

1 **Traffic-Related Air Pollution Reduction at UK Schools During the Covid-19 Lockdown**

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6 **Abstract**

7 Elevated urban Nitrogen Dioxide (NO₂) is a consequence of road traffic and other fossil-fuel
8 combustion sources, and the road transport sector provides a significant contribution to UK
9 NO₂ emissions. The inhalation of traffic-related air pollution, including NO₂, can cause a
10 range of problems to human health. Due to their developing organs, children are particularly
11 susceptible to the negative effects of air pollution inhalation. Accordingly, schools and
12 associated travel behaviours present an important area of study for the reduction of child
13 exposure to these harmful pollutants.

14 COVID-19 reached the UK in late January, 2020. On the 23rd of March that year, the UK
15 government announced a nationwide stay-at-home order, or lockdown, banning all non-
16 essential travel and contact with people outside of their own homes. The lockdown was
17 accompanied by the closure of schools, public facilities, amenities, businesses and places of
18 worship.

19 The current study aims to assess the significance of nationwide NO₂ reductions at schools in
20 England as a consequence of the lockdown in order to highlight the benefits of associated
21 behavioural changes within the context of schools in England and potential child exposure.
22 NO₂ data were collected from all AURN (Automatic Urban and Rural Network) monitoring
23 sites within 500 metres of nurseries, primary schools, secondary schools and colleges in

24 England. A significant reduction of mean NO₂ concentrations was observed in the first month
25 of the UK lockdown at background (-35.13%) and traffic (-40.82%) sites.

26 Whilst lockdown restrictions are undoubtedly unsustainable, the study results demonstrate the
27 possible reductions of NO₂ at schools in England and potential reductions of child exposure
28 that are achievable when public behaviours shift towards active travel, work from home
29 policies and generally lower use of polluting vehicles.

30 **Keywords:** COVID-19; Lockdown; NO₂; Nitrogen Dioxide; Schools; England

31 **1.0 Introduction**

32 Elevated urban Nitrogen Oxides (NO_x) are a consequence of road traffic and other fossil-fuel
33 combustion sources. The road transport sector accounts for a significant proportion of UK
34 NO_x emissions, contributing 31% (NAEI, 2020). The inhalation of traffic-related air
35 pollution, including Nitrogen Dioxide (NO₂), a component of NO_x, can cause a range of
36 problems to human health. Short-term exposure to these concentrations can lead to the
37 aggravation of existing respiratory problems (Esposito et al., 2014; Goldizen et al., 2016;
38 Searing & Rabinovitch, 2011), and increased cases of hospitalisation (Kampa & Castanas,
39 2008). Long-term exposure has been linked to further issues, including greater susceptibility
40 to infections of the respiratory system (Ryan et al., 2013). Children have been identified as a
41 vulnerable group due to their developing organs, making them particularly susceptible to the
42 negative effects of NO₂ (Guarnieri & Balmes, 2014; WHO, 2018). Accordingly, schools and
43 associated travel present an important area of study for the reduction of child exposure to
44 harmful traffic-related pollutants.

45 COVID-19 reached the UK in late January 2020. On the 23rd of March the same year, the UK
46 government announced a nationwide stay-at-home order, or lockdown, which banned all non-

47 essential travel and contact with people outside of their own homes (Iacobucci, 2020). This
48 was accompanied by the closure of schools, public facilities, amenities, businesses and places
49 of worship. Whilst forecasts predicted the negative financial consequences of a prolonged
50 lockdown, the considerable effects of population confinement and travel restrictions on air
51 pollution reduction were promptly highlighted (Berman & Keita, 2020; Dutheil et al., 2020).

52 The current study aims to assess and highlight the benefits of these behavioural changes
53 within the context of schools in England, to demonstrate the child exposure reductions that
54 are possible when public behaviours shift towards active travel, work from home policies and
55 generally lower use of polluting vehicles. The study does not seek to estimate actual
56 reductions in child exposure for the study periods, due to children's absence from schools
57 during the lockdown period.

58 It is not the intention of the current research to attribute pollutant reductions to specific
59 behavioural changes as a consequence of lockdown measures, nor does it seek to quantify the
60 influence of other factors, such as pollutant transportation. This study acknowledges that a
61 deeper analysis is required to accurately ascertain this information. However, the effects of
62 the lockdown measures on air pollution provide a unique opportunity to assess the reductions
63 that are possible due to the associated behavioural change, and to determine further policies
64 for the reduction of child exposure to these harmful pollutants.

65 **1.1 Research Question**

66 The study aim can be summarised in the following statement:

- 67 • To assess the significance of nationwide NO₂ reductions at schools in England as a
68 consequence of the lockdown in order to highlight the benefits of associated

69 behavioural changes within the context of schools in England and potential child
70 exposure.

71 Accordingly, the aforementioned study approach can be summarised in the following
72 research question:

- 73 • To what extent did traffic-related air pollution reduce around schools in England
74 during the first month of the UK lockdown in 2020?

75 **2.0 Methods**

76 Air quality data were collected from background and traffic monitoring sites within 500
77 metres of schools in England. The data was analysed using R (Version 3.6.3) in R Studio
78 (Version 1.3.1093) to determine the significance of difference between the lockdown period
79 and the same time period for the five previous years, and to adjust the data for meteorological
80 influence.

81 **2.1 Site Selection**

82 Using ArcGIS Pro (Ver 2.4.0, Esri Inc.), school locations in England were plotted with
83 Automatic Urban and Rural Network (AURN) air quality monitoring sites. AURN monitors
84 are sited according to specific requirements (Directive 2008/50/EC) and are defined in terms
85 of background sites that are representative of general urban population exposure, and traffic
86 sites located within 10 metres from the kerbside and at least 25 metres from major junctions.
87 Background sites are located so that recorded pollution levels are not significantly influenced
88 by any single source and are representative of several square kilometres. Traffic sites are
89 located so that recorded pollution levels are predominantly determined by nearby traffic
90 emissions, and are representative of air quality for a street segment greater than 100 metres

91 (Defra, 2020a). All AURN site information, including historical data, is made freely available
92 by Defra (Defra, 2020b).

93 A Geographical Information System (GIS) was used to identify all AURN sites in England
94 within 500 metres of an educational establishment for use as representative of pollution levels
95 and exposure. The locations of all AURN sites are made available by Defra and are
96 searchable by location (Defra, 2020c). The 500-metre distance is supported by studies that
97 have suggested exposure to NO₂ within 500 metres of the source is potentially hazardous to
98 human health (Zhou & Levy, 2007). Educational establishments included nurseries, primary
99 schools, secondary schools and colleges. The list was classified by AURN site type and all
100 valid urban background and traffic sites were selected for further analysis and comparison.
101 Using the Openair package in R Studio, data for all selected AURN sites were collected for
102 the years 2015 to 2020. The data included the site names, NO₂ concentration readings for the
103 5-year period, and modelled temperature, wind speed and wind direction (Defra, 2020d).

104 **2.2 Data Preparation**

105 The first month of the lockdown period was considered appropriate for the scope of the
106 investigation. This time period is representative of the time that lockdown measures were
107 more closely followed by the general public (Sibley et al., 2020). Longer time periods would
108 incur the effects of too many variables, including ‘crisis fatigue’ (Aras & Yorulmazlar, 2020),
109 and a general easing of attitudes and compliance with the measures (Jackson et al., 2020), due
110 to the public becoming accustomed to the impositions and more willing to contravene the
111 restrictions. To prepare the datasets for analysis the sites were categorised into background
112 and traffic groups, and time periods were selected within each category. Time periods were
113 specified as ‘Historical’ (23rd of March to 23rd of April, each year from 2015 to 2019, as a
114 combined average) and ‘Lockdown’ (23rd of March to 23rd of April, 2020). Weekend data

115 were removed and weekday data retained to better represent the days children attend school.
116 Datasets were also created for each site category for weekdays between January and August,
117 2020, for time series analysis.

118 **2.3 Analysis**

119 Descriptive statistics were calculated for the data and the normality of the data was checked
120 by visual inspection. To confirm the data distribution, the Anderson Darling test was
121 conducted. The data did not follow a normal distribution so a Mann-Whitney U test was used
122 to determine the significance of difference in background and traffic NO₂ concentrations
123 between the Lockdown and Historical periods. Time variation data was plotted for pollutant
124 concentrations at background and traffic sites before and after the lockdown measures (from
125 January to August, 2020) to assess the pollutant reduction as a consequence of the
126 restrictions.

127 **2.4 Adjustment for Meteorological Influence**

128 A persistent issue when analysing air pollution levels is the role of the weather, which can
129 affect changes in concentrations. The general weather of 2020 was relatively mild when
130 compared to the average temperature, and the start of the year was particularly windy. These
131 weather events may potentially impact the recorded reduction of concentrations as a
132 consequence of lockdown measures (Grange et al., 2020). Due to the central role played by
133 meteorology in affecting atmospheric pollutant concentrations, the consideration of air
134 pollutant trends can be problematic. Because of the difficulties in determining whether
135 concentration changes are due to emissions or meteorology, it is imperative to ensure an
136 adequate understanding of the role of weather in the recorded pollution levels and observed
137 reduction (Carslaw, 2020; Grange et al., 2020). All functions used in the procedure for
138 metrological adjustments are part of the Openair package for R. A segment of data (January

139 to August, 2020) was selected for background and traffic sites to perform initial model
140 viability testing with the commonly-used covariates of wind speed, wind direction, air
141 temperature, hour, weekday, week and NO₂. The testMod function was then used to build and
142 test models to derive the most appropriate. Variables including ‘hour’ ‘month’ and ‘weekday’
143 were used as proxies for the determination of variation (Carslaw, 2020).

144 Once it was established that a suitable model could be developed, the buildMod function was
145 applied to the background and traffic data. Partial dependencies were plotted using the
146 resultant datasets and the plotALLPD function. The interaction between wind speed and air
147 temperature was then considered using the plot2Way function on the modelled data.

148 Meteorological averaging utilises the model to perform multiple predictions with random
149 meteorological condition sampling (using the metSim function). The resulting trends were
150 then plotted for the period between January and August, 2020, to provide a before-and-after
151 picture of the lockdown period, and the subsequent return to business-as-usual.

152 **3.0 Results**

153 This section presents the results of the data analyses. Time periods are displayed as *Historical*
154 (23rd of March to 23rd of April, each year from 2015 to 2019) and *Lockdown* (23rd of March
155 to 23rd of April, 2020).

156 **3.1 Statistical Analysis**

157 3.1.1 Descriptive Statistics

158 Descriptive statistics for background and traffic sites are shown in Table 1. The Lockdown
159 NO₂ concentrations for background sites were M = 15.75 (µg/m³), SD = 12.98. This was
160 lower than the Historical concentrations M = 24.28 (µg/m³), SD = 17.67. The Lockdown NO₂
161 concentrations for traffic sites were M = 22.82 (µg/m³), SD = 16.37, which was also lower

162 than the Historical concentrations $M = 38.56$ ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), $SD = 27.00$. The mean NO_2 reductions
 163 during Lockdown compared to the Historical period were 8.53 ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), or 35.13%, and 15.74
 164 ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) or 40.82%, at background and traffic sites, respectively.

165 *Table 1 Descriptive statistics for lockdown and historical periods at background and traffic sites.*

	Lockdown NO_2 ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)		Historical NO_2 ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	
	Background	Traffic	Background	Traffic
Count	28057	20267	115206	83738
Mean	15.75	22.82	24.28	38.56
Standard Deviation	12.98	16.37	17.67	27
Median	11.67	18.43	19.57	32.53
Standard Error	0.08	0.11	0.05	0.09

166

167 The standard deviations around the means appear substantial, although the coefficient of
 168 variation (CV) in all cases is <1 ($CV = \text{standard deviation}/\text{mean}$). The medians in all cases are
 169 less than the mean values, indicating the data is skewed to the right. This comparison
 170 introduces a considerable disparity in the number of counts in each sample used for the
 171 calculations. However, all standard errors are low, indicating a greater likelihood that the
 172 sample mean is close to the population mean.

173 3.1.2 Normality Tests

174 The Anderson-Darling test was conducted and the outcome confirmed the non-normal
 175 distribution of the background ($AD = 4933.2$, $p = < 2.2e-16$) and traffic ($AD = 1154.8$, $p = <$
 176 $2.2e-16$) concentration data.

177 3.1.3 Tests of Difference

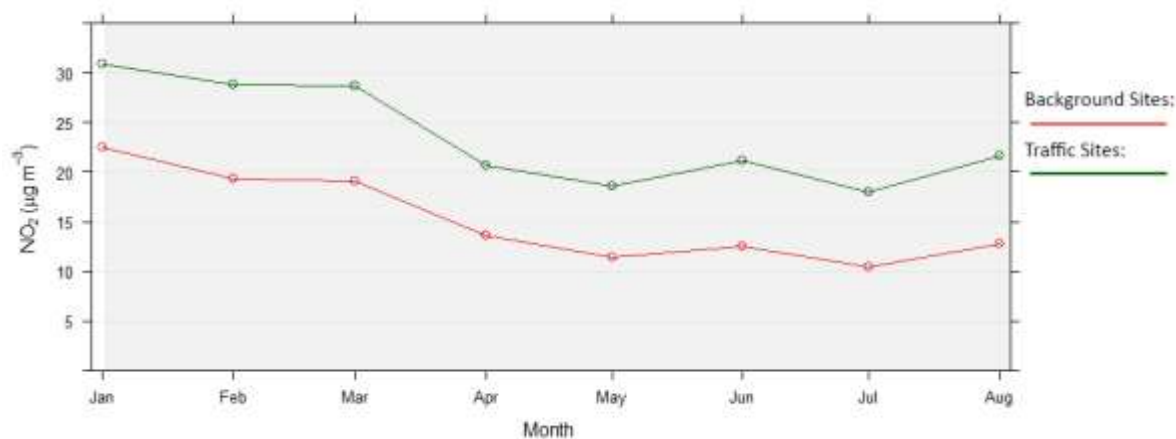
178 The 2-group Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test was used to test the difference between lockdown and
179 historical concentrations. The following null hypothesis was used:

180 H_0 There is no difference in NO_2 concentrations between the first month of
181 lockdown and the same time period in previous years.

182 The Wilcoxon Test indicated that a significant difference existed between the Historical and
183 Lockdown periods for background ($p = < 2.2e-16$) and traffic ($p = < 2.2e-16$) sites, and the
184 null hypothesis was rejected.

185 3.2 Time-Series Analysis

186 Having determined the significance of the NO_2 reduction during the Lockdown period when
187 compared to the Historical time period, the NO_2 trend was plotted for January to August,
188 2020 to visualise the concentration reduction (Figure 1).

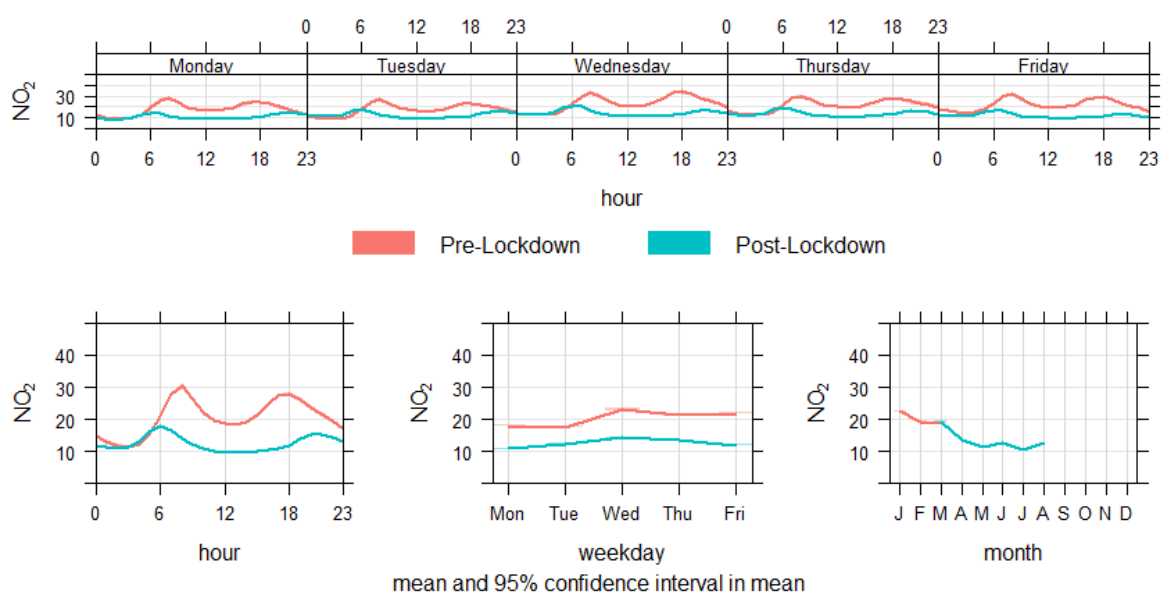


189

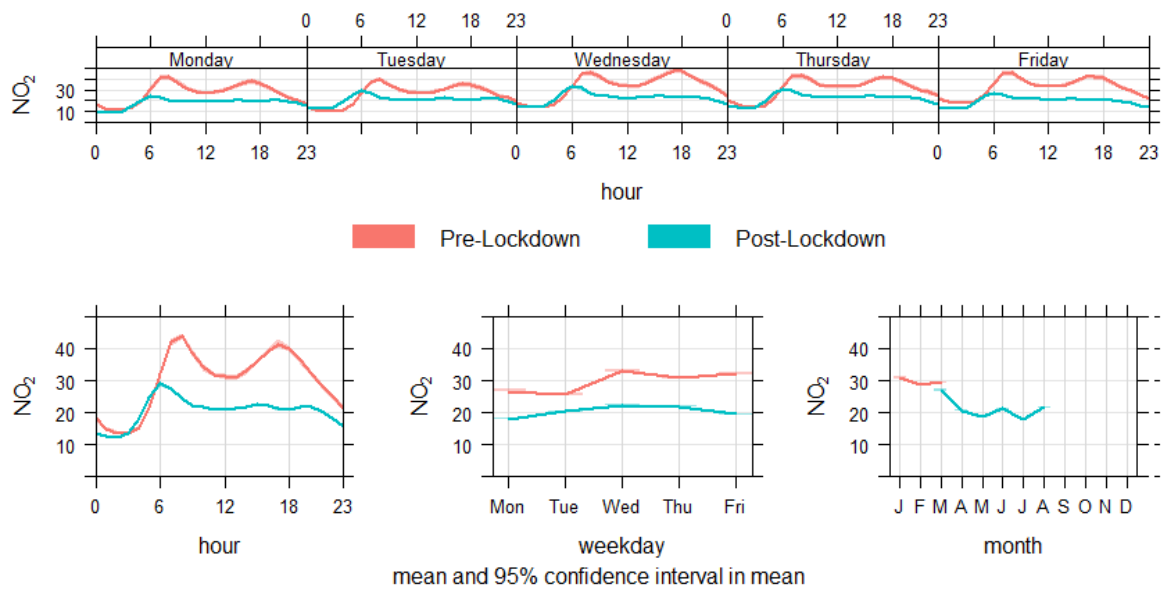
190 *Figure 1 Smooth trend plot for NO_2 ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) at background and traffic sites between January and August, 2020.*

191 Time variation analyses of NO_2 concentrations were plotted for January to August, 2020
192 (Figures 2 and 3). The pre-lockdown period (January 1st to March 22nd, 2020) of this study
193 spans approximately three months, and the post-lockdown period (April 23rd to August 31st,

194 2020) spans approximately four months. NO₂ concentrations appear to follow a similar
 195 diurnal pattern, although they are clearly reduced following the implementation of the
 196 lockdown measures. Daily concentration patterns are also evident with morning and
 197 afternoon peaks corresponding to peak traffic times. The time variation plots clearly show
 198 NO₂ reductions as a consequence of the measures, with diurnal variation for all days showing
 199 lower levels.



200
 201 *Figure 2 Time variation of NO₂ (µg/m³) during pre- and post-lockdown periods for background sites between January and*
 202 *August, 2020 (Confidence Interval is represented by line width).*



203

204 *Figure 3 Time variation of NO₂ (µg/m³) during pre- and post-lockdown periods for traffic sites between January and August,*
 205 *2020 (Confidence Interval is represented by line width).*

206 Descriptive statistics were also produced for the pre- and post-lockdown periods in 2020 (see
 207 Table 2). For the pre-lockdown period, mean NO₂ concentrations (µg/m³) at background sites
 208 were 20.49 (SD = 17.05, SE = 0.06), and at traffic sites mean NO₂ concentrations were 29.83
 209 (SD = 22.81, SE = 0.10). For the post-lockdown period, mean NO₂ concentrations (µg/m³) at
 210 background sites were 11.74 (SD = 12.98, SE = 0.08), and at traffic sites mean NO₂
 211 concentrations were 19.8 (SD = 14.92, SE = 0.05).

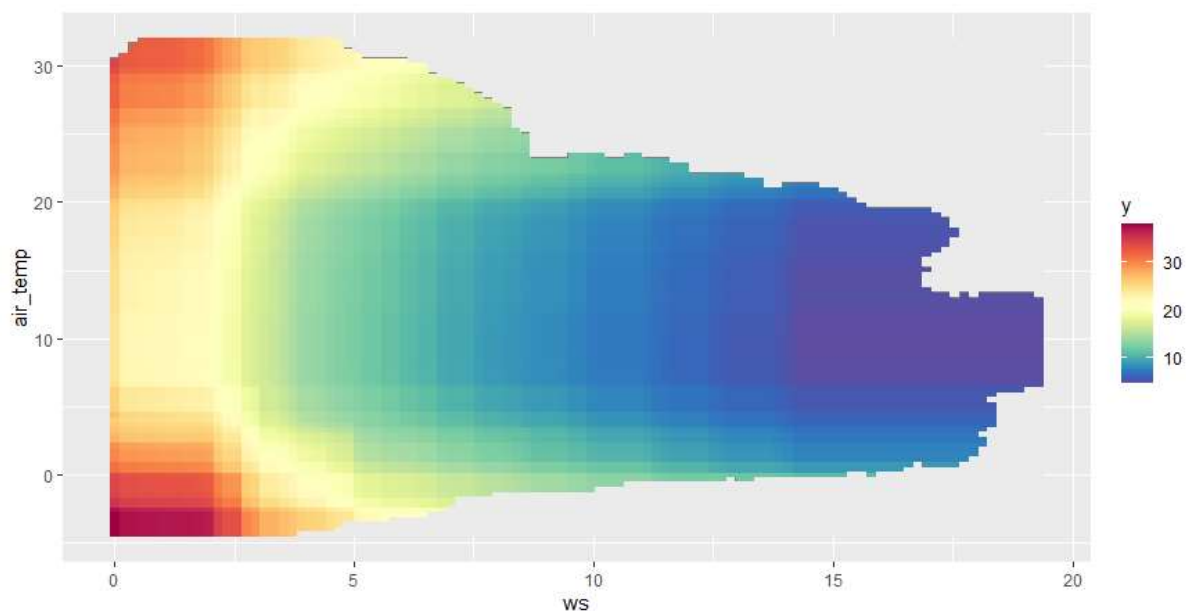
212 *Table 2 Mean NO₂ (µg/m³) comparisons pre-, during, and post- lockdown at background and traffic sites.*

	Pre-lockdown		Lockdown		Post-lockdown	
	Background	Traffic	Background	Traffic	Background	Traffic
Count	70098	49296	28057	20267	107998	77073
Mean	20.49	29.83	15.75	22.82	11.74	19.8
Standard Deviation	17.05	22.81	12.98	16.37	9.53	14.92
Median	15.23	24.66	11.67	18.43	9.08	16.15
Standard Error	0.06	0.10	0.08	0.12	0.03	0.05

213

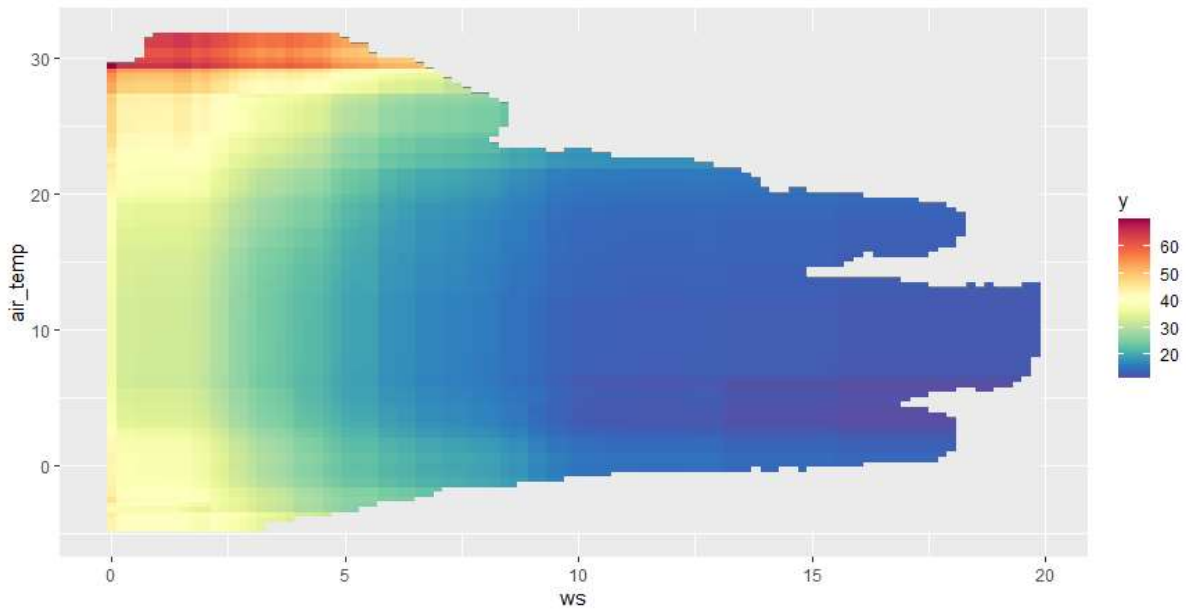
214 3.3 Meteorological Adjustment

215 The outcomes of the testMod function were suitably low and the root mean squared was
216 sufficient to provide confidence in the model, with -1% for background sites and 1.8% for
217 traffic sites. The two-way interactions between wind speed and air temperature indicate that,
218 particularly at background sites, NO₂ concentrations were higher when atmospheric
219 conditions were stable with low temperatures and low wind speeds (Figures 4 and 5). The
220 plots also indicate that NO₂ concentrations tend be higher with higher temperatures. This is
221 likely due to greater available ground-level O₃ for conversion of NO to NO₂.



222

223 *Figure 4 Modelled two-way interactions between wind speed and air temperature on NO₂ ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) (y) at background sites.*



224

225 *Figure 5 Modelled two-way interactions between wind speed and air temperature on NO₂ (µg/m³) (y) at traffic sites.*

226 A comparison between the meteorologically adjusted predicted NO₂ concentrations and the
 227 recorded data for the month following the lockdown measures (23rd March to 23rd April,
 228 2020) is shown in Table 3.

229 *Table 3 Comparison of recorded (observed) and meteorologically adjusted (predicted) mean data.*

NO ₂ (µg/m ³)	Background		Traffic	
	Observed	Predicted	Observed	Predicted
Count	28057	576	20267	576
Mean	15.75	14.18	22.82	20.93
Standard Deviation	12.98	2.39	16.37	3.52
Median	11.67	13.53	18.43	19.89
Standard Error	0.08	0.1	0.11	0.15

230

231 For the lockdown period, meteorologically adjusted predictions of NO₂ concentrations for
 232 background sites (M = 14.18, SE = 0.1) are lower than recorded concentrations (M = 15.75,

233 SE = 0.08). Meteorologically adjusted predictions of NO₂ concentrations for traffic sites (M =
234 20.93, SE = 0.15) are lower than recorded concentrations (M = 22.82, SE = 0.11).

235 The meteorological adjustments for NO₂ are representative of the potential effect of weather
236 on recorded background and traffic concentrations, reducing levels by 9.97% and 8.28%,
237 respectively.

238 **4.0 Discussion**

239 The analysis provides an overview of the air pollution changes as a consequence of the
240 COVID-19 lockdown, and the reductions of NO₂ in the vicinity of schools in England. A
241 significant reduction of NO₂ took place following the stay-at-home order on March 23rd and
242 the trends indicated a sustained reduction of NO₂ at background and traffic sites for several
243 months following the announcement.

244 Both traffic and background site data indicated significant reductions on schooldays. Around
245 schools in England, NO₂ concentration reductions during lockdown when compared to the
246 five-year historical mean for background and traffic sites ranged between 35.13% and
247 40.85%. Once the data was adjusted for meteorological influence, the potential reductions
248 increased, although the range narrowed to between 41.60% and 45.75 %. The general trends
249 show a steep decline of NO₂ concentrations at both background and traffic sites at the start of
250 the lockdown measures.

251 Temporal trends for both site groups were similar, although a sharper reduction was visible at
252 the traffic sites, indicating a lag between the traffic and background sites. This behaviour is to
253 be expected when considering pollution from traffic sites, which are characteristically
254 proximal to road sources, and background sites, which are further from those sources, and
255 will take longer to be affected by any related changes. For the same reason, it is also

256 understandable that diurnal traffic would not affect background sites as much as those near
257 roadsides.

258 The lockdown NO₂ concentration means showed a reduction of 4.74 µg/m³ for background
259 sites and 7.01 µg/m³ for traffic sites when compared to the pre-lockdown period. This trend
260 continued into the post-lockdown period, with further respective reductions for background
261 and traffic sites of 4.01 µg/m³ and 3.02 µg/m³, although an increase is observable towards the
262 end of the period as restrictions become more relaxed. Analyses of the reduction support
263 arguments for lower levels of traffic around schools to reduce potential child exposure to air
264 pollutants. Policies that encourage active travel and discourage unnecessary vehicular use
265 during peak traffic times can lower air pollution in the vicinity of schools when children are
266 on the school run, but can also improve air quality for all of those who must travel at these
267 particularly polluted periods of each day.

268 Improvements to traffic management can help to reduce pollution at the most congested
269 periods of the day, which is particularly relevant for the reduction of child exposure to
270 pollutants during peak traffic periods on weekday mornings. Indeed, policies and
271 interventions that encourage active travel will be further benefitted by more general
272 reductions in peak traffic and accompanying pollution. The study results support the position
273 of research relating to measures for improved management of traffic, including school travel
274 planning (Cairns et al., 2008), promotion of active travel (McDonald et al., 2014; Smith et al.,
275 2015), walking school buses (Dirks et al., 2016), improved workplace travel initiatives and
276 planning (Macmillan et al., 2013), improvements to public transport, school buses and related
277 incentives (Schraufnagel et al., 2019), carpooling and car-sharing (Hasan et al., 2016),
278 teleworking (Giovanis, 2018) and anti-idling campaigns (Eghbalnia et al., 2013; Ryan et al.,
279 2013). The results indicate that practices such as working from home, active travel, and a

280 reduction of non-essential travel can help to maintain these reductions outside of the
281 lockdown, and the discouragement of driving to school during peak traffic times can also
282 assist in the reduction of child exposure to harmful pollutants.

283 **5.0 Conclusion**

284 Due to their sensitivity, developing physiology and regular exposure to heavy traffic, children
285 are an at-risk group who are particularly susceptible and vulnerable to high concentrations of
286 traffic-related air pollution. Schools and associated travel present areas of interest for the
287 reduction of traffic-related air pollution and the mitigation of child exposure. The current
288 study has demonstrated that the measures taken as part of the UK stay-at-home order, such as
289 teleworking, the reduction of non-essential travel and the removal of traffic related to school
290 runs, have significantly reduced air pollution in the vicinity of schools in England.

291 Limitations of the current study include the focus on NO₂ and schools in England. Future
292 research should investigate the interactions between other traffic-related pollutants, including
293 the effects of meteorology, and in different regions of the UK.

294 In order to maintain the pollution reductions highlighted in the current study, it is essential to
295 develop and implement effective behavioural strategies towards the reduction of peak traffic.
296 Whilst this can be partly achieved by a reduction of school-related traffic, it is also important
297 to develop broader strategies to reduce overall levels of traffic to ensure that child exposure
298 in active travel at peak times remains low.

299 **Funding:** This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the
300 public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

301 **Acknowledgements:** The authors would like to thank Dr Paul White (UWE Bristol) for his
302 comments on the manuscript.

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