

# Assessment of mean annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration based on a partial

dataset 2

3

4

1

Xavier Jurado<sup>1,2†\*</sup>, Nicolas Reiminger<sup>1,2\*</sup>, José Vazquez<sup>2</sup>, Cédric Wemmert<sup>2</sup>, Matthieu Dufresne<sup>1</sup>, Nadège Blond<sup>3</sup>, Jonathan Wertel<sup>1</sup>

6

5 7 <sup>1</sup>AIR&D, 67400, Illkirch-Graffenstaden, France 8 <sup>2</sup>ICUBE Laboratory, CNRS/University of Strasbourg, 67000, Strasbourg, France 9 <sup>3</sup>LIVE Laboratory, CNRS/University of Strasbourg, 67000, Strasbourg, France 10 \*These authors contributed equally to this work 11 †Corresponding author: Tel. +33 (0)3 69 06 49 40, Mail. xjurado@air-d.fr

12 13

14

15

Please cite this paper as: Jurado, X., Reiminger, N., Vazquez, J., Wemmert, C., Dufresne, M., Blond, N., Wertel, J., 2020. Assessment of mean annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration based on a partial dataset. Atmospheric Environment 221, 117087. DOI: 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2019.117087

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

#### **Abstract:**

NO<sub>2</sub> is a pollutant harmful to both health and the environment. The European Union and the World Health Organization have developed guidelines in terms of pollutant. The value of 40  $\mu g/m^3$  is set by both entities as the annual mean NO<sub>2</sub> concentration not to be exceeded to prevent risks for human health. To assess this given value, yearlong in situ measurements are required. However, sometimes only partial data are available, such as having only NO<sub>x</sub> (NO + NO<sub>2</sub>) information, on the one hand, and, on the other hand, brief NO<sub>2</sub> measurements performed over few months. To overcome the first hurdle, several methods exist in the literature to transform NO<sub>x</sub> data into NO<sub>2</sub> data. The method of Derwent and Middleton is the most appropriate for France with less than 8% of deviation and even less deviation when considering rural and urban sites. For all values, NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations behave as expected with higher concentrations in autumn and winter than in spring and summer. However, for NO<sub>2</sub> this trend changes around 80 µg/m³ for which the spring and summer values are higher. Therefore, to measurements to assess an upper limit on annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration over a short period of time, those measurements should be done in winter if an annual concentration of less than 80 µg/m<sup>3</sup> is expected, otherwise they should carry out in summer. To tackle the second issue, a second order polynomial approach is built on a Paris dataset covering years between 2013-2017 to determine annual mean concentrations with monthly mean concentrations and gives an overall error of 10%. The law built on Paris was then tested on several regions in France for the same



36	period and resulted in predicted values with a mean error of about 15 % compared to the
37	measured ones. In the end, the presented methodology allows covering twelve times more
38	ground with a single NO <sub>2</sub> or NO <sub>x</sub> sensor with an acceptable error.
39	
40	Keywords: Air pollution, Nitrogen oxides, Seasonal variations, Monthly variations, Annual
41	concentration assessment.
42	
43	Highlights:
44	• The Derwent and Middleton function enables converting annual NO <sub>x</sub> into NO <sub>2</sub> in
45	France.
46	• NO <sub>2</sub> and NO <sub>x</sub> exhibit strong seasonal and monthly variabilities.
47	• The behavior of NO <sub>2</sub> concentrations related to seasons depends on their levels.
48	• Functions are presented to assess annual NO <sub>2</sub> concentration using monthly ones.
49	
50	
51	
52	
53	
54	
55	
56	
57	
58	
59	
60	
61	
62	
63	
64	
65	
66	
67	



#### 1. Introduction

70 While many measures are implemented to improve air quality, atmospheric pollution still 71 exceeds the thresholds of health standards. Next to particulate matter or ozone, nitrogen dioxide 72 (NO2) has been selected as an air pollutant with the highest priority whose monitoring must be 73 routinely carried out (WHO, 2005). Nitrogen oxides are known to be a source of respiratory symptoms and diseases (Kagawa, 1985), and they are also harmful to the environment as they 74 play the role of precursor in nitric acid production, leading to acid rains (Likens et al., 1979). 75 These air pollutants are mainly due to anthropogenic sources. Indeed Thunis (2018) showed 76 77 that in several cities in Europe, NO<sub>x</sub> is mainly emitted by transport and industrial sources, with varying contributions depending on the city. For example, in dense urban areas such as Paris, 78 79 56% of NO<sub>x</sub> comes from traffic-related emissions and 18% from the tertiary and residential sectors (AIRPARIF, 2016). 80 Nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) is, with nitric oxide (NO), one of the two components forming nitrogen 81 oxides. In the European Union (EU) and more generally around the world, NO2 is the most 82 measured component. Indeed, NO<sub>2</sub> can have significant harmful effects on health, inducing 83 numerous diseases like bronchitis, pneumonias, etc. (Purvis and Ehrlich, 1963), but it can also 84 increase the risks of viral and bacterial infections (Chauhan et al., 1998). 85 86 To obtain standard values for the purposes of comparison, the European Union (EU) and the 87 World Health Organization (WHO) have issued critical values that should not be exceeded to protect the public from the health effect of gaseous NO<sub>2</sub>. For this purpose, two standard values 88 have been enforced: a hourly mean of 200 µg/m<sup>3</sup> and an annual mean of 40 µg/m<sup>3</sup> not to exceed 89 given by both the WHO (WHO, 2017) and the EU (Directive 2008/50/EC). Studies have shown 90 that the annual standard is generally more stringent than the hourly one (Chaloulakou et al., 91 2008; Jenkin, 2004). However, year-round measurements are needed to gather concentrations 92 values that can be compared directly to this standard. This requirement is not a constraint when 93 94 monitoring stations are located permanently in one area. Nonetheless, it becomes constraining 95 when the objective is to evaluate urban planning projects over a limited period: the 96 heterogeneity of urban areas requires controls related to the standard at several key locations 97 where no permanent stations have been installed and where only temporary measurements are economically viable. Moreover, these temporary measurements may only provide information 98 99 on NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations but no direct information on NO<sub>2</sub>. Thus, one question arises in such 100 situation: how can annual mean NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations be determined using only a short 101 measurement period of NO<sub>2</sub> or NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations?



The Leighton relationship provides information on the ratio between NO and NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations as a function of O<sub>3</sub>, a chemical constant rate and a photolysis rate considering the photochemical steady state (Leighton, 1961). Unfortunately, it was demonstrated that using this method with more than 10 ppb of O<sub>3</sub> leads to an increasing error by not taking into account VOC chemistry (Sanchez et al., 2016). Different methods were proposed to evaluate the photolysis rate (Wiegand and Bo, 2000), but computing an annual representative photolysis rate can still lead to a wrong evaluation of the seasonal dependencies between NO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>. Numerical computation based on complex chemical mechanisms involving more than 300 reactions with more than 100 species gives more accurate evaluations of NO<sub>2</sub> (Bright et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2012). Nevertheless, when NO<sub>2</sub> concentration measures are missing there is little chance that this information is known on other species such as VOCs. However, such information is needed in the numerical computations.

Furthermore, seasonal variability of NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations differs considerably between summer and winter because NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations depend on photolysis conditions, and NO<sub>x</sub> molecules play a role in several chemical mechanisms in the troposphere, involving ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) and volatile organic compounds (VOC) (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016). Robert-Semple et al. showed that there is a relative standard deviation of more than 50% when calculating the mean annual concentrations of both NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> (Roberts–Semple et al., 2012). Moreover, Kendrick et al. showed that there is a seasonal variability in NO<sub>2</sub> concentration even with constant hourly seasonal traffic (Kendrick et al., 2015). Thus, these results show that a few months of NO<sub>2</sub> monitoring are generally not representative of a mean annual concentration despite existing only slight seasonal variations of the main source, namely traffic-related emissions.

The aim of this study is first to evaluate whether one-parameter methods without any explicit chemical mechanism found in the literature are sufficiently accurate to determine NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations based on monitored NO<sub>x</sub> data in France. The second aim is to present a method capable of providing the mean annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration from one-month period of monitoring. In this article, the different areas of study as well as the measurement method and the approach to turn NO<sub>x</sub> into NO<sub>2</sub> used are presented in section 2. Then, the results of the study on the NO<sub>x</sub>-based NO<sub>2</sub> concentration calculation in France, and the method presented for the mean annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration calculation based on monthly measurement periods, are presented in section 3.



#### 2. Material and methods

# 2.1. Study location

This work uses NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations monitored in a large number of regions in France, including from North to South: Hauts-de-France, Grand-Est (Strasbourg region), Ile-de-France (Paris region), Pays de la Loire, Auvergne-Rhône-Alpes and Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur. These areas were chosen for the availability of data and to better cover the minimum and maximum latitudes and longitudes of France. The location of these regions is presented in Fig. 1.

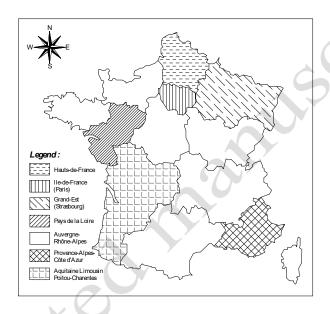


Fig. 1. Location of the different study areas used.

## 2.2. Data availability

The data used in this work were obtained via the open access database provided by the different air quality monitoring authorities known as AASQA, the French acronym for "Approved Air Quality Monitoring Associations". In particular, the data were provided by the organisations Atmo Haut-de-France (Haut-de-France), Atmo Grand-Est (Strasbourg region), AIRPARIF (Paris region), Air Pays de la Loire (Pays de la Loire), Atmo Auvergne-Rhône-Alpes (Auvergne-Rhône-Alpes), Atmo PACA (Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur) and Atmo Nouvelle-Aquitaine (Aquitaine Limousin Poitou-Charentes). The data are mainly mean annual NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations over a five-year period from 2013 to 2017, but other data such as hourly measured concentrations for the Strasbourg region in 2018 were also obtained. Additional contacts were also made with AIRPARIF to obtain more specific data for the Paris Region like hourly measured concentrations from 2013 to 2017 with their corresponding uncertainties. A



summary of the available data, corresponding to about 270 different sensors, is presented in Table 2.

#### Table 2. Summary of the available data

Region	Data availability	$NO_x$			$NO_2$			Number of stations		
Region	(years)	A	M	Н	A	M	Н	rumber of stations		
Ile-de-France (Paris)	2013 - 2017			•			•	≈ 40		
Grand-Est (Strasbourg)	2018			•			•	≈ 50		
Hauts-de-France	2013 - 2017	•			•			≈ 15		
Pays de la Loire	2013 - 2017	•			•			≈ 50		
Auvergne Rhône-Alpes	2013 - 2017	•			•	•		≈ 60		
Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur	2013 - 2017	•			•	•		≈ 25		
Aquitaine Limousin Poitou-Charentes	2013 - 2017	•			•	•		≈ 30		

## 2.3. Data range

The annual and monthly concentrations range from 10 to 340  $\mu$ g/m³ for NO<sub>x</sub> and from 5 to 95  $\mu$ g/m³ for NO<sub>2</sub>, considering the complete dataset (all years, types and locations of stations included). According to these wide ranges, different types of stations were considered in this work including rural, suburban, urban and traffic stations. The dataset for the Paris region comprises 2% rural, 13% suburban, 54% urban and 31% traffic stations. The type of station was not always directly provided in the global France dataset. Thus, the percentage of each type of station was estimated based on the range of concentrations for each type of station in Paris. The corresponding results were 29%, 22%, 31% and 18% for rural, suburban, urban and traffic stations, respectively.

# 2.4. Monitoring method

The EU imposes a maximal uncertainty of 15% on AASQA for individual measurements averaged over the period considered regarding the limit values monitored by sensors. Thus, to satisfy the requirements, all AASQA use the same monitoring method in accordance with this constraint.

The reference method used for the measurement of nitrogen dioxide and oxides of nitrogen is known as chemiluminescence. Two chemiluminescence methods exist: on the one hand, chemiluminescence based on luminol reaction, and, on the other hand, chemiluminescence based on NO/O<sub>3</sub> reaction. The second method is the one used in France. In particular AIRPARIF uses the AC32M EN model from ENVE and the 42i model from THERMO SCIENTIFIC.



The principle of the method was well-described by Navas et al. (1997) and is based on the reaction (1) between NO and O<sub>3</sub>. This reaction produces an excited nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>\*) that emits infrared radiations when returning to a stable state. The luminous radiation emitted and then measured is directly proportional to the NO concentration.

$$186 NO + O_3 \to NO_2^* + O_2 (1)$$

$$NO_2^* \rightarrow NO_2 + h\nu \tag{2}$$

- To obtain information on the NO<sub>x</sub> concentration, it is first necessary to convert all the NO<sub>2</sub> into NO before the measurement. After that, the resulting NO corresponding to the initial NO and the NO derived from NO<sub>2</sub> are measured and the NO<sub>x</sub> concentration is obtained. Combining both the measured NO and NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations provides the NO<sub>2</sub> concentration. Thus, the uncertainties on NO<sub>2</sub> measurement are higher than those on NO or NO<sub>x</sub> because the results are obtained from both NO and NO<sub>x</sub> measurements.
  - Based on the work of Navas et al., this kind of technique has very low detection limits, making it a good tool for evaluating the concentration of nitrogen compounds for atmospheric purposes (Navas et al., 1997). According to a personal communication with AIRPARIF, the maximal uncertainty on the mean annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration from 2015 to 2017 was lower than 10% with a mean uncertainty of 6%.

199

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

194

195

196

197

- 200 2.5. Empirical methods to convert concentration from NO<sub>x</sub> to NO<sub>2</sub>
- Several one-parametric empirical methods can be found in the literature to give an estimation of  $NO_2$  concentration based on  $NO_x$  concentration. Three methods were compared with the entire France dataset:
  - Derwent and Middleton function, a polynomial-logarithmic function linking hourly averaged NO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations for NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations in the range of 9.0 to 1145.1 ppb (Derwent and Middleton, 1996).
  - Romberg et al. function, a rational function linking annual averaged  $NO_x$  and  $NO_2$  (Romberg et al., 1996).
  - Bächlin et al., another rational function linking annual averaged NO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> (Bächlin et al., 2008).



- According to the above authors, the corresponding equations are (3), (4) and (5) respectively, with the hourly averaged  $NO_x$  and  $NO_2$  noted  $[NOx]_h$  and  $[NO2]_h$  and annual averaged  $NO_x$  and  $NO_2$  for the two other functions noted  $[NOx]_a$  and  $[NO2]_a$ . All concentrations presented
- 214 below are in  $\mu g/m^3$  and  $A = \log_{10}([NO_x]_h/1.91)$ .

$$[NO_2]_h = \left(2.166 - \frac{[NO_x]_h}{1.91} (1.236 - 3.348A + 1.933A^2 - 0.326A^3)\right) \times 1.91$$
 (3)

$$[NO_2] = \frac{103 \cdot [NO_x]_a}{[NO_x]_a + 130} + 0.005 \times [NO_x]_a \tag{4}$$

$$[NO_2] = \frac{29.[NO_x]_a}{[NO_x]_a + 35} + 0.217 \times [NO_x]_a$$
 (5)

- 218 For the purpose of this work, mean annual concentrations were used instead of hourly averaged
- 219 concentrations for the Derwent and Middleton function.
- 220 **3. Results**

229

230

- 3.1. Evaluation of annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration based on NO<sub>x</sub> data
- *3.1.1. Best fitting function in France*
- Fig. 2. shows the evolution of mean annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration as a function of the mean annual
- NO<sub>x</sub> concentration considering the total dataset (measurements from 2013 to 2017 for the six
- 225 regions considered and all types of station included). The three empirical methods cited
- previously are also plotted.

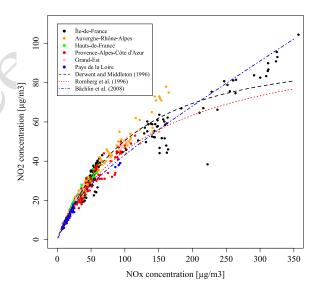


Fig. 2. Evolution of NO<sub>2</sub> concentration as a function of NO<sub>3</sub> concentration and comparison with empirical functions

To obtain a better comparison between the three functions, predicted  $NO_2$  concentrations calculated with measured  $NO_x$  concentrations were plotted against measured  $NO_2$ 



233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248249

250

251

252

253

254

255

concentrations. The corresponding results are presented in Fig. 3. with the first bisector corresponding to ideal results. As shown in Fig. 3., the function from Bächlin et al. is the most appropriate for high NO<sub>2</sub>, thus high NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations. However, based on Fig. 3. (A) and Fig. 3. (B) the results for lower NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (less than 50 µg/m<sup>3</sup>) are better when using the function proposed by Derwent and Middleton (1996), and Romberg et al. (1996). Considering the difference between the predicted and measured concentrations, the function of Derwent and Middleton is the most appropriate with a deviation of less than 8%, whereas that of Romberg et al. (1996) leads to a deviation of 9.5%. Moreover, in this work, the function of Romberg et al. (1996) tends to slightly underpredict NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. When choosing between two functions giving about the same deviation, the precautionary approach is to choose the function that overestimates NO<sub>2</sub> rather than the one which underestimates it. Hence, in France, Derwent and Middleton's function has been chosen and is advised by the authors to assess the NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations based on NO<sub>x</sub> data. This is especially the case for the monitoring both in urban and rural sites. It should also be noted that these comparisons included several years of measurements and locations (various latitudes and longitudes), thus in principle giving independence to these parameters. However, for high NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (higher than 70  $\mu g/m^3$ ) the method fits less and less well.

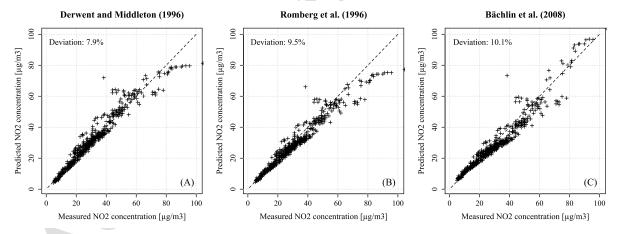


Fig. 3. Comparison between predicted and measured NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations for (A) the Derwent and Middleton function, (B) the Romberg et al. function, and (C) the Bächlin et al. function.

#### 3.1.2. Application to Paris region

The information obtained in the Paris region was more detailed and included uncertainties as well as the type of station. Fig. 4. presents the mean annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration for the Paris region dataset as a function of NO<sub>x</sub> concentration with a distinction between the different types of station. Derwent and Middleton's function is also plotted.



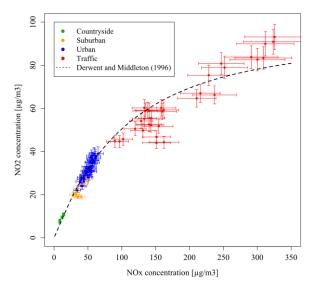


Fig. 4. Evolution of NO<sub>2</sub> concentration as a function of NO<sub>x</sub> concentration for the Paris region dataset and comparison with Derwent and Middleton's function.

These results show that in accordance with previous observations, the best range of application for Derwent and Middleton's function is for  $NO_x$  concentrations lower than  $80 \,\mu g/m^3$ . As can be seen in Fig 4. this limit corresponds to the difference between urban and traffic stations for Parisian region. Thus, Derwent and Middleton's method applies best for rural, suburban and urban stations whereas the results are less accurate for traffic. Indeed, there are 92% of the data that are within the uncertainties range both in the countryside and in urban areas, while for traffic data it falls to 71%. The mean error on predicted  $NO_2$  concentrations is 9% with a 95<sup>th</sup> percentile of 27%.

# 3.2. Seasonal variability of NO<sub>2</sub> concentration

The seasonal variability of NO<sub>2</sub> was studied using the Paris region dataset. Hourly NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were averaged for each station and each year of data, giving five mean concentrations per station and per year (one annual concentration and four seasonal concentrations). Fig. 5. (A) shows the differences between seasonal mean NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations for each couple of year and station. Fig. 5. (B) shows the evolution of seasonal NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations as a function of the annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration for the same year of measurement.



276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296297

298

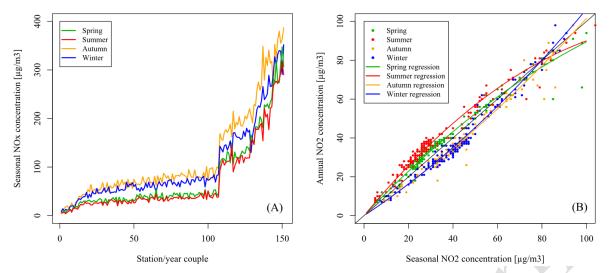


Fig. 5. Comparison between seasonal NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations for a given station and year of measurement in the Paris region (A) and the evolution of the annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration as a function of seasonal NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (B).

According to Fig. 5. (A), NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations are strongly dependent on the season. Indeed, although summer and spring NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations are similar, the concentrations are higher in winter and autumn by up to a factor of 2. These differences can be explained by several disparities between these seasons: lower boundary layer height, lower temperatures and new sources of emission due to residential heating, increased emissions by cold-started vehicles, etc. Since the results show that NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations are higher in winter and autumn, for a given NO<sub>x</sub> concentration the seasonal NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations should also be higher in autumn and winter than in summer and spring. However, the results for the Paris region show a different trend. The result in Fig. 5. (B) indicates a change of behavior when the annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration increases, with the summer and spring NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations becoming higher than in autumn and winter. These results can be associated with those of other authors. Indeed, Kendrick et al. showed that NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are higher in winter and autumn than in spring and summer, with a mean annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration lower than 80 µg/m<sup>3</sup> and for three different types of station (Kendrick et al., 2015). On the contrary, Mavroidis and Ilia showed that for a traffic station (i.e. giving high NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations), NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are generally higher during the summer and spring months than in autumn and winter, with in their case a mean annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration higher than 80 µg/m<sup>3</sup> (Mavroidis and Ilia, 2012). Thus, the evolution of seasonal NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations as a function of annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration is not well represented by a linear method unable to catch these varying trends and is much better fitted by a quadratic one. With this interpolation, the spring and summer results are described by a concave quadratic function whereas the autumn and winter ones are described by a convex quadratic function. In this case, these concavities and convexities result in a NO<sub>2</sub> concentration of about 80 µg/m<sup>3</sup>, where the



seasonal  $NO_2$  concentrations are equal to the annual  $NO_2$  concentration. This concentration of  $80~\mu g/m^3$  corresponds to the value for which, in the case of a measurement station giving an annual average  $NO_2$  concentration lower than this value, the concentrations for winter and autumn are higher than the spring and summer concentrations. Therefore, to obtain maximized measurements in order to assess an upper limit on annual  $NO_2$  concentration over a short period of time, the measurements should be carried out in winter, in case where an annual concentration of less than  $80~\mu g/m3$  is expected, otherwise measurements should be carried out in summer.

These observations are consistent with those of other research papers, despite being counter intuitive on the first point of view. Indeed, a previous observation was that NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations are higher during autumn and winter, in theory giving higher NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Moreover, in summer and spring, the zenithal angles are generally lower, leading to increased photochemistry with higher photolysis, including NO<sub>2</sub> photolysis, and the production of radicals. As shown in Fig. 6. (A), O<sub>3</sub> concentrations are globally much lower in autumn than in winter, and in winter than in spring and summer. These concentrations are about the same between spring and summer. Fig. 6. (B) gives supplementary information on how much ozone is available to react with NO<sub>2</sub>, by giving the evolution of the ratio of the seasonal O<sub>3</sub> concentration over the seasonal NO<sub>2</sub> concentration as a function of the seasonal NO<sub>2</sub> concentration.

The first observation is that more O<sub>3</sub> molecules are available in spring and summer than in winter and autumn for any NO<sub>2</sub> concentration. This statement is always true even when the seasonal NO<sub>2</sub> concentration increases, leading to a systemic reduction of available O<sub>3</sub>. For example, for a seasonal NO<sub>2</sub> concentration of 15 µg/m3, the ratio of seasonal O<sub>3</sub> concentration over seasonal NO<sub>2</sub> concentration is around 3 for autumn, 4 for winter and almost 5 for spring and summer. Increasing the seasonal NO<sub>2</sub> concentration to 30 µg/m<sup>3</sup> gives ratios of 1 and 1.5 for autumn and winter respectively and almost 2 for both spring and summer. The explanation of why the seasonal NO<sub>2</sub> concentration is higher in spring and summer than in winter and autumn for high NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations can be obtained from these two observations. For low NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, O<sub>3</sub> is readily available and the reaction is not limited by the O<sub>3</sub> concentration but by several other factors that lead to the commonly accepted result: NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are higher in winter and autumn than in spring and summer. However, when the NO<sub>2</sub> concentration increases, O<sub>3</sub> becomes less and less available until reaching a state in which it becomes the limiting reagent of the production reaction of NO<sub>2</sub> from NO<sub>x</sub>. This state is reached earlier in winter and autumn than in spring and summer, leading to a higher NO<sub>2</sub> concentration in summer and spring than in autumn and winter.



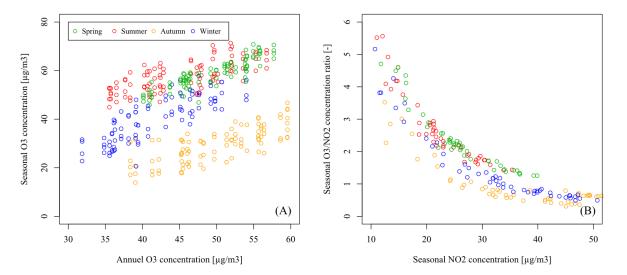


Fig. 6. Evolution of the seasonal O<sub>3</sub> concentration as a function of the annual O<sub>3</sub> concentration (A) in the Paris region and the evolution of the ratio between seasonal O<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations as a function seasonal NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (B).

## 3.3. Assessment of annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration

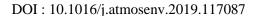
### 3.3.1. Assessment of annual $NO_2$ concentration from monthly $NO_2$ concentrations

As mentioned above with regards to seasonal variability, seasonal concentrations cannot be used directly as an annual concentration. However, they seem to fit a trend and it may be possible to assess the annual mean concentration from a short period of measurement.

The NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations over the Paris region were first averaged for each month and then compared with annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. The results, presented with black circles in Fig. 7, show that, like seasonal NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, monthly averaged NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations as a function of annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations seem to be better fitted by a quadric function than by a linear function. These fittings are also presented with black lines in Fig. 7. as well as the polynomial interpolation coefficients, and the mean error between measured data and interpolation, also in black. The polynomial equation corresponds to (6) with  $[NO_2]_a$  and  $[NO_2]_m$  being the annual mean NO<sub>2</sub> concentration and the monthly averaged NO<sub>2</sub> concentration respectively in  $\mu g/m^3$ , and a and b the different polynomial coefficients for each month.

$$[NO_2]_a = a. [NO_2]_m^2 + b. [NO_2]_m$$
 (6)

The polynomial methods obtained have different concavities and convexities, consistent with those obtained for seasonal variability. The maximum convexity is obtained around December and January, corresponding to the transition from autumn to winter. The maximum concavity





is obtained around June and July, corresponding to the transition from spring to summer. Lastly, minimal concavity and convexity is obtained around March and September, corresponding to the transition from winter to spring and from summer to autumn, respectively. For these months, monthly averaged NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are almost equal to annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. According to these polynomial methods, the maximal mean error is around 15% and corresponds to December, and the minimal mean error is around 7% and corresponds to March. The mean error averaged over all months is below 10%.

These polynomial methods can be used to assess the annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration based on only one month of measurements. However, the problem is that measurements from the first day to the last day of a month are required. If one month of data is acquired that overlaps two distinct months, say from  $15^{th}$  January to  $15^{th}$  February, the interpolation is no longer appropriate. An additional study was carried out to change from discrete to continuous interpolation. To achieve this, the resulting polynomial coefficients a and b were plotted as a function of the month with 1 corresponding to January and 12 to December. Fig. 8. shows the corresponding results.



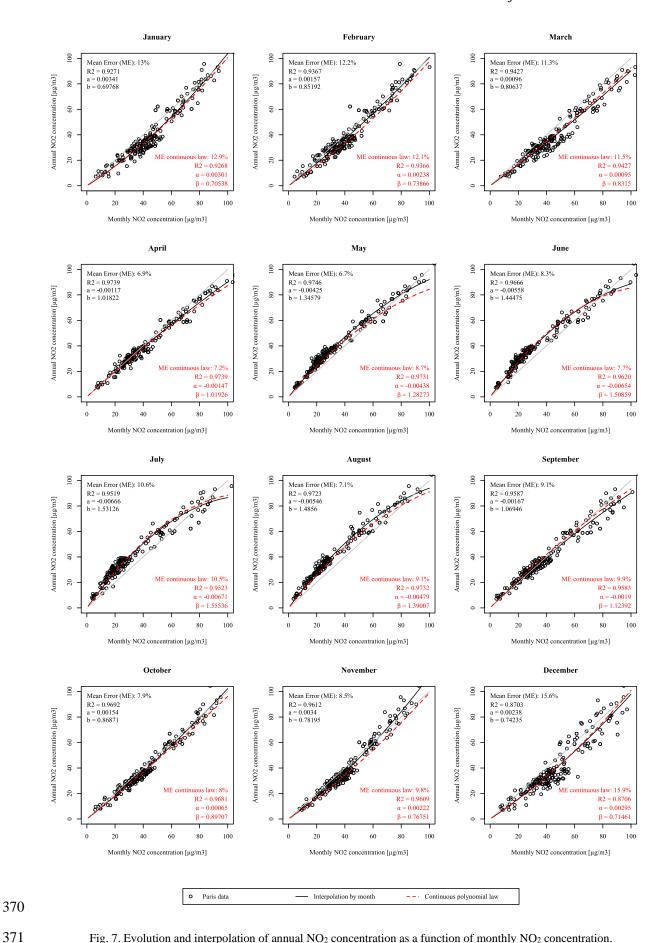


Fig. 7. Evolution and interpolation of annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration as a function of monthly NO<sub>2</sub> concentration.



374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

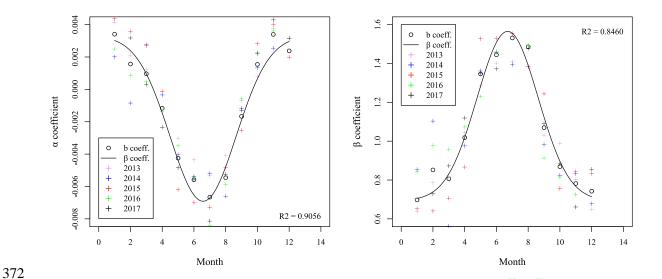


Fig. 8. Interpolation of a and b coefficients (for each year considered and the subsequent mean) and resulting continuous α and β coefficients.

As shown in Fig. 8., both coefficients a and b seem to follow a cyclic trend. However, the evolution of the coefficients is inversed with a minimal value of a around June, corresponding to a maximal value of b. On the contrary, the maximal value of a is reached around January, corresponding to a minimal value of b. Considering the trends of a and b observed, a Gaussian function was used to obtain continuous values bringing two new coefficients,  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , respectively, corresponding to the coefficients obtained from the continuous method. The corresponding equations for  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are (7) and (8), respectively, with m being the month corresponding to the available data (e.g. m = 1 for the data from the first to the last day of January, m = 3.5 for the data from the middle of March to the middle of April, etc.).

384 
$$\alpha = 0.0033 - 0.0102 \cdot \exp\left[\frac{-(m - 6.5749)^2}{8.6962}\right]$$
(7)
$$\beta = 0.6945 + 0.8708 \cdot \exp\left[\frac{-(m - 6.7076)^2}{7.4328}\right]$$
(8)

$$\beta = 0.6945 + 0.8708 \cdot \exp\left[\frac{-(m - 6.7076)^2}{7.4328}\right]$$
 (8)

The new curves obtained for each month with (4), and the calculated  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  corresponding to a and b respectively, are presented in red dashed lines in Fig. 7, in addition to the corresponding values of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , R2 and the mean error (ME) compared to the Paris data. When comparing these new curves with the previous ones obtained with a and b, they are globally the same except for May and November, for which the curves start to deviate from each other for high monthly NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Nonetheless, the mean error for these two months is still acceptable, with in both cases a mean error of less than 10%. The mean errors for each month



394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

are approximatively equal between both cases and give an overall error of 10% and a maximal error of 16% in December.

In view to assessing the reliability of the equations, the polynomial methods were applied to several regions of France, including Aquitaine Limousin Poitou-Charentes, Auvergne-Rhône-Alpes and Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur from 2013 to 2017. For each month of these years, the mean annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were calculated based on each month of data. The discrete polynomial methods were used here because the information was available for each month. The calculated annual concentrations were then compared to the measured concentrations and a mean error was obtained. The mean errors are summarized in Table 2. This table also gives information on the error obtained when the monthly NO<sub>2</sub> concentration is taken directly as an annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration (called direct approach), and on the improvements between this direct approach and the approach using the suggested methods. For the three regions considered, the mean error using the discrete method is higher than for the Paris region, ranging from 12% to 20%. The errors obtained when using the direct approach range from 18% to 32%. The improvement between the two approaches depends on the regions considered and ranges from 26% to 46% with an overall improvement of 38%. According to these results, the method presented in this paper is reliable and can be used outside the Paris region in France. Overall, this simple applicable polynomial method improves the results in comparison to a direct approach by up to a factor two.

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420



Table 2. Global results of the polynomial discrete method over regions in southern France and improvements compared to the direct utilization of monthly concentrations as annual concentrations.

Region	Year	Number of stations with a full year of data	Annual mean direct error (%)	Annual mean discrete method error (%)	Improvement between direct and discrete method error (%)	Mean annual direct error (%)	Mean annual discrete method error (%)	Mean improvement (%)
Aquitaine	2013	31	29	17	41			
Limousin	2014	29	27	15	46			
Poitou-	2015	29	32	17	46	30	17	43
Charentes	2016	35	28	16	44			
Charentes	2017	29	32	19	42		• /	
	2013	50	29	18	39			
Auvergne-	2014	65	29	17	41			<b>Y</b>
Rhône-	2015	58	30	18	39	30	18	40
Alpes	2016	68	30	20	35			
	2017	57	30	19	38	,6		
	2013	21	19	14	27			
Provence-	2014	22	19	12	38			
Alpes-Côte	2015	29	19	13	29	19	13	31
d'Azur	2016	27	20	14	26			
	2017	27	18	12	31			

3.3.2. Assessment of annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration from monthly NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations.

The final study was performed to give an estimation of the total error when calculating annual  $NO_2$  concentration using monthly measured  $NO_x$  data. To manage this, data for the Paris region for the year 2017 were used. Firstly, the monthly  $NO_2$  concentrations were calculated based on monthly  $NO_x$  concentrations measurements using the Derwent and Middleton function (3). Then, annual  $NO_2$  concentrations were calculated using (6), (7) and (8). The resulting annual  $NO_2$  concentrations were plotted against measured annual  $NO_2$  concentrations and are presented in Fig. 9. (B). The previous results for Paris from 2013 to 2017 and for which the calculated annual  $NO_2$  concentrations are based on monitored monthly  $NO_2$  concentrations are also provided in Fig. 9. (A). According to Fig. 9. (A), a global error of 10% for Paris region is obtained and it can also be seen that the maximal errors occur for the highest  $NO_2$  concentrations. The same observation can be made when comparing this result with those for Paris assessed with the monthly  $NO_x$  concentrations for 2017. The global error in this case increases but does not exceed 15%.



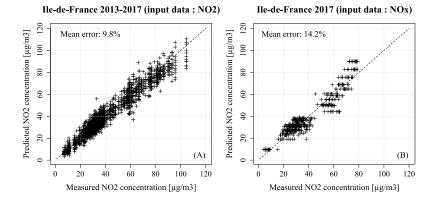


Fig. 9. Comparison between calculated and measured annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations for the Paris region from 2013 to 2017 (A) and for the Paris region based on monthly 2017 NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations (B).

#### 4. Discussion

The seasonal variability of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations was shown and leads to higher or lower seasonal NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations compared to annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. An explanation for these observations was proposed and seems to be linked to the seasonal variability of ozone concentrations as well as the seasonal variability of available ozone to react with NO<sub>2</sub>. However, this link must be quantified to better explain the phenomenon and evaluate if these observations can be fully generalized. The first hypothesis is that this phenomenon may only be generalizable to countries whose seasonal variability in ozone concentrations are like those observed in France. Thus, in countries having other types of seasons like Indonesia, with only a dry and a monsoon season or India, with winter, summer, monsoon and post-monsoon seasons, the results would be very different, and the equations presented in this paper may not be relevant. However, it may be possible to apply the methodology and adapt the coefficients of the equations to obtain good results in these countries. Nevertheless, this would require long periods of measurements.

It should also be noted that for some specific periods, monthly NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are representative of annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Indeed, averaging monthly concentrations measured in March, April, September or October could give good estimations of the mean annual concentrations directly. For these months, it might not be necessary to use the previous methodology to assess the annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration.

Lastly, the different equations obtained that could be used to asses annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, were built for and applied to regions having around the same latitudes, from 43° to 50°. For a very different latitude, the coefficients of the equations might not be optimized, and greater errors could occur.



#### 5. Conclusion

The assessment of annual  $NO_2$  concentrations with partial data was studied from two main approaches. The first one was to determine the annual mean  $NO_2$  concentration with only annual mean  $NO_x$  concentration information. The second was to determine the annual mean  $NO_2$  concentration with only a one-month period measurement. The main conclusions are as follows:

- (a) Three functions giving annual  $NO_2$  concentrations based on  $NO_x$  data were compared. These functions correspond to the methods of Derwent and Middleton, Romberg et al., and Bächlin et al. The results show that the method proposed by Derwent and Middleton is the better suited to assess the annual  $NO_2$  concentration based on  $NO_x$  concentrations for several regions of France and for several years both for rural and urban areas in particular. However, this method has some limitations for high  $NO_x$  concentrations and gives less accurate results for traffic stations with annual  $NO_x$  concentrations higher than  $70 \, \mu g/m^3$ . The global error of this method for the regions of France considered is around 8%.
- (b)  $NO_2$  concentrations are seasonally variable and depend on the concentrations of  $NO_x$  and their ratio with VOC concentrations, and on the photochemistry conditions. Hence, making it impossible to give an annual concentration directly from a seasonal concentration: for annual  $NO_2$  concentrations lower than  $80~\mu g/m^3$ , summer and spring  $NO_2$  concentrations are lower than autumn and winter concentrations; for higher annual  $NO_2$  concentrations, it is the summer and the spring  $NO_2$  concentrations that become higher than the autumn and winter concentrations. Thus, to evaluate an upper limit on annual  $NO_2$  concentration over a short period of time, measurements should be done in winter if an annual concentration of less than  $80~\mu g/m3$  is expected, otherwise they should be carried out in summer
- (c) Monthly NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations follow the same variability trends as the seasonal concentrations which were quantified for each month. A discrete function was proposed to assess annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations based on monthly NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, yielding a global error of 10% for the Paris region. The corresponding function was made continuous using two Gaussian methods to facilitate its use, leading also to a global error of 10% for the Paris region. The discrete methods applied to the southern regions of France yielded an overall error of 15% and provided an improvement ranging from 26% to 46% compared to the utilization of the direct approach.



498	(d) Using both the Derwent and Middleton method and the quadratic equations method
499	both presented in this work it is possible to assess annual NO <sub>2</sub> concentrations from
500	monthly NO <sub>x</sub> concentrations measurements. Those methods led to an overall error of
501	15% for the Paris region for the year 2017.
502	All the results and observations discussed in this paper concern NO <sub>x</sub> and NO <sub>2</sub> concentrations
503	and it was shown that interesting results can be obtained to reduce measurement periods and
504	estimate NO <sub>2</sub> concentrations from NO <sub>x</sub> data without introducing any chemical considerations.
505	This methodology could be extended to other pollutants like particulate matter, which even if
506	not highly chemically active, are subject to specific phenomena like deposition, resuspensions,
507	etc.
508	
509	Acknowledgments
510	The authors would like to thank all the AASQA for the open access data they provided, and
511	which were used to perform the present work. Special thanks are addressed to AIRPARIF for
512	their support and availability. They also thank the ANRT (Association nationale de la recherche
513	et de la technologie) for their support.
514	References
515	AIRPARIF, 2016. Inventaire régional des émissions en Île-de-France - Année de référence 2012 -
516	éléments synthétiques - Édition mai 2016 32.
517	Bächlin, W., Bösinger, R., Brandt, A., Schultz, T., 2008. Überprüfung des NO-NO2-
518	Umwandlungsmodells für die Anwendung bei Immissionsprognosen für bodennahe
519	Stickoxidfreisetzung. Reinhaltung der Luft 66, 154–157.
520	Bright, V.B., Bloss, W.J., Cai, X., 2013. Urban street canyons: Coupling dynamics, chemistry and
521	within-canyon chemical processing of emissions. Atmospheric Environment 68, 127-142.
522	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2012.10.056
523	Chaloulakou, A., Mavroidis, I., Gavriil, I., 2008. Compliance with the annual NO2 air quality standard
524	in Athens. Required NOx levels and expected health implications. Atmospheric Environment
525	42, 454–465. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2007.09.067
526	Chauhan, A.J., Krishna, M.T., Frew, A.J., Holgate, S.T., 1998. Exposure to nitrogen dioxide (NO2) and
527	respiratory disease risk. Rev Environ Health 13, 73–90.



528	Derwent, R.G., Middleton, D.R., 1996. An empirical function for the ratio [NO2]:[NOx]. Clean Air 26, 57–60.
530	Jenkin, M.E., 2004. Analysis of sources and partitioning of oxidant in the UK—Part 1: the NOX-
531	dependence of annual mean concentrations of nitrogen dioxide and ozone. Atmospheric
532	Environment 38, 5117–5129. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2004.05.056
533	Kagawa, J., 1985. Evaluation of biological significance of nitrogen oxides exposure. Tokai J. Exp. Clin.
534	Med. 10, 348–353.
535	Kendrick, C.M., Koonce, P., George, L.A., 2015. Diurnal and seasonal variations of NO, NO 2 and PM
536	2.5 mass as a function of traffic volumes alongside an urban arterial. Atmospheric Environment
537	122, 133–141. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2015.09.019
538	Kim, M.J., Park, R.J., Kim, JJ., 2012. Urban air quality modeling with full O3–NOx–VOC chemistry:
539	Implications for O3 and PM air quality in a street canyon. Atmospheric Environment 47, 330-
540	340. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2011.10.059
541	Leighton, P.A., 1961. Photochemistry of air pollution, Physical chemistry. New-York Acad.
542	Likens, G.E., Wright, R.F., Galloway, J.N., Butler, T.J., 1979. Acid Rain. Scientific American 241, 43-
543	51.
544	Mavroidis, I., Ilia, M., 2012. Trends of NOx, NO2 and O3 concentrations at three different types of air
545	quality monitoring stations in Athens, Greece. Atmospheric Environment 63, 135-147.
546	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2012.09.030
547	Navas, M.J., Jiménez, A.M., Galán, G., 1997. Air analysis: determination of nitrogen compounds by
548	chemiluminescence. Atmospheric Environment 31, 3603-3608. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1352-
549	2310(97)00153-2
550	Purvis, M.R., Ehrlich, R., 1963. Effect of Atmospheric Pollutants on Susceptibility to Respiratory
551	Infection: II. Effect of Nitrogen Dioxide. The Journal of Infectious Diseases 113, 72–76.
552	Roberts-Semple, D., Song, F., Gao, Y., 2012. Seasonal characteristics of ambient nitrogen oxides and
553	ground-level ozone in metropolitan northeastern New Jersey. Atmospheric Pollution Research
554	3, 247–257. https://doi.org/10.5094/APR.2012.027
555	Romberg, E., Bösinger, R., Lohmeyer, A., Ruhnke, R., 1996. NO-NO2-Umwandlung für die
556	Anwendung bei Immissionsprognosen für Kfz-Abgase. Reinhaltung der Luft 56, 215–218.



557	Sanchez, B., Santiago, JL., Martilli, A., Palacios, M., Kirchner, F., 2016. CFD modeling of reactive					
558	pollutant dispersion in simplified urban configurations with different chemical mechanisms					
559	Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics 16, 12143-12157. https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-16-12143					
560	2016					
561	Seinfeld, J.H., Pandis, S.N., 2016. Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics: From Air Pollution to Climate					
562	Change, 3rd Edition, Wiley-Blackwell. ed.					
563	Thunis, P., 2018. On the validity of the incremental approach to estimate the impact of cities on air					
564	quality. Atmospheric Environment 173, 210-222					
565	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2017.11.012					
566	WHO, 2017. Evolution of WHO air quality guidelines past, present and future, Copenhagen: WHO					
567	Regional Office for Europe.					
568	WHO, 2005. WHO Air quality guidelines for particulate matter, ozone, nitrogen dioxide and sulfur					
569	dioxide. Global update 2005. WHO.					
570	Wiegand, A.N., Bo, N.D., 2000. Review of empirical methods for the calculation of the diurnal NO2					
571	photolysis rate coefficient. Atmospheric Environment 10. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1352					
572	2310(99)00294-0					
573						