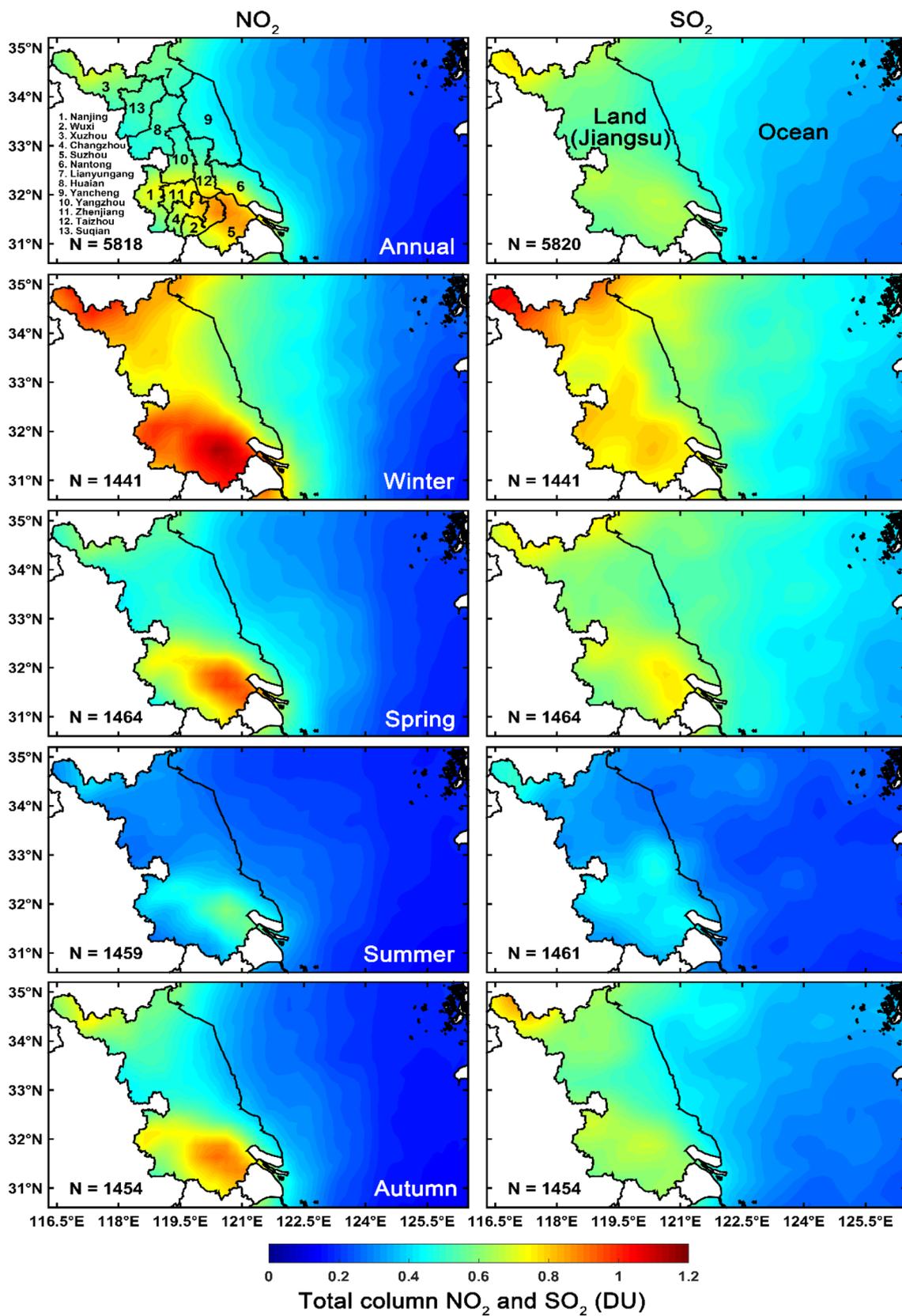


Fig. 2 Annual and spatial distribution of OMI-based NO_2 (DU) and SO_2 (DU) over ocean and land areas of Jiangsu Province, China, averaged for the period 2005 to 2020 [N defines the number of valid pixels]

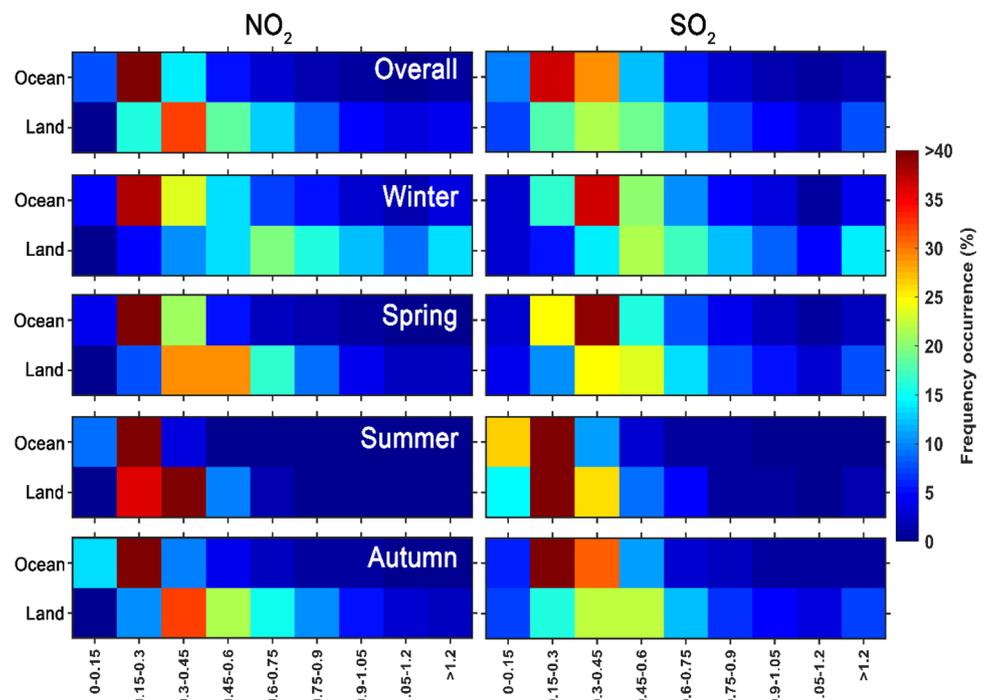
Table 1 Annual and seasonal mean NO₂ and SO₂ (\pm STD), obtained from OMI for the period 2005–2020 over ocean and land surfaces (Jiangsu Province)

	Trace gas	Ocean	Land
Annual	NO ₂	0.30 \pm 0.03	0.58 \pm 0.06
	SO ₂	0.38 \pm 0.06	0.56 \pm 0.11
Winter	NO ₂	0.44 \pm 0.08	0.83 \pm 0.12
	SO ₂	0.50 \pm 0.09	0.75 \pm 0.16
Spring	NO ₂	0.29 \pm 0.03	0.56 \pm 0.08
	SO ₂	0.44 \pm 0.09	0.60 \pm 0.15
Summer	NO ₂	0.20 \pm 0.01	0.34 \pm 0.02
	SO ₂	0.23 \pm 0.03	0.33 \pm 0.06
Autumn	NO ₂	0.25 \pm 0.03	0.58 \pm 0.05
	SO ₂	0.34 \pm 0.05	0.54 \pm 0.14

were highest at 0.60–0.75 bin, which is mainly attributed to more emission from heating, weak photochemical conversion, and atmospheric mixing (Qi et al. 2012). Over ocean surfaces, the NO₂ occurrence frequencies of 0.15–0.30 bin were highest in all seasons, while the SO₂ occurrence frequencies of 0.15–0.30 bin were highest in autumn and summer and the 0.30–0.45 bin in winter and spring (Fig. 3). This indicates that a moderate level of SO₂ pollution across ocean surfaces in winter and spring is mainly transported from land surfaces. Recent studies also reported that the winter and spring SO₂ pollution over ocean surfaces (including the Yellow Sea) primarily comes from Eastern China (Jeon et al. 2021, 2018).

4.3 OMI SO₂/NO₂ ratio

The SO₂/NO₂ ratio was used to detect the sources of air pollutants over land, whether from mobile sources (traffic emissions) or point sources (industrial activities) (Abdul Halim et al. 2018; Aneja et al. 2001; Nirel and Dayan 2001; Wang et al. 2021b) and over the ocean from ship emissions (Cheng et al. 2019a; Zhou et al. 2019). The results show significant annual and seasonal variations in SO₂/NO₂ ratio over land and ocean (Fig. 4). Annually, the SO₂/NO₂ ratio over land varied from 1.28 to 1.36 during 2005–2008, indicating more SO₂ emissions than NO₂ from point sources. Over the ocean, the SO₂/NO₂ ratio ranged from 1.52 to 1.71 during the same period, indicating the emission of high-sulfur fuel content from Ships. Afterward, the ratio gradually drops from 2009 both over land (SO₂/NO₂: 0.76–0.96) and ocean (SO₂/NO₂: 1.02–1.24). The installation of the fuel gas desulfurization (FGD) device in the industry in 2007 (Zhang et al. 2017a, b) may reduce SO₂ emissions over land (Wang et al. 2021b). In addition, the International Maritime Organization and the Chinese Ministry of Transport (MOT) set up three domestic ship emission control areas in China (the Pearl River Delta: PRD, YRD, and the Bohai Rim: Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei area) where ship fuels were restricted to have a sulfur content of less than or equal to 0.50% (mass-by-mass) (MOT 2015). The 16-year area-averaged annual mean SO₂/NO₂ ratio was 1.27 across the ocean surface, reflecting emissions from ships using fuel with lower sulfur content. However, the ratio was 0.97 over land surfaces, indicating comparatively lower SO₂ emissions than NO₂ from point sources (e.g., industries)

Fig. 3 Annual and seasonal frequency distributions of OMI-based NO₂ and SO₂ (DU) over ocean and land areas of Jiangsu Province, China, for the period 2005–2020

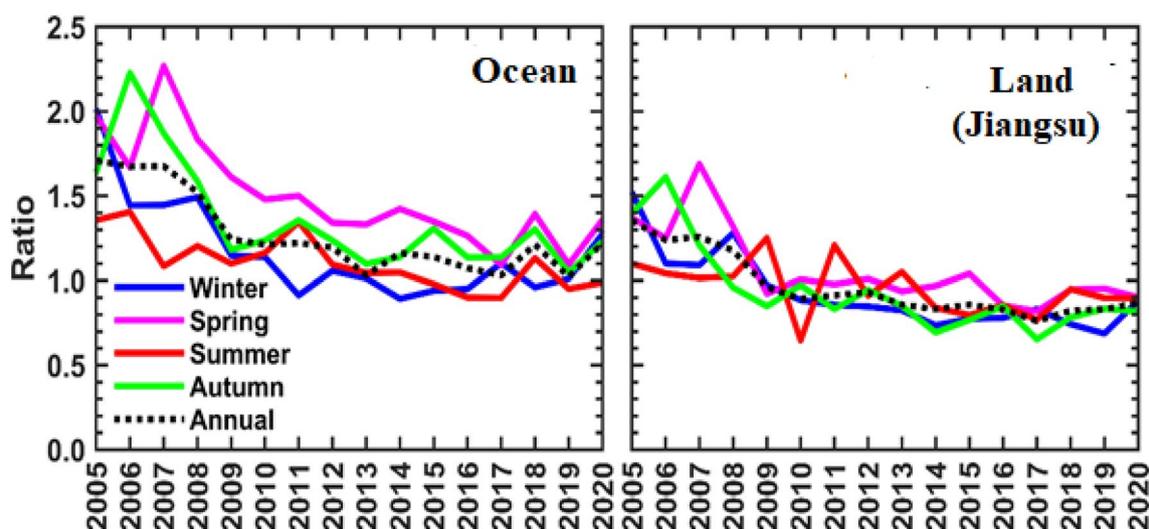


Fig. 4 Annual and seasonal variations of SO_2/NO_2 ratio obtained from OMI sensor for 2005–2020

(Table S1). Seasonally, high sulfur content emissions from ships were found in spring (SO_2/NO_2 : 1.50) over the ocean surface, and lower sulfur content emissions from ships were prominent in summer (1.11) than in winter (1.18) and autumn (1.36). Over land, the SO_2/NO_2 ratio (1.06) in spring indicates that SO_2 emission was comparatively high than NO_2 , while SO_2 emission was lower than NO_2 (Table S1) in summer (0.96), autumn (0.93), and winter (0.92) seasons (Table S1). These results signify that NO_2 and SO_2 emissions from point sources (industrial activities and ships) are responsible for polluting land and ocean surfaces. Recent studies reported that Ships have significant contributions to polluting land and ocean environments (Moldanová et al. 2022; Schwarzkopf et al. 2022; Zhai et al. 2023).

4.4 Spatio-Temporal Scenarios of Anthropogenic NO_x and SO_2 Emissions

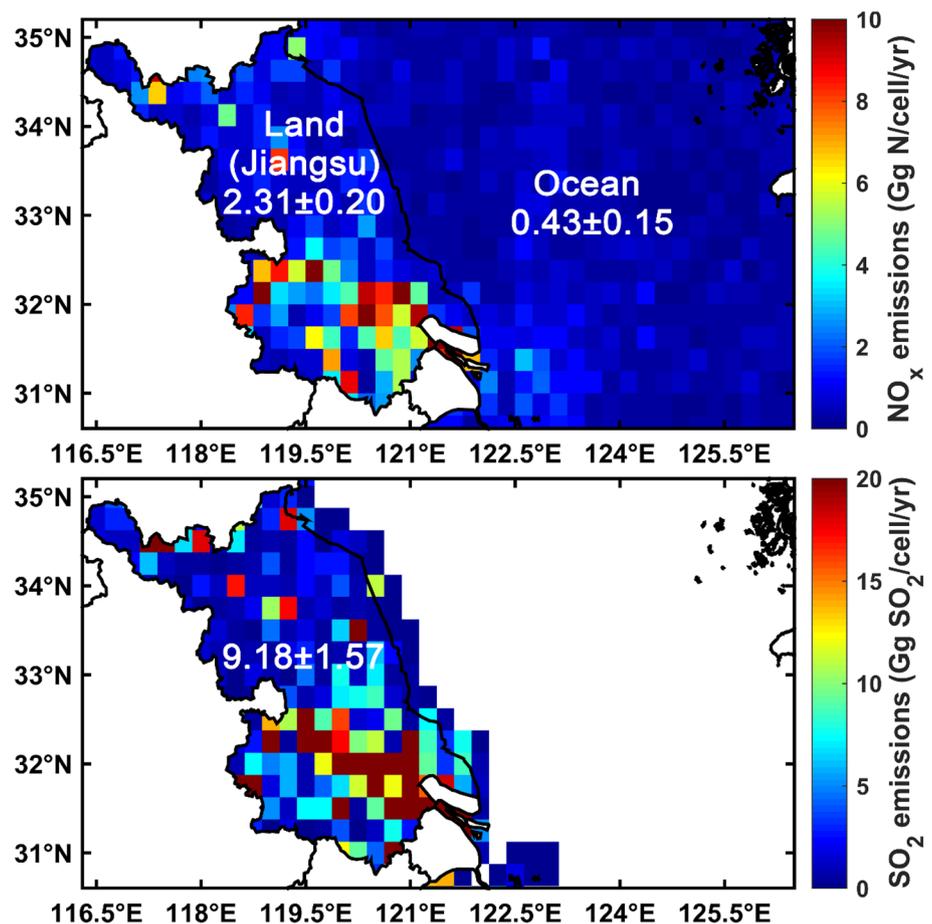
Trace gases are those gases (e.g., carbon monoxide: CO, carbon dioxide: CO_2 , Methane: CH_4 , formaldehyde: HCHO, nitrogen species: NO_x , nitrous oxide: NO_2 , sulfur dioxide: SO_2 , and Ozone: O_3) that exist in the atmosphere which comes from biogenic processes, oceanic and anthropogenic emissions, and volcanoes, while anthropogenic emissions describe the gases and particles which comes from various sources (e.g., point sources and mobile sources). This section used the emission datasets to study the spatial and temporal distribution of NO_x and SO_2 emissions (Fig. 5). The spatial distributions of annual mean NO_x ($\text{NO}_x = \text{NO}_2 + \text{NO}$; 2007–2018) and SO_2 (2005–2014) emissions (unit: Giga gram or Gg) were higher over land than over the ocean (Fig. 5). The higher NO_x and SO_2 emissions in northern (Xuzhou, Suqian, and Lianyungang) and southern (Changzhou,

Nanjing, Suzhou, Wuxi, and Zhenjiang) cities of Jiangsu Province was consistent with OMI-based NO_2 and SO_2 measurements (Fig. 2). In particular, the area-averaged annual mean NO_x and SO_2 emissions were relatively high across the land (2.31 ± 0.20 for NO_x and 9.18 ± 1.57 for SO_2) in comparison with the ocean (0.43 ± 0.15 for NO_x) (Fig. 5), which can be attributed mainly to the higher level of anthropogenic activity over land. Furthermore, good correlation coefficients were found between OMI NO_2 and NO_x emission ($r = 0.626$) and OMI SO_2 vs. SO_2 emission ($r = 0.871$) over land surfaces. While lower correlation coefficient ($r = 0.366$) was found between OMI- NO_2 and NO_x emission over the ocean (Fig. 6). Previous studies reported that industrial anthropogenic activities are the major causes of higher NO_x and SO_2 emissions in China (Zheng et al. 2018a, b).

4.5 Trends of Satellite-Based and Emission-Based NO_2 and SO_2

The OMI NO_2 and SO_2 trends were calculated to assess annual and seasonal changes in NO_2 and SO_2 over land and ocean. Trends were calculated for 2005–2020 and 2006–2010, when China announced strict air pollution control policies during the 11th Five Year Plan (FYP) period, 2011–2015 (during the 12th FYP), and 2013–2017 (Action Plan of Air Pollution Prevention and Control: APPC-AC), as shown in Figs. 7, 8 and Table S2. The black dots (.) represents significant trends at a 95% confidence level. A clear spatial contrast in NO_2 and SO_2 trends was noticed during the study periods (Figs. 7 and 8). Notably, stronger decreasing trends in NO_2 and SO_2 concentrations were evident over land than over the ocean at annual and seasonal scales

Fig. 5 Spatial distributions of mean NO_x (2007–2018) and SO_2 (2005–2014) emissions, estimated from OMI sensor, over China's ocean and land territories [Gg is for Giga gram]



(Fig. 9 and Table S2). In particular, insignificant decreasing trends in annual NO_2 concentrations over land were higher in 2011–2015 ($-0.033/\text{year}$) than in 2013–2017 ($-0.018/\text{year}$), whereas the decreasing trends over the ocean were higher in 2011–2015 ($-0.014/\text{year}$) than in 2013–2017 ($-0.001/\text{year}$) (Fig. 9). In contrast, significant increasing trends in NO_2 were observed during the 11th Five Year Plan (FYP) period over land (2006–2010= $0.023/\text{year}$) and ocean ($0.018/\text{year}$). The stronger positive trends in 2006–2010 relative to the negative trends in 2011–2015 and 2013–2017 over the ocean led to an overall insignificant increasing trend in NO_2 (DU/year) in 2005–2020 ($0.0004/\text{year}$). The reverse scenarios were observed over land, leading to an insignificant decreasing trend in 2005–2020 ($0.0004/\text{year}$) (Fig. 9). Furthermore, significant decreasing trends in annual SO_2 were observed during 2005–2020 over land ($-0.023/\text{year}$), which was higher than the ocean ($-0.011/\text{year}$) (Fig. 9). Seasonally, significant decreasing trends in NO_2 and SO_2 (DU) were more prominent in 2005–2020 for all seasons than during other periods. Besides, the magnitudes of decreasing trends were higher over land than the ocean (Table S2). Several possible factors are responsible for the increasing and decreasing trends in NO_2 and SO_2 over land

and ocean. For example, desulfurization projects in coal-fired power plants were implemented during the 11th Five Year Plan (FYP) period (2006–2010) and continued for the 12th FYP period (2011–2015) and APPC-AC (2013–2017) (Li et al. 2017a, b; Ma et al. 2019), which overall led to decreasing trends in SO_2 over land. In contrast, the absence of any control policies for reducing NO_2 emission during the 11th Five Year Plan (FYP) period (2006–2010) (Ma et al. 2019) allowed increased NO_2 concentrations during that period (see Figs. 7 and 9). A previous study also reported a significant reduction in CO_2 , NO_2 , and SO_2 emissions across China due to installing the combined cycle technology in industrial and coal-fired power plants (de Gouw et al. 2014). Implementing the ship emission control policy by the MOT in 2015 may also reduce SO_2 emissions over the ocean (MOT 2015).

Trends in NO_x and SO_2 emissions were calculated to measure the relative contributions of anthropogenic NO_x (Gg N/Cell/year) and SO_2 (Gg SO_2 /Cell/year) emissions to OMI NO_2 and SO_2 changes. A large spatial contrast in NO_x and SO_2 trends was observed during the study periods over the ocean and Jiangsu Province's land (Figs. S1, S2). A

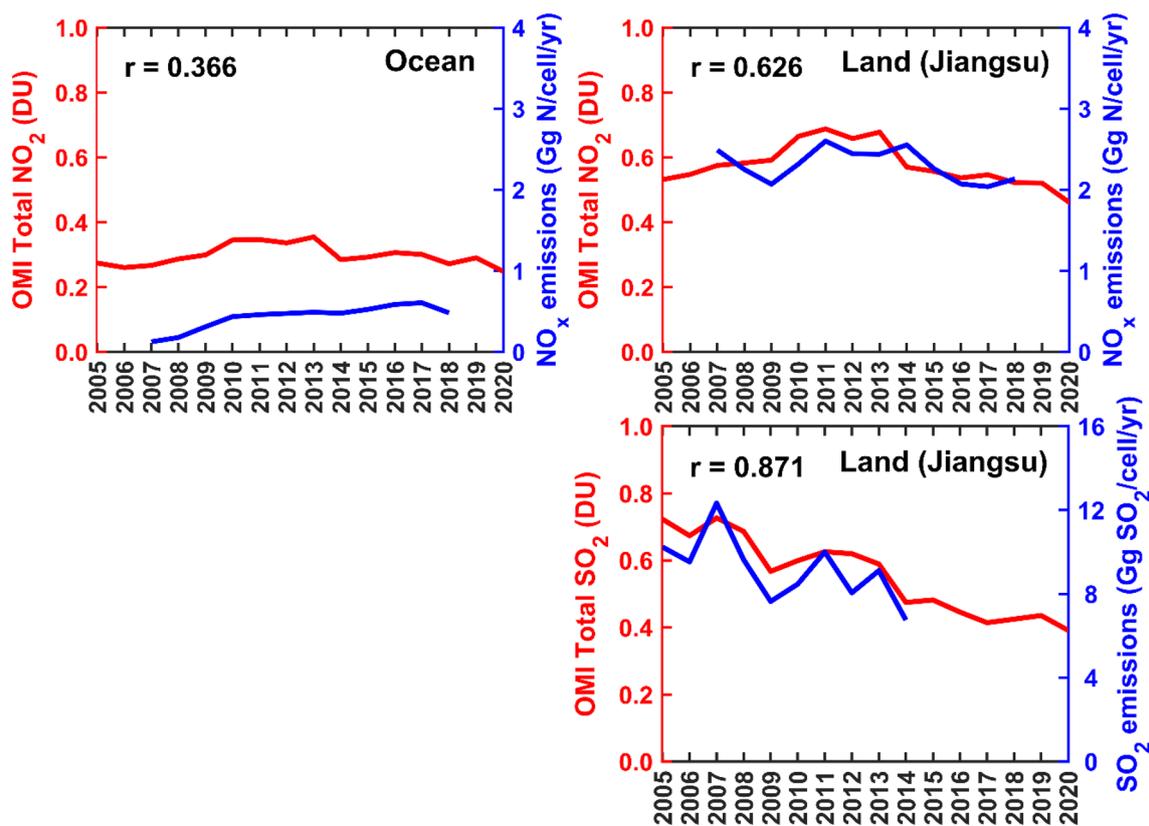


Fig. 6 The annual variability of OMI NO_2 and SO_2 emissions (NO_x and SO_2) over China's ocean and land surfaces

stronger positive trend in anthropogenic NO_x emission in 2007–2010 (0.114/year) than in 2013–2017 (0.036/year) or 2011–2015 (0.015/year) led to an overall significant increasing trend in 2007–2018 (0.032/year) over ocean. The positive trend signifies no significant control measurements of anthropogenic NO_x emission over ocean. Ships emit about $5\text{--}7 \times 10^9$ kg/year of NO_x and $4.7\text{--}6.5 \times 10^9$ kg/year of SO_2 into the atmosphere (Healy et al. 2009) and contribute to reducing air quality in both coastal and port cities (Andersson et al. 2009; Corbett et al. 1999; Endresen 2003). However, implementing China's strict air pollution control policies in high emitting sectors (e.g., industry, transport, and power plants) reduced anthropogenic NO_x and SO_2 emissions over land during the study periods (Fig. S2). This finding aligns with Zheng et al. (2018a, b) study. Overall, this study indicates that Chinese air pollution control policies contributed to improved air quality in Jiangsu by reducing NO_2 and SO_2 . Therefore, these policies should be continued or extended in the future in order to improve

Chinese air quality, which will benefit the lives of citizens in the long run.

4.6 Potential Source Contribution Function (PSCF) analysis

The previous study reported that the air quality over land (i.e., Jiangsu Province) is significantly impacted more by local pollution than by distant regional sources (Fig. S3) (Wang et al. 2021b). In contrast, many industries are located in the land of Jiangsu province, especially in its southern cities, which may collectively contribute to forming high concentrations of NO_2 and SO_2 over those areas (Song et al. 2019). Therefore, PSCF analysis was conducted only over ocean for 2005–2020, using 72-h back trajectories attained from the NOAA HYSPLIT model and OMI data to detect the potential source areas of NO_2 and SO_2 pollutants. The HYSPLIT-derived back-trajectories from seven locations over ocean (see Table S3) were used to compute a single PSCF for each

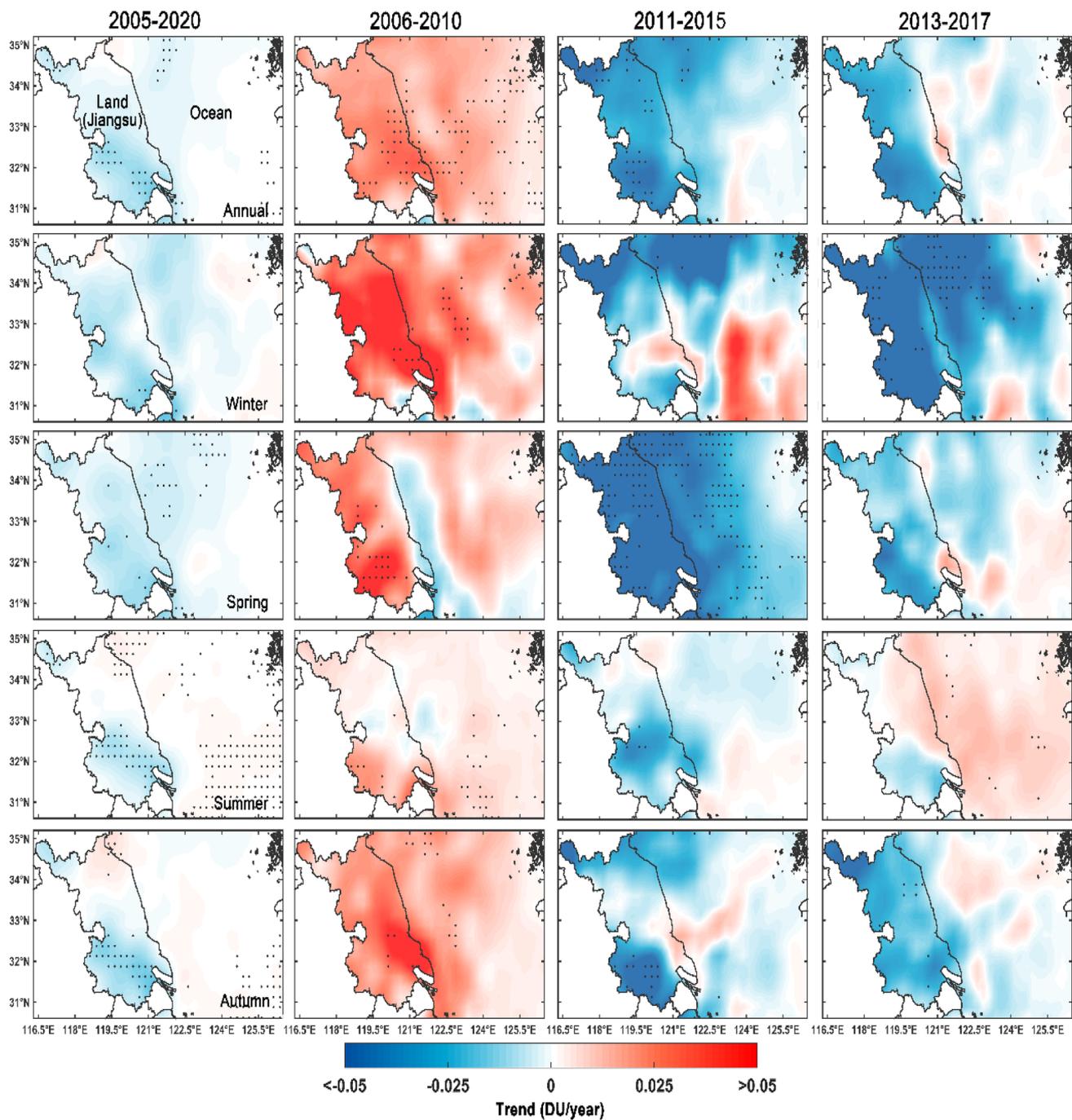


Fig. 7 Spatial distribution of annual and seasonal trends in OMI-based NO_2 concentrations. The black dot (.) indicates significance at a 95% confidence interval

air pollutant and show the major likely sources of pollution at those seven locations. PSCF analyses are grouped by season (Fig. 10). Significant seasonal variation in SO_2 and NO_2 sources was observed over the ocean. The

high values of PSCF (> 0.50) in winter indicate that the potential source areas of NO_2 and SO_2 are located in different parts of mainland China (e.g., Anhui, Beijing, Henan, Hubei, Inner Mongolia, Jiangsu, Jiangxi, Shanxi,

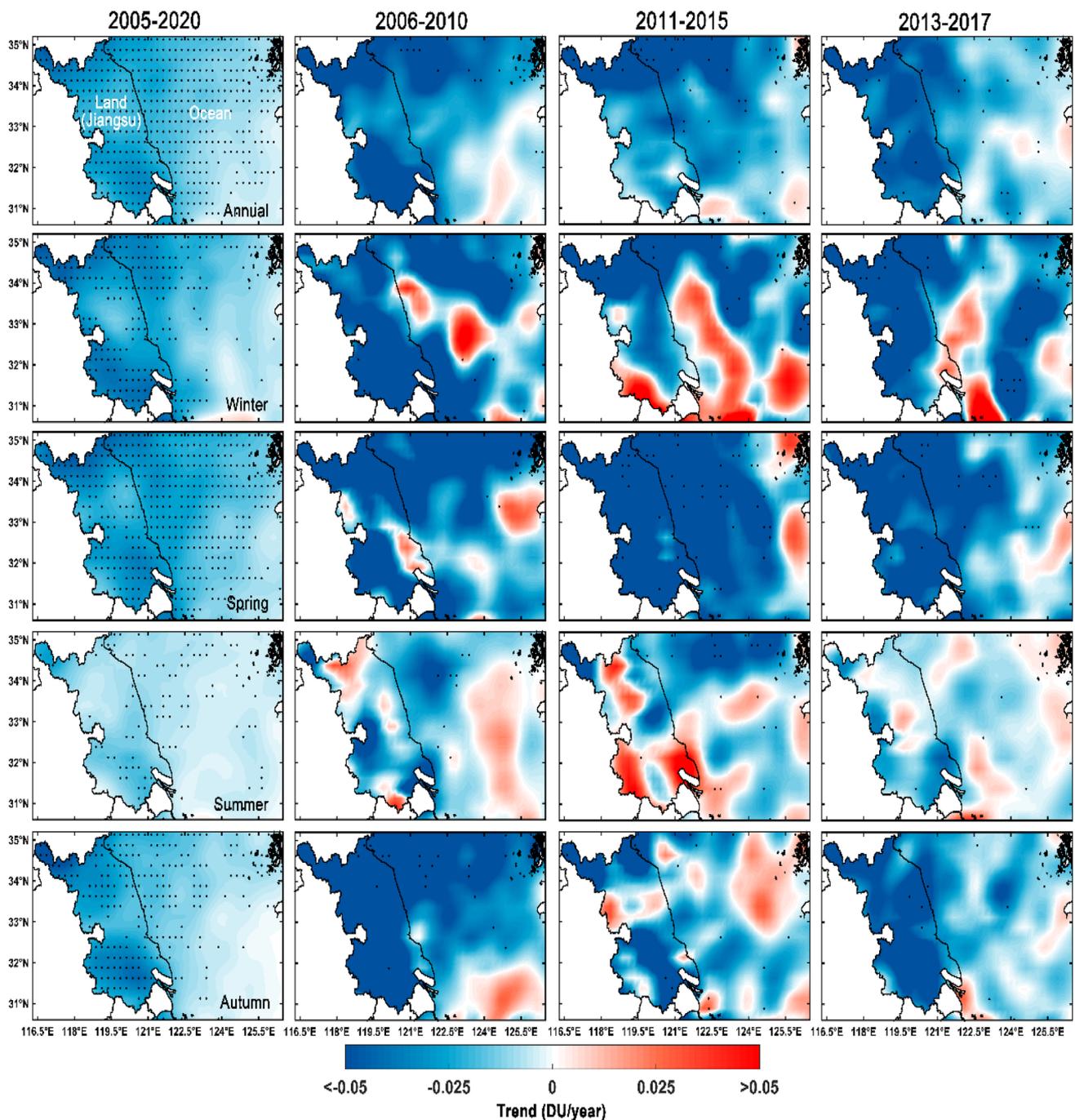


Fig. 8 Spatial distribution of annual and seasonal trends in OMI-based SO_2 concentrations. The black dot (.) symbol indicates significance at a 95% confidence interval

Shaanxi, Shandong, Tianjin, and Zhejiang). These local sources affect the air quality of ocean more significantly than the more distant regional sources (e.g., Mongolia) (Fig. 10). In spring, local sources (i.e., Anhui, Beijing, Henan, Hubei, Inner Mongolia, Jiangsu, Jiangxi, Shanxi, Shaanxi, Shandong, Tianjin, and Zhejiang) also substantially affect the air quality over ocean more than distant

regional sources like Mongolia do. Note that pollution levels are lower in summer than in winter and spring. In summer, the air quality over ocean is much more affected by local sources than by distant regional sources. The autumn air quality over ocean is also significantly impacted by local pollution sources. Overall, the results show that local sources from mainland China are the

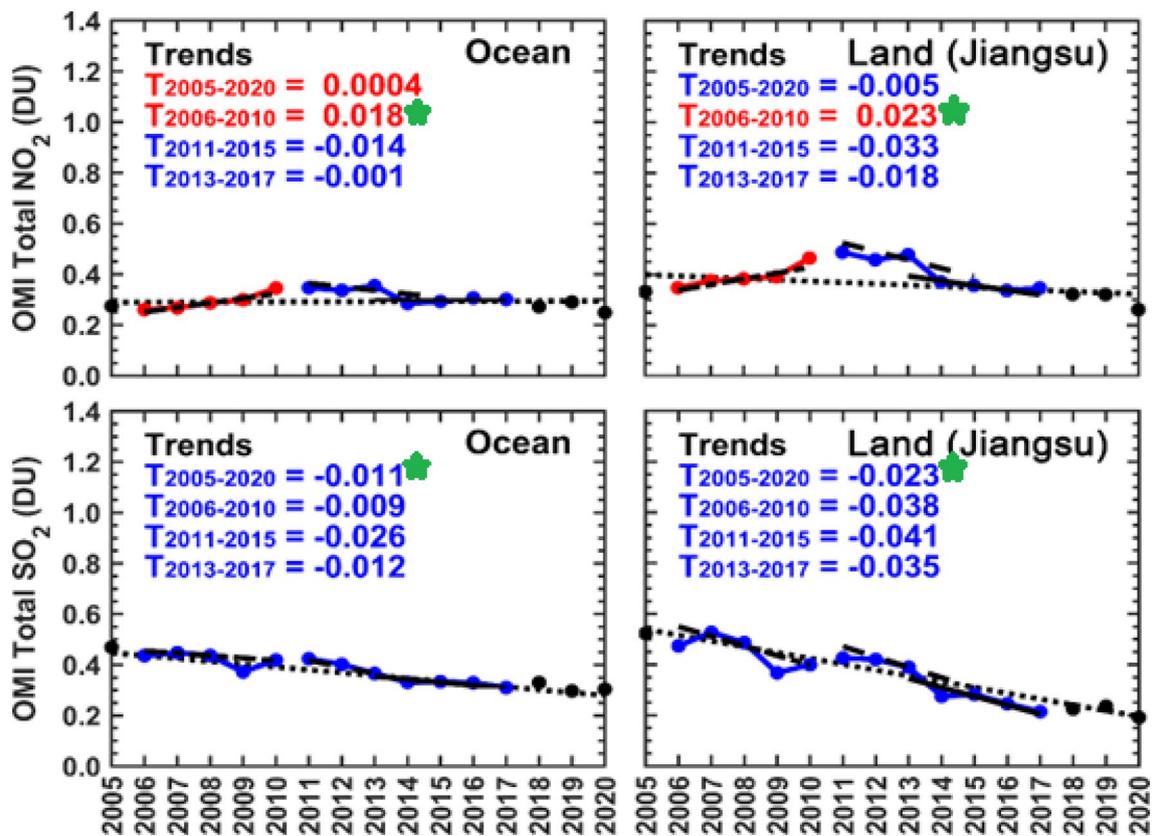


Fig. 9 Trends in OMI-based NO₂ and SO₂ for the periods 2005–2020, 2006–2010, 2011–2015, and 2013–2017 over ocean and land (Jiangsu Province). The red line indicates an increasing trend,

and the blue line indicates a decreasing trend of NO₂ and SO₂. Asterisk (*) symbol indicates significance

major contributors to air pollution over land and ocean (Wang et al. 2021b), which are strongest in winter, followed by spring, autumn, and summer seasons.

5 Conclusions

The major findings are as follows:

- During the study period, NO₂ and SO₂ pollution hotspots were mainly located over land surfaces, which can be attributed to severe anthropogenic activities. On a seasonal scale, NO₂ and SO₂ were highest in winter and lowest in summer over land and ocean surfaces.
- The frequency distribution demonstrated that OMI NO₂ and SO₂ were higher over land than ocean. The occurrence frequencies of NO₂ and SO₂ for 0.15–0.30 bin were common over ocean surfaces, and 0.30–0.45 bin was common across land surfaces.
- A good agreement was found between OMI NO₂ and SO₂ and anthropogenic emissions (NO_x and SO₂) across land surfaces than the ocean.
- Annually, OMI NO₂ (DU) over land surfaces showed insignificant decreasing trends from 2005 to 2020, while NO₂ (DU) over ocean surfaces showed minor increasing trends. Moreover, significant decreasing trends in SO₂ (DU) were larger over land surfaces than the ocean.
- Anthropogenic emissions of NO_x and SO₂ were decreased over land surfaces, while NO_x emissions across ocean surfaces showed significant increasing trends.
- The PSCF analysis identified higher contributions of NO₂ and SO₂ over ocean and land from local sources than from long distant regional sources. These contributions are stronger in winter, followed by spring, autumn, and summer seasons.

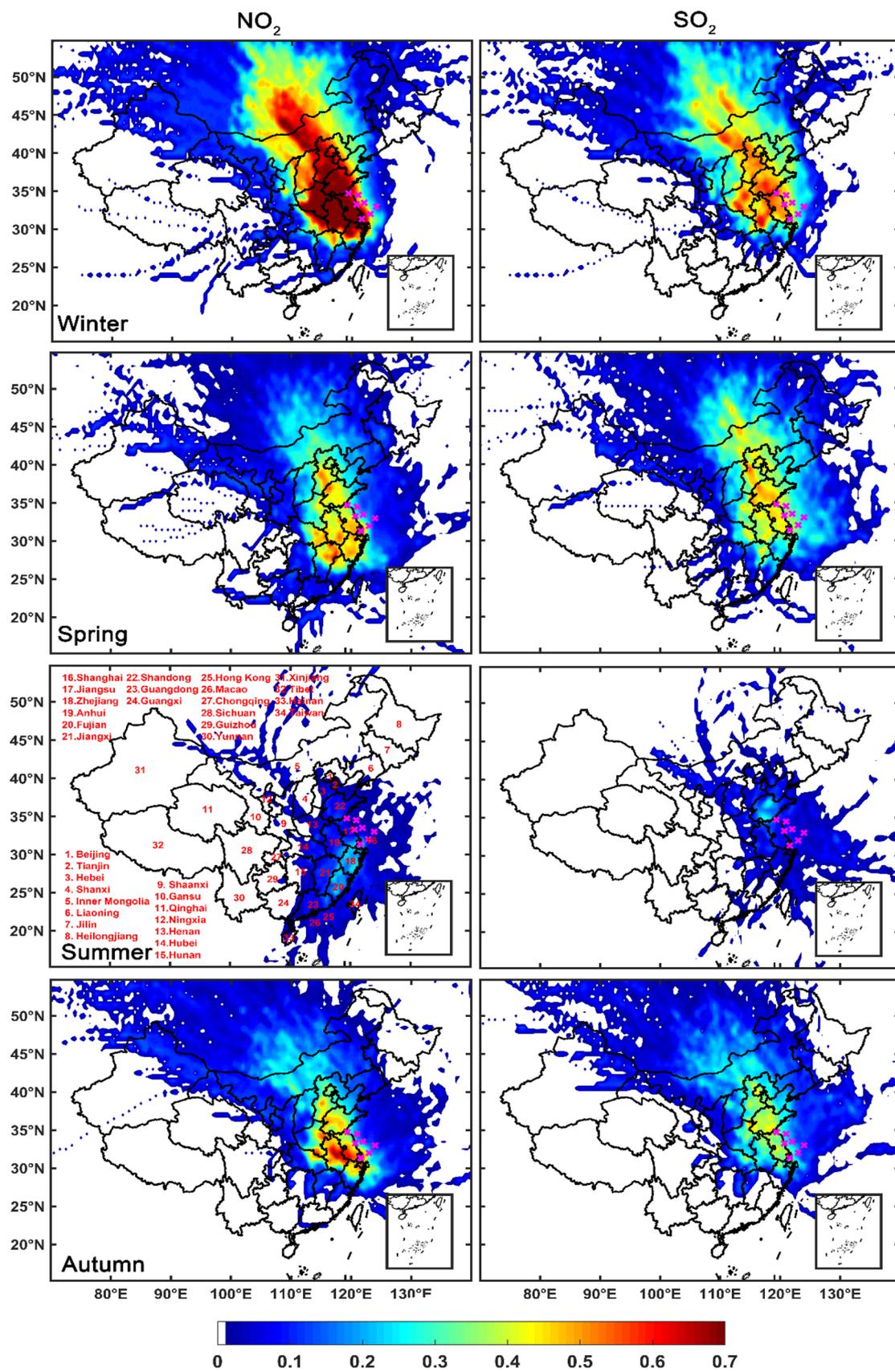


Fig. 10 Source identification of NO_2 and SO_2 over Ocean areas of Jiangsu Province in China during 2005–2020 using the PSCF at seasonal timescales

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Data availability Data are available on request.

Declarations

Conflict of interest All authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

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