

# The Ultraviolet Radiation Environment of a Tropical Megacity in Transition: Mexico City

## 2000-2019

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### Abstract

Tropical regions experience naturally high levels of UV radiation, but urban pollution can reduce these levels substantially. We analyzed 20 years of measurements of the UV Index (UVI) at several ground-level locations in the Mexico City Metropolitan Area and compared these data with UVI values derived from satellite observations of ozone and clouds (but not local pollution). The ground-based measurements were systematically lower than the satellite-based estimates, by ca. 40% in 2000 and 20% in 2019. Calculations with a radiative transfer model and observed concentrations of

9 air pollutants explained well the difference between satellite- and ground-based UVI,  
10 and showed specific contributions from aerosols in the boundary layer and the free tro-  
11 posphere, O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub>, in decreasing order of importance. Such large changes  
12 in UV radiation between 2000 and 2019 have important implications ranging from hu-  
13 man health (skin cancer and cataract induction) to air pollution control (photochemical  
14 smog formation).

## 15 Introduction

16 Ultraviolet (UV) radiation is an important component of the urban environment, affecting  
17 human populations directly through UV exposure of skin and eyes<sup>1–3</sup> and less directly (but  
18 with great impact) by driving the formation of photochemical smog, including tropospheric  
19 ozone and other oxidants, as well as secondary aerosols containing nitrates, sulfates, and  
20 organics.<sup>4–6</sup> These pollutants, along with others of primary origin commonly found in ur-  
21 ban atmospheres (e.g., black carbon, sulfur dioxide), can in turn scatter and/or absorb UV  
22 radiation, alter its vertical distribution, and so modify the photochemical rate of their own  
23 formation. Such feedback complicates the calculation of both the UV radiation field (in-  
24 cluding at the surface), and the evolution of photochemical smog in the urban boundary  
25 layer.

26 The question of how air pollution alters the urban UV environment (and *vice versa*) is  
27 not new, but studies have relied mostly on numerical models,<sup>7–9</sup> with relatively few available  
28 observations (e.g., McKenzie et al.<sup>10</sup>, Panicker et al.<sup>11</sup>, Palancar et al.<sup>12</sup>, reviewed by Bais  
29 et al.<sup>13</sup>). Increases in UV have been estimated as a consequence of emission reductions  
30 over the last decades, e.g. in China,<sup>14–16</sup> and have led to less-than-expected reductions in  
31 photochemical smog, in part due to stronger UV photochemistry.<sup>17? ,18</sup> Emission reductions  
32 have also occurred globally during the 2020 COVID-19 pandemic,<sup>19,20</sup> but ground-level ozone  
33 in some polluted areas has actually increased,<sup>21,22</sup> due at least in part to the increased UV  
34 radiation. Unfortunately, the observational data base of relevant UV radiation remains

35 rather sparse to evaluate such model-derived hypotheses.

36 The environment of Mexico City is of particular interest for several reasons: (1) Nearly  
37 23 million people inhabit the Mexico City Metropolitan Area (MCMA), and the UV en-  
38 vironment has direct implications for their health, both in terms of skin/eye UV exposure  
39 and *via* photochemical smog formation. (2) As a tropical megacity, it is to some extent  
40 representative of the situation of many others, with year-round intense midday UV irradia-  
41 nce, a shallower atmosphere due to the city's high elevation of 2240 m above sea level,  
42 and a transition toward newer and cleaner technologies, leading to gradual improvements  
43 in air quality. (3) Air quality within MCMA has undergone extensive scrutiny, with a well-  
44 established monitoring network operating since 1986,<sup>23</sup> numerous intensive field campaigns  
45 to study the meteorology, emissions, and photochemistry of smog formation,<sup>24–26</sup> and numer-  
46 ical modeling incorporating the evolving knowledge.<sup>27–30</sup> This extensive body of knowledge  
47 provides the foundation for understanding our study.

48 Here, we analyze two decades of continuous measurements of the UV Index at multiple  
49 locations within the MCMA, collected by the Secretariat of the Environment (Secretaría  
50 del Medio Ambiente, SEDEMA)<sup>1</sup> of the Mexico City government as part of an intensive  
51 monitoring network over the MCMA. The UV Index is defined as:

$$UVI = 40 \int_{250nm}^{400nm} E(\lambda, t) \cdot S_{er}(\lambda) d\lambda \quad (1)$$

52 where  $E(\lambda, t)$  is the solar spectral irradiance in units of  $\text{W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{nm}^{-1}$  and  $S_{er}(\lambda)$  is  
53 the erythemal sensitivity of human skin.<sup>31,32</sup> Multiplication by 40 was chosen historically to  
54 express the UVI in small integer numbers, but is otherwise scientifically arbitrary.

55 The UVI is recognized by the World Health and Meteorological Organizations (WHO  
56 and WMO) as a standardized metric of UV radiation<sup>31</sup> for global public information. An  
57 advantage of using the UVI as (one) measure of UV radiation is that it is being increasingly  
58 observed or calculated and disseminated, enabling more objective comparisons among seasons

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<sup>1</sup><https://www.sedema.cdmx.gob.mx/>

59 and locations. The UVI observations from Mexico City, considered here, are an important  
60 element of this global picture.

61 While the UVI at the surface cannot be translated directly into photolysis frequencies  
62 for various photo-labile molecules, the spectral weighting of the UVI (ca. 300-320 nm) is  
63 approximately similar to that for the photolysis of ozone to singlet oxygen atoms. Other UV  
64 wavelengths are of course also important, e.g. for the photolysis of nitrogen dioxide, and  
65 may be affected differently depending on the pollutant. With these considerations and a few  
66 other caveats, UVI trends examined here can also be used to infer accompanying trends in  
67 photolysis frequencies and influences on photochemical smog formation.

## 68 Methods

### 69 Ground-based measurements

70 The Mexico City Metropolitan Area is located at 19.4°N, 99.1°W, 2240 meters above sea  
71 level (asl), surrounded by mountain ridges exceeding 5000 m asl, with complex topog-  
72 raphy and thermal inversions that inhibit winds and favor intense air pollution.<sup>33-35</sup> Air  
73 quality monitoring and surface meteorological measurements in the MCMA are conducted  
74 continuously by the Automated Atmospheric Monitoring Network (RAMA, by its Spanish  
75 acronym) of the Atmospheric Monitoring System (SIMAT, by its Spanish acronym) of the  
76 Mexico City government. Since the year 2000, UV radiometers (model 501-A, Solar Light  
77 Company Inc., Glenside, PA) detecting wavelengths between 280-400 nm have been mea-  
78 suring erythemally-weighted solar radiation. The calibration of the UV sensors has been  
79 carried out annually by comparing against a factory-calibrated reference sensor. The out-  
80 put voltages from the network's sensors have been compared for at least one week against  
81 the UV readings from the reference sensor to derive a calibration factor. New calibration  
82 factors typically differ from the old ones by 2% or less. Reference sensors have been also  
83 calibrated by the manufacturer and updated periodically (between 3 to 5 years) to reduce

84 systematic errors due to drifts in sensitivity. Long term calibration drift are minimized by  
 85 these yearly re-calibrations. Although at the beginning only a few stations were in oper-  
 86 ation and have been changing, currently 11 stations are recording erythemal irradiances,  
 87 which are then multiplied by 40 (see Eq. 1) to give UV Indices. Table 1 describes the lo-  
 88 cation of the stations where the UV Index has been measured. Figure 1 shows how the  
 89 radiometers of the SIMAT have been distributed over MCMA, prioritizing sites with higher  
 90 population density. Near real-time data for each station are available on the SIMAT official  
 91 website <http://www.aire.cdmx.gob.mx/default.php>. Daily maximum values ( $UVI_{max}$ )  
 92 were extracted in each of the stations around solar noon from the time interval from 11:00  
 93 h-15:00 h CST (Central Standard Time). This database with 7305 continuous days of mea-  
 94 surements during the period 2000-2019 was analyzed.

Table 1: SIMAT stations and AERONET site\*, environmental descriptors and geographical positions. Abbreviations names: Chalco (CHA), Cuautitlán (CUT), FES Acatlán (FAC), Hangares (HAN), Laboratorio de Análisis Ambiental (LAA), Merced (MER), Montecillo (MON), Milpa Alta (MPA), Pedregal (PED), San Agustín (SAG), Santa Fe (SFE), Tlalnepantla (TLA) and National Autonomous University of Mexico (UNAM\*)

Station	Environment	Lat (°N)	Lon (°W)	El (masl)
CHO	semi-urban	19.27	98.89	2253
CUT	ecological park	19.72	99.20	2263
FAC	urban	19.48	99.24	2299
HAN	urban	19.42	99.08	2235
LAA	urban	19.48	99.15	2255
MER	downtown	19.42	99.12	2245
MON	rural	19.46	98.90	2252
MPA	rural	19.18	98.99	2594
PED	residential	19.33	99.20	2326
SAG	urban	19.53	99.03	2241
SFE	residential	19.36	99.26	2599
TLA	urban	19.53	99.20	2311
UNAM*	University city	19.33	99.18	2294

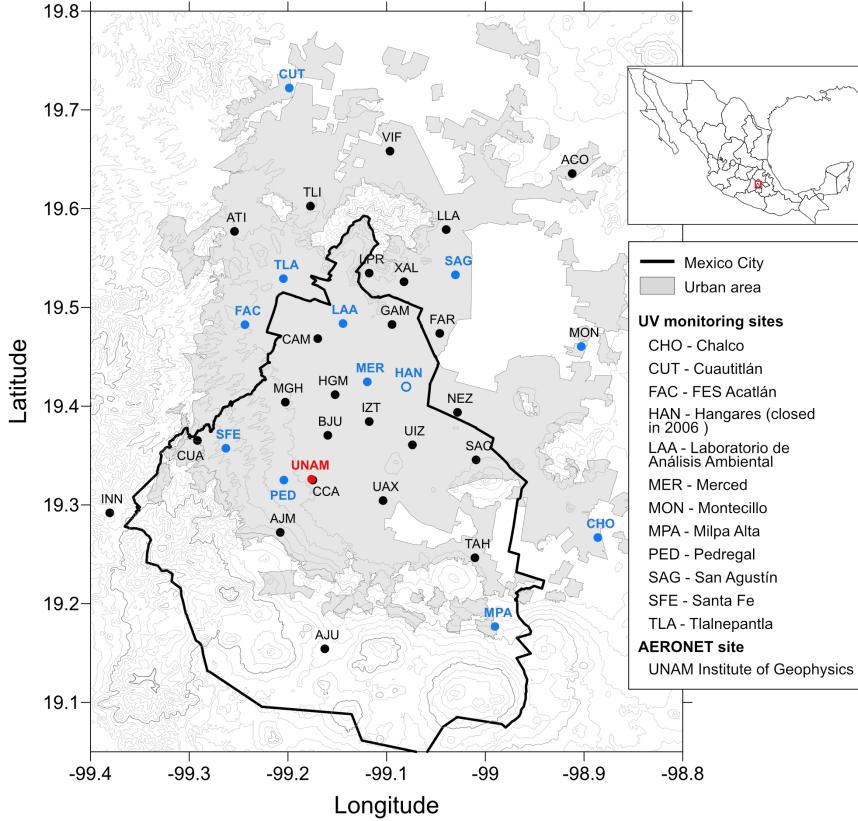


Figure 1: Map with the location of the SIMAT continuous monitoring stations over MCMA. Sites denoted by the blue solid dots correspond to SIMAT stations with UV measurements, while the black dots indicate SIMAT stations without UV measurements, the site indicated by an open blue dot represents a discontinued site, the red dot shows the location of the AERONET site. The location of Mexico City and the acronyms of the UV and AERONET site are shown at the upper and lower frames at the right respectively.

With the aim to explore the relationship between UVI and air pollutants levels, the hourly averages for ozone ( $O_3$ ), carbon monoxide (CO), nitrogen dioxide ( $NO_2$ ), sulfur dioxide ( $SO_2$ ) and particle matter with diameter sizes  $\leq 10 \mu m$  ( $PM_{10}$ ), were downloaded from the SIMAT.<sup>36</sup> For purposes of assessing the influence on the UV Index at solar noon, only values obtained between 11h and 15h CST were considered for the trends analysis. Pollutant measurements are conducted by the SIMAT using regulatory-grade commercial instruments. Measurement principles include ultraviolet photometry (model 400E, Teledyne-API) for  $O_3$ , chemiluminescence (model 200E, Teledyne-API) for  $NO_2$ , UV fluorescence (model 100E, Teledyne API) for  $SO_2$ , and infrared absorption (model 300E, Teledyne-API) for CO.

<sup>104</sup> The PM<sub>10</sub> continuous mass concentration was measured with Tapered Element Oscillating  
<sup>105</sup> Microbalance (TEOM 1400AB or TEOM 1405 DF, Thermo Scientific) monitors. Gaseous  
<sup>106</sup> pollutant levels are reported in ppb concentration units for O<sub>3</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>, and in ppm  
<sup>107</sup> for CO. Particulate matter mass concentration is reported in  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  at local conditions for  
<sup>108</sup> temperature and pressure.

<sup>109</sup> Aerosol optical depth at 340 nm was obtained from the Institute of Geophysics of the  
<sup>110</sup> National Autonomous University of Mexico (UNAM). Measurements were conducted with  
<sup>111</sup> a CIMEL sun photometer model CE-318, which is an automatic sun-sky-scanning spectral  
<sup>112</sup> radiometer of the AErosol RObotic NETwork (AERONET<sup>37</sup>). The data Product Level 2.0  
<sup>113</sup> and 1.5 (only in 2019) were selected, and annual averages AOD<sub>340</sub> were calculated along  
<sup>114</sup> the period 2000-2019, except for the year 2011 due to there were no measurements. A  
<sup>115</sup> previous study of the AOD behavior from 2000 to 2014 demonstrated that data gaps did not  
<sup>116</sup> significantly change the trends calculated for this.<sup>38</sup> Only 8% of the data between the years  
<sup>117</sup> 2014 and 2019 were missing. The largest data gap occurred in 2018 when the instrument  
<sup>118</sup> was returned for calibration.

## <sup>119</sup> Satellite data

<sup>120</sup> The UV Index data derived from satellite measurements of reflected radiance were used for  
<sup>121</sup> comparison with the ground-based measurements. These data were provided by the Ozone  
<sup>122</sup> Monitoring Instrument (OMI) on board of AURA-NASA satellite.<sup>39</sup> OMI is operated in co-  
<sup>123</sup> operation between the Netherlands Agency for Aerospace Programmes (NIVR), the Finnish  
<sup>124</sup> Meteorological Institute (FMI) and NASA. OMI performs observations over a geographical  
<sup>125</sup> dimension of 13×24km<sup>2</sup> at nadir. For the coordinates (19.33N, 99.18W) and elevation (2268  
<sup>126</sup> masl) of Mexico City, the satellite overpass time is between 19:00h - 21:00h UTC (20:00h  
<sup>127</sup> - 22:00h CET). Measurements of the ozone profile and cloud cover are used via a radiative  
<sup>128</sup> transfer model to estimate the UVI at the ground. The UV Index used for Mexico City  
<sup>129</sup> corresponds to values at local noon time and clear sky from OMUVB Level 2 data product,

130 version 1.3 and collection 3.

## 131 TUV model

132 Calculations of the UV Index were also made with the Tropospheric Ultraviolet Visible  
133 (TUV v5.3) model.<sup>40</sup> The model atmosphere was represented by 80 vertical layers, each 1  
134 km thick, starting at the 2.24 km asl elevation of MCMA, and for which the first three km  
135 constitute the atmospheric boundary layer (BL).<sup>41</sup> The ozone profile above the BL is from  
136 the US Standard Atmosphere, but rescaled to a value of 259.6 DU. Totals including the BL  
137 contributions (of 13.7 DU in the year 2000 and 9.8 DU in 2019, see below) were 273.1 DU  
138 in 2000 and 269.2 DU. The climatological O<sub>3</sub> column for this latitude and season is about  
139 270 DU (plus or minus ca. 5 DU) so in good agreement with the values used here.

140 Pollutants within the BL (including O<sub>3</sub>) are assumed to be well mixed, in agreement with  
141 observations from the MILAGRO field campaign that showed the disappearance of vertical  
142 gradients in the profiles of gases<sup>42,43</sup> and aerosols<sup>44,45</sup> by late morning. The UV-absorbing  
143 gases considered here are O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub>, specified in ppb.

144 BL aerosols are modeled by prescribing the AOD at 340 nm (from AERONET observa-  
145 tions), scaled to other wavelengths inversely with wavelength (Angstrom coefficient = 1.0),  
146 asymmetry factor of 0.7, and a single scattering albedo of 0.85 at UV wavelengths, following  
147 the determinations made in Mexico City by Corr et al.<sup>46</sup> and Palancar et al.<sup>12</sup>.

148 Above the atmospheric boundary layer, the model was taken to be free of aerosols, NO<sub>2</sub>,  
149 or SO<sub>2</sub>. In one sensitivity study, a total AOD of 0.7 was redistributed placing 0.2 in the  
150 free troposphere (decreasing vertically with an exponential scale height of 4 km, and 0.5  
151 remaining in the BL). The calculated UVI differed by less than 1%. Thus, as long as the  
152 total AOD is known, knowledge of the exact vertical aerosol profile is not critical towards  
153 ground-level UVI – but would obviously affect the vertical structure of photolysis frequencies.

154 Radiative transfer calculations were carried out with the pseudo-spherical 4-stream op-  
155 tion, at 1 nm steps between 280 and 400 nm.

## <sup>156</sup> Results and Discussion

<sup>157</sup> Figure 2 shows the diurnal variation of the UVI for several specific cloud-free days, for  
<sup>158</sup> different seasons and several locations (CHO, MER, MON, PED, SAG, SFE and TLA).  
<sup>159</sup> UV Index from TUV model was used as reference of the behavior under clear sky days.  
<sup>160</sup> According to the comparison of measurements minute by minute, the dates with prolonged  
<sup>161</sup> fluctuations along the day were discarded. However, during the rainy period (from June  
<sup>162</sup> to October) at least a brief clouds presence is common, as shown at CHO station around  
<sup>163</sup> noon in 13 June 2017. Peak values range from 8 during autumn/winter to above 12 in  
<sup>164</sup> spring/summer, in correspondence to the respective December and June solstices. Although  
<sup>165</sup> the stations are all within a 25 km radius, substantial differences among them are notable.  
<sup>166</sup> Survey of the locations revealed that shadowing from nearby structures is not an issue. The  
<sup>167</sup> good agreement in the morning, followed by more divergence in the afternoon, is consistent  
<sup>168</sup> with the development of photo-chemical pollution hotspots during the day. Previous studies  
<sup>169</sup> (e.g., Castro et al.<sup>47</sup> and Palancar et al.<sup>12</sup>) have shown that surface UV radiation in Mexico  
<sup>170</sup> City is attenuated significantly by aerosols. The measurements shown in Fig. 2 are consistent  
<sup>171</sup> with this increasing pollution during the course of the day, with highest aerosol loading (and  
<sup>172</sup> highest variability) attained in the afternoon. Further support for the role of pollution in  
<sup>173</sup> suppressing the UVI comes from the observation made at the Santa Fe (SFE) site which in  
<sup>174</sup> Fig. 2 are seen to be systematically higher, e.g. by over 10% in autumn afternoons, compared  
<sup>175</sup> to the other stations. The SFE station is displaced to the west from the majority of the  
<sup>176</sup> other stations, and remains in the outskirts. This site is also approximately 300 m higher  
<sup>177</sup> than Mexico City downtown, so that the cleaner atmosphere results from both vertical and  
<sup>178</sup> horizontal variations in pollution levels.<sup>48</sup> It is indeed expected to have higher values of the  
<sup>179</sup> UVI, in agreement with the observations.

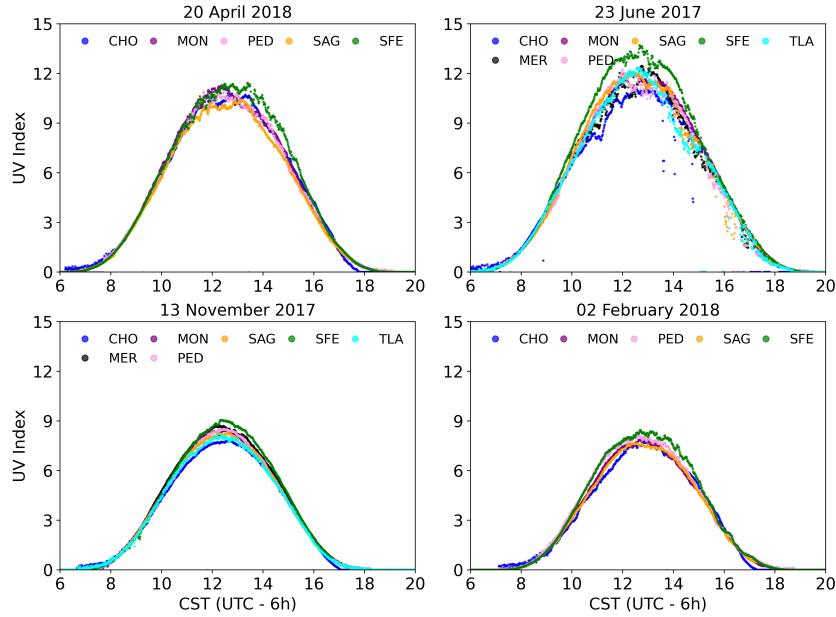


Figure 2: UV Index measured over MCMA by SIMAT stations each minute along the day under practically cloudless conditions for representative days of the year.

180 The daily maximum UV Index of each station is denoted by  $UVI_{max}$ , all of them were

181 counted in the period 2000-2019. As shown in Figure 3, these values ranged from 1 to

182 16, with a majority (61%) of the days experienced  $UVI_{max}$  values between 6 and 10, and

183 remarkably few, less than 1%, in the higher 13-16 range. The lowest values are likely due to

184 winter days with heavy cloud cover and low sun angles, and UV attenuation by pollutants

185 could also be amplified under such conditions, due to longer photon path lengths at low sun

186 and within clouds. The extreme sparsity of high UVI values remains surprising, and may be

187 an indication of the rarity of extremely unpolluted days within the city.

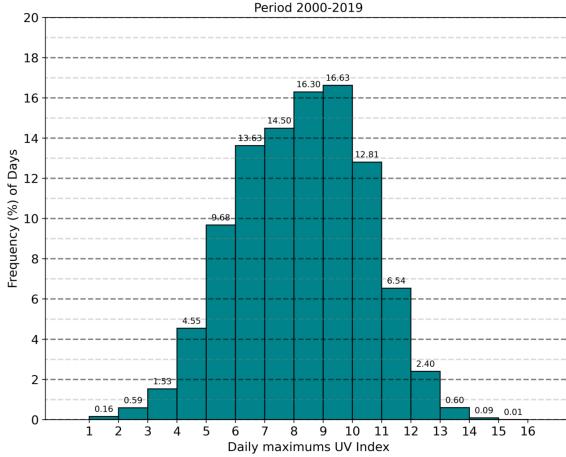


Figure 3: Frequency distribution of daily maximum UV Index values in Mexico City during 2000 -2019.

188      Similar patterns are found when considering the monthly average of the  $UVI_{\max}$  values  
 189      as shown in Figure 4. The long-term averages present a seasonal variation (as in Fig. 2)  
 190      that follows approximately the cosine of the noontime solar zenith angle. Notably, values  
 191      rarely if ever exceed 12 (as in Fig. 3). The lowest average UVI (near 7) take place in winter  
 192      while from March to August the values seem to be flattened in the range 10-11. The rather  
 193      low monthly UV Index values, mainly could be a consequence of the presence of clouds in  
 194      the rainy season. However, urban aerosol pollution sources, biomass burning for agriculture  
 195      and wood cooking also contribute to poor air quality between March-May<sup>49</sup>. Using the  
 196      maximum  $UVI_{\max}$  from all of stations every day (one daily point), the monthly averages  
 197      ( $\overline{UVI}_m$ ) were calculated along the period 2000-2019 (except for June 2003 due to there were  
 198      no measurements). Long term trends in  $\overline{UVI}_m$  are shown in Figure 5. A clear upward trend  
 199      is seen, with a slope for the linear fit of 0.9%/year or +1.5 UVI units over the two decades.

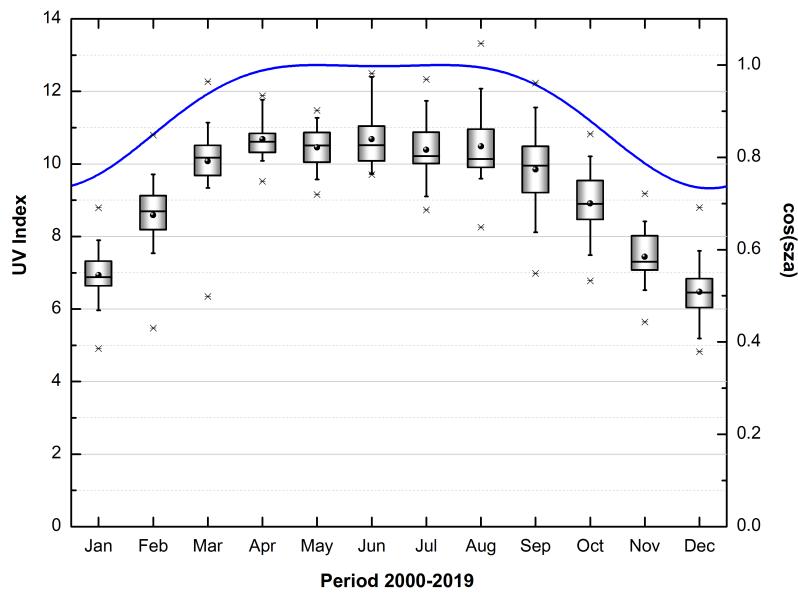


Figure 4: Boxplot of the monthly averages of the maximum UV Index values (black dot) in MCMA for the period 2000-2019: median (central bold line), standard deviation (box edges), 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles (the whiskers), the minimum and maximum values (plus sign) and the cosine of the solar zenith angle at solar noon (blue curve).

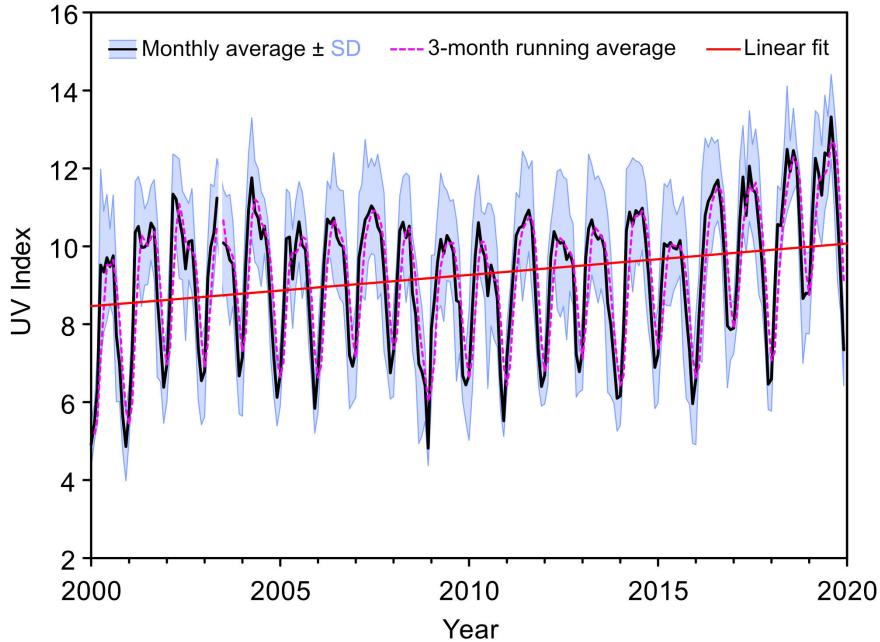


Figure 5: Moving average function (light gray curve) quarterly applied to monthly average UV Index, standard deviation of all data within a given month (black dots and dash line) and linear fit (red line).

200 The UV Index computed from satellite-based observations over the period 2005-2019 is

201 mapped in Figure 6. The satellite-derived UVIs vary from 8 in winter to 16 in summer, both

202 values being substantially higher than the ground-based observations (ca. 7 for winter and

203 11 for summer, see Fig. 4). We hypothesize that this large difference between satellite-based

204 estimation and ground-based observation of the UV index is due to the intense air pollution

205 of Mexico City. A rather similar behavior was detected in Santiago city, Chile.<sup>50</sup>

206 Close inspection of Figure 6 shows that the maximum values are reached in June and

207 July of each year. While the early OMI estimates of the UVI did not account for the

208 boundary layer aerosol absorption, the current version (1.3) includes the postcorrection by

209 Arola et al.<sup>51</sup> for absorbing aerosols based on global monthly aerosol climatology.

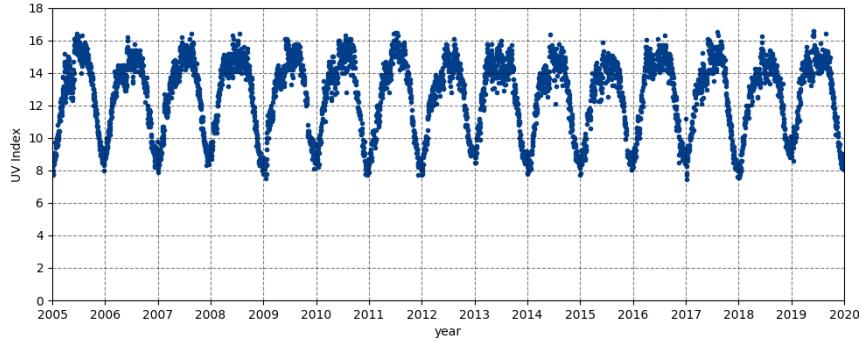


Figure 6: UV Index at solar noon for clear sky recorded by OMI-Aura/NIVR-FMI-NASA, from 2005 to 2019.

## <sup>210</sup> Effect of pollutants on UV radiation

<sup>211</sup> Trends and averages in aerosol optical depth  $AOD_{340}$  and criteria pollutants  $PM_{10}$ , CO,  
<sup>212</sup>  $NO_2$ ,  $O_3$  and  $SO_2$  observed at the SIMAT stations over 2000-2019, are shown in Figure 7  
<sup>213</sup> and summarized in Table 2 together with the  $UVI_{max}$ . Similar trends in pollutants have  
<sup>214</sup> been noted before<sup>52-54</sup> and reflect the long-term success of emission reduction policies and  
<sup>215</sup> programs.

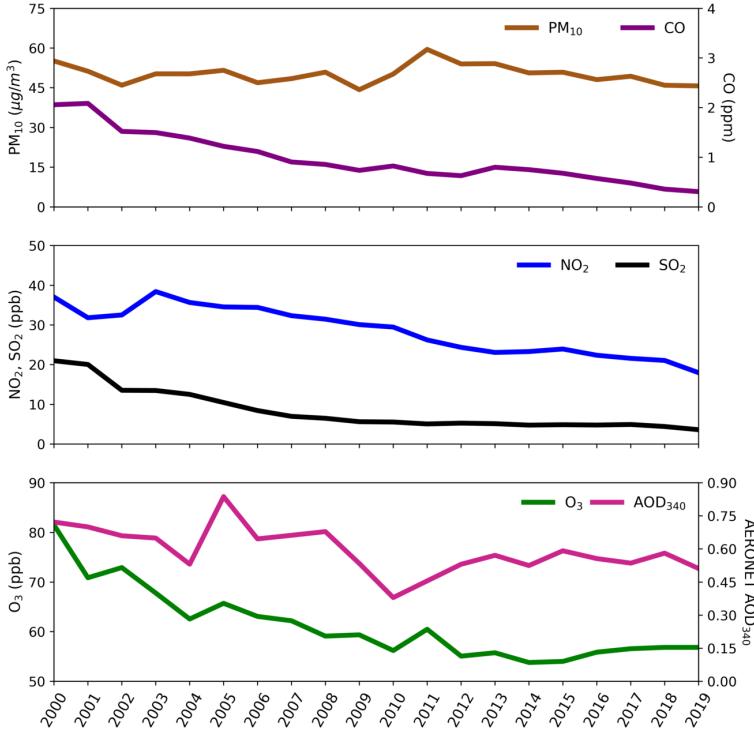


Figure 7: Air quality trends in MCMA for the period 2000-2019 from annual averages obtained between 11h to 15h CST every day: PM<sub>10</sub> (brown curve), CO (purple curve), NO<sub>2</sub> (blue curve), SO<sub>2</sub>(black curve), O<sub>3</sub> (green curve) and AOD<sub>340</sub> (pink curve).

Table 2: UV Index and criteria pollutants: the absolute change per year for the period 2000-2019, averages in units of  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (PM<sub>10</sub>), ppm (CO), ppb (SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub>), dimensionless (UV Index and AOD<sub>340</sub>) and annual percentage change (%/year).

Variable	$\frac{\text{absolutechange}}{\text{year}}$	Avg <sub>2000–2019</sub>	$\Delta(\%/\text{year})$
UVI	0.08	9.2	0.9
PM <sub>10</sub>	-0.10	50.2	-0.2
CO	-0.08	1.0	-8.2
NO <sub>2</sub>	-0.96	28.6	-3.4
O <sub>3</sub>	-1.05	61.3	-1.7
AOD <sub>340</sub>	-0.01	0.6	-1.6
SO <sub>2</sub>	-0.76	8.4	-9.1

The observed changes in the concentrations of these air pollutants have significant impli-

cations for surface UV radiation, as can be demonstrated with the TUV radiative transfer

model. Table 3 summarizes UVI values for the June-July time period, estimated by the

219 three methods: OMI satellite-derived UVI, RAMA ground-based observations, and TUV  
 220 modeling using air pollution estimates. Two groups of values can be readily identified: (1)  
 221 RAMA daily record values, OMI with or without BL aerosols, and TUV for very clean con-  
 222 ditions, all with UVI values around 15-16; and (2) RAMA average daily maxima and TUV  
 223 UVI using MCMA pollutants as input, which are in good agreement for both 2018/19 and  
 224 2000/01 but much lower than the first group. Compared to the OMI estimate that included  
 225 the climatological aerosol correction (15.3), observed RAMA values were lower by 35% in  
 226 2000 and by 20% in 2019. Similarly, TUV values were 35% lower in 2000 and 22% lower in  
 227 2019 relative to the TUV values of 15.6 for a pristine atmosphere.

Table 3: UV Index monthly maximum estimates for June-July.

<b>Conditions for estimation in June-July</b>	<b>UV Index</b>
RAMA maximum reached in period 2000-2019	15.0
RAMA average maxima 2018, 2019	12.3
RAMA average maxima 2000, 2001	9.9
OMI clear, local noon, no corrected for BL aerosols	16.6
TUV "zero" pollution	16.1
AOD 0, O <sub>3</sub> 0 ppb, NO <sub>2</sub> 0 ppb, SO <sub>2</sub> 0 ppb	
TUV pristine pollution	15.6
AOD 0.05, O <sub>3</sub> 10 ppb, NO <sub>2</sub> 0 ppb, SO <sub>2</sub> 0 ppb	
TUV 2019:	12.1
AOD 0.5, O <sub>3</sub> 50 ppb, NO <sub>2</sub> 20 ppb, SO <sub>2</sub> 1 ppb	
TUV 2000:	10.2
AOD 0.7, O <sub>3</sub> 70 ppb, NO <sub>2</sub> 40 ppb, SO <sub>2</sub> 20 ppb	

228 The agreement between RAMA observations and TUV model estimates is excellent but  
 229 also probably a bit fortuitous. Clouds on average reduce the irradiance impinging on the  
 230 surface, but scattering from them can also cause transient enhancements (especially if the  
 231 direct sunbeam is not blocked) that could be recorded as daily maxima – with cancellation  
 232 between these cloud effects resulting in improved agreement with the cloud-free model. We  
 233 cannot exclude that some of the observed trend in UVI is due to changes in cloud cover.  
 234 However, the modeled fractional UVI reductions due to pollutants, shown in Table 3, are in  
 235 such good agreement with the observed UVI reductions, that a compelling case can be made

236 for a dominant role of air pollutants in the long-term UVI trends.

237 Table 4 shows the contributions to UVI reductions from individual pollutants. Aerosols  
238 are seen to be the major factor in both time periods, followed by O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub>. The  
239 2000-2019 UVI increase is seen to result in comparable proportions from fewer aerosols, less  
240 SO<sub>2</sub>, and the combined reductions in O<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>.

241 Comparable UV reductions, of 30-40% due to aerosols, were reported by Panicker et al.<sup>11</sup>  
242 over Pune, India from April 2004 to March 2005, with sensitivity coefficients (i.e. change in  
243 UVI per unit change in AOD) similar to those found here in Table 3.

244 Comparisons of OMI with ground-based UV measurements have been reviewed recently  
245 by Zhang et al.<sup>55</sup> and Vitt et al.<sup>56</sup>. OMI-derived UV generally overestimates ground-level  
246 measurements by 1-10% in relatively clean conditions (e.g. rural U.S), by 10-30% in Southern  
247 Europe and by 40% or more in Santiago, Chile<sup>50</sup> and Thailand<sup>57</sup>. The overestimations appear  
248 related in large part to incomplete accounting of UV absorption by BL aerosol, although  
249 other factors such as the correction to solar noon may also introduce some bias.<sup>55</sup> Over  
250 Europe, ground-based UVI observations for several decades are systematically lower than  
251 those estimated from satellites even after consideration of climatological aerosol distributions,  
252 showing the importance of local pollution not resolved from space.<sup>56</sup> However, difference  
253 between satellite-derived and ground-based UVI was less than 1.0 UVI units in over 90% of  
254 the cases, in contrast to the difference of 3-5 units found for Mexico City (Table 3).

255 UV reductions by air pollutants are expected to be most severe near the surface, while  
256 chemical reactions leading to photochemical smog occur through the vertical extent of the  
257 BL. Figure 8 shows the vertical profiles of photolysis coefficients (the reciprocals of photolytic  
258 lifetimes) for two key reactions, the photolysis of O<sub>3</sub> to yield excited oxygen atoms O(1D),  
259 and the photolysis of NO<sub>2</sub>. In the absence of optically active pollutants, these coefficients  
260 would be nearly independent of altitude in the BL. However, the presence of pollutants  
261 leads to a strong decrease toward the surface, with notably more severe reductions in 2000  
262 compared to 2019. While the specific values shown in the figure are only illustrative for

263 typical conditions, routine daily air quality modeling should carefully account for the long  
 264 term variations in these photolysis coefficients.

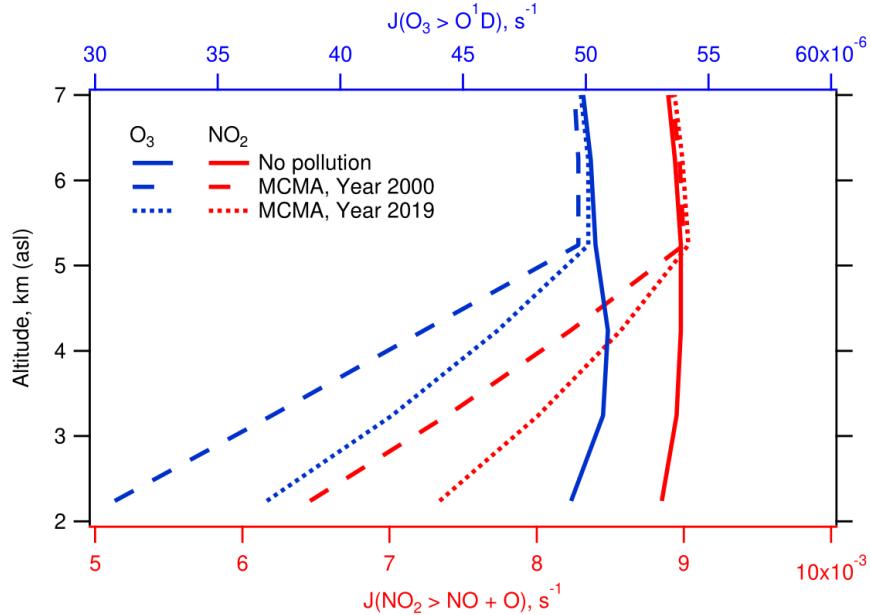


Figure 8: Vertical profiles of the photolysis coefficients for the reaction  $O_3+h\nu \rightarrow O(1D)+O_2$  (top axis, blue)  $NO_2+h\nu \rightarrow O+NO$  (bottom axis, red) for zero pollution (solid) and Mexico City in the years 2000 (dashed) and 2019 (dotted)

265 An issue that is beginning to gain relevance in radiative balance models is the influence  
 266 of a group of organic compounds capable of strongly absorbing in the UV region (brown  
 267 carbon).<sup>58</sup> Some of these compounds are related with emissions from local and regional  
 268 wildfires.<sup>59</sup> Mexico City is frequently exposed to regional fire smoke transport during the  
 269 dry part of the year (November to May)<sup>60</sup>, that sporadically modify the optical properties of  
 270 the aerosols.<sup>61</sup> This could partly explain the relatively minor reductions in  $PM_{10}$  (see Fig. 7),  
 271 compared to the larger reductions of  $CO$ ,  $NO_2$ , and  $O_3$  that are more directly related to urban  
 272 activities, as well as some of the seasonal asymmetry seen in Fig. 3.

273 The UVI is specific to wavelengths mainly in the 300-320 nm range, and so the question  
 274 remains whether these results can be applied at longer UV wavelengths, e.g. those important  
 275 for  $NO_2$  photolysis (<420 nm). Absorption by  $SO_2$  and  $O_3$  vanishes, while absorption by  $NO_2$   
 276 increases and typical aerosols optical depth decrease. These changes can easily be modeled,

<sup>277</sup> but unfortunately far fewer measurements of these longer wavelengths are available in Mexico  
<sup>278</sup> City or elsewhere.

<sup>279</sup> Two decades of observations in Mexico City demonstrate unequivocally that air pollution  
<sup>280</sup> reduces UV radiation at the ground. The ground-based observations are well below data  
<sup>281</sup> derived from satellite-based observations. Although ideally both data sets should match,  
<sup>282</sup> the satellite has a limitation to seeing boundary layer absorbers. When typical values of the  
<sup>283</sup> pollutants (aerosols, tropospheric ozone, and to a lesser extent NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>), are included  
<sup>284</sup> in a model (e.g. TUV), the differences between satellite-derived and ground-based measured  
<sup>285</sup> values are explained and can be attributed quantitatively to individual observed pollutants.  
<sup>286</sup> Long term improvements in air quality, over two decades, are accompanied by statistically  
<sup>287</sup> significant increases in the observed UVI, again in good agreement with the model-predicted  
<sup>288</sup> changes.

Table 4: Contributions of individual pollutants to UV Index changes. (a) Values used one at the time, with the others held at zero. (b) UVI deviation from the zero-pollution value of 16.1 (from Table 3). (c) 2019-2000 UVI change due to changes in each pollutant.

Pollutant	Year 2000		Year 2019		2019-2000
	poll. level (a)	UVI (b)	poll. level	UVI	(c)
AOD	0.7	-3.7	0.5	-2.7	1.0
O <sub>3</sub> ppb (DU)	70 (14)	-1.4	50 (10)	-1.0	0.4
NO <sub>2</sub> ppb	40	-0.9	20	-0.5	0.4
SO <sub>2</sub> ppb	30	-0.8	1	-0.04	0.8

<sup>289</sup> The reductions in surface UV radiation with respect to an ideally clear atmosphere –  
<sup>290</sup> by nearly 40% in 2000 and still 20% in 2020 – are large, both within the context of hu-  
<sup>291</sup> man UV exposure and air quality mitigation. In urban areas where ozone production scales  
<sup>292</sup> proportionally with UV levels and with volatile organic compound (VOC) emissions (the  
<sup>293</sup> VOC-limited regime), a 10% increase in BL average photolysis rates means that VOC emis-  
<sup>294</sup> sions will need to be reduced by 10% to meet the same goals, or else successful reductions in  
<sup>295</sup> aerosols would lead to unwanted UV-driven increases in O<sub>3</sub>. Such UV changes must be con-  
<sup>296</sup> sidered carefully in air quality mitigation strategies. For human exposure, a 20% increase in

297 UV irradiances over two decades should be seen as a non-negligible public health issue requir-  
298 ing some reassessment of preventive behaviors to minimize the risk of skin cancer, cataract,  
299 and other UV-related health effects. The efforts that Mexico City has made to improve air  
300 quality have achieved positive results in the levels of most air pollutants. Nevertheless, they  
301 caused an increase in UV radiation that reaches the surface.

302 A limitation of the present work is our focus on daily maximum values, which largely  
303 exclude cloud cover. Absorption within clouds can be enhanced by the long path lengths of  
304 multiply scattered photons, so that accurate quantification of UV effects of clouds in polluted  
305 environments remains a significant challenge and interesting opportunity for future work.

306 Finally, based on our results, the solar radiation monitoring network could be improved  
307 by adding observation sites within or close to the basin, with minor influences of the urban  
308 plume (e. g., Amecameca; latitude: 19.13°N, longitude: 99.76°W, elevation: 2420 m asl),  
309 and the complementing of sensors in existing monitoring sites that are at elevations above the  
310 urban boundary layer like Ajusco (AJU, elevation: 2953 m asl) or Instituto de Investigaciones  
311 Nucleares (INN, elevation: 3082 m asl). These sites would provide valuable observations to  
312 assess quantitatively the effects of urban pollution on solar radiation levels.

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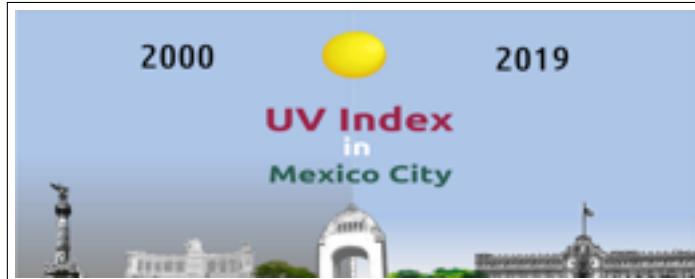
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500 Graphical TOC Entry

501



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