

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

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25 **Abstract**

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

37 **Plain-Language Summary**

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

48 **1. Introduction**

49 Nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) is unique due to its relatively short photochemical lifetime which varies
50 from 2-6 h during the summer daytime (Beirle et al., 2011; de Foy et al., 2014; Laughner &
51 Cohen, 2019; Valin et al., 2013) to 12-24 h during winter (Beirle et al., 2003; Shah et al., 2020).
52 As a result, tropospheric NO₂ concentrations are strongly correlated with local NO_x emissions,
53 which are often anthropogenic in origin. However, due to the effects of meteorology and sun
54 angle on the NO₂ abundance, NO₂ can vary by a factor of two simply due to seasonal changes
55 (Pope et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2019). Therefore, satellite data are typically averaged over long
56 timeframes (~seasonal/annual) to assess changes in NO_x emissions (Duncan et al., 2016; Geddes
57 et al., 2016; Georgoulias et al., 2019; Hilboll et al., 2013, 2017; Kim et al., 2009; Krotkov et al.,
58 2016; Lamsal et al., 2015; McLinden et al., 2016; VanDerA et al., 2008).

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

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

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

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

78 time scales (days/weeks), as opposed to the traditional method of averaging over seasons and
79 years. Here, we use three different methods to assess the NO₂ decreases associated with COVID-
80 19 lockdowns. We combine TROPOMI NO₂ data with ERA5 re-analysis and a regional
81 chemical transport model to determine the effects of the sun angle and meteorological factors –
82 such as wind speed and wind direction – on NO₂ column amounts. The NO₂ changes after this
83 “normalization” are more likely to represent the NO_x emissions changes due to COVID-19.

84 **2. Methods**

85 **2.1 TROPOMI NO₂**

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

93 Using a differential optical absorption spectroscopy (DOAS) technique on the radiance
94 measurements in the 405 – 465 nm spectral window, the top-of-atmosphere spectral radiances
95 can be converted into slant column amounts of NO₂ between the sensor and the Earth’s surface
96 (Boersma et al., 2018). In two additional steps, the slant column quantity can be converted into a
97 tropospheric vertical column content, which is the quantity used most often to further our
98 understanding of NO₂ in the atmosphere (Beirle et al., 2019; Dix et al., 2020; Goldberg et al.,
99 2019; Griffin et al., 2019; Ialongo et al., 2020; Reuter et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2020).

100 **2.2 Meteorological Dataset**

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

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

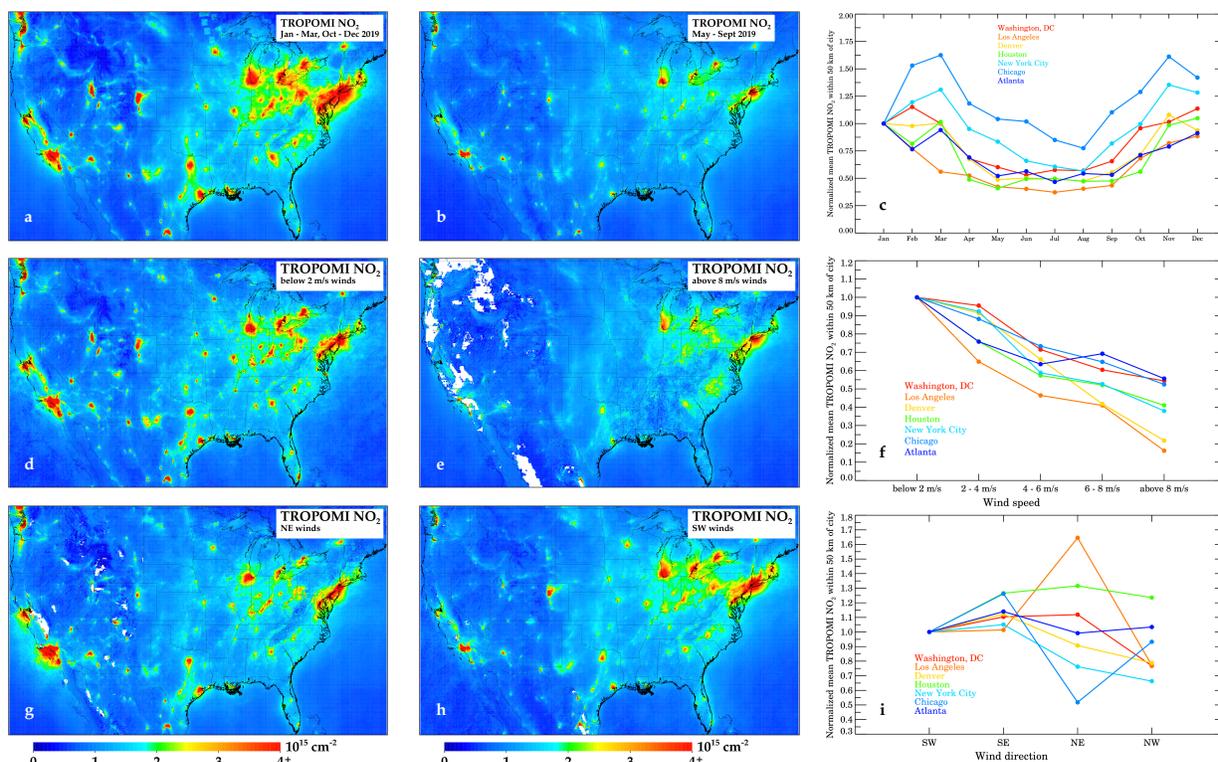
108 **2.3 Calculation of NO₂ Changes**

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

123 **3. Results**

124 **3.1 Sun Angle & Meteorological Relationships**

125 In the top row of Figure 1, we show 2019 NO₂ column densities during the low sun-angle “cold”
 126 season (January – March, October – December) and high sun-angle “warm” season (May –
 127 September) in the continental United States and southern Canada.



128 **Figure 1.** Effects of meteorology and sun angle on column NO₂. Top panels show (a) TROPOMI
 129 NO₂ during the warm season (May – Sept 2019), (b) during the cold season (Jan – Mar, Oct –
 130 Dec 2019), and (c) the monthly variation in 7 U.S. cities normalized to Jan 2019. Middle panels
 131 show (d) TROPOMI NO₂ when winds are < 2 m/s, (e) when winds are > 8 m/s, and (f) variations
 132 in NO₂ as a function of wind speed for seven cities normalized to stagnant conditions. Bottom
 133 panels show (g) TROPOMI NO₂ when winds are southwesterly, (h) when winds are
 134 northeasterly, and (i) variations as a function of wind direction for seven cities normalized to
 135 southwesterly winds.
 136

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 138 Column NO₂ is larger during the cold season than during the warm season over the majority of
 139 our domain, despite NO_x emissions generally peaking during the middle of the warm season due
 140 to a heavy air conditioning load (Abel et al., 2017; He et al., 2013). The larger NO₂
 141 concentrations during the winter are instead due to the longer NO₂ lifetime during the cold
 142 season, primarily due to slower photolysis rates. When NO_x is emitted during the warm season,

143 it is transformed into other chemical species, such as O₃ and HNO₃, more quickly than during the
144 winter. We find that in most near-urban locations column NO₂ amounts are 1.5 – 3 times larger
145 during the winter than during the summer, and can vary substantially between city.

146 In a next step, we account for wind speed and wind direction in the spatiotemporal variation of
147 NO₂ columns. In the middle and bottom panels of Figure 1, we demonstrate the effects of wind
148 speed and wind direction on the NO₂ in our domain. Increases in wind speed yield NO₂
149 decreases due to quicker dispersion away from the city centers. For example, in New York City,
150 Washington DC, Atlanta, and Chicago, all cities with relatively flat topography and located in
151 the eastern United States, increasing wind speeds from nearly stagnant to > 8 m/s decreases NO₂
152 by 30 – 60%. Conversely, in Denver and Los Angeles, cities with more heterogeneous
153 topography and with general isolation from an agglomeration of cities, show a stronger
154 dependence on wind speed; increasing wind speeds from nearly stagnant to > 8 m/s decreases
155 NO₂ by 70 – 85%. In both instances, these examples show the strong dependence of wind speed
156 on local NO₂ amounts.

157 Similarly, wind direction has a large role in the local NO₂ amounts, although the effects of wind
158 direction are non-linear. Generally, northwest winds yield the cleanest conditions in most U.S.
159 cities, but the effects of other wind directions are more nuanced. For example, southwesterly
160 winds yield the worst air quality in New York City, while northeasterly winds yield the largest
161 NO₂ in Washington, D.C. This is due to the fact that the other city lies upwind in each opposing
162 scenario. Changes in wind direction, given the same wind speed, can yield differences in NO₂ in
163 major cities by up to 70%, and must be accounted for if properly attributing NO₂ changes to NO_x
164 emissions. Climatological patterns for all cities are shown in the Supplemental Material (Figures
165 S1-S3).

166 While 2-m air temperature and boundary layer depth may be affecting the NO₂ concentrations,
167 these are not independent of the aforementioned factors: sun angle, wind speed and wind
168 direction. In fact, sun angle, wind speed, and wind direction are by themselves highly skilled
169 predictors of near-surface temperatures and boundary layer depth in most instances. Since we
170 are focused on mostly clear-sky days, clouds have limited effects here. Previous day's
171 precipitation may also be a contributing factor to daily NO₂ amounts, but in many areas, the wind

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

174 **3.2 Effects of COVID-19 physical distancing on NO₂**

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

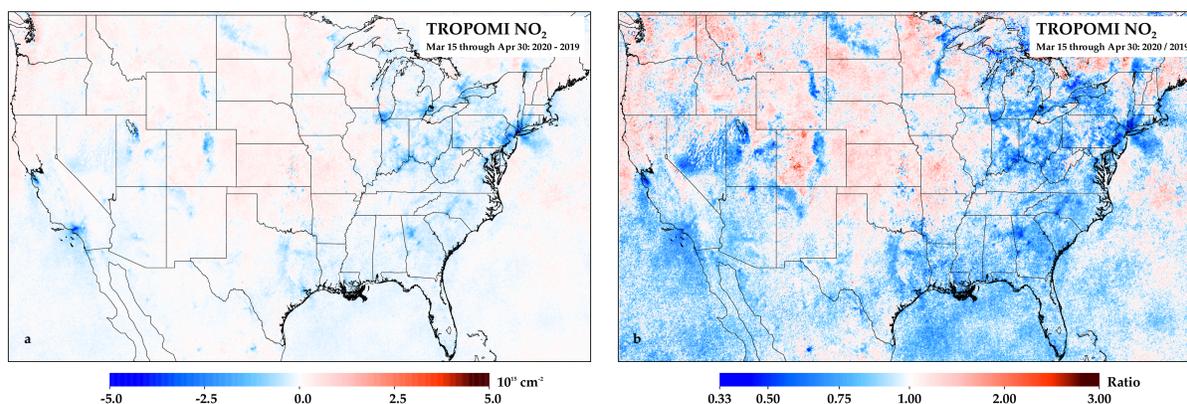
178 **Table 1.** Percentage drop in column NO₂ as observed by TROPOMI. Cities are listed by largest
 179 to smallest reduction as determined by the median of all three methods.

| 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% |

180
 181 The reference method, Method 0, compares the pre-lockdown and post-lockdown periods and
 182 represents the “true” NO₂ change; however, this method does not account for seasonal changes
 183 and, thus, is not considered in the medians/means.

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

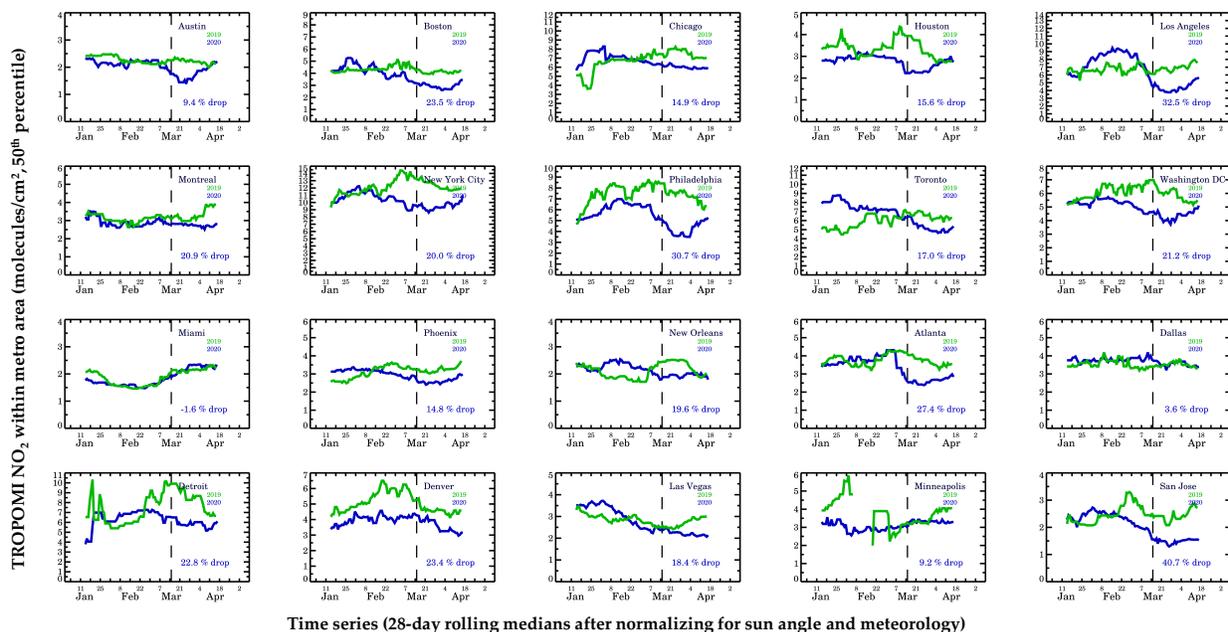
186 1). The largest decreases in NO₂ are near the major cities in North America. We also find
187 regional decreases in the eastern North America. Conversely, the central and northwestern
188 United States have seen little change between years, which is likely due to the high fraction of
189 NO₂ attributed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



191 **Figure 2.** TROPOMI NO₂ differences between 2019 & 2020, using March 15 – April 30, 2020
192 as the post-COVID-19 period. Plots are showing (a) the absolute difference and (b) the ratio
193 between years.
194
195

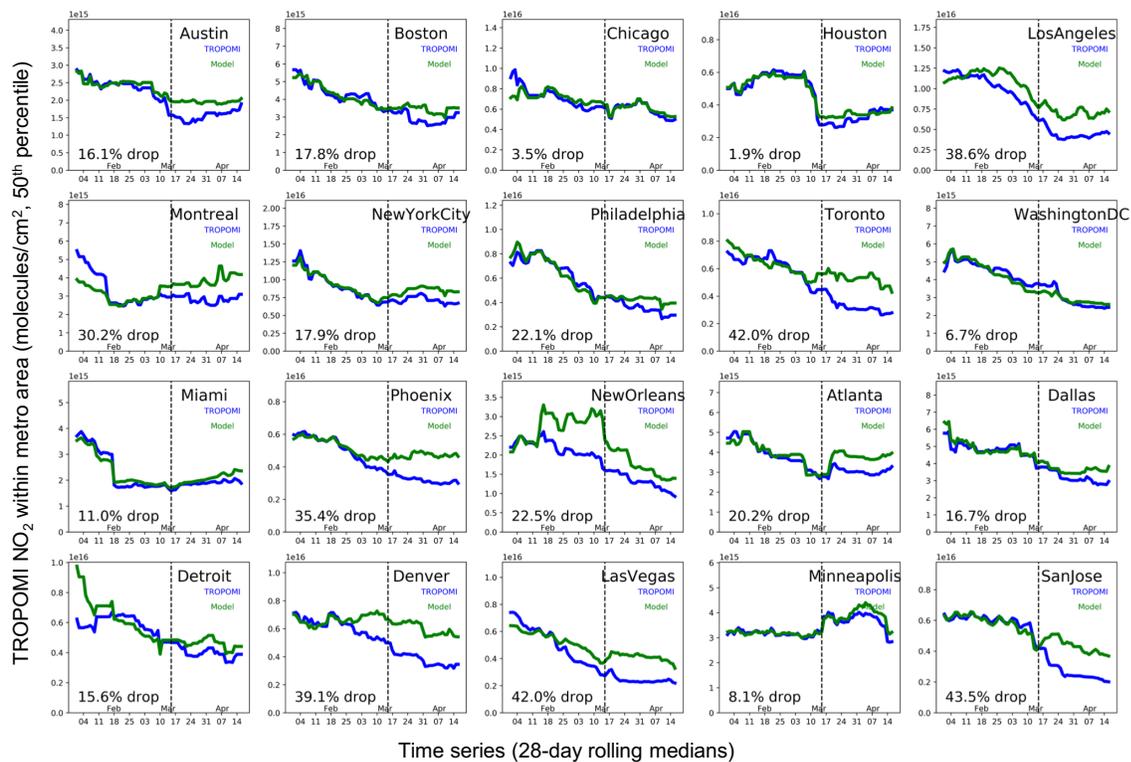
196 In Figure 3, we demonstrate Method 2. Here, we show the 2019 and 2020 28-day running
197 TROPOMI NO₂ medians after accounting for sun angle and meteorology. In this figure, the
198 January values are uniformly lower than their true values (Figure S4) because we are
199 normalizing to April meteorological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

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



213 Time series (28-day rolling medians after normalizing for sun angle and meteorology)
 214 **Figure 3.** Trends in TROPOMI NO₂ since January 1 in 2019 and 2020 after accounting for
 215 meteorological variability and sun angle. The lines represent the 28-day rolling median value
 216 (50th percentile) in a 0.4° × 0.4° box centered on the city center for the largest cities (New York
 217 City, Los Angeles, Chicago, Toronto, Houston) and 0.2° × 0.2° box in all other cities.

218 In Figure 4, we demonstrate Method 3, in which we account for meteorology and chemical
 219 interactions using a chemical transport model. We create a theoretical TROPOMI column NO₂
 220 using ECCO’s regional operational air quality forecast model (Moran et al., 2009; Pendlebury et
 221 al., 2018), which accounts for typical seasonal emission changes but not for any impacts due to
 222 the COVID-19 lockdowns; this helps provide expected NO₂ levels with a business as usual
 223 scenario. Around mid-March there is often a divergence between the expected and observed
 224 NO₂ in the major cities. Using this method, largest NO₂ reductions due to COVID-19
 225 precautions are in Toronto, San Jose, and Las Vegas. Similar to Method 2, we find that NO₂
 226 changes are generally smaller in the Northeastern U.S. and Florida as compared to Method 1
 227 after accounting for meteorology. In fifteen of the twenty studied cities, we find that Methods 2
 228 & 3, which utilize independent meteorological datasets, show similar biasing effects of
 229 meteorology (favorable vs. unfavorable) when compared to Method 1.
 230



231

232 **Figure 4.** Trends in TROPOMI NO₂ since January 1, 2020. The actual observed columns are
 233 shown in black, while the “expected” columns - using GEM-MACH to infer NO₂ in the absence
 234 of lockdowns – is shown in blue. The lines represent the 28-day rolling median value (50th
 235 percentile) in a 0.4° × 0.4° box centered on the city center for the largest cities (New York City,
 236 Los Angeles, Chicago, Toronto, Houston) and 0.2° × 0.2° box in all other cities.
 237

238 4. Discussion

239 Here we demonstrate two methodologies, Methods 2 & 3, to account for time-varying effects of
 240 meteorology on NO₂ concentrations. There are two main advantages for using Methods 2 & 3 to
 241 assess rapid changes in NO_x as compared to a year-to-year comparison of the same month or
 242 seasonal period. Year-over-year technological improvements in the United States are generally
 243 causing NO_x emissions to decrease over time, although we find a statistically insignificant NO₂
 244 increase of 0.6% in our cities between 2019 and 2020 in the January – February average.
 245 Accounting for year-over-year changes would be more important if comparing 2020 values to
 246 years preceding 2019.

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

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

259 5. Conclusions

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

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

275 The estimates of NO₂ changes using our Methods appear to be reasonable given a quick bottom-
276 up emissions calculation. Assuming that passenger vehicles traffic dropped by ~50%, and that
277 all other sources only dropped modestly ~10 – 25%, NO_x reductions between 10 – 35% would
278 be expected. San Jose, Los Angeles and Toronto appear to have reductions at the high end of
279 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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292 TROPOMI NO₂ data can be freely downloaded from the European Space Agency Copernicus
293 Open Access Hub or the NASA EarthData Portal (<http://doi.org/10.5270/S5P-s4ljg54>). ERA5
294 can be freely downloaded from the Copernicus Climate Change (C3S) climate data store (CDS)
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299

300 **Author Contributions**

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

306

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