

Abstract

This study estimates the influence of anthropogenic emission reductions on nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) and ozone (O₃) concentration changes in Germany during the COVID-19 pandemic period using in-situ surface and Sentinel-5p (TROPOMI) satellite column measurements and GEOS-Chem model simulations. We show that reductions in anthropogenic emissions in eight German metropolitan areas reduced mean in-situ (& column) NO₂ concentrations by 23 % (& 16 %) between March 21 and June 30, 2020 after accounting for meteorology, whereas the corresponding mean in-situ O₃ concentration increased by 4 % between March 21 and May 31, 2020, and decreased by 3 % in June 2020, compared to 2019. In the winter and spring, the degree of NO_x saturation of ozone production is stronger than in the summer. This implies that future reductions in NO_x emissions in these metropolitan areas are likely to increase ozone pollution during winter and spring if appropriate mitigation measures are not implemented. TROPOMI NO₂ concentrations decreased nationwide during the stricter lockdown period after accounting for meteorology with the exception of North-West Germany which can be attributed to enhanced NO_x emissions from agricultural soils.

Plain Language Summary

Pollutant concentrations in the atmosphere are influenced not only by changes in emissions, but also by meteorology and atmospheric chemical reactions. Because of this, estimating the direct influence of anthropogenic emission reductions on nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) and ozone (O₃) concentrations during the initial COVID-19 pandemic period is complex. In our study, we used GEOS-Chem model simulations to account for meteorology impacts. For Germany, compared to 2019 we see a decrease in NO₂ concentrations during the 2020 lockdown period, an increase in O₃ concentrations during the 2020 spring lockdown, and a decrease in O₃ concentrations during the 2020 early summer lockdown. The increased O₃ concentration in response to the decreased NO₂ concentration implies that future reductions in NO_x emissions are likely to increase ozone pollution in German metropolitan areas during winter and spring. Furthermore, there was a nationwide decrease in NO₂ concentrations except for North-West Germany during the 2020 stricter lockdown period. We hypothesise that North-West Germany is a hotspot of soil NO_x emissions in elevated-temperature environments due to intensive agricultural practices.

1 Introduction

The outbreak of the novel COVID-19 virus in late 2019 prompted governments to take various measures to prevent the COVID-19 virus from spreading through society. These actions include physical distancing, a ban on large group gatherings, home office work, and international and domestic travel restrictions (*DW COVID-19*, 2020). These measures resulted in a significant reduction in emissions following economic activity and overall mobility (Evangelidou et al., 2021; Gensheimer et al., 2021; Guevara et al., 2021; Le Quéré et al., 2020; Turner et al., 2020; Z. Liu, Ciais, et al., 2020; Z. Liu, Deng, et al., 2020). There has been a lot of interest in studying this time window and its impacts on the Earth system. Numerous studies (Bauwens et al., 2020; Berman & Ebisu, 2020; Chauhan & Singh, 2020; Collivignarelli et al., 2020; Dietrich et al., 2021; He et al., 2020; Keller et al., 2021; R. Zhang et al., 2020) have reported a reduction in major air pollutant concentrations during the COVID-19 lockdown period, including nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), carbon monoxide (CO), sulphur dioxide (SO₂) and particulate matter (PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5}), which are primarily emitted by fossil fuel consumption. During the COVID-19 lockdown period, air quality improved in most countries, particularly in urban areas (Bedi et al., 2020; Fu et al., 2020). Previous studies, such as Bauwens et al. (2020); Deroubaix et al. (2021), compared lockdown period concentration with long-term mean to estimate lock-

69 down effects by eliminating the average climatological seasonal cycle. However, a direct
70 comparison of lockdown period pollutant concentrations with pre-lockdown period pol-
71 lutant concentrations includes both meteorological and COVID-19 emission reduction
72 influences.

73 Meteorological effects must be considered to determine the actual impact of anthro-
74 pogenic emission reductions on changes in pollutant concentrations during the COVID-
75 19 lockdown period (Barré et al., 2020; Deroubaix et al., 2021; Gaubert et al., 2021; Gold-
76 berg et al., 2020; Petetin et al., 2020; Sharma et al., 2020; Y. Liu et al., 2020), partic-
77 ularly with regard to chemical processes (Kroll et al., 2020). An analysis of pollutant con-
78 centration changes over the European networks of surface air quality measurement sta-
79 tions was performed to isolate the lockdown impacts based on a data-driven meteorolo-
80 gical adjustment (Ordóñez et al., 2020; Venter et al., 2020). Previous works (Gaubert
81 et al., 2021; Menut et al., 2020; Mertens et al., 2021; Potts et al., 2021; Weber et al., 2020)
82 have used different modelling approaches to investigate the impact of lockdown measures
83 on air quality over Europe. The 2020 emission reduction scenarios were set up using avail-
84 able activity data from various sources (Dombia et al., 2021; Forster et al., 2020; Gue-
85 vara et al., 2021). As part of its modeling work, Gaubert et al. (2021) compared the 2020
86 lockdown period with climatological mean in order to separate the anomalies caused by
87 the weather conditions in 2020, and they have called for more meteorology adjusted stud-
88 ies to avoid the flawed results.

89 We focus on nitrogen dioxide (NO_2) and ozone (O_3) concentration changes due to
90 2020 COVID-19 lockdown restrictions, from March 21 to June 30. We consider NO_2 and
91 O_3 together from the perspective of atmospheric chemistry, because NO_2 and O_3 con-
92 centrations are functions of each other (Bozem et al., 2017). Nitrogen oxide ($\text{NO}_X = \text{NO} + \text{NO}_2$)
93 emissions have a pronounced seasonal cycle, with higher emissions in the winter than in
94 the summer (Beirle et al., 2019; Kuenen et al., 2014). Half of the NO_X in the troposphere
95 is from fossil fuel consumption in urban areas (e.g. figure S1). Tropospheric NO_2 con-
96 centrations follow a similar annual cycle, with higher values in the winter than in the sum-
97 mer. This is due to the fact that in addition to the higher emissions mentioned above
98 also the lifetime of NO_2 is longer in the winter (≈ 21 hours) than in the summer (≈ 6
99 hours) (Shah et al., 2020). Peak NO_2 concentrations in the winter are also influenced
100 by atmospheric inversion conditions. NO_2 influences climate by acting as a precursor to
101 the formation of tropospheric O_3 (Crutzen, 1988; Jacob, 1999), and both NO_2 and O_3
102 have an impact on human health. Tropospheric ozone production is complex and depends
103 strongly and non-linearly on nitrogen oxides (NO_X) and volatile organic compound (VOC)
104 concentrations, despite the fact that photolysis of NO_2 is the only chemical source of tro-
105 pospheric ozone (Council et al., 1992; Kleinman, 2005; Lin et al., 1988). Ozone decreases
106 as NO_X decreases in regions with low NO_X and high VOC concentrations, i.e., NO_X lim-
107 ited regimes; however, in high NO_X regions, i.e., VOC limited regimes (or NO_X satu-
108 rated regimes), a decrease in NO_X results in an increase in O_3 concentration (Kleinman
109 et al., 1997; Sillman, 1999; Sillman et al., 1990) (figure S2).

110 This study uses the TROPOspheric Monitoring Instrument (TROPOMI) on the
111 Sentinel-5 Precursor (Sentinel-5P) satellite and governmental in-situ NO_2 measurements
112 as a proxy for changes in NO_2 , and governmental in-situ O_3 measurements as a proxy
113 for changes in O_3 concentrations in Germany. To account for the impact of meteorol-
114 ogy, we use the same anthropogenic emissions in 2020 and 2019 with 2019 open fire emis-
115 sions and long-term (1995-2013) monthly lightning NO_X emission climatology for the
116 GEOS-Chem model. We are therefore able to present separate quantitative results for
117 changes in NO_2 and O_3 concentrations caused by meteorological changes and by reduc-
118 tions in anthropogenic emissions resulting from COVID-19 lockdown measures. To the
119 best of our knowledge, no such study using GC modeling to account for meteorological
120 impacts has been conducted for Germany.

2 Study Regions, Data Sets, Model and Method

Our study region covers a bounding box over the national area of Germany (5-15.5°E, 47-55.5°N), with a particular focus on eight urban areas spread across the country: Munich, Berlin, Cologne, Dresden, Frankfurt, Hamburg, Hanover, and Stuttgart (Supplement figure S3). This study mainly focused on the urban scale to examine the impact of reduced mobility on NO₂ and O₃ concentrations during the 2020 COVID-19 pandemic period. We also extended our study nationwide to investigate other significant NO_x sources in rural locations.

We used tropospheric NO₂ column data from the TROPospheric Monitoring Instrument (TROPOMI) aboard the Sentinel-5 Precursor satellite (*Copernicus*, 2020). The satellite is in a sun synchronous orbit with an equatorial crossing time of 13:30 (local solar time). TROPOMI NO₂ data has a spatial resolution of 7*3.5 km (increased to 5.5*3.5 km after 6 August, 2019) and it covers the globe daily due to its wide swath (Van Geffen et al., 2020). TROPOMI NO₂ precision (error estimate originating from the spectral fit and other retrieval aspects) for each pixel is within the range of 3.6*10¹⁴ to 3.7*10¹⁶ molec. cm⁻² (about 21% to 75 % of tropospheric NO₂ column). The TROPOMI NO₂ measurements for winter are highly uncertain (Figure S4). The main source of uncertainty is the calculation of the air mass factor, which is estimated to be on the order of ± 30 % (Lorente et al., 2017). Since our study is mainly focusing on the relative difference in NO₂ between 2020 and 2019, the systematic errors associated with TROPOMI retrievals (e.g., spectroscopic errors and instrument bias) should cancel out, while random error component is persistent. However, when we apply temporal and spatial averaging, random errors are reduced. We followed *S5P NO2 Readme* (2020) for the quality filter criteria, which removes cloud-covered scenes in order to avoid high error propagation through retrievals. We averaged the TROPOMI values within a radius of 0.5 degree from the urban center to create time series (& daily observations) at the urban scale. For comparisons between 2020 and 2019 at the national scale, TROPOMI tropospheric NO₂ column densities were gridded in 0.25*0.25-degree bins.

We investigate agricultural activities in Germany using ammonia (NH₃) data (Kuttippurath et al., 2020). The “Standard monthly IASI/Metop-B ammonia (NH₃) data set” was downloaded from *IASI NH3* (2020). This data set contains monthly averaged NH₃ measurements (total column), from the Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI), onboard the Metop satellites, at 1*1 degree resolution. We also used the “Near-real time daily IASI/Metop-B ammonia (NH₃) total column dataset (ANNI-NH3-v3)” product to investigate the inter-annual short-term (less than a month) variability in NH₃ over Germany (*IASI NH3*, 2020).

In-situ surface NO₂ and O₃ concentrations were obtained as hourly averaged measurements from the UBA’s (German Environment Agency) database (*Umweltbundesamt*, 2020). We collected data from 38 stations in eight German cities, including both urban and rural measurement sites, for 2020 and 2019. In this study, we averaged all 24-hour measurements from stations located within each city.

The ERA5 dataset (*Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S)*, 2017) is used as a reference data set to discuss meteorological conditions over study areas. We used the “ERA5 hourly data on pressure levels” product for wind speed and direction and temperature. Further, we used the “ERA5 hourly data on single levels” product for boundary layer height. We averaged these values within a radius of 0.5 degree from the urban center to create a time-series (& daily observations) at the urban scale. The sunshine duration (hours per day) data was obtained from *Deutscher Wetterdienst (DWD)*, 2020).

The GEOS-Chem (GC) chemical transport model (*GEOS-Chem*, 2020) is used to estimate the concentration differences in NO₂ and O₃ between 2020 and 2019 caused by meteorological changes. The GEOS-Chem model is driven by MERRA-2 assimilated me-

172 meteorological data (*MERRA-2*, 2020). We conduct nested simulations over Germany (4-
 173 17°E, 45-57°N) at a horizontal resolution of 0.5°*0.625° with dynamic boundary con-
 174 ditions generated from a global simulation by 4°*5° resolution. GEOS-Chem assumes
 175 the same anthropogenic emissions in 2020 and 2019. We used anthropogenic emissions
 176 in 2014 from the Community Emissions Data System (CEDS) inventory (Hoesly et al.,
 177 2018) and 2019 open fire emissions from GFED4 (Werf et al., 2017) for both 2019 and
 178 2020 simulations. The spatial and monthly climatology of lightning NO_X emissions is
 179 constrained by LIS/OTD satellite observations averaged over 1995-2013. We used an im-
 180 proved parameterization approach implemented in the GEOS-Chem model to calculate
 181 soil NO_X emissions (Hudman et al., 2012). In all comparisons of the GC model to TROPOMI,
 182 GC NO_2 vertical profile simulations (at 47 vertical layer) are converted to NO_2 column
 183 densities for TROPOMI footprints by interpolating into TROPOMI measurements pres-
 184 sure levels and applying TROPOMI’s averaging kernals. Similar to above, GC column
 185 densities were gridded in 0.25*0.25-degree bins at the national scale.

186 Our methodology to obtain NO_2 and O_3 concentration changes between 2020 and
 187 2019 (2020-2019) for which meteorological impacts have been accounted for is as follows.
 188 Previous studies (Fiore et al., 2003; R. F. Silvern et al., 2019; Tai et al., 2012) have shown
 189 that GC can reproduce the temporal variability of NO_2 , O_3 and particulate matter, im-
 190 plying that GC accounts for meteorological impacts. We conduct GC simulations for 2020
 191 and 2019 with identical emissions but with the respective meteorology from MERRA-
 192 2 reanalysis. Since we use the same anthropogenic emission in 2020 and 2019, the GC
 193 differences in NO_2 and O_3 between 2020 and 2019 are solely due to meteorological in-
 194 fluences, e.g., differences in wind speed, boundary layer height, photo-chemistry etc.:

$$\Delta \text{NO}_{2(GC)} = \text{NO}_{2(GC,2020)} - \text{NO}_{2(GC,2019)} \quad (1)$$

$$\Delta \text{O}_{3(GC)} = \text{O}_{3(GC,2020)} - \text{O}_{3(GC,2019)} \quad (2)$$

196 The difference between the 2020 and 2019 NO_2 and O_3 observations for specific time pe-
 197 riods include influence from both meteorological and emissions changes:

$$\Delta \text{NO}_{2(obs)} = \text{NO}_{2(obs,2020)} - \text{NO}_{2(obs,2019)} \quad (3)$$

$$\Delta \text{O}_{3(obs)} = \text{O}_{3(obs,2020)} - \text{O}_{3(obs,2019)} \quad (4)$$

199 In order to account for the differences resulting from meteorology and isolate the impact
 200 resulting from emission changes we subtract the difference in the simulations from the
 201 difference in the observations as follow (Qu et al., 2021),

$$\Delta \text{NO}_{2(acc)} = \Delta \text{NO}_{2(obs)} - \Delta \text{NO}_{2(GC)} \quad (5)$$

202 and similarly for ozone:

$$\Delta \text{O}_{3(acc)} = \Delta \text{O}_{3(obs)} - \Delta \text{O}_{3(GC)} \quad (6)$$

203 Where, “acc” refers to meteorology accounted for, “obs” refers to in-situ or TROPOMI
 204 measured concentrations, and “GC” refers to GEOS-Chem model simulated concentra-
 205 tions. This approach results in values that have accounted for meteorological influence
 206 to estimate the concentration changes resulting only from COVID-19 emission reductions.

207 **3 Tropospheric NO_2 and O_3 : impact of meteorological conditions**

208 Like previous studies (Çelik & İbrahim, 2007; Deroubaix et al., 2021; Ordóñez et
 209 al., 2020; Voiculescu et al., 2020), we investigated correlations between satellite and in-
 210 situ NO_2 and O_3 concentrations and local meteorological parameters to find the depen-
 211 dency of NO_2 and O_3 concentrations on meteorology. The correlation matrix is shown
 212 in Figure 1 for the Munich metropolitan area. We find similar correlation behaviour be-
 213 tween variables for 2019 (no lockdown) and 2020 (lockdown). Generally, satellite and in-
 214 situ NO_2 concentrations have a negative correlation with wind speed, temperature and

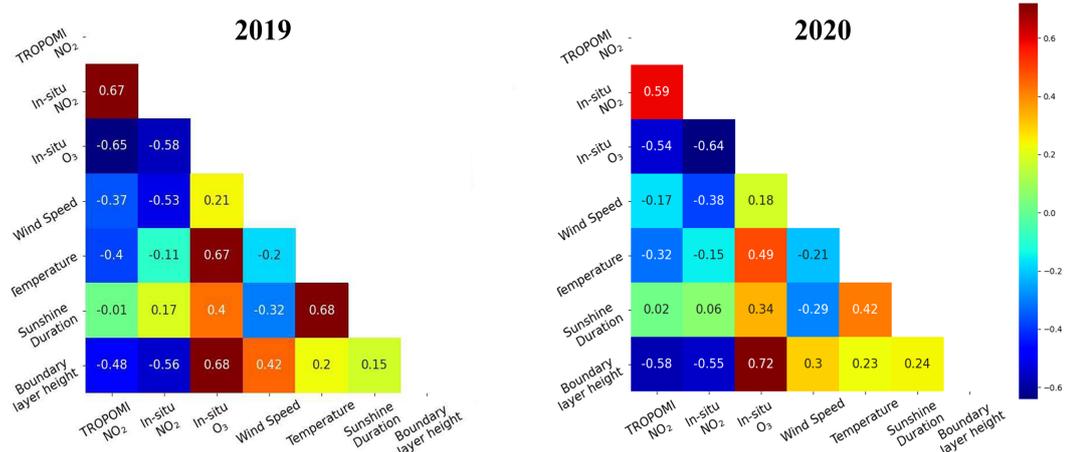


Figure 1. Correlation matrix (R-correlation coefficient) between meteorological parameters and NO₂ and O₃ concentrations (January to June in 2020 and 2019) in Munich.

215 boundary layer height, e.g., as pollutants disperse more at high wind speeds than at low
 216 wind speeds. As temperature and sunlight increases, the rate of NO₂ photochemical loss
 217 accelerates, and the planetary boundary layer expands resulting in higher dilution. O₃
 218 concentrations have a generally negative correlation with NO₂ concentrations and posi-
 219 tive correlation with sunshine duration and temperature. This results from the fact that
 220 NO₂ and high solar radiation play an important role in regulating O₃. Temperature has
 221 been shown to have a significant influence on ozone production over Europe under various
 222 NO_x conditions (Coates et al., 2016; Melkonyan & Wagner, 2013). In addition, Curci
 223 et al. (2009) show that increasing temperature causes an increase in biogenic VOC emis-
 224 sions, which can raise the ozone level, especially in the summer. Future climate condi-
 225 tions in Europe (as a result of global warming) will almost certainly have an impact on
 226 ozone pollution (Engardt et al., 2009; Forkel & Knoche, 2006; Meleux et al., 2007; Vau-
 227 tard et al., 2007). Europe may experience more intense and frequent heatwaves and droughts
 228 in the future, which will increase wildfire events and, as a result, background ozone lev-
 229 els will increase (De Sario et al., 2013; Meehl & Tebaldi, 2004). Furthermore, temper-
 230 ature, boundary layer height and solar radiation, which are considered to be the most
 231 related meteorological factors influencing NO₂ and O₃ concentrations, are interdepend-
 232 ent.

233 4 Changes in NO₂ and O₃ concentrations in Germany due to COVID- 234 19 lockdown restrictions

235 In this study we compare January through June of 2020 and 2019. This time peri-
 236 od is divided into five sections: 1) No lockdown restrictions from January 1 to January
 237 31, 2020. 2) No lockdown restrictions with anomalous weather conditions from Febru-
 238 ary 1 to March 20, 2020. 3) Strict lockdown restrictions from March 21 to April 30, 2020
 239 (spring). 4) Loose measures from May 1 to May 31, 2020 (late spring). 5) Loose mea-
 240 sures from June 1 to June 30, 2020 (early summer). The mean TROPOMI and in-situ
 241 NO₂ in January of 2020 was slightly higher than in 2019 (Figure 2 (c) and 3(a)). How-
 242 ever, between February 1 and March 20, 2020, prior to the lockdown, mean observed TROPOMI
 243 and in-situ NO₂ was already significantly lower than in 2019 at both the national (Fig-
 244 ure 2 (f)) and urban scales (Figure 3(c) and S5). This can be attributed to unusually
 245 high wind speeds caused by storms in February 2020 (*DLR COVID-19*, 2020). The first
 246 governmental COVID-19 lockdown restrictions went into effect on March 21, 2020. In
 247 the period following the lockdown implementation, lower NO₂ values are observed com-

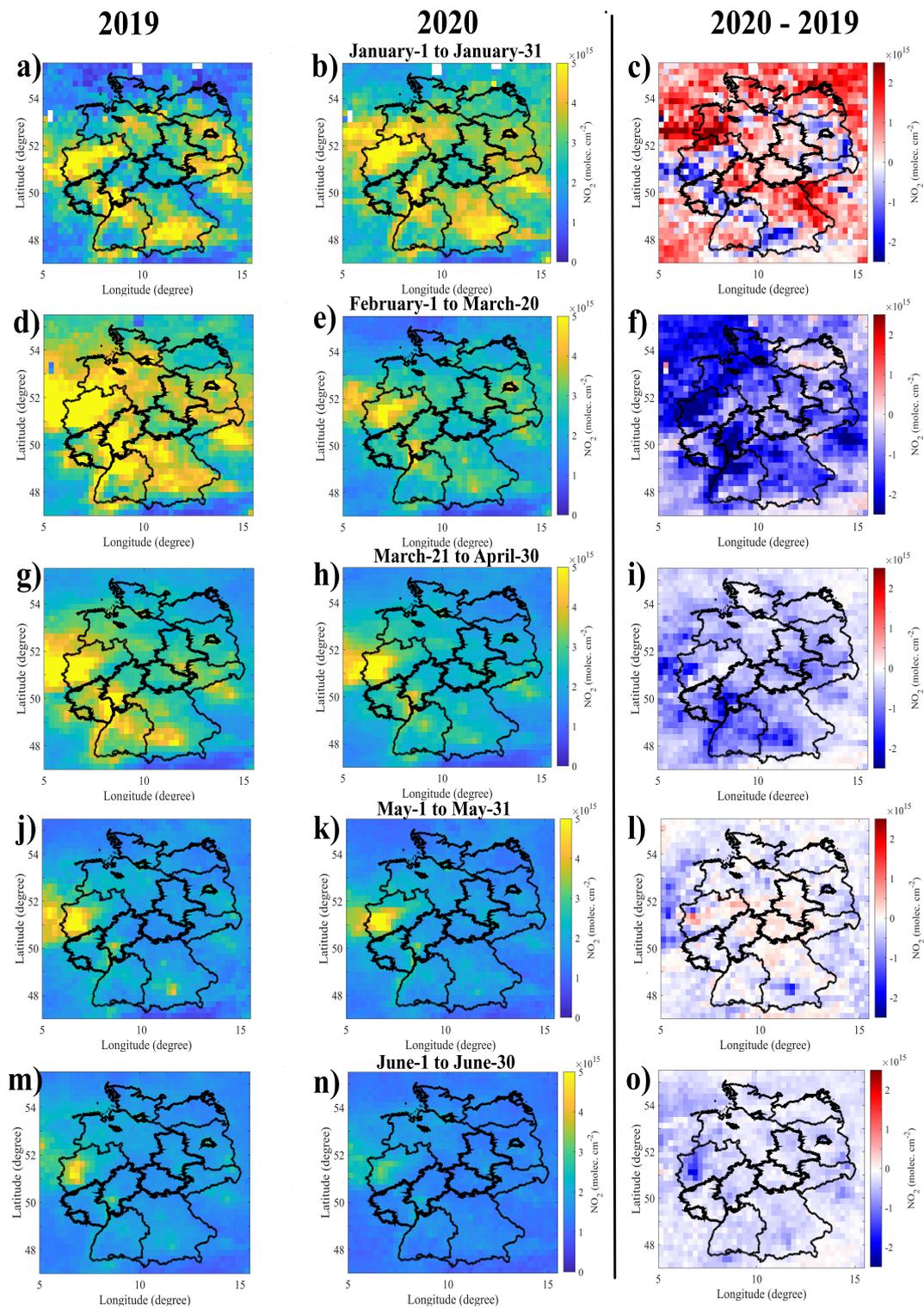


Figure 2. Mean TROPOMI tropospheric NO_2 column densities for 2019 (first column) and 2020 (second column). The absolute differences in TROPOMI tropospheric NO_2 column densities between 2020 and 2019 (third column).

248 pared to 2019. In-situ measurements show lower mean O₃ concentrations in January and
 249 June 2020, and higher mean O₃ concentrations from February 1 through May 31, 2020,
 250 compared to 2019 (Figure 3 and S5).

251 GEOS-Chem model simulations are used to estimate the difference in NO₂ and O₃
 252 concentrations between 2020 and 2019 caused by meteorology. Studies (Fiore et al., 2003;
 253 R. F. Silvern et al., 2019; Tai et al., 2012) have demonstrated that GC can reproduce
 254 the observed temporal variability of NO₂, O₃ and particulate matter, implying that GC
 255 accounts for impacts of meteorology when using precise meteorological data and emis-
 256 sion inventories. In our study, we also compare the GC and observed concentrations from
 257 2019 to verify that the GC can reproduce the temporal variability of observed concentra-
 258 tion changes. The 2019 (January to June) period is used to validate the GC model
 259 simulations as unlike 2020 emissions are not affected by changes resulting from COVID
 260 measures. To validate the GC model, we compared GC surface concentrations with in-
 261 situ surface concentrations, and GC column densities with TROPOMI column densities
 262 (Figure S6, for cologne metropolitan area). We find good agreement between GC sur-
 263 face NO₂ concentrations and in-situ surface NO₂ concentrations for eight metropolitan
 264 areas (R, pearson correlation coefficient, > 0.65, with high R (0.75) for Cologne). Sim-
 265 ilar results were obtained for GC surface O₃ concentrations, (R > 0.65, with a high R
 266 (0.74) for Dresden). GC underestimates NO₂ surface concentrations, except for Ham-
 267 burg. The mean bias (GC - in-situ) ranges from +2.9 to -23 %. Except for Hamburg and
 268 Hanover, GC overestimates surface O₃ concentrations, with mean bias ranges from +24
 269 to -10.3 %. When comparing 2019 GC and TROPOMI NO₂ column densities, relatively
 270 low correlation (R, between 0.24 and 0.55) was found, and the NO₂ column densities in
 271 metropolitan areas were underestimated by GC (mean bias ranges from -4 to -28 %). How-
 272 ever, the GC model is capable of modeling the spatial variability of NO₂ column den-
 273 sities at the national scale, emphasizing GC's ability to represent the distribution of emis-
 274 sion source locations (Figure S7). The over/under estimation of NO₂ and O₃ concen-
 275 trations are caused by the emission inventory (over/under estimation of emission) used
 276 in GC simulation. The low bias in NO₂ and high bias in O₃ could be consistent with NO_x
 277 saturated conditions. Because we use the difference in GC concentrations between 2020
 278 and 2019 ($\Delta \text{NO}_{2(GC)}$ and $\Delta \text{O}_{3(GC)}$), general biases are cancelled out.

279 Due to the passage of two strong storm systems February 2020 experienced high
 280 winds. We consider the period from February 1 to March 20, 2020 (prior to the imple-
 281 mentation of lockdown restrictions) to determine the extent to which meteorology is re-
 282 sponsible for variations in pollutant concentrations. Before accounting for meteorology,
 283 the difference in mean in-situ NO₂ concentration between 2020 and 2019 is -28 % for the
 284 period February 1 and March 20. After accounting for meteorology, the difference is re-
 285 duced to -6 % (consistent with meteorology accounted changes for the period between
 286 January 1 and January 31, 2020 compared to 2019, figure 1 (a,b,c,d)). This emphasizes
 287 the significance of employing our method to account for meteorological impacts. The im-
 288 pacts of meteorology on in-situ and TROPOMI NO₂ concentrations are relatively small
 289 (+0.4 % and -0.6 %, respectively) for the period between March 21 and June 30, 2020
 290 (the period after the implementation of lockdown restrictions). After accounting for me-
 291 teorology, the mean in-situ and TROPOMI NO₂ values between March 21 and June 30,
 292 2020 were significantly lower (by 23 % and 16 %, respectively) than the same period in
 293 2019 (Figure 3, (f, h, j)). Other studies (Barré et al., 2020; Grange et al., 2020; Solberg
 294 et al., 2021) that used a machine learning and statistical approach to account for me-
 295 teorological impacts also found that the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on NO_x emis-
 296 sions lasted at least until June 2020. After accounting for meteorology, we observed a
 297 slight increase in mean in-situ O₃ concentration between March 21 and May 31, 2020
 298 (consistent with Deroubaix et al. (2021); Ordóñez et al. (2020)), and a slight decrease
 299 in mean in-situ O₃ concentration in June 2020 compared to 2019. In our study areas (metropoli-
 300 tan areas), the impact of meteorological conditions on in-situ O₃ concentrations are clearly
 301 noticeable in all periods. Meteorological conditions were favorable for high O₃ concen-

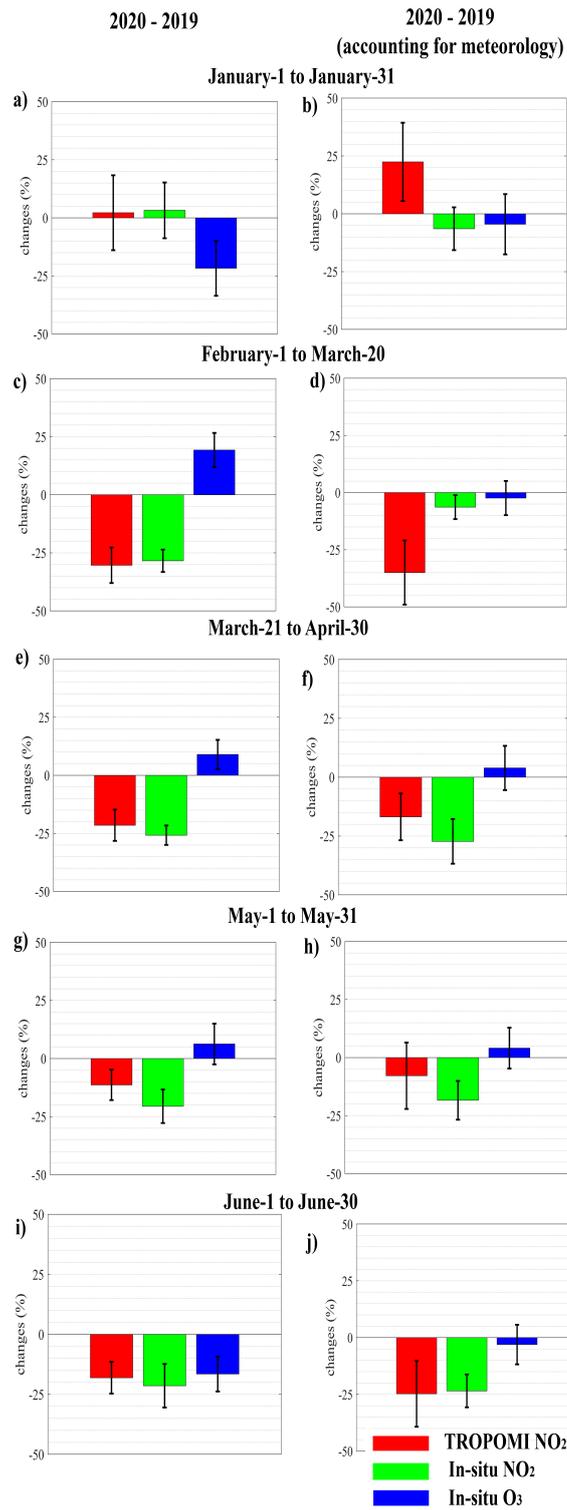


Figure 3. Mean relative changes in meteorological impacts unaccounted (left column) and accounted (right column) NO₂ and O₃ concentrations in eight metropolitan cities between 2020 and 2019. Error bars represent the 1 σ (standard deviation) of mean of eight metropolitan cities.

302 trations between February 1 and May 31, 2020 (consistent with Gaubert et al. (2021)),
303 while meteorological conditions were favorable for low O₃ concentrations in January and
304 June 2020. For instance, before accounting for meteorology, mean O₃ concentration in
305 June 2020 is 16.5 % lower than in 2019, which could be attributed to the low temper-
306 ature (less ozone production) in June 2020 (Figure S8 (j)). After accounting for mete-
307 orology, the difference between mean O₃ concentrations in June 2020 and the same pe-
308 riod in 2019 is reduced to -3 %. Meteorology had a different impact on NO₂ and O₃ lev-
309 els and this impact also varied for different time periods. This demonstrates the com-
310 plex relationship between O₃, NO₂, and meteorological conditions.

311 We found large discrepancies between in-situ and TROPOMI NO₂ changes for the
312 study period. It is important to note that the number of TROPOMI cloud-free measure-
313 ments between 2020 and 2019 may have an impact on results (for Munich, TROPOMI
314 measurements are available for 269 days out of 363 days). In addition, the TROPOMI
315 overpass occurs at 13.30 local time, which may make it less sensitive to traffic-related
316 emissions (peak in the morning from 7-9 am and evening from 4-7 pm). We conducted
317 two comparisons between 2019 in-situ NO₂ and TROPOMI NO₂ measurements to deter-
318 mine whether the TROPOMI measurements (overpass occurs around 13.30) could rep-
319 resent traffic-related emissions. First, we compare the mean 24 hour in-situ NO₂ to the
320 TROPOMI NO₂ observation. Second, we compare the in-situ NO₂ at the time of TROPOMI
321 overpass with the TROPOMI NO₂, which should have better agreement. We use the em-
322 pirical relationship (Lorente et al., 2019) that includes boundary layer information to con-
323 vert the surface concentration to column density. The TROPOMI observations agree well
324 with the in-situ observations at the TROPOMI overpass time (mean bias (TROPOMI
325 - in-situ) is about -13 %), whereas TROPOMI underestimates NO₂ compared to the 24-
326 hr mean in-situ value (mean bias is about -41.5 %) (Figure S9, for Munich). This indi-
327 cates that TROPOMI is not suitable to directly represent the 24-hr mean (daily concen-
328 tration), which could lead to errors in estimating lockdown effects, because the lockdown
329 primarily reduced traffic-related emissions. Furthermore, the observed satellite column
330 concentration is certainly influenced by the background concentration. The free tropo-
331 spheric background contributes 70-80 % of the total column observed via satellite (R. Sil-
332 vern et al., 2018; Travis et al., 2016). R. F. Silvern et al. (2019) and Qu et al. (2021) demon-
333 strate the importance of accounting for the influence of free tropospheric NO₂ background
334 on satellite column measurements to infer the changes in surface NO_x emission. The pri-
335 mary sources of background NO₂ are lightning, soil, wildfires and long-range transport
336 of pollution (L. Zhang et al., 2012), which are unaffected by lockdown restrictions. The
337 contribution from soil has been shown to increase up to 27 % of total NO_x emissions
338 at elevated temperatures (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2001) (discussed below). In addition,
339 subtracting the contribution of the NO₂ background from satellite column observation
340 is complex, because of its non-uniformity (Marais et al., 2018, 2021), thus, using column
341 measurements is challenging for estimates of local changes in NO₂ emissions. In contrast
342 to satellite column measurements, background NO₂ has little influence (5-10 %) on in-
343 situ surface NO₂ concentrations (R. F. Silvern et al., 2019). The discrepancies between
344 in-situ and TROPOMI changes primarily results from unaccounted background NO₂ in-
345 fluence on the satellite observation and that TROPOMI's overpass time makes it less sen-
346 sitive to overall diurnal emissions. These discrepancies limit the use of satellite column
347 measurements to infer the surface NO_x emission changes.

348 The NO₂ column densities in rural locations were also investigated. During the 2020
349 stricter lockdown period, after accounting for meteorology, slightly increased NO₂ ver-
350 tical column densities over North-West Germany are observed compared to 2019 (fig-
351 ure 4 (c)). We hypothesise that this is due to enhanced soil NO_x emissions over North-
352 West Germany in the 2020 stricter lockdown period (associated with increased temper-
353 ature over North-West Germany (Figure S8 (f)); soil NO_x emissions typically increase
354 with temperature (Oikawa et al., 2015). Soil NO_x emissions are expected to be high in
355 the early spring (stricter lockdown period), even though the average temperature in May

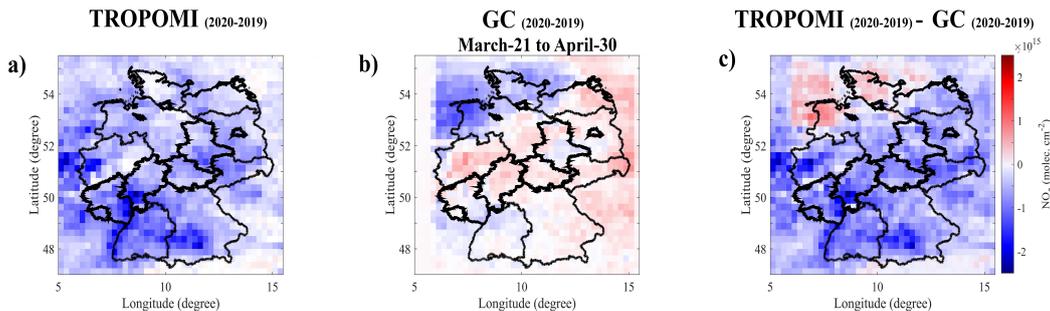


Figure 4. The absolute difference in TROPOMI (a) and GEOS-Chem (b) NO₂ column densities between 2020 and 2019 (stricter lockdown period: March 21 to April 30). The absolute difference between first two columns is shown in panel (c).

356 and June is higher than in the stricter lockdown period, because agricultural practices
 357 such as fertilizer application begin and end in the early spring (Ramanantenasoa et al.,
 358 2018; Viatte et al., 2020). Fertilized soils have high potential for NO_x emissions (Almaraz
 359 et al., 2018; S. Liu et al., 2017; Skiba et al., 2021). Figure S11 shows the monthly mean
 360 NH₃ total column densities over Germany. High NH₃ total column densities were ob-
 361 served in April as agricultural practices (fertilizer application) began in the early spring.
 362 Notably, strong enhancements were observed over North-West Germany. The total col-
 363 umn of NH₃ over North-West Germany in 2020 (strict lockdown period) is higher than
 364 in 2019 (Figure S12). This supports our hypothesis that North-West Germany, which
 365 is dominated by Grass and Crop land (*ESA CCI*, 2020), is an agricultural region, with
 366 fertilized soil producing NO_x in elevated-temperature environments.

367 5 Ozone sensitivity to NO_x changes

368 Like previous studies that reported the urban NO₂ weekly cycle (Beirle et al., 2003;
 369 Ialongo et al., 2020), we also investigate this at the national (Germany) and urban scale
 370 (Figure S13 & S14). Both TROPOMI and in-situ NO₂ measurements show that week-
 371 end NO₂ concentrations are lower than weekday NO₂ concentrations, because primary
 372 emission activities such as transportation typically decrease on weekends. Studies (Sicard
 373 et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2014) have demonstrated that analysing the difference in week-
 374 day vs weekend O₃ concentrations helps identify the ozone production regime. As NO_x
 375 emissions decrease on weekends, the response of ozone will demonstrate whether ozone
 376 production is NO_x limited or saturated. Hammer et al. (2002); Gaubert et al. (2021)
 377 used the H₂O₂/HNO₃ ratio and Sillman et al. (2003) used the O₃/NO_y ratio as a way
 378 to identify the ozone production regime over Europe urban regions. Previous studies (Beekmann
 379 & Vautard, 2010; Derwent et al., 2003; Gabusi & Volta, 2005; Gaubert et al., 2021; Mar-
 380 tin et al., 2004) have demonstrated that European urban regions are characterized as
 381 NO_x saturated ozone production regime. The influence of biogenic VOC emissions on
 382 ozone is relatively low in Europe (Curci et al., 2009; Simpson, 1995). There also is a shift
 383 between NO_x saturated and NO_x limited regimes during the year; in the winter, ozone
 384 production is usually NO_x saturated, whereas it is often NO_x limited in the summer
 385 (Jin et al., 2017). The winter and spring O₃ weekend effect is much stronger than the
 386 summer O₃ weekend effect (Figure 5, for Munich metropolitan area); reduced NO_x emis-
 387 sion on weekends increase O₃ concentrations, i.e., NO_x saturated conditions prevail, con-
 388 sistent with above mentioned previous studies, which shows that NO_x saturated con-
 389 ditions persist to the current time period. Therefore, German metropolitan areas are ex-
 390 pected to be in a NO_x saturated ozone production regime also during the initial 2020
 391 COVID-19 pandemic period. Notably, we found an increase (4 %) in meteorology ac-

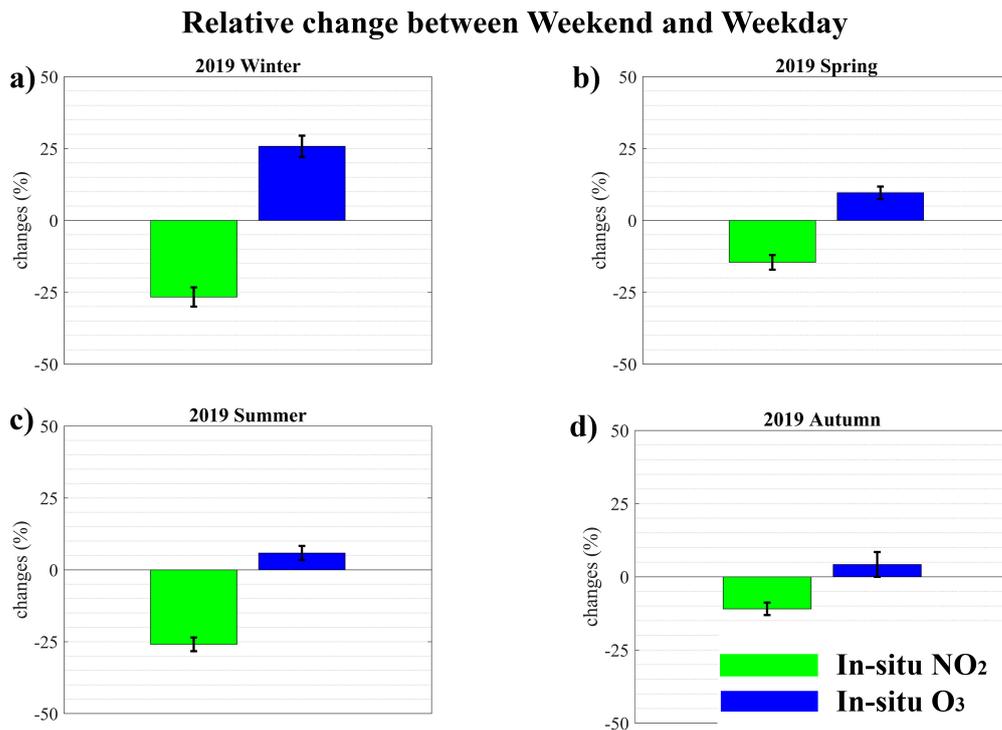


Figure 5. Mean relative change in in-situ NO₂ and O₃ concentrations in Munich between weekends and weekdays. Error bars represent statistical uncertainty (1σ) in the calculation of relative change between weekend and weekday means.

392 counted for mean in-situ O₃ concentrations in spring (March 21 and May 31, 2020) and
 393 a slight decrease (3 %) in meteorology accounted for mean in-situ O₃ concentrations in
 394 early summer (June, 2020) compared to the same period in 2019. This implies that the
 395 degree of NO_x saturation of ozone production is weakening from winter to summer (con-
 396 sistent with weekend effects and Jin et al. (2017); Kang et al. (2021)). During the lock-
 397 down period, the daily maximum 8-hour mean O₃ concentration in metropolitan areas
 398 also exceeded the EU target value (120 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) (2 days in Munich, Berlin, Cologne, Stuttgart
 399 metropolitan areas). These exceedances are more attributable to NO_x saturated con-
 400 ditions than to meteorology.

401 6 Conclusions

402 A year-to-year comparison of atmospheric pollutant concentrations is widely used
 403 to estimate the influence of reductions in anthropogenic emissions on atmospheric pol-
 404 lutant concentration changes during the COVID-19 pandemic period. However, these
 405 findings could be misleading if meteorological impacts are not taken into account. We
 406 used identical anthropogenic emissions in 2020 and 2019 in GEOS-Chem model simu-
 407 lations, allowing us to separate the changes in NO₂ and O₃ attributed to meteorologi-
 408 cal impacts from the observed changes. Finally, we show that, due to reductions in an-
 409 thropogenic emissions during the COVID-19 pandemic period, meteorology accounted
 410 for mean in-situ & TROPOMI NO₂ concentrations decreased by 23 % & 16 %, respec-
 411 tively, compared to 2019, in eight German metropolitan cities between March 21 and June
 412 30. After accounting for meteorology, we find a nationwide decrease in TROPOMI NO₂
 413 concentrations except for North-West Germany, which can be attributed to enhanced

414 NO_X emissions from agricultural soils during the 2020 stricter lockdown period. We hy-
 415 pothesise that North-West Germany is a hot spot of soil NO_X emissions in elevated-temperature
 416 environments due to intensive agricultural practices (fertilizer applications) during the
 417 early spring. The IASI NH_3 satellite data also supports our statement that North-West
 418 Germany is an intensive agricultural region during the early spring.

419 After accounting for meteorology, the concentration of O_3 increased slightly (4 %) during the 2020 spring lockdown while it decreased slightly (3 %) during the 2020 early summer lockdown, in response to decreased NO_2 in both time periods, compared to 2019. This implies that the degree of NO_X saturation of ozone production is weakening from winter to summer. These findings are also supported by the response of O_3 to changes in precursor emissions using weekend vs. weekday differences. Therefore, reducing NO_X emissions would benefit summer ozone reduction, whereas reducing NO_X emissions would increase ozone levels during winter and spring. Appropriate NO_X and VOCs emission control strategies are required to mitigate ozone pollution in German metropolitan areas during winter and spring; otherwise, it may lead to incorrect environmental regulation policies that are closely linked to public health. Despite a sharp decrease in emissions from the transportation sector, emissions from natural sources (dust storms, wildfires) and agriculture sectors were unaffected by 2020 COVID-19 lockdown restrictions. Changes in other pollutants such as PM_{10} , SO_2 , CO and anthropogenic VOCs (primary pollutant) and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ (secondary pollutant) may provide further insight on air quality during the COVID-19 pandemic period. Extensive studies on air quality during the lockdown period could pave the way for an improved understanding of pollution formation. Those findings will be useful in understanding how reductions in primary emissions affect secondary pollutant formation.

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 443 data can be found at <https://s5phub.copernicus.eu/>. The IASI NH_3 data is available at
 444 <https://iasi.aeris-data.fr/catalog/>. Hourly NO_2 and O_3 concentrations are downloaded
 445 from UBA's website (<https://www.umweltbundesamt.de/en/data>). Hourly ERA5 me-
 446 teorological data are freely available at <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/>

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