

1 **Declines and peaks in NO₂ pollution during the multiple waves**
2 **of the COVID-19 pandemic in the New York metropolitan area**

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32 **Abstract.** The COVID-19 pandemic created an extreme natural experiment in which sudden changes in human
33 behavior and economic activity resulted in significant declines in nitrogen oxide (NO_x) emissions, immediately after
34 strict lockdowns were imposed. Here we examined the impact of multiple waves and response phases of the
35 pandemic on nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) dynamics and the role of meteorology in shaping relative contributions from
36 different emission sectors to NO₂ pollution in post-pandemic New York City. Long term (> 3.5 years), high
37 frequency measurements from a network of ground-based Pandora spectrometers were combined with TROPOMI
38 satellite retrievals, meteorological data, mobility trends, and atmospheric transport model simulations to quantify
39 changes in NO₂ across the New York metropolitan area. The stringent lockdown measures after the first pandemic
40 wave resulted in a decline in top-down NO_x emissions by approx. 30% on top of long-term trends, in agreement
41 with sector-specific changes in NO_x emissions. Ground-based measurements showed a sudden drop in total column
42 NO₂ in spring 2020, by up to 36% in Manhattan and 19-29% in Queens, New Jersey and Connecticut, and a clear
43 weakening (by 16%) of the typical weekly NO₂ cycle. Extending our analysis to more than a year after the initial
44 lockdown captured a gradual recovery in NO₂ across the NY/NJ/CT tri-state area in summer and fall 2020, as social
45 restrictions eased, followed by a second decline in NO₂ coincident with the second wave of the pandemic and
46 resurgence of lockdown measures in winter 2021. Meteorology was not found to have a strong NO₂ biasing effect
47 in New York City after the first pandemic wave. Winds, however, were favorable for low NO₂ conditions in
48 Manhattan during the second wave of the pandemic, resulting in larger column NO₂ declines than expected based on
49 changes in transportation emissions alone. Meteorology played a key role in shaping the relative contributions from
50 different emission sectors to NO₂ pollution in the city, with low-speed (< 5 ms⁻¹) SW-SE winds enhancing
51 contributions from the high-emitting power-generation sector in NJ and Queens and driving particularly high NO₂
52 pollution episodes in Manhattan, even during – and despite - the stringent early lockdowns. These results have
53 important implications for air quality management in New York City, and highlight the value of high resolution NO₂
54 measurements in assessing the effects of rapid meteorological changes on air quality conditions and the
55 effectiveness of sector-specific NO_x emission control strategies.

56

57 1. Introduction

58 The global outbreak of the Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) profoundly changed the world. From school closures
59 to remote work and other physical distancing measures, this crisis changed the way we move within our communities,
60 potentially with long term implications (Barbieri et al., 2021; Przybylowski et al., 2021). Altered mobility patterns led to
61 sudden and significant worldwide decreases in nitrogen oxide (NO_x) emissions from the transportation sector, as
62 documented in many studies focusing on air quality changes immediately after the initial lockdowns (e.g., Liu et al.,
63 2020; Goldberg et al., 2020; Gkatzelis et al., 2021). Yet, the impact of multiple pandemic waves over longer time periods,
64 and the role of meteorology and sector-specific emissions as key drivers of high NO_x pollution episodes that occurred in
65 major cities such as New York - even during, and despite, the most stringent early lockdown periods - remain largely
66 unknown, driving this study.

67
68 New York City, the most populous and most densely populated city in the United States, was hit particularly hard by
69 the pandemic. By late-March 2020, the tri-state region of New York (NY), New Jersey (NJ) and Connecticut (CT)
70 declared a disaster emergency and issued stay-at-home restrictions in response to COVID-19. Almost 8 million New
71 Yorkers sheltered-in-place, while roughly 5% of New York City residents (about 420,000 people) left the city between
72 March and May (Quealy, 2020; Bounds, 2020). The largest decrease in residential population occurred in Manhattan—
73 with more than 30% reduction in relatively wealthy neighborhoods including Upper West and Upper East Side—while
74 the rest of the city saw comparably modest losses (Quealy, 2020). The entire New York metropolitan area ([approx.
75 12,000 km², McCarthy 2021](#)) remained in lockdown with strict social distancing measures, including school and non-
76 essential business closures, limited transit services, and suspension of public events and gatherings, for more than two
77 months, from mid-March through June 2020. Lockdown measures were relaxed and the first phase of reopening began
78 in June with the area progressing to the final stage of reopening in July. Yet, social distancing measures became strict
79 again, including school closures, as the city experienced a surge in COVID-19 cases in late fall 2020 that reached a
80 maximum in mid-January 2021 with more reported cases to NYC Department of Health and Mental Hygiene than
81 during the first wave of the pandemic (Fig. S1). Early studies using satellite data from the Ozone Monitoring
82 Instrument (OMI) and the Tropospheric Monitoring Instrument (TROPOMI) revealed 31(±14)% and 28(±11)%
83 reduction, respectively, in nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) [tropospheric](#) column amount within a 100-km radius of New York
84 City during the three weeks following the onset of the pandemic compared to the same period in 2019 (Bauwens et
85 al., 2020). Similarly, Goldberg et al. (2020) reported a 20% drop in TROPOMI NO₂ within a [0.4° radius-22-km radius](#)
86 of New York [City](#) between March 13 and April 30, 2020.

87
88 Emitted to the atmosphere primarily during fossil fuel combustion, nitrogen oxides (NO_x=NO+NO₂) are a major
89 source of air pollution and necessary precursors of tropospheric ozone, impacting climate as well as human and
90 ecosystem health (Fares et al., 2013; Duan et al., 2019; Lim et al., 2012; Burnett et al., 2004). High NO₂ levels have
91 been associated with lung irritation and reduced lung function, increased asthma attacks, cardiovascular disorders, as
92 well as lower birth weight in newborns and increased risk of premature death (U.S. EPA 2016). In addition, through
93 wet and dry deposition, the atmosphere is a major source of excess nitrogen to many terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems

94 worldwide (Paerl et al., 2002; Pardo et al., 2011). Prior studies have indicated atmospheric deposition accounts for a
95 third or more of total nitrogen loading in systems such as the Chesapeake Bay and Long Island Sound, with important
96 implications for soil biogeochemistry, aquatic biology, development of coastal eutrophication, harmful algal blooms,
97 and hypoxia (e.g., Stacey et al., 2001; Decina et al., 2017; Decina et al., 2020). A combination of strict air quality
98 regulation policies (e.g., Clean Air Interstate Rule, CAIR, 2009) and technological improvements over the past two
99 decades has resulted in significant declines in NO_x emissions over the continental United States (van der A et al.,
100 2008; Duncan et al., 2016; Krotkov et al., 2016). Satellite Aura/OMI observations have captured an approximately
101 4% yr⁻¹ decrease in [tropospheric](#) column NO₂ levels between 2005 and 2015 over the eastern United States (Krotkov
102 et al., 2016) and a 46% decline in NO_x emissions has been reported for New York City over the period from 2006 to
103 2017 (Goldberg et al., 2019a). Despite these improvements, air pollution continues to be the single biggest
104 environmental health risk in the United States and globally today (Burnett et al., 2018; Thakrar et al., 2020; WHO
105 2019). With significant NO_x emissions from various sectors (e.g., transportation, energy, industrial), the New York
106 metropolitan area experiences among the highest national NO₂ levels (Herman et al., 2018) and has the worst
107 nonattainment record of ozone in eastern North America (based on the EPA 2015 standard) (Karambelas et al., 2020).

108

109 Restrictions on human and economic activities, particularly reductions in transportation emissions due to the COVID-
110 19 stay-at-home orders, provide a unique opportunity to assess the importance of different sources of air pollution in
111 New York City and how further sector-specific NO_x emission reductions may impact nitrogen pollution in this major
112 urban center. The overarching objective of this study was to examine how NO₂ dynamics changed in the New York
113 metropolitan area during the multiple phases of the pandemic and across regions experiencing different shifts in
114 mobility patterns. Ground-based measurements conducted over a period of 3.5 years (2017-2021) allowed us to
115 capture inter-annual variability, impacts of meteorology, and changes in air quality as human behavior changed during
116 the multiple pandemic waves and as vehicle traffic started to return to near pre-pandemic levels a year after the initial
117 lockdown. Combining these high-frequency observations with model simulations and satellite imagery uniquely
118 captured NO₂ dynamics across multiple scales and highlighted the impact of COVID-19 restrictions not only on NO₂
119 column amounts but also on NO₂ spatiotemporal behavior, including seasonal and weekly cycles.

120

121 Meteorological factors have a significant impact on atmospheric chemistry as well as transport, transformation, and
122 dispersion of air pollutants (Xu et al., 2011; Banta et al., 2011; Goldberg et al., 2020). Elucidating the role of
123 meteorology is thus important in assessments of COVID-19 impacts on urban air quality (Gkatzelis et al., 2021).
124 Seasonality and local meteorology were previously reported to drive NO₂ changes in New York City as large as a
125 factor of two over the course of a year (Goldberg et al., 2020). Although meteorological patterns were especially
126 favorable for low NO₂ in much of the United States in spring 2020, varying meteorological conditions in New York
127 City were not found to have a biasing effect in TROPOMI estimates of NO₂ declines during the initial lockdown
128 period (Goldberg et al., 2020). Because our study extended over a longer time-period, we explicitly investigated how
129 weather conditions may have impacted observed changes in NO₂ pollution and the relative contribution of different
130 NO_x emissions sectors (i.e., energy versus transportation) during the multiple phases of the pandemic.

131 **2. Methods**

132 **2.1 Ground-based measurements of column NO₂ dynamics**

133 To assess the impact of COVID-19 restrictions on NO₂ spatiotemporal behavior we used high-frequency (approx.
 134 every 1 min) measurements of total column NO₂ (TCNO₂) from the ground-based Pandonia Global Network (PGN,
 135 <https://www.pandonia-global-network.org/>, data last accessed on 4 June 2021). Sponsored by the National Aeronautics
 136 and Space Administration (NASA) and the European Space Agency (ESA), PGN focuses on providing long-term,
 137 real-time and verified QA/QC data on air quality and atmospheric composition from a network of standardized and
 138 calibrated Pandora spectrometer instruments (PSIs, Herman et al., 2019). The PGN global network serves as a
 139 validation resource for UV-visible satellite sensors on low-earth and geostationary orbit, and recent studies have
 140 included Pandora measurements for ground-based validation of TROPOMI NO₂ measurements near New York City
 141 and Long Island Sound (Judd et al., 2020; Verhoelst et al., 2021). In the New York metropolitan area, PGN sites
 142 include Manhattan, NY (PSI #135), Queens, NY (PSIs #55, #140), New Brunswick, NJ (PSIs #56, #69), and New
 143 Haven, CT (PSIs #20, #64) (Table 1, Fig. 1). PSI #135 in Upper West Manhattan, NY, has the longest data record
 144 (since Dec 2017) among these instruments and is located on the Advanced Science Research Center (ASRC) Rooftop
 145 Observatory at the City College of New York campus, an intensive urban air-quality monitoring site. The Pandora
 146 sensor in Queens, NY, is located at the CUNY Queens College, a New York Department of Environmental
 147

Pandora name, #, location (Principal Investigator)	Temporal range of data		TCNO ₂ (in DU)							
			Apr-May		June-Aug		Sept-Nov		Dec-Feb	
			Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-
Manhattan, NY PSI #135 40.8153°, -73.9505° (M. Tzortziou)	12/2017 - <u>5/2021</u>	mean	0.61	0.39	0.59	0.44	0.59	0.46	0.71	0.48
		stdev	0.34	0.25	0.35	0.24	0.38	0.27	0.45	0.30
		max	3.11	3.25	3.77	2.09	2.94	1.89	3.13	2.05
		change		-36%		-25%		-22%		-32%
Queens, NY PSI #140, #55 40.7361°, -73.8215° (J. Szykman)	5/2018 - <u>5/2021</u>	mean	0.61	0.48	0.54	0.51	0.57	0.51	0.73	0.70
		stdev	0.35	0.21	0.28	0.19	0.33	0.22	0.40	0.38
		max	3.42	3.60	2.74	1.54	3.36	2.34	3.04	2.81
		change		-21%		-6%		-11%		-4%
New Brunswick, NJ* PSI #56, #69 40.4622°, -74.4294° (J. Szykman)	5/2018 - 1/2021	mean	0.32	0.26	0.29	0.28	0.34	0.30	0.42	0.26
		stdev	0.15	0.18	0.15	0.20	0.24	0.21	0.31	0.10
		max	1.46	2.06	1.98	2.42	2.55	4.59	2.72	0.53
		change		-19%		-3%		-12%		-38%
New Haven, CT PSI #20, #64 41.3014°, -72.9029° (J. Szykman)	5/2018 - <u>5/2021</u>	mean	0.38	0.27	0.34	0.29	0.34	0.29	0.36	0.33
		stdev	0.11	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.15	0.13	0.17	0.18
		max	0.75	0.78	0.77	0.83	1.71	1.13	1.37	1.83
		change		-29%		-15%		-15%		-8%

* The Dec – Feb period for New Brunswick contains 16 days of data in December 2020, 1 day of data in January 2021, and no data in February 2021.

Table 1: Pandora sites (including names of Local Principal Investigator (PI)), and mean, standard deviation (stdev) and maximum (max) total column NO₂ (TCNO₂) amounts (based on half-hour averages) measured pre- and post- the COVID-19 lockdown in New York.

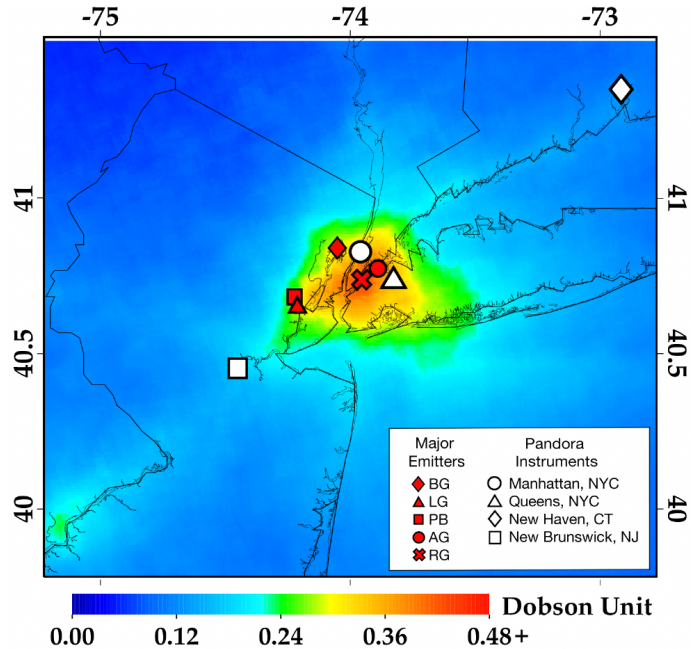


Figure 1: Map of study area, indicating location of Pandora sensors (white symbols) in Manhattan NY, Queens NY, New Brunswick NJ, and New Haven CT, overlaid with mean 2019 annual total column NO₂ from TROPOMI (in DU). Major pollutant emitters (red circles) in the area are included, specifically the PSEG Bergen Generating Station in Ridgfield (BG), and the Linden Generating Station (LG), the Linden Cogeneration Facility, and the Phillips 66 Bayway (PB) Refinery in Linden (major emission sources in NJ), and the Astoria (AG) and Ravenswood Generating (RG) Stations in Queens, NY (among the largest greenhouse gas polluters in the state of NY in 2018 and 2019).

154 Conservation (NYDEC) Air Toxics and NCore monitoring site within a dense residential neighborhood and near
 155 several major roadways. The Pandora in New Haven, CT, is located at the Connecticut Department of Energy and
 156 Environmental Protection (CTDEEP) Photochemical Assessment Monitoring Station (PAMS) in Criscuolo Park, at
 157 the confluence of the Mill and Quinnipiac Rivers surrounded by a residential neighborhood near the elevated
 158 intersection of three major highways and industrial activities across the rivers. The New Jersey Department of
 159 Environmental Protection (NJDEP) Photochemical Assessment Monitoring Station (PAMS) in New Brunswick, NJ,
 160 includes a Pandora sensor located on the roof of the Rutgers (NJDEP) research shelter dedicated to atmospheric
 161 research, on a university research farm in a suburban neighborhood and approximately 20 km from the coast.

162
 163 Pandora is a sun/sky/lunar passive UV/Visible spectrometer system, driven by a highly accurate sun tracker that points
 164 an optical head at the sun and transmits the received light to an Avantes low stray light CCD spectrometer (spectral
 165 range: 280-525 nm; spectral resolution: 0.6 nm with 4 times oversampling) through a fiber optic cable (Herman et al.,
 166 2019; Tzortziou et al., 2014). The spectrometer is temperature stabilized at 20°C inside a weather resistant container.
 167 Trace gas abundances along the light path are determined using differential optical absorption spectroscopy (DOAS).
 168 The system can operate in both direct-sun and sky-scan mode for retrievals of O₃, NO₂, SO₂ and CH₂O total columns;
 169 ~~tropospheric columns~~, and information on vertical profile (Tzortziou et al., 2018; Herman et al., 2018; Spinei et al.,
 170 2018), and is an enhanced monitoring instrument for characterizing upper air pollutants under the U.S. EPA PAMS
 171 program (Szykman et al., 2019). The estimated TCNO₂ error in Pandora retrievals is approximately 0.05 DU (1 DU

172 = 2.69×10^{16} molecules cm^{-2}) (Herman et al., 2019). Pandora data were filtered here for normalized root-mean square
173 of weighted spectral fitting residuals less than 0.05, uncertainty in NO_2 retrievals less than 0.05 DU, and $\text{TCNO}_2 > 0$.

174 2.2 TROPOMI satellite retrievals

175 Jointly developed by the Netherlands and ESA, TROPOMI is an air quality monitoring sensor onboard the sun-
176 synchronous Copernicus Sentinel-5 Precursor satellite, launched on 13 October 2017 (Veeffkind et al., 2012). On a
177 low-earth (825 km) orbit, Sentinel-5P has a daily equator overpass time of approximately 13:30 local time and global
178 daily coverage. TROPOMI has a spatial resolution of 7.2 km (5.6 km as of 6 August 2019) along-track by 3.6 km
179 across-track at nadir, a significant improvement compared to its predecessors OMI (Ozone Monitoring Instrument)
180 ([Levelt et al., 2006](#)) and SCIAMACHY (SCanning Imaging Absorption spectroMeter for Atmospheric Cartography)
181 ([Bovensmann et al., 1999](#)). [Here, we also used data from OMI due to its long-time record exceeding 17 years.](#)
182 [TROPOMI has several spectral bands in the ultraviolet to shortwave-infrared \(270-2385 nm\) and a spectral](#)
183 [resolution between 0.25 and 1 nm, allow observations of cloud, aerosol properties, and key atmospheric trace gases](#)
184 [including \$\text{O}_3\$, \$\text{NO}_2\$, CO, \$\text{SO}_2\$, \$\text{CH}_4\$ and \$\text{CH}_2\text{O}\$ \(Veeffkind et al., 2012\). \$\text{NO}_2\$ retrievals from TROPOMI are based on](#)
185 [measurements in the 405–465 nm spectral window. Using a DOAS technique, similar to the Pandora instrument, the](#)
186 [top-of-atmosphere spectral radiances are converted into slant column amounts of \$\text{NO}_2\$ between the sensor and the](#)
187 [Earth's surface \(Boersma et al., 2018\). In two additional steps, subtraction of the stratospheric component and](#)
188 [incorporation of an air mass factor, the slant column quantity is converted into a tropospheric vertical column content](#)
189 [\(Beirle et al., 2019; Dix et al., 2020; Goldberg et al., 2019b; Griffin et al., 2019; Ialongo et al., 2020; Reuter et al.,](#)
190 [2019; Zhao et al., 2020\). For this analysis, we used the operational “off-line” TROPOMI \$\text{NO}_2\$ data set, Version 1.02](#)
191 [between 30 April 2018 – 19 March 2019 and Version 1.03 20 March 2019 – 28 November 2020. We do not continue](#)
192 [the TROPOMI analysis beyond 28 November 2020 due to a significant change in the algorithm \(to version 1.04\) on](#)
193 [29 November 2020. TROPOMI data are filtered using a quality assurance flag \(QA\), in which pixels with QA values](#)
194 [greater than 0.75 are utilized; no other filter has been applied. Validation of TROPOMI \$\text{NO}_2\$ V1.02 tropospheric](#)
195 [columns over the New York City metropolitan area indicate columns are biased low, varying 19-33% \(Judd et al.,](#)
196 [2020\).](#)

197 2.3 Satellite-derived NO_x emissions

198 We used an inverse statistical modeling technique (Goldberg et al., 2019b; Laughner & Cohen 2019) to derive the
199 New York City NO_x emission rates from a combination of TROPOMI satellite data and re-analysis meteorology. This
200 method accounts for daily changes in temperature, sun angle, wind speed and wind direction by calculating a
201 spatiotemporally specific NO_2 lifetime. In brief, all NO_2 satellite data over New York City were compiled and rotated
202 based on the daily-observed wind direction, so that the oversampled plume is decaying in a single direction. We used
203 the closest gridded value without interpolation of the 100-m (above the surface) horizontal wind speed and direction
204 from the ERA5 re-analysis dataset (Hersbach et al., 2020) generated at $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$. Once all daily plumes were

205 rotated to be aligned as an effective horizontal plume and averaged together during a 5-month warm season period
206 (May-Sept; usually ~75 snapshots), we integrated $\pm 0.5^\circ$ along the y-axis about the x-axis to compute a one-
207 dimensional line density in units of mass per distance. The line densities, which are parallel to the wind direction,
208 peak near the primary NO_x emissions source and gradually decay downwind from a combination of atmospheric
209 dispersion, chemical transformation, and deposition. The line densities were fit to a statistical exponentially modified
210 Gaussian (EMG) model (Beirle et al., 2011; de Foy et al., 2014; Valin et al., 2013; Verstraeten et al., 2018). The five
211 fitted parameters of the statistical fit are the NO_2 background, NO_2 mass perturbed above the background threshold
212 (burden), decay distance, horizontal location of apparent source (ideally at the origin), and sigma of the Gaussian
213 plume. The NO_x emissions rate from the source can be calculated from the NO_2 burden, decay distance, and NO_x/NO_2
214 ratio, which previous work has shown to be 1.33 (Beirle et al., 2011). After accounting for a systematic low bias of
215 TROPOMI in polluted areas (Judd et al., 2020; Verhoelst et al., 2021), the NO_x emissions compare well with known
216 emissions from power plants (Goldberg et al., 2019b). For this project, we do not correct for TROPOMI low bias, but
217 instead assume the low bias is consistent between years and calculate changes between years. A full description of the
218 method can be found in Goldberg et al. (2019a; b).

219 **2.4 STILT model simulations**

220 We used STILT, the Stochastic Time-Inverted Lagrangian Transport model, to calculate the surface influence and
221 contributions from different sources of NO_2 pollution to the city. STILT is a Lagrangian particle dispersion model, in
222 this case driven by NOAA High-Resolution Rapid Refresh (HRRR) meteorology at 3 km horizontal resolution, that
223 follows the trajectory of 500 air parcels released from the receptor (measurement site) position backward in time over
224 the previous 24 hours. The motion of each parcel is determined by both advection by the large-scale wind fields and
225 random turbulent motion, independent of the other parcels. The proportion of parcels residing in the lower half of the
226 planetary boundary layer determines the influence of surface fluxes on the measured mole fractions. This surface
227 influence is tracked in time and space, which allows for the calculation of a two-dimensional footprint at hourly
228 intervals over the travel period and spatial domain of the particles. The unit of surface influence is defined as the
229 response of each receptor concentration measurement to a unit emission of a trace gas at each grid square (e.g., ppb
230 $(\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1})^{-1}$). In this study, we ran hourly STILT simulations for the 10 hours surrounding daily peak NO_2 , for cases
231 of particularly high total column NO_2 amounts (> 1.8 DU, more than three times the average of pre-pandemic levels)
232 measured at the Manhattan and Queens Pandora sites during the COVID-19 lockdown in April 2020 and after the
233 shutdown in October 2020. Simulated particles originated at the elevation of the Pandora instruments. We also
234 performed simulations for one low TC NO_2 case in April 2020 for comparison. The STILT footprints were multiplied
235 by 2015 annual gridded maps of NO_x emissions ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$) at 0.1° horizontal resolution from the Emissions Database
236 for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR) v5.0, which combine atmospheric pollutant data categorized by
237 anthropogenic emissions sector (e.g., power, manufacturing, transportation), to predict the NO_2 concentration
238 enhancement (ppb) that would be expected for each observed hour.

239 2.5 Meteorological Data

240 Wind speed and direction data from the ERA5 Model (Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S), 2017) were used
241 to examine the impact of meteorology on TROPOMI retrieved NO₂ column amounts. To downscale the 0.25° × 0.25°
242 grid ERA5 reanalysis, we spatially interpolate daily averaged winds to 0.01° × 0.01° using bilinear interpolation
243 (Goldberg et al., 2020). The average 100-m winds during 16–21 UTC (i.e., approximately the TROPOMI overpass
244 time over North America) were used in our analysis. To assess impacts of meteorology on ground-based measurements
245 of TCNO₂ from the Manhattan Pandora PSI#135, we used in situ measurements of wind speed and wind direction
246 (measured at a resolution of 0.01 m/s and 1°, respectively) collected by a collocated ATMOS 41 All-In-One weather
247 station on a 15-minute timescale.

248 2.6 Calculation of change in NO₂ column amounts

249 Change in NO₂ column amounts was estimated by comparing post-lockdown TROPOMI and Pandora measurements
250 to the same timeframe in 2018-2019, to account for seasonality and interannual variability (Goldberg et al., 2020;
251 Bauwens et al., 2020). The impact of meteorology on these estimates was explicitly quantified using ERA5 and in situ
252 meteorological data. We estimated changes in NO₂ over the different phases of the pandemic in New York City (i)
253 immediately following the initial lockdown in April-May 2020, (ii) as restrictions gradually eased in June-August
254 2020, (iii) during the re-opening phase in September-November 2020, (iv) as restriction became strict again in
255 December 2020-February 2021 due to the second wave of the pandemic, and (v) in March-~~April-May~~ 2021, one year
256 after the initial lockdown. Pandora data were first averaged in half-hour bins to eliminate bias towards times of day
257 with more data, then averaged on weekly, monthly, and seasonal time scales. To examine weekly cycles from satellite
258 observations, TROPOMI data were averaged over longer timescales (April-November), due to the lower temporal
259 resolution and impacts of clouds on satellite retrievals. All computed means for seasonal and weekly cycles were
260 calculated with 95% confidence intervals using a two-tailed single sample t-test. While NO₂ data is non-normally
261 distributed, all sample sizes are large (n > 100), and statistics (e.g., p-values) were also calculated using the
262 nonparametric Mann-Whitney and Kruskal Wallis tests which confirmed the validity of t-test results.

263 2.7 Changes in mobility patterns

264 To examine changes in mobility patterns, we looked at sector-specific mobility indices provided by Apple (Forster et
265 al., 2020) and traffic counts from the Metropolitan Transport Authority (MTA) day-by-day transit data, focusing on
266 bridge and tunnel ridership to represent passenger vehicles (buses, motorcycles, cars, trucks) (NY MTA). Apple
267 mobility data (accessed on 4 June 2021) tracked mobile phone movements and compared post-COVID-19 data with
268 the average on February 13, 2020 (Forster et al., 2020). For MTA data (<https://new.mta.info/coronavirus/ridership>,
269 [accessed on 4 June 2021](#)), bridge and tunnel traffic was quantified from E-ZPass and cash toll collection, and percent
270 (%) changes in ridership were calculated through comparison to traffic on the pre-COVID equivalent day in the
271 previous year.

272 **3. Results and Discussion**

273 **3.1. Changes in NO₂ column amounts and spatiotemporal dynamics**

274 Satellite imagery from TROPOMI captured significant post-shutdown NO₂ reductions in the New York metropolitan
 275 area, particularly during the first three months after the initial lockdowns (Fig. 2). As MTA bridge and tunnel traffic
 276 plummeted by up to 80% in April 2020 (Fig. S2), TCNO₂ over a 50 x 50 km area around Manhattan dropped by 32%
 277 in March-May 2020 compared to the same period in 2018-2019 (Fig. 2, left panel). Smaller declines (< 30%) were
 278 found in the surrounding areas of NJ, upstate NY, and CT. These results are consistent with Bauwens et al., (2020)
 279 reporting a decline in TROPOMI tropospheric NO₂ column by 28(±11)% within a 100-km radius around New York
 280 City during the three weeks following the onset of the pandemic compared to the same period in 2019. By June-
 281 August 2020, total NO₂ columns—lower during summer due to increased photochemical loss—rose closer to pre-
 282 pandemic levels, with approx. 15% decline over New York City and even smaller changes (<10%) in western NJ, CT,
 283 and eastern Long Island (Fig. 2, mid panel). This recovery in NO₂ coincided with the city of New York commencing
 284 the first phase of its reopening plan in June 2020 and gradually relaxing lockdown measures, including the opening
 285 of restaurants (outdoor dining) and some workplaces. Daily traffic on New York City bridges and tunnels increased
 286 to 22% lower than baseline in summer 2020 (Fig. S2). This trend continued in fall 2020, with TCNO₂ showing 13%
 287 drop over New York City and smaller declines over more rural areas in northern NJ and eastern Long Island (Fig. 2,
 288 right panel).

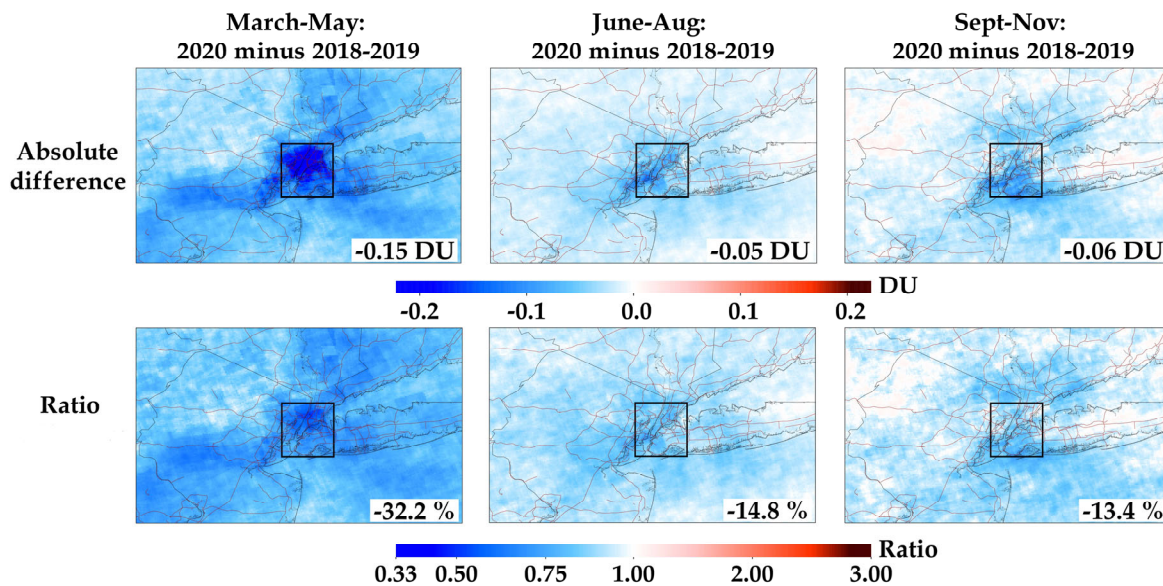


Figure 2: TROPOMI total vertical column NO₂ differences between 2018-2019 and 2020, over the New York metropolitan area. Results are shown for 13 March through May (left panels), June through August (middle panels) and September through November (right panel). Upper panels show the absolute difference between the 3-month period in 2018-2019 and 2020 in Dobson units. Bottom panels show the ratio between the 3-month period in 2018-2019 and 2020. Values denoted in bottom right of each panel are area-averaged difference within a 50 x 50km area around Manhattan (black box). 13 March – 29 April 2019 data are double counted in the March through May 2018 – 2019 period due to unavailable data in the 13 March – 29 April 2018 timeframe.

289 These values can be compared to long-term NO₂ trends from OMI (Fig. S3), which shows a ~3.8% yr⁻¹ drop between
290 2005 and 2019. The abrupt TCNO₂ changes during the initial phase of the COVID lockdowns, occurring within a
291 matter of days, were approximately equivalent to the drop seen over the prior 10-year period between 2009 and 2019.
292

293 These abrupt spatiotemporal changes in TCNO₂ detected by TROPOMI were remarkably consistent with the higher
294 resolution TCNO₂ measurements from the ground-based Pandora network. Prior to lockdown, TCNO₂ in Manhattan
295 and Queens, NY, was characterized by high variability, often surpassing 2 DU (Fig. 3). NO₂ total columns in New
296 Brunswick, NJ, and New Haven, CT, were overall considerably lower than measurements in New York City, in

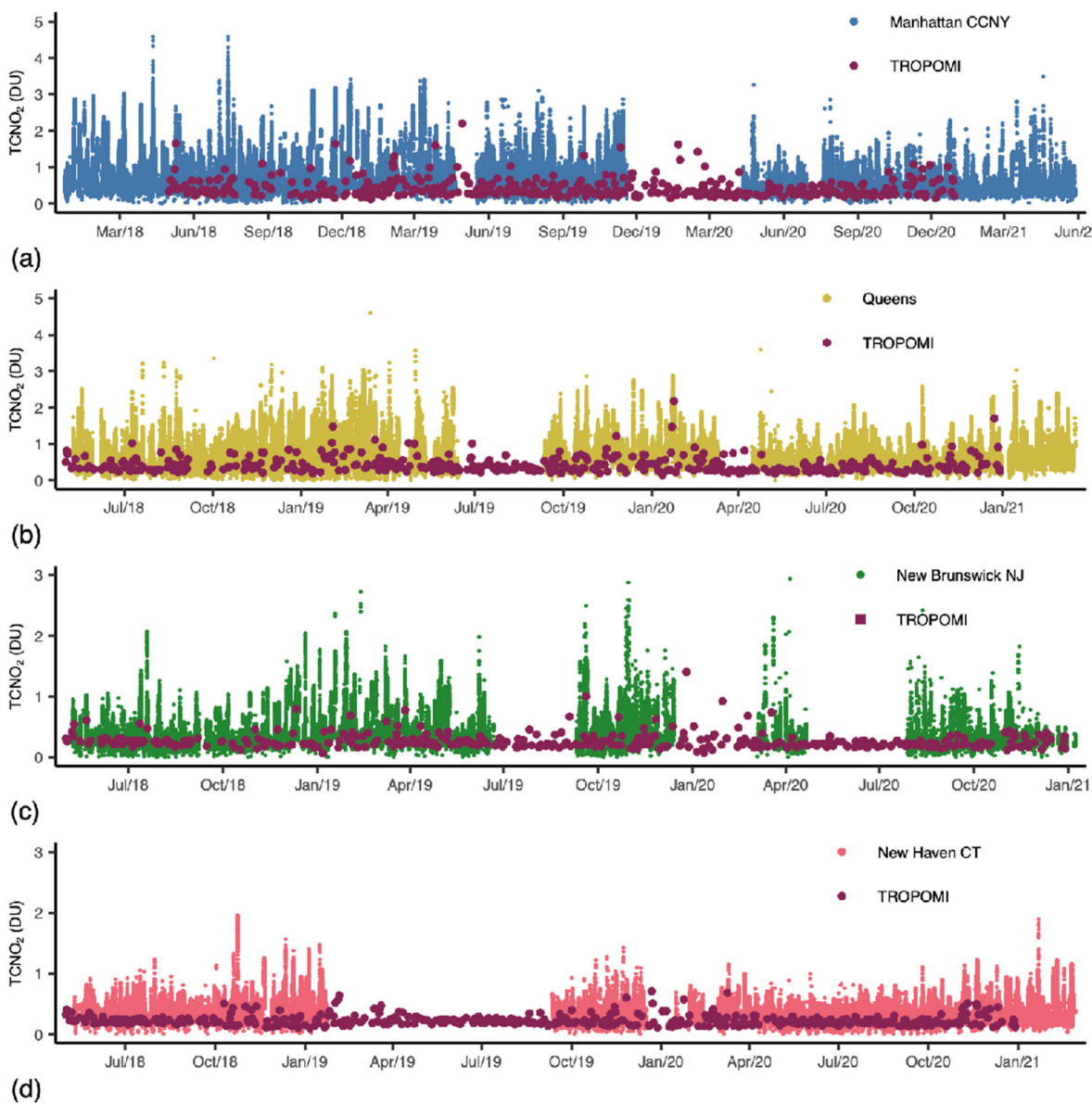


Figure 3: Long term (December 2017- February 2021, May 2021 in Manhattan only) data record of TCNO₂ (in DU) measured by Pandoras in (a) Upper West Side Manhattan (blue circles), (b) Queens (yellow circles), (c) New Brunswick NJ (green circles) and (d) New Haven CT (pink circles). Total column TROPOMI overpass data at locations of the Pandora instruments is also shown (red squares). No data averaging was performed on Pandora or TROPOMI values.

297 agreement with pre-pandemic TROPOMI retrievals (Table 1, Figs. 1, 3). Across all sites, pre-pandemic TCNO₂
 298 showed a clear seasonal cycle typical of Northern Hemisphere mid-latitude locations, with maxima occurring during
 299 the winter (Figs. 3, 4) due largely to increased fossil fuels for domestic heating, the longer tropospheric NO₂ lifetime
 300 at colder temperatures, less light availability, and a shallower and more stable planetary boundary layer (A et al., 2008;
 301 Semple et al., 2012). Post-shutdown, all Pandora sensors measured a significant drop in TCNO₂. In the two months
 302 following the initial lockdown, TCNO₂ in Manhattan decreased by 36% compared to pre-pandemic levels, with
 303 smaller declines, 21%, 19% and 29% respectively, in Queens, New Brunswick, and New Haven (Table 1). Variability
 304 in TCNO₂ (Table 1) also decreased at most locations, indicating a reduction in the magnitude of high NO₂ pollution
 305 episodes. As social distancing restrictions gradually started to ease in June, TCNO₂ in Manhattan started to slowly
 306 recover, reaching 25% lower than the pre-pandemic seasonal mean in summer and 22% lower in fall 2020. NO₂ rose
 307 even closer to pre-pandemic levels in Queens, New Brunswick, and New Haven, showing less than 15% decline in
 308 summer and fall 2020 (Table 1), consistent with TROPOMI (Fig. 2). TCNO₂ in Manhattan, however, dropped again
 309 significantly below pre-pandemic levels during the second wave of the pandemic in late 2020 (Table 1, Fig. 4). The
 310 decline in TCNO₂ reached 39% in January 2021, consistent with both a decline in mobility (i.e., re-closing of
 311 businesses and transition from in-person to online learning in many schools in the area; Fig. S1) as well as favorable
 312 meteorological conditions for low NO₂ (discussed in section 3.4). As restrictions eased again, NO₂ levels rebounded
 313 to 11% and 21% below pre-pandemic levels in April and May 2021, respectively, more than a year after the COVID-
 314 19 outbreak in the U.S. (Table 1, Fig. 4).

315
 316 These changes resulted in a departure from typical seasonal NO₂ behavior, maximum in winter and minimum in
 317 summer, with instead a maximum in monthly mean TCNO₂ in July 2020 and two minima tightly linked to the two
 318 pandemic waves in May 2020 and January 2021 (Fig. 4). In agreement with Gkatzelis et al. (2021), the NO₂ decrease
 319 closely followed changes in the stringency of lockdown measures and particularly decreases in traffic, further

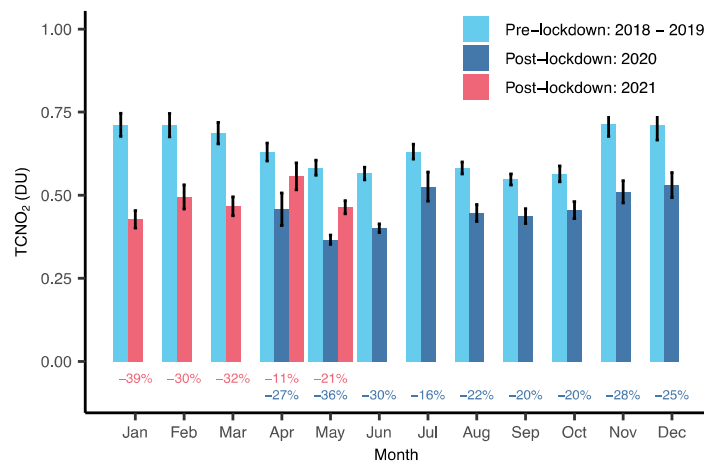


Figure 4: Monthly mean seasonal cycle of TCNO₂ in Upper West Manhattan pre-lockdown (Dec 2017-Dec 2019, cyan) and post-lockdown (Apr 2020-Dec 2020, blue and January-May 2021, red), as measured by PSI #135 (30 min averaged data; 95% confidence intervals indicated by error bars; data not available during Jan-Mar 2020). The percent (%) change is also shown below each bar.

320 confirming the importance of the transportation sector as a source of NO_x pollution in Manhattan. Still, as discussed
 321 in the next section, other emission sectors also contributed significantly to the observed spatiotemporal changes in
 322 NO₂ pollution over the New York metropolitan area during the multiple waves of the pandemic.

323 3.2. Impacts of COVID-19 measures on NO_x emissions

324 While meteorology plays a significant role in air pollution levels, our estimates of top-down NO_x emissions from
 325 TROPOMI indicate that sudden reductions in NO_x emissions due to COVID-19 measures were the dominant factor
 326 driving the observed NO₂ decline in New York City during the first wave of the pandemic (Fig. 5). Five-month (May
 327 to September) averaged top-down NO_x emissions suggest a 34.5% drop between 2019 and 2020 (Fig. 5, right panel).
 328 This reduction in NO_x emissions is significantly larger than the long-term decline of approx. 4% yr⁻¹ captured by OMI
 329 (Fig. S3) and reported in previous studies for the eastern U.S. and New York City (Krotkov et al., 2016; Goldberg et
 330 al., 2019a), and suggests that COVID-19 measures during the first pandemic wave led to ~30% reduction in NO_x
 331 emissions in New York City, on top of the long-term trend resulting from air-quality regulations and technological
 332 improvements. The reason TROPOMI TCNO₂ changes (Fig. 2) are smaller than NO_x changes during the coincident
 333 timeframe (Δ TCNO₂: ~24% vs. Δ NO_x: ~35%) is because there is a background component to NO₂.

334
 335 The EPA National Emissions Inventory (NEI) provides context for expected changes in NO_x emissions due to the
 336 COVID-19 pandemic. According to 2017 NEI data, mobile sources account for about 59% of annual NO_x emissions
 337 in New York City (25% on-road, and 34% non-road transportation including non-road equipment (15%) and
 338 locomotives/aircrafts/marine vessels (19%)). The next largest contributing sector is energy (41%), which includes
 339 electric generation, and residential, commercial, and industrial fuel combustion. Wildfires, biogenic sources, and
 340 waste disposal contribute a negligible amount (<1%; NEI 2017). New York City NO_x emissions are more heavily

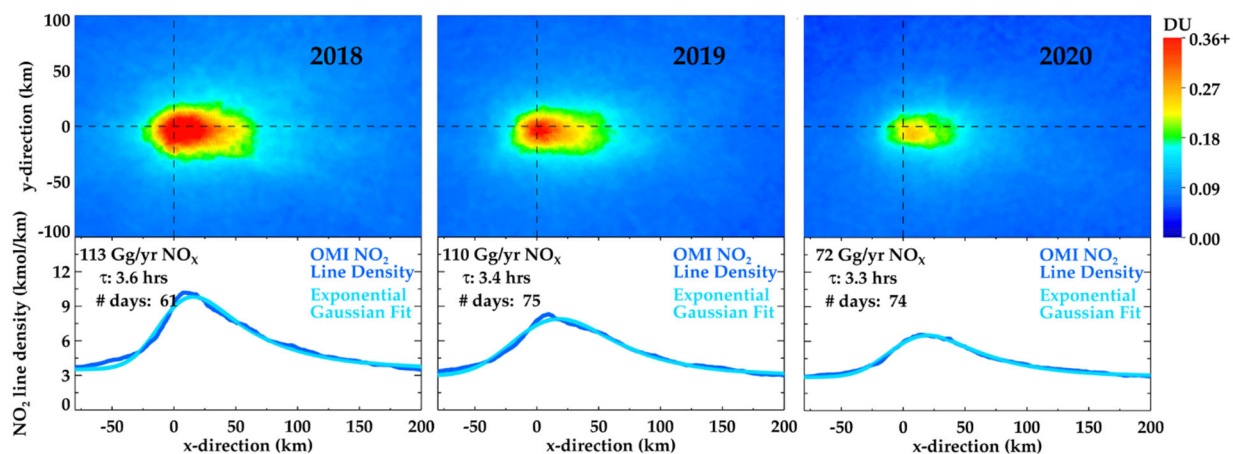


Figure 5: Five-month averaged (May-September) top-down NO_x emission estimates for the New York metropolitan area, for 2018 (left panel), 2019 (middle panel) and 2020 (right panel). TROPOMI NO₂ data is rotated based on daily wind direction. Bottom panels show the TROPOMI NO₂ line densities, which are integrals along the y-axis ± 50 km about the x-axis. The statistical EMG fit to the top-down line densities is shown in light blue.

341 weighted in the energy sector than other major U.S cities such as Los Angeles (13%) and Chicago (26%) (NEI, 2017).
342 During spring 2020, MTA bridge and tunnel traffic decreased on average by 55%, nation-wide commercial passenger
343 airline and business aviation travel decreased by approx. 75% and 70% (Transportation Research Board 2020;
344 FlightAware 2020; Bureau of Transportation Statistics (BTS) 2020), while operation of commercial marine vessels,
345 non-road equipment, and locomotives dropped by an estimated ~6%, ~45%, and ~15-20%, respectively (United
346 Nations Conference on Trade and Development 2020; Procure, 2020; BTS 2020). Applying these reported changes in
347 activity to corresponding estimated NO_x contributions from different components of the mobility sector in New York
348 City (EPA) results in an approx. 26% decrease~~These changes in mobility correspond approx. to 26% change~~ in NO_x
349 emissions. Declines in power generation demand/usage in New York City, however, were considerably smaller, on
350 average 15% in spring 2020 (New York Independent Systems Operator, 2020). These changes in emissions from the
351 transportation and power generation sector suggest approximately 32% decrease in NO_x emissions in New York City
352 during the first wave of the pandemic, which is consistent with our estimated reduction in top-down NO_x emissions
353 from TROPOMI.

354
355 The overall less dramatic declines in TCNO₂ observed at locations outside Manhattan (e.g., CT and NJ) during the
356 first two months following the initial lockdowns agree with reported changes in population, with many city residents
357 across the US relocating (temporally and long term) to their suburban areas, more so from wealthier than lower-income
358 neighborhoods (Quealy et al., 2020). They are also consistent with mobility trends across our study region, with the
359 strongest mobility declines occurring in New York City. According to Apple mobility data, transportation associated
360 with driving and transit during March-May 2020 were 36% and 72% lower than baseline, respectively, in New York
361 City, compared to 32% and 54% in Middlesex County NJ and 19% and 49% in New Haven, CT (Fig. S3S4). Moreover,
362 the mobile sector constitutes a larger portion of total NO_x emissions in Middlesex County NJ (72%) and New Haven
363 CT (71%) than in New York City, with significantly larger contributions from diesel at 36% of Middlesex total
364 emissions (22% in CT, 25% in NYC). National U.S diesel sales experienced a relatively smaller decrease from 2019
365 – 2020 than gasoline sales did, with a maximum decrease of ~10% in spring (vs. a mean -40% for gas) (U.S. Energy
366 Information Administration, 2021), so the relatively larger contribution from diesel in NJ could also partially explain
367 the smaller decreases in NO₂ at these locations compared to those observed in NY.

368 3.3 Changes in NO₂ weekly cycles during the pandemic

369 Anthropogenic NO_x emissions often display a clear weekly cycle in major cities around the world, with minima on
370 rest days (e.g., Beirle et al., 2003; Kaynak et al., 2009; Tzortziou et al., 2013). The amplitude of this weekly cycle has
371 been shown in OMI data (2015-2017) to be strengthening in regions undergoing rapid emission growth, while it has
372 been weakening over European and U.S. cities due to the long-term decline in anthropogenic emissions (Stavrakou et
373 al., 2020). Yet, recent data from TROPOMI (2018-2019) show that significant NO₂ decreases on Sunday are still
374 prevalent in cities of North America, Europe, Australia, Korea and Japan (Stavrakou et al., 2020). In New York City,
375 TROPOMI captured 30% lower tropospheric column NO₂ on Sundays compared to a typical weekday in 2018-2019

376 (Goldberg et al., 2021), in agreement with pre-pandemic MTA and Apple data showing lower traffic into and around
 377 the city on Sundays. Similarly, Pandora measurements in Manhattan showed a clear weekly NO₂ dependence before
 378 the pandemic, with minima consistently observed on Sunday on average 33% lower than weekday values (Figs. 6, 7).
 379 A strong diurnal variability in NO₂ was also found (e.g., Fig 8), although diurnal patterns were highly variable spatially
 380 and temporally, consistent with previous studies (Tzortziou et al., 2013). The Sunday-to-weekday ~~column-TCNO₂~~
 381 ratio varied seasonally from 0.64 and 0.63 in spring and summer, to 0.75 and 0.88, respectively, in fall and winter
 382 (Figs. 6, 7b), most likely due to the longer tropospheric NO₂ lifetime and an increase in relative contribution of NO_x
 383 sources that have no weekly cycle (e.g., heating) in winter (Beirle et al., 2003).

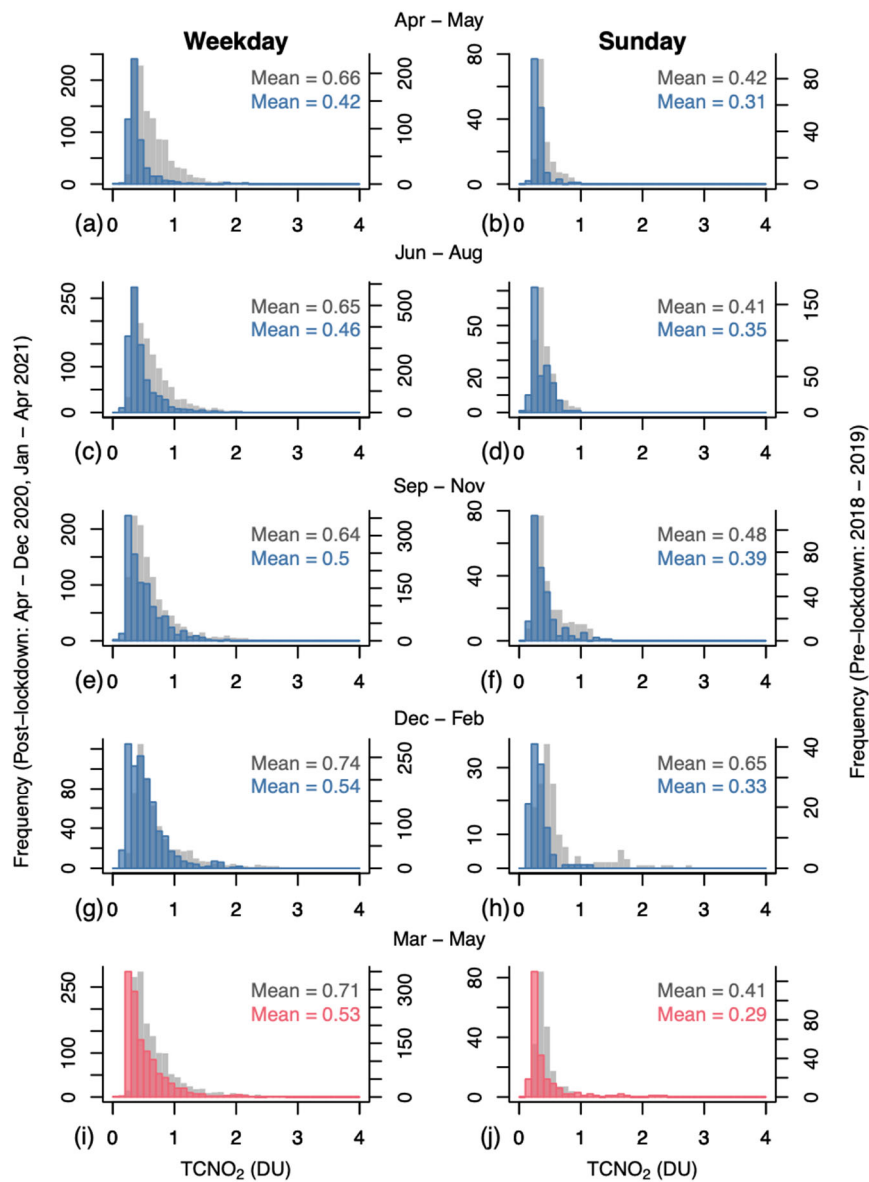


Figure 6: Histogram of TCNO₂ measured in Upper West Manhattan by PSI#135 for pre-lockdown (grey, 2018-2019) and post-lockdown winter (blue) and post-lockdown spring (pink) conditions. Results are shown for weekdays (left column) and Sunday (right column) across seasons from April 2020 to May 2021. The mean NO₂ pre- and post-lockdown is also shown.

384 The COVID-19 measures significantly impacted this weekly NO₂ behavior. Over the nine months following the
 385 lockdown in New York (Apr–Nov 2020), TROPOMI captured a clear increase in the Sunday-to-weekday ~~column~~
 386 TCNO₂ ratio from 0.76 to 0.92 (Fig. 7a). Higher frequency Pandora measurements enabled comparison on seasonal
 387 timescales, revealing a disproportionate drop in weekday TCNO₂ immediately after the initial lockdown (Figs. 6, 7).
 388 Weekday NO₂ decreased by as much as 36% and 29% in spring and summer 2020, respectively, while Sunday NO₂,
 389 decreased only by 26% and 15% (Fig. 6). The Sunday-to-weekday ~~column~~-TCNO₂ ratio, thus, increased by 16% in
 390 the post-pandemic spring months with a similar trend into the summer (Fig. 7b). By fall, although TCNO₂ was still
 391 significantly lower than pre-pandemic levels (-22% on weekdays and -19% on Sundays, Fig. 6), the typical weekly
 392 cycle re-emerged with a post-pandemic ratio of 0.78. Surprisingly, the weekly cycle in TCNO₂ increased during the
 393 winter (Fig. 7b), as a result of a larger decrease in Sunday NO₂ (49%) compared to weekday NO₂ (27%, Fig. 6). A
 394 large departure from typical weekend travel patterns during the second wave of the pandemic, with MTA bridge and
 395 tunnel traffic data showing a relatively larger decrease in traffic on Sundays during winter 2021 (Fig. S43), could
 396 partly explain these results while the adoption of socially distanced protocols by 2021 may have resulted in relatively
 397 fewer reductions of weekday activities such as construction or shipping. By the reopening phase in March–May 2021,
 398 the weekly NO₂ cycle strengthened significantly (Fig. 7b). With the exception of two Sundays in March and April that
 399 showed high peaks in TCNO₂ due to strong influence of low-speed (<5 ms⁻¹) south and westerly winds, the Sunday-
 400 to-weekday ratio approached pre-pandemic levels in spring 2021, likely reflecting a gradual return to “normal” as the
 401 city-wide COVID infection rate dropped (Fig. SI).

402
 403 Long-term declines in anthropogenic NO_x emissions and the resulting growing importance of background NO₂ had
 404 already led to a significant dampening of the weekly NO₂ cycle in pre-pandemic New York City over the past 15
 405 years, as shown by an increase in the OMI retrieved Sunday-to-week column ratio by 17% from 2005 to 2017 (Qu et
 406 al., 2021; Stavrakou et al., 2020). Interestingly, the early stringent COVID-19 lockdown measures and related abrupt

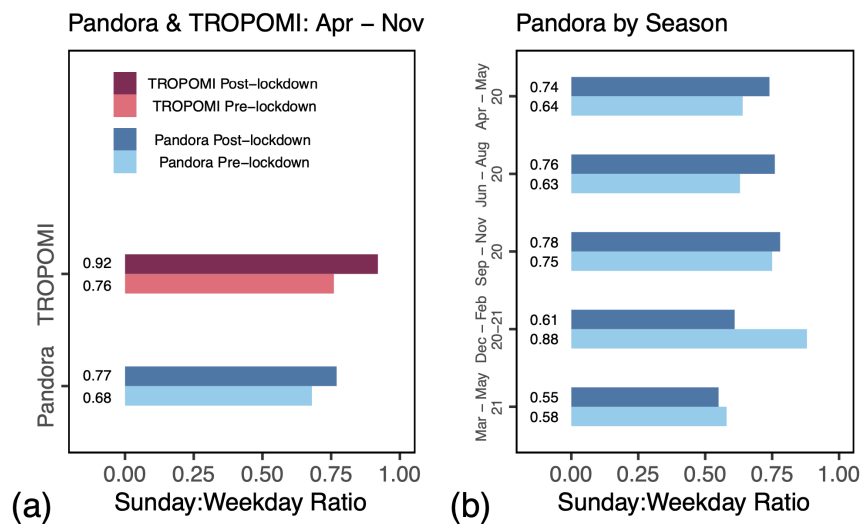


Figure 7: (a) Sunday-to-weekday TCNO₂ ratios averaged over Apr–Nov 2018–2019 (pre-lockdown) and 2020 (post-lockdown) from TROPOMI and Pandora (PSI#135); (b) Seasonal change in Sunday-to-weekday column ratios pre- and post-lockdown from Pandora (PSI#135).

407 changes in human behavior resulted in an additional 16% weakening of the TCNO_2 weekly cycle, in just three months.
 408 Including these changes (both weakening and recovery) in weekly cycles of emissions and pollutant concentrations in
 409 chemistry-transport models is important in efforts to quantify and simulate the impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic
 410 on regional air quality, human health, and ecosystems.

411 3.4. Meteorology as a driver of NO_2 decline and high pollution episodes during the pandemic

412 Despite the significant reduction in NO_2 emissions during and following the COVID-19 lockdown, both ground-based
 413 and satellite sensors captured cases of high pollution in the New York metropolitan region with ~~column~~ TCNO_2 often
 414 exceeding three times the pre-pandemic levels (Table 1, Figs. 4, 8). April 23 and 25, 2020, during the initial lockdown,
 415 are such instances of TCNO_2 exceeding 1.8 DU (three times the pre-pandemic seasonal TCNO_2 mean) and showing
 416 remarkably similar diurnal behavior at the Manhattan and Queens locations (Figs. 8c, d). TROPOMI data was not
 417 available, but OMI captured TCNO_2 of 1.12 DU over New York city on April 25 (Fig. 8d). At the early stage of the
 418 second wave of the pandemic, TCNO_2 also exceeded 1.8 DU on October 9 in both Manhattan and Queens with a time-
 419 lag of approximately 2 hours between the maximum observed by the two instruments (Fig. 8e). On the same day,
 420 TROPOMI TCNO_2 reached 0.9 DU, more than two times higher than the pre-pandemic satellite monthly NO_2 mean

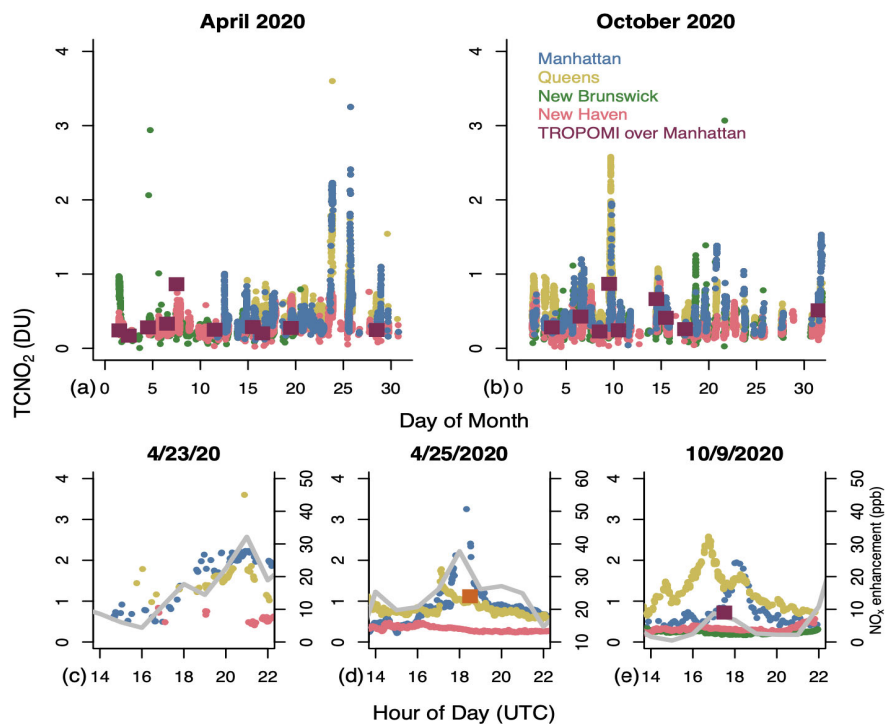


Figure 8: Despite the decline in traffic and physical distancing restrictions, cases of exceedances-high NO_2 pollution ($\text{TCNO}_2 > 1.8$ DU) were observed in the New York metropolitan area during and post the COVID-19 lockdown. TCNO_2 measurements are shown here for (a) April 2020 and (b) October 2020, from TROPOMI and Pandora systems in Manhattan, Queens, New Brunswick, and New Haven, and TROPOMI over Manhattan. Diurnal dynamics in TCNO_2 during specific days of exceedances are shown for (c) April 23, (d) April 25 (square indicates no TROPOMI data available), and (e) October 9, 2020. The EDGAR power-sector near-surface NO_x concentration enhancements in Manhattan are shown by the grey line in (c)-(e).

421 (Fig. 8e). Overall, there were 12 days when ground-based measured TCNO₂ exceeded 1.8 DU in post COVID-19
 422 New York City, despite a 34.5% drop in top-down NO_x emissions (Fig. 5). Considering the significant decline in
 423 transportation emissions, the post-lockdown high NO₂ pollution episodes are most likely associated with power plant
 424 emissions and specific meteorological conditions. Indeed, the EDGAR v5.0 inventory shows that spatial patterns in
 425 NO_x emissions over the New York metropolitan area are primarily driven by the power generation sector, while
 426 contributions from road traffic, buildings, and manufacturing show more even distribution with slight peaks of

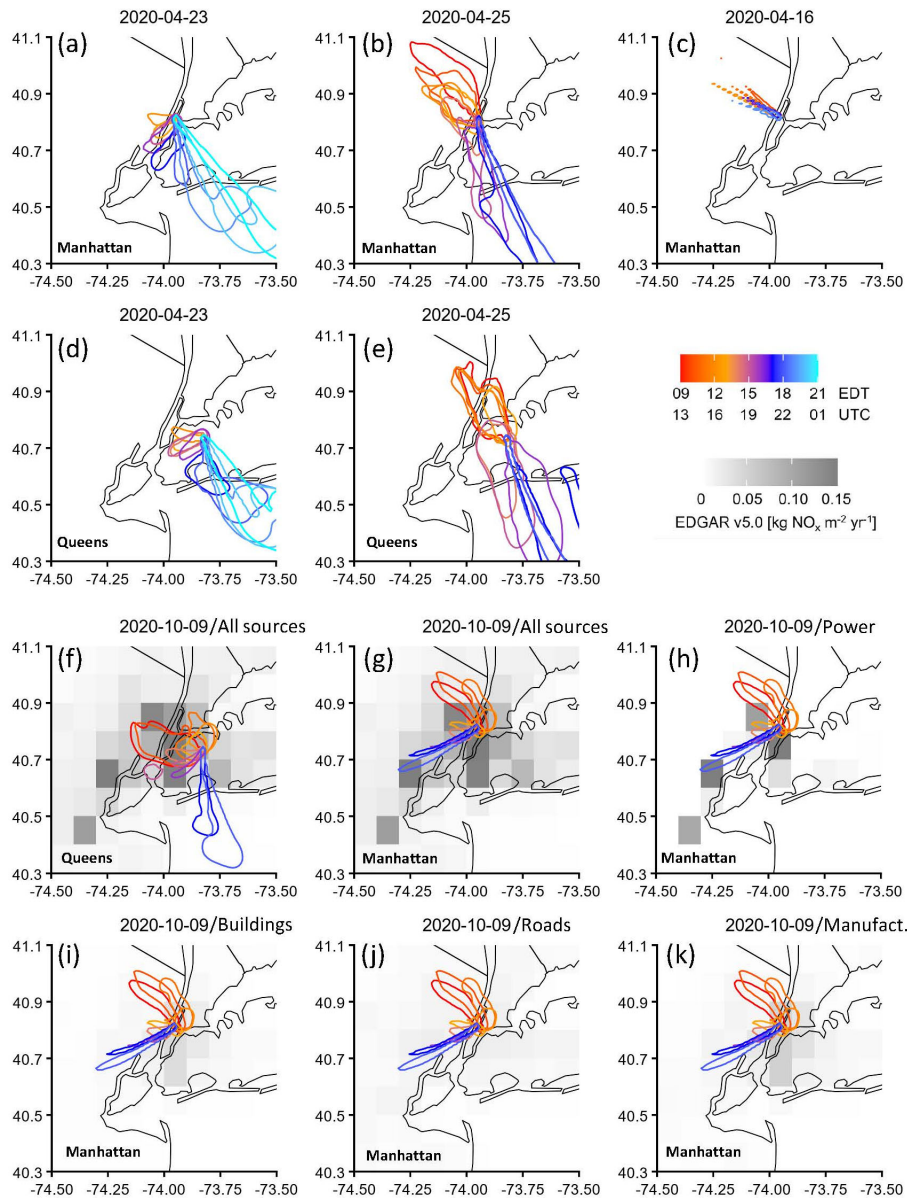


Figure 9: Twenty-four hour total STILT surface influence contours for total column NO₂ exceedances on **(a)** April 23 **(a, d)**, **(b)** April 25 **(b, e)**, and **(c)** April 16 **(c)**, 2020 for comparison. Contour lines represent surface influence of 1 ppb ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) and are colored by hour-of-day of the receptor. October 9 is overlaid with EDGAR inventories of NO_x for 2015 ($\text{kg NO}_x \text{m}^{-2}\text{yr}^{-1}$). The area encircled by each contour indicates the region of emissions that reaches the Manhattan and Queens observation sites for a given time and day.

427 approximately $0.05 \text{ kg NO}_x \text{ m}^{-2}\text{yr}^{-1}$ in Brooklyn, Queens, and Manhattan (Fig. 9). Among the many power plants in
 428 the area, the Astoria Energy LLC and Astoria and Ravenswood Generating Stations in Queens were among the largest
 429 greenhouse gas polluters in the state of NY in 2018 and 2019, with total reported greenhouse emissions $>3,500,000$
 430 metric tons CO_2e (EPA FLIGHT GHG Inventories) (Fig. 1). In NJ, the PSEG Bergen Generating Station in Ridgefield
 431 (NW of Manhattan/NW of Harlem) and the Linden Cogeneration Facility (SW of Manhattan) are major power plants
 432 located West of Manhattan with total reported emissions $>7,000,000$ metric tons CO_2e both in 2018 and 2019.

433
 434 Consistent with the location of these power plants, we found that meteorological conditions on days when high TCNO_2
 435 was measured in Manhattan were characterized by low-speed southerly and westerly winds. STILT footprints showed
 436 that on April 23 air masses from the high-emitting power sector in NJ and along the East River persisted over Upper
 437 West Manhattan from 1600 to 2100 UTC (Fig. 9a) when TCNO_2 peaked in PSI #135 observations (Fig. 8c). A strong
 438 increase in wind speed and change in direction, effectively mixing in clean ocean air, after 2100 UTC coincided with
 439 a rapid decline in measured TCNO_2 . A similar pattern was observed on April 25 (Figs. 8d, 9b,c), when air intercepted
 440 by the Manhattan and Queens Pandoras shifts from the NW to SE, slowing while passing over NJ and the East River
 441 power plants around 1800 UTC to produce the observed TCNO_2 peak at these sites. On October 9, westerly airflow
 442 from NJ shifted to accumulate NO_x emissions over the Manhattan Pandora location from 1700 to 1900 UTC when
 443 observed TCNO_2 peaked at 1.95 DU. Wind accelerated and shifted SW in the evening, coinciding with a TCNO_2
 444 decrease to <0.5 DU (Figs. 8e, 9f,g). Low-speed westerly winds brought Manhattan and East River power plant
 445 emissions to the Queens location approximately 2 hours earlier that day, in agreement with the earlier peak in TCNO_2
 446 measured by the Pandora (Fig. 8e). Strong winds, persisting in a single direction for several hours, consistently
 447 dispersed pollution resulting in low NO_2 column amounts over Manhattan and Queens. An example is April 16 (Fig.
 448 9c), when high-speed NW winds persisted throughout the day dispersing local and regional pollution and transporting
 449 NO_2 out to the ocean.

450

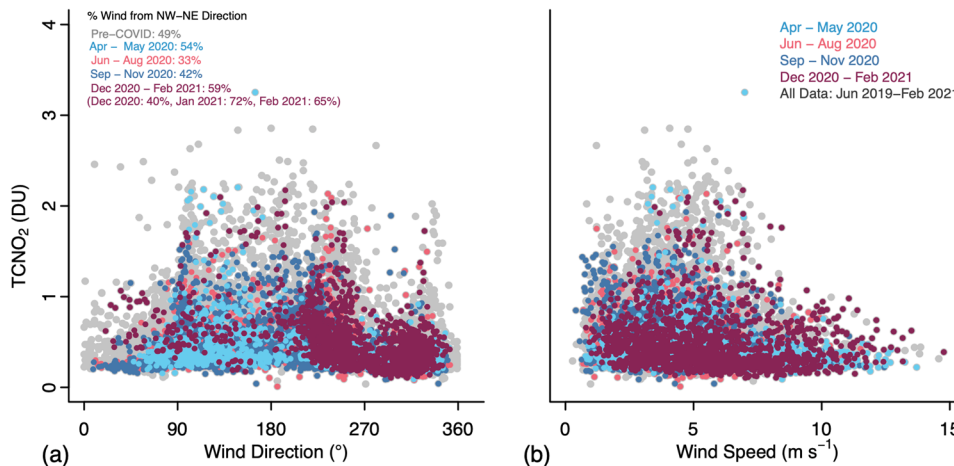


Figure 10: Relationship between column NO_2 amounts (DU, PSI #135 data, 15-min averaged) and (a) wind direction (in degrees from north) and (b) wind speed (in m s^{-1} ; ATMOS 41 data) organized by post-lockdown season, measured from June 2019 to February 2021 in Upper West Manhattan.

451 Combining the STILT footprints, which account for the meteorology described above, with the sector-specific
452 EDGAR NO_x emission maps allows us to approximate the fraction of expected NO_x concentration enhancements
453 from each emission sector observed at each Pandora station. For 25 April, we find that the largest contribution of NO_x
454 at the Manhattan site is from power generation (42%), with manufacturing dominating at the Queens site (30%). Road
455 transportation (using pre-pandemic estimates) contributes only 13% and 18% at the Manhattan and Queens sites,
456 respectively. ~~Notably, despite the constant emissions rate in EDGAR, the diurnal pattern in near surface total NO_x~~
457 ~~concentration enhancement matched well with the observed TCNO₂ observed by the Pandoras on both 23 and 25 April~~
458 ~~(not shown here). Despite the constant NO_x emissions rate for each month in EDGAR (i.e., no diurnal cycle), the~~
459 ~~diurnal pattern of the meteorology-driven simulated power-sector near-surface NO_x concentration enhancement was~~
460 ~~consistent with the TCNO₂ observed by the Pandoras on both April 23 and 25, 2020 (Fig. 8(c)-(e)).~~ This result supports
461 the large role played by meteorology in causing NO₂ accumulation and demonstrates a clear connection between the
462 near-surface and total column NO_x concentrations on these days.

463
464 Our measurements showed that the observed correlation between particularly high post-pandemic NO₂ pollution
465 episodes and low-speed winds is typical of NO₂ dynamics in Manhattan. In large cities with relatively flat topography,
466 including New York City, increasing wind speeds from nearly stagnant to >8 m s⁻¹ were previously shown to decrease
467 NO₂ by 40–85% (Goldberg et al., 2020). Indeed, coincident measurements of wind conditions and NO₂ at the
468 Manhattan Pandora location before the pandemic showed that TCNO₂ rarely rose above 1 DU at wind speeds faster
469 than 8 m s⁻¹ (Fig. 10b). The highest TCNO₂ amounts occurred when surface winds were in the range 1-5 m s⁻¹. Under
470 such conditions, winds are strong enough to transport pollution from local sources as well as major pollutant emitters
471 in the tri-state area but can still lead to accumulation of pollution in Manhattan.

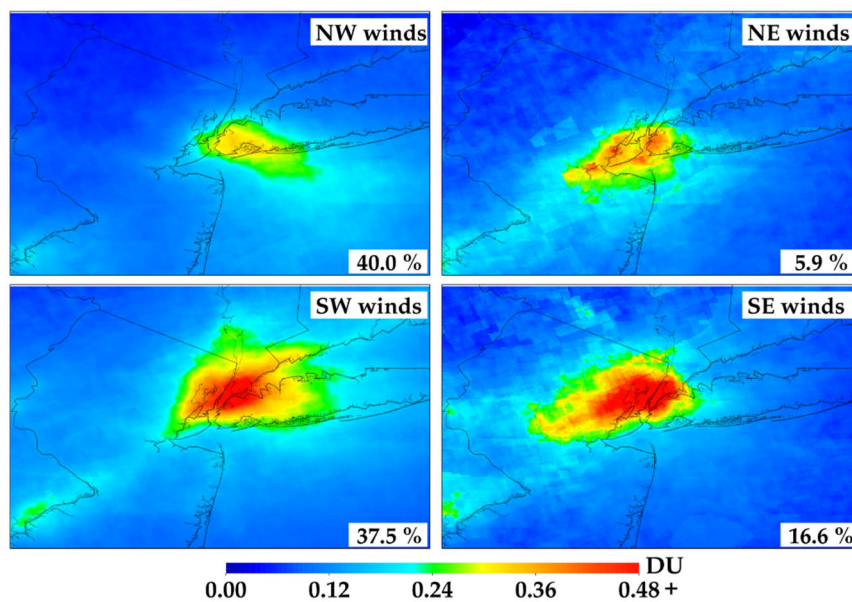


Figure 11: ~~Interpolated-TROPOMI NO₂ plumes over New York City (May 2018-December 2019)in 2018-2019~~ segregated into 100-m wind direction quadrants NW (top left), NE (top right), SW (bottom left), and SE (bottom right). The percentages of each direction are shown at the bottom right corner of each panel.

472

473 Moreover, the frequency of high NO₂ pollution events varies by wind direction, which correlate with sources of NO_x
474 pollution. Most events with TCNO₂ > 1 DU, and all cases with TCNO₂ > 2DU, occurred with SE-SW winds (90-270°
475 in Fig. 10a). These air mass origins encompass influences from Queens and Brooklyn (SE), lower Manhattan, and
476 northern New Jersey (SW-W) where most of the major power plants and economic activity are located (Fig. 1). Mean
477 TCNO₂ for SE-SW winds was 0.6 DU, compared to 0.4 DU for NE-NW winds. Pre-pandemic TROPOMI retrievals
478 (2018-2019) also showed that SE-SW winds yield the highest NO₂ levels in New York City, on average twice as high
479 compared to winds from the NW and NE (Fig. 11), where there are fewer upwind sources. Satellite imagery over the
480 2018-2019 period was evenly distributed across SE-SW (high NO₂) and NW-NE (low NO₂) wind directions.
481 TROPOMI retrievals also demonstrate a strong negative relationship between satellite NO₂ columns and wind speed
482 (Fig. 12), with the highest NO₂ occurring at wind speed < 4 m s⁻¹ and the lowest at wind speed >6 m s⁻¹ over the New
483 York metropolitan area before the pandemic.

484

485 These meteorological factors, in addition to explaining the particularly high TCNO₂ values measured even under strict
486 social distancing restrictions during the COVID-19 lockdowns in the tri-state area, were also found to contribute to
487 the significantly reduced NO₂ values in winter 2021. January and February 2021 showed a drop in NO₂ by 39% and
488 30%, respectively, similar to the NO₂ decline observed immediately after the initial strict lockdowns (Fig. 4). Although
489 traffic (based on both MTA data and Apple mobility trends) showed a noticeable decrease during the second wave of
490 the pandemic, mobility was not nearly as restricted as in April-May 2020 (Figs. S1₁-S2₃). Bridge and tunnel traffic
491 was approximately 30% lower in winter 2021 compared to 55% lower in spring 2020. Interestingly, in winter 2021
492 wind in Upper West Manhattan was mostly (72% in January and 65% in February) from NW-NE directions, which
493 yields the cleanest conditions and favors low NO₂ columns (Fig. 10a). For comparison, wind at the same location in

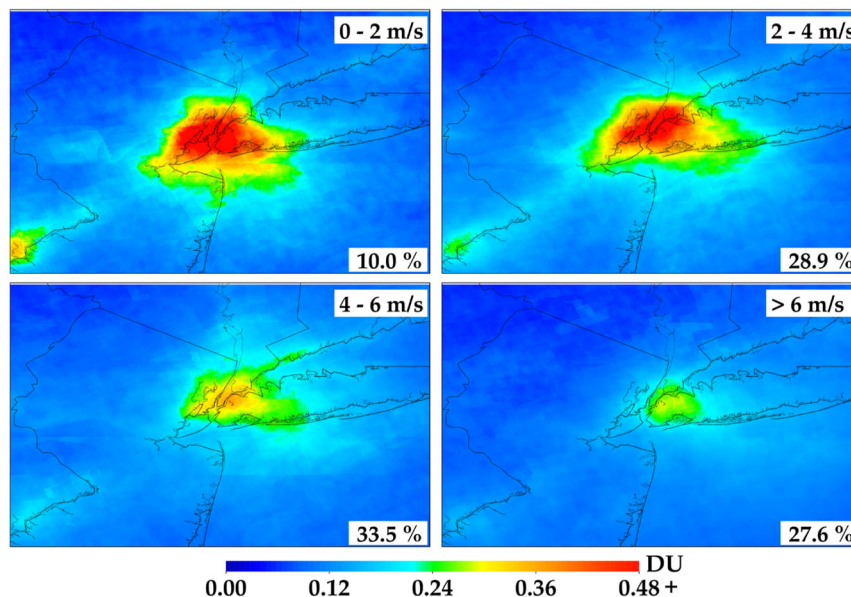


Figure 12: TROPOMI NO₂ (May 2018-December 2019), segregated by 100-m wind speed in 2 m s⁻¹ intervals from ERA5 daily meteorology. The percentages of each wind-speed interval are shown at the bottom right corner of each panel.

494 January and February 2020 was 49% and 50% from NW-NE direction. In contrast to winter 2021, in spring, summer,
495 and fall 2020, wind was 54%, 33% and 42% from NW-NE directions (compared to 49% in pre-covid conditions, Fig.
496 10) and mean wind speed was in the range 3.8-5.5 m s⁻¹, suggesting that wind conditions were not favorable for lower
497 NO₂ in Manhattan in 2020. Hence, our estimates of NO₂ decline in April-December 2020 primarily reflect the impact
498 of changes in anthropogenic emissions, particularly reductions in emissions from the transportation sector. These
499 findings corroborate results from Goldberg et al., (2020), who concluded that varying meteorological conditions (wind
500 speed and direction) in New York City, while different between years, did not have a strong biasing effect in their
501 estimates of the effects of COVID-19 physical distancing on NO₂ in the month directly following the initial
502 lockdowns. The prevalence of northerly winds in winter 2021, however, minimized the relative contribution of
503 emissions from the energy sector to New York City, favoring low NO₂ conditions. This led to stronger NO₂ declines
504 compared to pre-pandemic levels than would be expected based on just changes in emissions from the transportation
505 sector during the second wave of the pandemic.

506 4. Summary and conclusions

507 Stringent lockdown measures following the COVID-19 outbreak resulted in an abrupt and significant decline in
508 TROPOMI top-down NO_x emissions in New York City, by ~30% on top of long-term trends. A sudden drop in total
509 column NO₂ (by up to 36% in Manhattan), along with a weakening of the weekly NO₂ cycle and a disruption of typical
510 seasonal patterns were observed by the ground-based Pandora network in the New York metropolitan area. Yet, during
511 the same timeframe, traffic in New York City bridges and tunnels plummeted by 55%, on average, compared to pre-
512 pandemic levels, reaching as much as 80% reduction in early April 2020. These results highlight that although on-
513 road transportation is an important source of emissions in New York City, emissions from non-road transportation
514 and the power generation sector (not as strongly affected by the lockdown measures) critically affect NO₂ pollution
515 levels in New York. Accounting for each sector's contribution to total emissions, resulted in a change in NO_x
516 emissions by approx. 32%, which was consistent with satellite top-down estimates.

517
518 Disentangling the impacts of meteorology and NO_x emission changes on urban air quality is key for designing and
519 implementing improved emission-control strategies. Meteorology had different impacts across the different pandemic
520 waves in New York City. Although it was not found to have a strong biasing effect after the first pandemic wave in
521 spring to fall 2020, meteorology strongly favored clean air conditions over Manhattan after the second pandemic wave
522 in winter 2021, lowering NO₂ levels beyond what would be expected based on lockdown measures alone. The key
523 role that meteorology plays in shaping the relative contributions from different emission sectors to NO₂ pollution in
524 New York City was further demonstrated by the occurrence of several high NO₂ pollution events even during – and
525 despite - the extreme reductions in transportation emissions during the stringent early lockdowns. High total NO₂
526 columns, often exceeding three times the pre-pandemic levels, were consistently characterized by low-speed (< 5m s⁻¹)
527 SW-SE winds that enhanced contributions from the high-emitting power-generation sector and accumulation of
528 pollution over New York City. A subsequent increase in wind speed and change in wind direction typically coincided

529 with a decrease in NO₂ over the city, indicating dispersion of pollutants across the coastal environment with potentially
530 negative effects on downwind communities as well as terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems (Loughner et al., 2016).

531
532 The COVID-19 pandemic resulted in immediate and multifaceted impacts on human behavior that affected various
533 pollutant sectors and their relative contributions to urban NO_x emissions differently. During this extreme natural
534 experiment, long-term and high-temporal resolution retrievals from the Pandora network were essential in capturing
535 the response of total column NO₂ – declines and high pollution episodes - during the multiple pandemic waves and
536 reopening phases in the New York metropolitan area. Incorporating observed NO_x emissions changes across
537 timescales is important for improving air quality modeling and forecasting, especially in the context of sub-daily
538 stagnation events that produce NO_x exceedances despite low emissions. Such high-resolution observations from
539 ground-based networks, and soon from geostationary satellite sensors such as TEMPO (Chance et al., 2013), enable
540 the characterization of fine-scale features in NO₂ behavior as well as assessment of the possible effects of rapid
541 meteorological changes on air quality conditions. In New York, a city transitioning to a NO_x limited ozone production
542 environment during summer (Jin et al., 2017), NO_x plays an important role in the oxidation of VOC's ozone
543 production as well as secondary aerosol formation. Integration of high-resolution NO₂ measurements from ground-
544 based networks and geostationary satellite platforms is, thus, critical in further assessing changes in NO₂, aerosol, and
545 ozone pollution as the world re-opens, and in evaluating the effectiveness of future sector-specific NO_x emission
546 control strategies and their impacts on air quality, human health, and urban ecosystems.

547 **Code/Data availability:** All Pandora data used in this study can be downloaded freely from the Pandonia Global
548 Network website <https://www.pandonia-global-network.org/>. Our gridded satellite NO₂ products and output from our
549 model simulations can be obtained by contacting the corresponding author, Maria Tzortziou (mtzortziou@ccny.cuny.edu).

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552 processing and analysis; DG processed the TROPOMI satellite data; LS and RC provided the STILT model
553 simulations. NA, JJS and LCV contributed to the Pandora data collection and processing. All co-authors reviewed and
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568

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