

Disentangling the impact of the COVID-19 lockdowns on urban NO₂ from natural variability

Daniel L. Goldberg^{*,1,3}, Susan C. Anenberg¹, Debora Griffin², Chris A. McLinden², Zifeng Lu³,
David G. Streets³

¹Department of Environmental and Occupational Health, George Washington University, Washington, DC, U.S.

²Air Quality Research Division, Environment and Climate Change Canada (ECCC), Toronto, Ontario, Canada

³Energy Systems Division, Argonne National Laboratory, Lemont, IL, U.S.

*Corresponding author. Phone: (202)994-8102; Email: dgoldberg@gwu.edu

Abstract

Satellite data show substantial drops in nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) during COVID-19 physical distancing. To attribute NO₂ changes to NO_x emissions changes over short timescales, one must account for meteorological effects. We find that meteorological patterns were especially favorable for low NO₂ in much of the U.S. in spring 2020, complicating comparisons with spring 2019. Meteorological variations between years can cause column NO₂ differences of ~15% over monthly timescales. After accounting for sun angle and meteorological considerations, we calculate that NO₂ drops ranged between 9.2 – 43.4% among twenty cities in North America, with a median of 21.6%. Of the studied cities, largest NO₂ drops (>30%) were in San Jose, Los Angeles, and Toronto, and smallest drops (<12%) were in Miami, Minneapolis, and Dallas. These normalized NO₂ changes can be used to highlight locations with greater activity changes and better understand the sources contributing to adverse air quality in each city.

Plain-Language Summary

The current paradigm of disentangling emissions from meteorological influences on air pollution by averaging over many months has insufficient temporal granularity to quantify short-term emission changes. We developed two novel methods to account for weather impacts on daily pollution levels during COVID-19 precautions. Once we accounted for favorable weather conditions that in some cases kept air pollution low independent of tail-pipe emissions, calculated air pollutant emission reductions varied dramatically (9 – 43%) among twenty North American cities. Results can be used to understand factors contributing to inconsistent NO₂ changes during physical distancing, which can inform the effectiveness of COVID-19 protocols and aid future policy development. These methodologies will allow us to respond more quickly in future unintended experiments when emissions change suddenly.

1. Introduction

Nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) is unique due to its relatively short photochemical lifetime which varies from 2-6 h during the summer daytime (Beirle et al., 2011; de Foy et al., 2014; Laughner & Cohen, 2019; Valin et al., 2013) to 12-24 h during winter (Beirle et al., 2003; Shah et al., 2020). As a result, tropospheric NO₂ concentrations are strongly correlated with local NO_x emissions, which are often anthropogenic in origin. However, due to the effects of meteorology and sun angle on the NO₂ abundance, NO₂ can vary by a factor of two simply due to seasonal changes (Pope et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2019). Therefore, satellite data are typically averaged over long timeframes (~seasonal/annual) to assess changes in NO_x emissions (Duncan et al., 2016; Geddes et al., 2016; Georgoulas et al., 2019; Hilboll et al., 2013, 2017; Kim et al., 2009; Krotkov et al., 2016; Lamsal et al., 2015; McLinden et al., 2016; VanDerA et al., 2008).

With the COVID-19 crisis, there is now broad interest in rapid assessments of NO_x emission changes on short timescales in locations that have implemented stay-at-home orders or other physical distancing measures. Using satellite data in this instance can be advantageous due to its global coverage at immediate timescales. However, current methods of averaging satellite NO₂ data over many months to minimize random daily effects of weather will not provide the temporal granularity needed to quantify short-lived NO_x emission changes.

Preliminary satellite-based studies indicate that NO₂ dropped substantially in China following stringent COVID-19 physical distancing actions (F. Liu et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020). Similar declines have also been seen over northern Italy (ESA, 2020b) and India (ESA, 2020a).

Although lockdown measures – and adherence to them – have been looser in the U.S. than in China, India, and Italy, preliminary analyses show that NO₂ amounts are declining across U.S. cities as well (NASA, 2020). These declines have, in some cases in the media (Holcombe & O’Key, 2020; Plumer & Popovich, 2020), been attributed to the emission changes during lockdowns, without accounting for the potentially substantial influences of meteorology and seasonality. Accounting for natural NO₂ fluctuations are especially important during spring, a time when the NO₂ concentrations and lifetimes are quickly changing due to transitioning meteorology, sun angle, and snow cover.

Understanding how NO_x emissions have changed in response to physical distancing measures requires new methods to account for sun angle and meteorological conditions over very short

time scales (days/weeks), as opposed to the traditional method of averaging over seasons and years. Here, we use three different methods to assess the NO₂ decreases associated with COVID-19 lockdowns. We combine TROPOMI NO₂ data with ERA5 re-analysis and a regional chemical transport model to determine the effects of the sun angle and meteorological factors – such as wind speed and wind direction – on NO₂ column amounts. The NO₂ changes after this “normalization” are more likely to represent the NO_x emissions changes due to COVID-19.

2. Methods

2.1 TROPOMI NO₂

TROPOMI was launched by the European Space Agency (ESA) for the European Union’s Copernicus Sentinel 5 Precursor (S5p) satellite mission on October 13, 2017. The satellite follows a sun-synchronous, low-earth (825 km) orbit with a daily equator overpass time of approximately 13:30 local solar time (VanGeffen et al., 2019). TROPOMI measures total column amounts of several trace gases in the Ultraviolet-Visible-Near Infrared-Shortwave Infrared spectral regions (Veefkind et al., 2012). At nadir, pixel sizes are $3.5 \times 7 \text{ km}^2$ (reduced to $3.5 \times 5.6 \text{ km}^2$ on August 6, 2019) with little variation in pixel sizes across the 2600 km swath.

Using a differential optical absorption spectroscopy (DOAS) technique on the radiance measurements in the 405 – 465 nm spectral window, the top-of-atmosphere spectral radiances can be converted into slant column amounts of NO₂ between the sensor and the Earth’s surface (Boersma et al., 2018). In two additional steps, the slant column quantity can be converted into a tropospheric vertical column content, which is the quantity used most often to further our understanding of NO₂ in the atmosphere (Beirle et al., 2019; Dix et al., 2020; Goldberg et al., 2019; Griffin et al., 2019; Ialongo et al., 2020; Reuter et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2020).

2.2 Meteorological Dataset

We use ERA5 meteorology((C3S), 2017) for the wind speed and direction in our analysis. When filtering the data based on wind, we use the average 100-m winds during 16 – 21 UTC, which approximately corresponds to the TROPOMI overpass time over North America. To downscale the ERA5 re-analysis, which is provided at $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$, we spatially interpolate daily averaged winds to $0.01^\circ \times 0.01^\circ$ using bilinear interpolation. Due to our dependence on $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$

meteorology, any microscale features (e.g., sea breezes) will not be accounted for, but these effects should be minor for our particular analysis.

2.3 Calculation of NO₂ Changes

We calculate the NO₂ changes using three different methods. In Method 1, we compare an average of March 15, 2020 – April 30, 2020 to the same timeframe of 2019; this year-over-year comparison is used most often in satellite studies quantifying long-term changes in NO_x emissions. In Method 2, we develop a strategy to account for varying weather patterns without the use of a chemical transport model. In this method, we normalize each day's NO₂ observation to a day with “standard” meteorology – similar to standard temperature and pressure (STP) conditions in a laboratory setting. We do this by accounting for four different day-varying effects; these are sun angle, wind speed, wind direction, and day-of-week. In all cases, we normalize city-specific conditions to those that are climatological on April 15th. Finally, in Method 3, we infer a TROPOMI NO₂ column amount under normal circumstances using the GEM-MACH regional chemical transport model, and then compare the actual TROPOMI columns to the theoretical columns. Methods 2 & 3, both account for year-varying meteorology, while Method 1 does not. A detailed description of Methods 2 & 3 can be found in the Supplemental.

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it is transformed into other chemical species, such as O_3 and HNO_3 , more quickly than during the winter. We find that in most near-urban locations column NO_2 amounts are 1.5 – 3 times larger during the winter than during the summer, and can vary substantially between city.

In a next step, we account for wind speed and wind direction in the spatiotemporal variation of NO_2 columns. In the middle and bottom panels of Figure 1, we demonstrate the effects of wind speed and wind direction on the NO_2 in our domain. Increases in wind speed yield NO_2 decreases due to quicker dispersion away from the city centers. For example, in New York City, Washington DC, Atlanta, and Chicago, all cities with relatively flat topography and located in the eastern United States, increasing wind speeds from nearly stagnant to > 8 m/s decreases NO_2 by 30 – 60%. Conversely, in Denver and Los Angeles, cities with more heterogeneous topography and with general isolation from an agglomeration of cities, show a stronger dependence on wind speed; increasing wind speeds from nearly stagnant to > 8 m/s decreases NO_2 by 70 – 85%. In both instances, these examples show the strong dependence of wind speed on local NO_2 amounts.

Similarly, wind direction has a large role in the local NO_2 amounts, although the effects of wind direction are non-linear. Generally, northwest winds yield the cleanest conditions in most U.S. cities, but the effects of other wind directions are more nuanced. For example, southwesterly winds yield the worst air quality in New York City, while northeasterly winds yield the largest NO_2 in Washington, D.C. This is due to the fact that the other city lies upwind in each opposing scenario. Changes in wind direction, given the same wind speed, can yield differences in NO_2 in major cities by up to 70%, and must be accounted for if properly attributing NO_2 changes to NO_x emissions. Climatological patterns for all cities are shown in the Supplemental Material (Figures S1-S3).

While 2-m air temperature and boundary layer depth may be affecting the NO_2 concentrations, these are not independent of the aforementioned factors: sun angle, wind speed and wind direction. In fact, sun angle, wind speed, and wind direction are by themselves highly skilled predictors of near-surface temperatures and boundary layer depth in most instances. Since we are focused on mostly clear-sky days, clouds have limited effects here. Previous day's precipitation may also be a contributing factor to daily NO_2 amounts, but in many areas, the wind

direction will partially account for this, since northwest winds usually follow large rain events in most areas.

3.2 Effects of COVID-19 physical distancing on NO₂

In order to quantify rapid changes in NO_x due to COVID-19 physical distancing, we calculate NO₂ changes in North American cities using three different methods and a reference method. The results for all cities are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Percentage drop in column NO₂ as observed by TROPOMI. Cities are listed by largest to smallest reduction as determined by the median of all three methods.

City Name	Reference case	Account for sun-angle only	Account for sun-angle & meteorology		Mean of Methods 1-3	Median of Methods 1-3
	Method 0 Δ between months 2020 only (Jan-Feb vs. Mar 15 - Apr 30)	Method 1 Δ between years 2019 vs. 2020 (Mar 15 - Apr 30)	Method 2 Using ERA5 analogs to account for meteorology 2019 vs. 2020 (Mar 15 - Apr 30)	Method 3 Using GEM- MACH to infer NO ₂ , 2020 only (Mar 15 - Apr 30)		
San Jose	65.2%	43.4%	40.7%	43.5%	42.5%	43.4%
Los Angeles	66.1%	32.6%	32.5%	38.6%	34.6%	32.6%
Toronto	60.4%	31.0%	17.0%	42.0%	30.0%	31.0%
Philadelphia	50.3%	36.6%	30.7%	22.1%	29.8%	30.7%
Denver	25.8%	29.2%	23.4%	39.1%	30.6%	29.2%
Atlanta	39.6%	35.2%	27.4%	20.2%	27.6%	27.4%
Detroit	35.5%	29.9%	22.8%	15.6%	22.8%	22.8%
Boston	40.3%	22.8%	23.5%	17.8%	21.4%	22.8%
Washington DC	42.9%	31.4%	21.2%	6.7%	19.8%	21.2%
Montreal	12.5%	3.3%	20.9%	30.2%	18.1%	20.9%
New York City	32.7%	20.2%	20.0%	17.9%	19.4%	20.0%
New Orleans	41.7%	13.5%	19.6%	22.5%	18.5%	19.6%
Las Vegas	66.7%	9.5%	18.4%	42.0%	23.3%	18.4%
Houston	38.9%	26.3%	15.6%	1.9%	14.6%	15.6%
Chicago	31.0%	23.6%	14.9%	3.5%	14.0%	14.9%
Phoenix	43.9%	12.8%	14.8%	35.4%	21.0%	14.8%
Austin	34.3%	14.5%	9.4%	16.1%	13.3%	14.5%
Dallas	41.9%	11.9%	3.6%	16.7%	10.7%	11.9%
Miami	27.9%	16.1%	-1.6%	11.0%	8.5%	11.0%
Minneapolis	0.1%	14.3%	9.2%	8.1%	10.5%	9.2%
Mean of each method	39.9%	22.9%	19.2%	22.5%	21.6%	21.6%

The reference method, Method 0, compares the pre-lockdown and post-lockdown periods and represents the “true” NO₂ change; however, this method does not account for seasonal changes and, thus, is not considered in the medians/means.

In Method 1, we compare an average of March 15, 2020 – April 30, 2020 to the same timeframe of 2019. In Figure 2, we show difference and ratio plots between these two years (i.e., Method

1). The largest decreases in NO₂ are near the major cities in North America. We also find regional decreases in the eastern North America. Conversely, the central and northwestern United States have seen little change between years, which is likely due to the high fraction of NO₂ attributed to biogenic sources and long-range transport. We also observe substantial decreases near retired electricity generating units in the western U.S. (Storow, 2019)

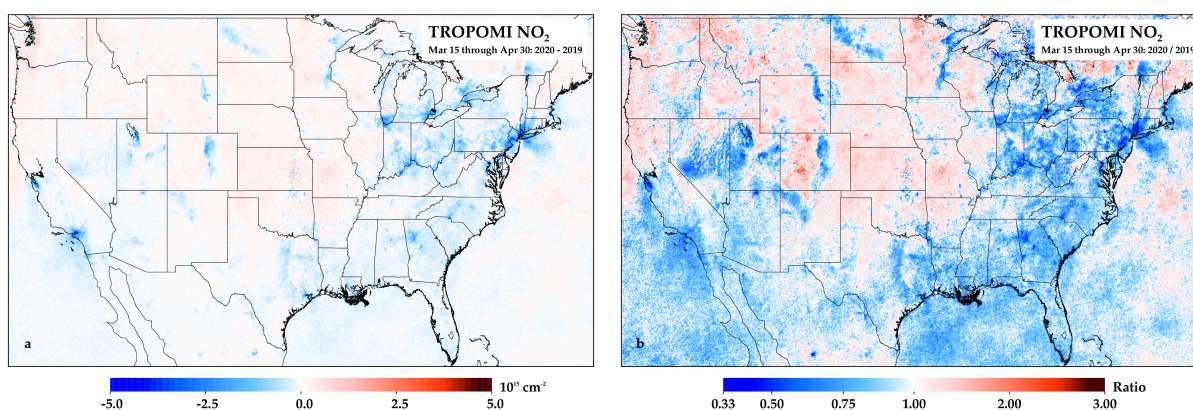


Figure 2. TROPOMI NO₂ differences between 2019 & 2020, using March 15 – April 30, 2020 as the post-COVID-19 period. Plots are showing (a) the absolute difference and (b) the ratio between years.

In Figure 3, we demonstrate Method 2. Here, we show the 2019 and 2020 28-day running TROPOMI NO₂ medians after accounting for sun angle and meteorology. In this figure, the January values are uniformly lower than their true values (Figure S4) because we are normalizing to April meteorological conditions (i.e., sun angle is higher in April as compared to January). In New York City, we calculate a 20.0% drop in NO₂ due to COVID-19 precautions. We find that there is no difference between Method 2 – which accounts for meteorology – and Method 1 – which only accounts for sun angle. This suggests that varying meteorological conditions in New York City, while different between years, may not have had a strong biasing effect. However, in Washington D.C. we find favorable conditions in 2020 as compared to 2019 because we observe substantially different NO₂ drops before (31.4%) and after (21.2%) correcting for the meteorology. These results are corroborated by the wind speed and direction (Figure S5). In 2019, winds were on average southwesterly, while in 2020, winds had more of a northwesterly and therefore cleaner component. Of all cities analyzed, we find that Miami had the most favorable conditions for low NO₂ in 2020 as compared to 2019; in 2020, winds were

stronger from the south – in this case a cleaner air mass – than in 2019, which had relatively stagnant winds. Conversely, in Montreal, New Orleans, and Las Vegas, meteorological conditions appeared to be unfavorable in 2020 as compared to 2019.

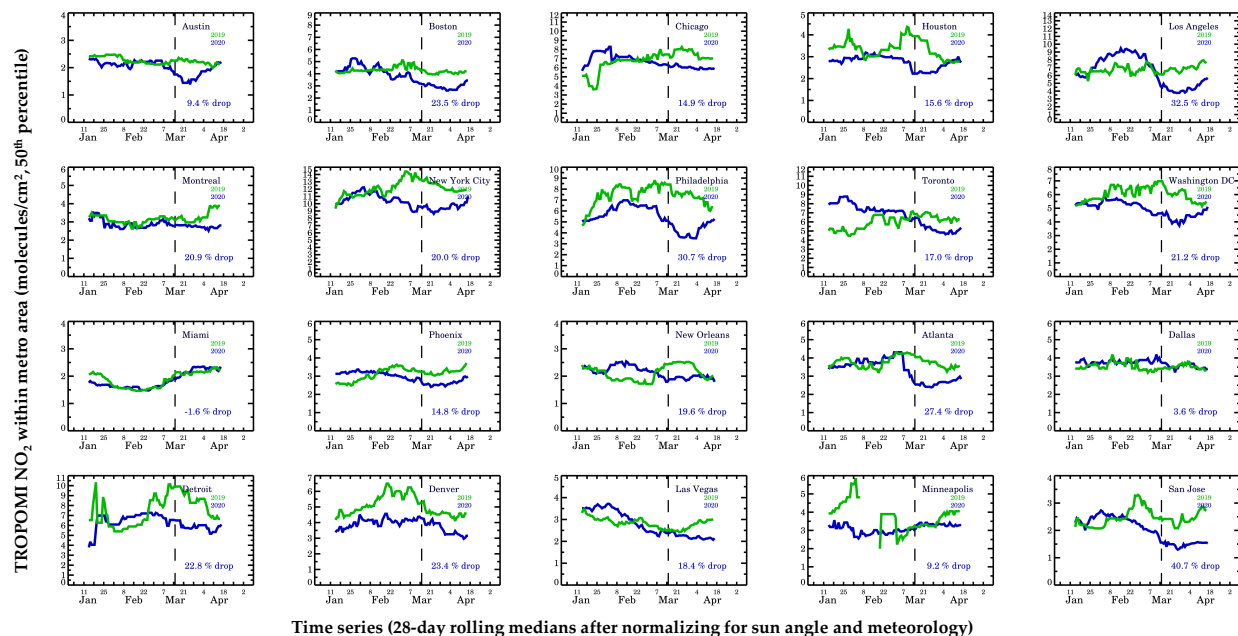


Figure 3. Trends in TROPOMI NO₂ since January 1 in 2019 and 2020 after accounting for meteorological variability and sun angle. The lines represent the 28-day rolling median value (50th percentile) in a $0.4^{\circ} \times 0.4^{\circ}$ box centered on the city center for the largest cities (New York City, Los Angeles, Chicago, Toronto, Houston) and $0.2^{\circ} \times 0.2^{\circ}$ box in all other cities.

In Figure 4, we demonstrate Method 3, in which we account for meteorology and chemical interactions using a chemical transport model. We create a theoretical TROPOMI column NO₂ using ECCC’s regional operational air quality forecast model (Moran et al., 2009; Pendlebury et al., 2018), which accounts for typical seasonal emission changes but not for any impacts due to the COVID-19 lockdowns; this helps provide expected NO₂ levels with a business as usual scenario. Around mid-March there is often a divergence between the expected and observed NO₂ in the major cities. Using this method, largest NO₂ reductions due to COVID-19 precautions are in Toronto, San Jose, and Las Vegas. Similar to Method 2, we find that NO₂ changes are generally smaller in the Northeastern U.S. and Florida as compared to Method 1 after accounting for meteorology. In fifteen of the twenty studied cities, we find that Methods 2 & 3, which utilize independent meteorological datasets, show similar biasing effects of meteorology (favorable vs. unfavorable) when compared to Method 1.

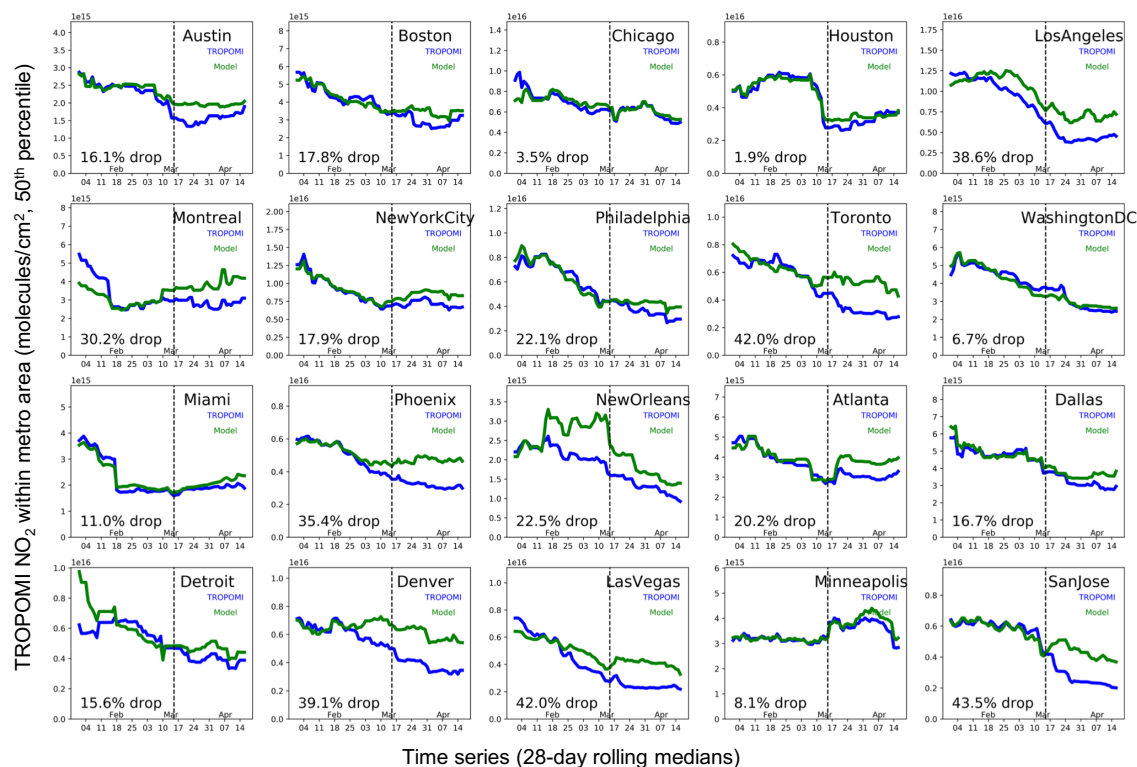


Figure 4. Trends in TROPOMI NO₂ since January 1, 2020. The actual observed columns are shown in black, while the “expected” columns - using GEM-MACH to infer NO₂ in the absence of lockdowns – is shown in blue. The lines represent the 28-day rolling median value (50th percentile) in a $0.4^{\circ} \times 0.4^{\circ}$ box centered on the city center for the largest cities (New York City, Los Angeles, Chicago, Toronto, Houston) and $0.2^{\circ} \times 0.2^{\circ}$ box in all other cities.

4. Discussion

Here we demonstrate two methodologies, Methods 2 & 3, to account for time-varying effects of meteorology on NO₂ concentrations. There are two main advantages for using Methods 2 & 3 to assess rapid changes in NO_x as compared to a year-to-year comparison of the same month or seasonal period. Year-over-year technological improvements in the United States are generally causing NO_x emissions to decrease over time, although we find a statistically insignificant NO₂ increase of 0.6% in our cities between 2019 and 2020 in the January – February average.

Accounting for year-over-year changes would be more important if comparing 2020 values to years preceding 2019.

Perhaps more importantly, there are often different seasonal patterns between years, even when averaged over the entire season. Many longer-term meteorological patterns in North America can be attributed to the El Nino South Oscillation (ENSO) or the North Atlantic Oscillation

(NAO). In particular relevance to this analysis, the January – March 2019 period had a persistently negative NAO (https://www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov/products/precip/CWlink/pna/month_nao_index.shtml) which allowed Arctic air to more readily intrude into the northern US than during more typical winters (<https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/sotc/national/201902>). In January – March 2020, there was a consistently positive NAO which limited the influence of cold and relatively clean Arctic air in eastern North America, but instead yielded cloudier and wetter conditions. Similarly, ENSO can affect air quality in cities (Edwards et al., 2019; Shen & Mickley, 2017), but this had a minor effect between 2019 (Oceanic Niño Index: +0.8) and 2020 (Oceanic Niño Index: +0.5).

5. Conclusions

We estimate that NO_x emissions temporarily dropped between 9 – 43% in North American cities due to COVID-19 precautions, with a median drop of 21.6% before and after COVID-19 physical distancing. If the sun angle is not accounted for, then the median NO₂ drop is 39.9%; this represents the true change of NO₂ in cities, but is not analogous to a change in NO_x emissions. Our reported median drop of 21.6% is marginally lower than the 22.9% in a simple year-to-year comparison, which suggests that 2020 meteorology was slightly favorable for lower NO₂, although these effects are most pronounced in the Northeastern United States and Florida.

A deficiency of our method is our reliance on a single satellite instrument and algorithm. It is known that the operational TROPOMI NO₂ algorithm underestimates tropospheric vertical column NO₂ in urban areas due to its reliance on a global model to provide shape profiles for the air mass factor (AMF); investigating the effects of the AMF bias on trends will be the subject of future work. Also, there may be a clear-sky bias (Geddes et al., 2012) associated with TROPOMI retrievals, but the results presented here are generally consistent with studies using ground monitors over the coincident region (Bekbulat et al., 2020) and the reported CO₂ emissions reductions due to COVID-19 precautions (Le Quéré et al., 2020).

The estimates of NO₂ changes using our Methods appear to be reasonable given a quick bottom-up emissions calculation. Assuming that passenger vehicles traffic dropped by ~50%, and that all other sources only dropped modestly ~10 – 25%, NO_x reductions between 10 – 35% would be expected. San Jose, Los Angeles and Toronto appear to have reductions at the high end of this range, while Miami, Minneapolis, and Dallas have values near the lowest end; further work

280 will look into why these cities have reductions on the ends of the spectrum. Rapid assessments
281 of NO₂ changes – after normalized for seasonal and meteorological factors – can be used to
282 highlight locations with greater changes in activity and better understand the sources contributing
283 to adverse air quality in each city.

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Author Contributions

DLG drafted the concept, wrote the manuscript, and performed much of the analysis. SCA jointly drafted the concept and edited the manuscript. DG and CAM provided the regional chemical model data and related analysis, and edited the manuscript. ZL jointly drafted the concept, helped to process the TROPOMI NO₂ data, and edited the manuscript. DGS edited the manuscript.

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