



Assessing COVID-19 Lockdowns' Impacts on Global Urban PM_{2.5} Air Quality with Observations and Modeling

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Abstract. The regional lockdowns, implemented around the world over 2020-2022 to contain the rapid spread of the novel coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), inadvertently created a natural laboratory for investigating the effect of reducing anthropogenic emissions on urban air quality in unprecedentedly large temporal and spatial scales. In this study, we analyze multi-year surface PM_{2.5} observations in 21 cities around the globe to examine anomaly of daily PM_{2.5} concentrations during major COVID-19 lockdowns with respect to that in the pre-pandemic years. We then use a set of GEOS global aerosol transport modeling experiments to disentangle the effect of the lockdown emission reductions from other non-lockdown effects. Our analysis shows that no systematic reductions in PM_{2.5} are found in response to the lockdowns globally. In some locations, we find the coincidences of an increasing stringency index and a decreasing of surface PM_{2.5}, which often leads to the record low of PM_{2.5} over extensive period. These observations clearly suggest the positive impacts of COVID-19 lockdown-induced anthropogenic emission reductions on air quality. In other stations, however, the lockdown's impacts could be masked by differing meteorology and the occurrence of dust and wildfire events. We also found that current satellite remote sensing of aerosol optical depth cannot be used to reliably discern the change of surface PM_{2.5} due to the COVID-19 lockdowns. Results of this study provide a preview of potential mixed effects on urban air quality when implementing air pollution control regulations such as transitioning gasoline and diesel-powered vehicles to electric vehicles.

1. Introduction

PM_{2.5}, particulate matter (also referred to aerosol in climate communities) with an aerodynamic diameter of smaller than 2.5 μm , is one of the major air pollutants that adversely affect human health. Exposure to PM_{2.5} was ranked as the fifth largest contributing factor to global mortality (Cohen et al., 2017). Currently, about 90% of the global population lives in unhealthy environments where annual PM_{2.5} concentrations are greater than the guideline of 5 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ recently issued by the World Health Organization (WHO) (Yang et al., 2022). Further, it is estimated that the long-term exposure to ambient PM_{2.5} might have resulted in the premature deaths of 2.9 (1.4 – 4.5) million in 2019, with more than two thirds occurring in Asia (Yang et al., 2022). Another study has estimated as many as 8.7 million premature deaths per year that can be attributed to the exposure to



35 PM_{2.5} (McDuffe et al., 2021). Clearly, reducing the primary and precursor emissions of PM_{2.5} is necessary to improve air
quality and the well-being of citizens. Moreover, emissions reductions should focus on anthropogenic sources because they
are responsible for most of the mortality attributable to PM_{2.5} pollution, whereas the natural sources, like dust storms, are
estimated to cause only about 22% of such mortality (Yang et al., 2022) and are more difficult to control. Purposeful short-
term policy interventions (e.g., the 2008 Beijing Olympics, the 2014 APEC Summit) have yielded improvement of air quality
40 at local scales and during the targeted events (W. Wang et al., 2009; X. Wang et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2013; Liu and Ogunc,
2023). However, it is also revealed that such local-scale emission controls could be compensated by increases of emissions in
surrounding areas, highlighting the importance of regional emission controls in achieving improved air quality in a city (Wang
et al., 2010). Previous studies that carried out global model experiments have shown potentially significant albeit highly
uncertain effects of a hypothetical and uniform 20% reduction of global anthropogenic emissions on air quality, climate, and
45 ecosystems at local, regional, and intercontinental scales (e.g., Shindell et al., 2008; Yu et al., 2013; Collins et al., 2013;
Anenberg et al., 2014).

The COVID-19 lockdowns created a natural laboratory for studying the effect of reducing anthropogenic activities on urban
air quality at a global scale and during the extended period. Since the emergence of the novel coronavirus disease 2019
(COVID-19) in early 2020, governments around the globe had enforced a variety of measures, including regional and national
50 lockdowns, to contain rapid spread of the virus and protect the wellness of human beings. There is no doubt that these
lockdown measures reduced emissions of various anthropogenic pollutants and greenhouse gases. The science community
promptly seized this opportunity to investigate the changes of air pollution following the lockdowns. Over a short period of
less than two years since the lockdowns, a large body of studies had already been published (see reviews in Gkatzelis et al.,
2021; Laughner et al., 2021; Saha et al., 2022; Bakola et al., 2022). The examined atmospheric pollutants included nitrogen
55 dioxide (NO₂), PM_{2.5}, and ozone (O₃), among others. In general, effects of the COVID-19 lockdown have been derived in the
previous studies by comparing concentrations of air pollutants during the lockdown period against those immediately prior to
the lockdown (e.g., Shi and Brasseur, 2020) or against the climatology during the same period in pre-pandemic years (e.g.,
Venter et al., 2020). Modeling studies driven by the reduced emissions caused by the COVID-19 lockdowns have also been
performed (Miyazaki et al., 2020; Le et al., 2020). These studies have consistently showed reductions in NO₂, a short-lived
60 pollutant with a major source from the transportation sector that is considered as a good proxy for emissions, during the
lockdowns (Liu et al., 2020). However, the change of surface ozone concentrations during the lockdowns was reported to
increase in many locations despite the widespread reduction of its NO₂ precursor (e.g., Shi and Brasseur, 2020; Venter et al.,
2020; Shi et al., 2021; Le et al., 2020), although one study found a global scale decline in ozone burden using satellite
observations (Miyazaki et al., 2021). For PM_{2.5}, the effects of lockdown have showed mixed results (Venter et al. 2020; Shi
65 et al., 2021; Volta et al., 2022; Putaud et al., 2023), suggesting the challenge in discerning and quantifying the effects induced
by the reductions of anthropogenic emissions associated with lockdowns. Accounting for the effects of variability of
meteorological conditions, anthropogenic emission trends, and contributions of natural sources of PM_{2.5} that is not affected by
the lockdown is crucial to addressing the challenge and reliably assessing the effect of lockdowns (Gkatzelis et al., 2021; Shi



et al., 2021; Le et al., 2020). Several empirical approaches of de-weathering and de-trending have been used in some previous studies. For example, Volta et al. (2022) attempted to account for meteorological impacts on air pollution by classifying favorable and unfavorable meteorological conditions for air quality and comparing them between the pandemic and pre-pandemic years. The linear regression of pre-pandemic air quality data has been applied to account for the air pollution trend due to clean air policies (Volta et al., 2022). Multivariate regression analysis and machine learning approaches have also been used to predict air quality in the pandemic year in a no-lockdown scenario (Venter et al., 2020; Shi et al., 2021; Anderson et al., 2021; Ghahremanloo et al., 2022).

The objective of this study is to improve the understanding of COVID-19 lockdowns' effects on $PM_{2.5}$ air quality through a synergistic analysis of observational data and model simulations. Our study focuses on surface-level $PM_{2.5}$ because it has the most detrimental effect to human health among all the pollutants (Cohen et al., 2017). We hypothesize that the overall reductions in anthropogenic emissions from many sectors brought about by the COVID-19 lockdowns would have improved the $PM_{2.5}$ air quality on a global scale. However, such impacts might have been masked by other factors such as meteorological conditions and natural emissions (e.g., dust storms, wildfires) in the observational datasets. The impacts might also be determined by the relative contributions of individual sectors because some sectors might have increased the emissions during lockdowns. To test the hypothesis, we analyze multi-year surface $PM_{2.5}$ observations in urban areas around the globe to examine the potential anomaly of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations during the major lockdown periods with respect to that in the pre-pandemic years. Then we use modeling experiments to disentangle the effect of the lockdown emission reductions from non-lockdown effects. We also investigate if satellite remote sensing measurements of aerosol optical depth (AOD) can be used to identify the change of surface $PM_{2.5}$ due to the COVID-19 lockdowns.

The rest of paper is organized as follows. In section 2, we provide a brief description of observational and the Goddard Earth Observing System (GEOS) modeled datasets (such as $PM_{2.5}$, AOD) and an auxiliary stringency index for identifying the dynamics of the lockdowns around the world. Results of data analysis are presented in Section 3, including the evidence of coincidence of declining $PM_{2.5}$ with increasing stringency index, comparisons of observed and modeled changes in $PM_{2.5}$ in 2020 in the context of climatology, as well as GEOS-based relative contributions of the lockdown emission reductions and non-lockdown factors in explaining the difference between 2020 and 2019. In Section 4, we discuss some remaining issues associated with the analysis and an investigation of the feasibility of identifying the lockdown effects on $PM_{2.5}$ from the satellite AOD measurements. Major conclusions are summarized in Section 5.

2. Descriptions of observational data and model simulations

2.1. Observations of surface $PM_{2.5}$ and aerosol optical depth

For the surface $PM_{2.5}$, we use observations collected from the AirNow Department of State network, which include sites at the USA diplomatic posts (i.e., Embassies and Consulates) in major cities outside the USA (<https://www.airnow.gov/international/us-embassies-and-consulates/>). We selected 17 posts around the world with



observations over a period of at least five years, which includes the pandemic years (2020-2022) and at least two pre-pandemic years. The number of pre-pandemic years depends on the diplomatic post, as the State Department has been gradually extending the PM_{2.5} monitoring from the diplomatic posts in China to those in India and then other countries. Because most of the USA diplomatic posts equipped with multi-year PM_{2.5} measurements are in East Asia, South Asia, Middle East, South America, and North Africa, we also included PM_{2.5} observations in four additional cities from other national air quality networks to extend the representativeness of our analysis to North America and Europe. Paris, France and Milano, Italy were selected to represent Europe, while New York City, New York and Los Angeles, California were chosen to represent North America. Figure 1 illustrates the geographical distribution of 21 urban stations in 13 countries with PM_{2.5} observations, with detailed information (including city and country names, longitude, latitude, and years of data used in the analysis) listed in the supplement (*Table S1*).

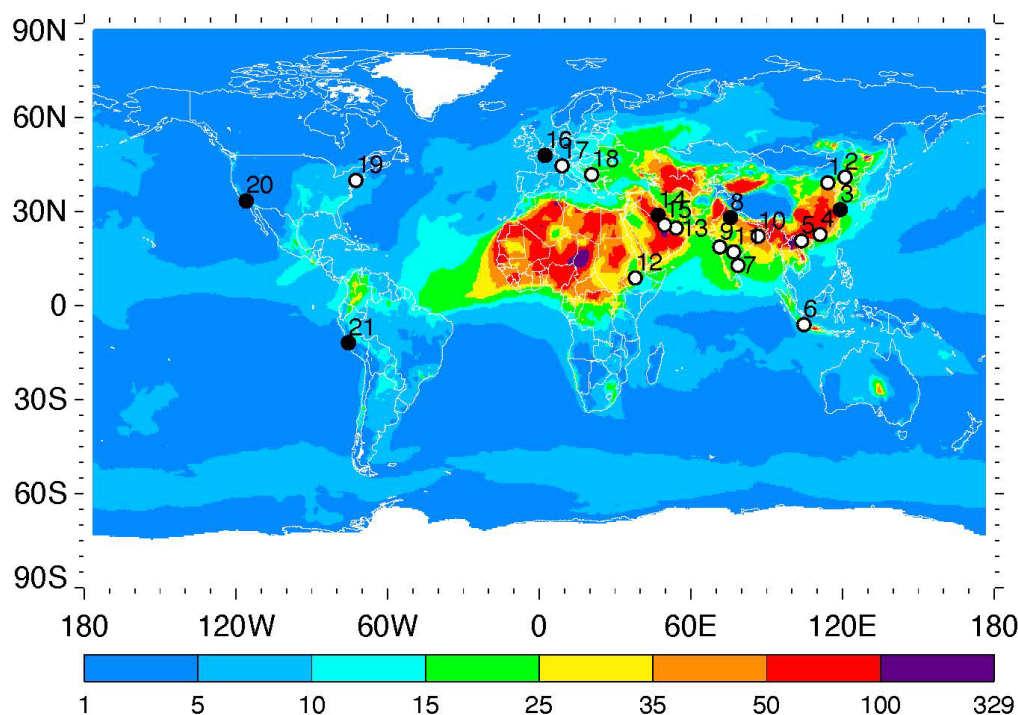


Figure 1: Geographical distributions of PM_{2.5} observational stations in 21 cities (open and solid circles, which are numbered from 1 to 21) of 13 countries overlying on the GEOS simulated PM_{2.5} concentrations (colored contours, with a unit of $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) in March 2020. Solid black circles, corresponding to site numbers of 3, 8, 14, 16, 20, and 21, denote the six cities being selected for in-depth analysis and representative of distinct aerosol characteristics. Detailed information about all these cities is listed in Table S1 of the supplement, including city and country names, latitude, longitude, and the period of PM_{2.5} data used in this study.



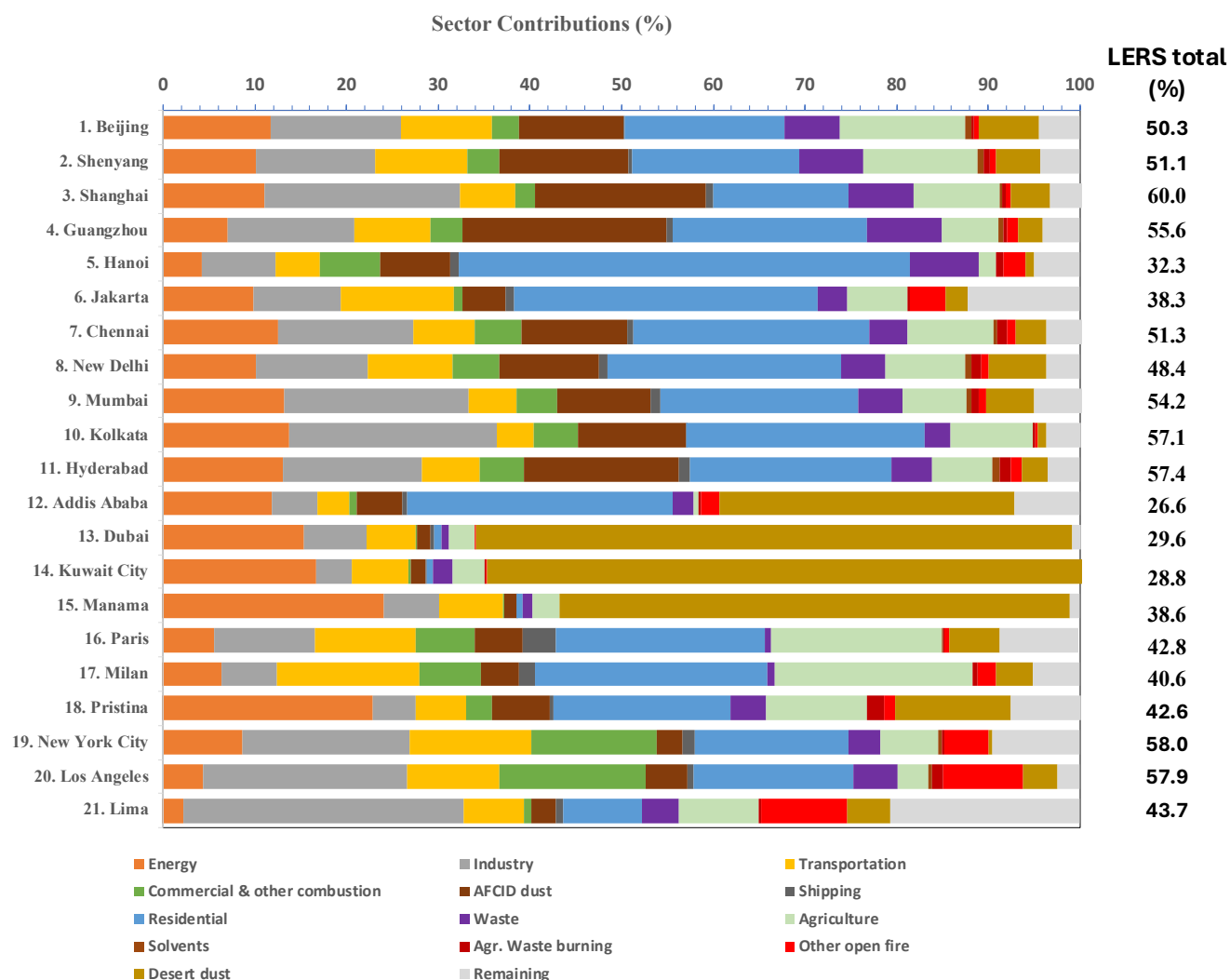
120 These 21 stations are representative of distinct aerosol characteristics, as shown in Figure 2 for the fractional contributions to annual mean $PM_{2.5}$ by an array of source sectors. The source-sector partitions were based on the GEOS-Chem sector sensitivity simulations for year 2017 as provided in McDuffie et al. (2021). This modeling used global anthropogenic emission inventory for seven key pollutants (NO_x , SO_2 , CO, NH_3 , NMVOCs, BC, and OC) from 11 anthropogenic sources and four fuel types, which was developed from the Community Emissions Data System (CEDS) with updates for the Global Burden of Disease -

125 Major Air Pollution Sources project (CEDS_GBD-MAPS) (McDuffie et al., 2020, <https://zenodo.org/records/3754964>). Additional emission inputs to GEOS-Chem include those from fires, biogenic sources, and anthropogenic and desert dust, as described in the supplementary Table 2 of McDuffie et al. (2021) and references therein. Figure 2 clearly displays that sector contributions to $PM_{2.5}$ vary substantially from station to station. Among the source sectors considered in the GEOS-Chem modeling, emissions from energy, industry, transportation, commercial and other combustions, international shipping, and

130 anthropogenic fugitive, combustion, and industrial dust (AFCID) might have decreased during the lockdowns due to reduced human mobility, with magnitudes of decrease likely depending on the specific sector. For brevity, we refer to these six sectors collectively as to potential lockdown emission reduction sectors (LERS). Presumably, the transportation sector had the largest reduction in emissions during lockdown. On the other hand, emissions from the residential sector would have increased during the pandemic because of the “work/study from home” during the lockdown period that should lead to more extended usage of

135 electricity, heating and cooling at home. Natural events like desert dust storms and wildfires were likely unaffected by the lockdowns, although anthropogenic emission reductions associated with the lockdowns may have impacted dust and fire weather to some unquantified extent. An occurrence of such large episodic natural events could even mask the effect of anthropogenic emission reductions associated with the lockdowns on $PM_{2.5}$ air quality. The modeling-based $PM_{2.5}$ source characteristics, albeit inevitably subject to large uncertainties (McDuffie et al., 2021), could facilitate a qualitative

140 interpretation of observed changes in $PM_{2.5}$ in response to the lockdowns discussed in Section 3. In general, when the fractional contributions by the LERS are high and those by residential sectors are low, the lockdown’s impacts could be more clearly shown in observed $PM_{2.5}$ data. However, when $PM_{2.5}$ in a city is dominantly sourced from episodic events such as desert dust and wildfires, the lockdown’s signals might be masked by these events.



145 **Figure 2: Fractional contributions to $PM_{2.5}$ in 21 stations by source sectors, with a total percentage (%) of the six**
lockdown emission reduction sectors (LERS, including energy, industry, transportation, commercial & other
combustion, AFCID dust, and shipping) denoted to the right of the bar for each station. The chart was made with the
sector contributions derived from the GEOS-Chem sensitivity simulations for 2017 and provided by the supplementary
material of McDuffie et al. (2021) and <https://zenodo.org/records/4739100>.

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Even with the same emissions, the surface $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations can vary greatly from day to day because of strong regulation by rapidly evolving meteorological and chemical processes. It is oftentimes formidable to discern any meaningful changes in $PM_{2.5}$ during the pandemic years relative to the pre-pandemic years on a daily basis. In this study, we calculate 5-day running means of $PM_{2.5}$ to smooth out high-frequency variations so that potential differences between the pandemic years (2020, 2021,



155 and 2022) and pre-pandemic years (prior to 2020) could show up in the observations more clearly. To obtain quantitative estimates of $PM_{2.5}$ changes due to prolonged lockdowns, we also compute the monthly average $PM_{2.5}$ for both the pandemic years and pre-pandemic years.

AOD observations from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) on Aqua satellite (Levy et al., 2013) were also used in this study. Unlike surface $PM_{2.5}$ that measures the concentration of air pollution at our nose level, AOD
160 measures the load of aerosol in the whole column of the atmosphere. Because of the appealing nature of routine satellite observations at a global scale, numerous studies have explored the use of satellite AOD to derive surface $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations (e.g., van Donkelaar et al., 2010; Wei et al., 2021). However, the relationship between AOD and $PM_{2.5}$ is complicated by several factors, such as aerosol composition, vertical profile of aerosol, relative humidity of ambient atmosphere, and atmospheric long-range transport. In this study, we examine if satellite AOD measurements can be used to detect the change
165 in $PM_{2.5}$ due to the COVID lockdowns.

2.2. GEOS simulations of $PM_{2.5}$ and AOD

Simulations from the NASA GEOS model are used for both AOD and $PM_{2.5}$ in this study. The modular GEOS model is a global Earth system model that includes components for atmospheric circulation and composition, ocean circulation and biogeochemistry, and land surface processes (Rienecker et al., 2011; Molod et al., 2015). The coupled atmospheric constituent
170 module within the GEOS architecture most relevant to this project is an aerosol module based on the Goddard Chemistry Aerosol Radiation Transport (GOCART) model (Collins et al., 2024). GOCART simulates major components of aerosols (with a diameter between 0.02 and 20 μm) and several gaseous precursors, including dust, sea-salt, sulfate, nitrate, organic carbon, black carbon, SO_2 , and dimethyl sulfide (Chin et al., 2002, 2007, 2009, 2014; Ginoux et al., 2001; Bian et al., 2017). The model considers the atmospheric processes of chemistry, convection, advection, boundary layer mixing, dry and wet
175 deposition, and gravitational settling (Chin et al., 2002, 2014). Aerosol particle sizes are simulated with parameterized hygroscopic growth, which is a function of ambient relative humidity. Total mass of sulfate and carbonaceous aerosols are calculated, while nitrate aerosol mass is calculated in three bins (Bian et al., 2017). For dust and sea salt the particle size distribution is explicitly resolved across five size bins (Chin et al., 2002, 2009).



For this study, the GEOS model is run at a horizontal resolution of 0.5° for 2019 (pre-pandemic year) and 2020 (the first year of the pandemic). The required meteorological fields are taken from the Modern-Era Retrospective analysis for Research and Applications - version 2 (MERRA2, Gelaro et al., 2017). For 2019, anthropogenic emissions were taken from an updated version (V_2021_04_21) of the Community Emission Data System (CEDS) (Hoesly et al., 2018). For 2020, we carry out two modeling experiments, denoted as 2020-BAU and 2020-COVID, by using two anthropogenic aerosol and precursor emissions. In the 2020-BAU scenario, we used the anthropogenic emissions for 2019 to approximate the business-as-usual (BAU) anthropogenic emissions for 2020. In the 2020-COVID scenario, the 2019 anthropogenic emissions from different sectors were adjusted based on daily mobility data gathered by Apple and Google to reflect the lockdown's effects on the anthropogenic emissions (Foster et al., 2020). Note that in both 2020-BAU and 2020-COVID runs, emissions from desert dust, sea-sprays, and wildfires are representative for 2020 conditions; specifically, emissions from wildfires are prescribed based on satellite observations in 2020 (Darmenov and da Silva, 2015) and dust and sea-salt emissions are calculated online within the GEOS model based on surface and meteorological fields in 2020 from the MERRA-2 analysis (Chin et al., 2014).

One of the advantages of using GEOS modeling is that it provides not only total AOD and $PM_{2.5}$ but also their composition. This allows for distinguishing anthropogenic sources from natural sources (e.g., dust storms, wildfires, volcanic eruption or degassing, and sea sprays). In addition to providing the 10-year pre-pandemic climatology of $PM_{2.5}$ and AOD, the two experiments for year 2020 (i.e., 2020-BAU and 2020-COVID) together with the 2019 run can be used to distinguish the effects of anthropogenic emission reductions associated with the COVID-19 lockdowns from those associated with differing meteorological conditions (through affecting aerosol transport and removal processes) as well as effects from emissions of natural aerosols, which are not directly related to the lockdowns. For brevity, we refer the differences between 2020-COVID and 2020-BAU as the “lockdown effect” whereas the difference between 2020-BAU and 2019 as the “non-lockdown effect” that is due to changes in meteorological conditions and natural emissions. These experiments can be used to facilitate the interpretation of observed $PM_{2.5}$ difference between 2020 and 2019. In this study, it is assumed that the differing meteorology and natural emissions between 2020 and 2019 are not caused by the lockdown-induced anthropogenic emissions.

2.3. Stringency index measuring the scope of lockdowns



The rapid spread of COVID-19 promoted a wide range of government responses in containing the disease and protecting the wellness of human beings. The Oxford COVID-19 Government Response Tracker (OxCGRT) project was established to track the policy indicators of government responses at national and even state/province levels. The project remained active for most of the nations tracked until the end of 2022. The OxCGRT provided four composite indices by grouping different families of policy indicators, namely the government response index, the stringency index, the containment and health index, and the economic support index (Hale et al., 2021). A stringency index, measuring the severity of lockdown restrictions, was developed by aggregating nine policy indicators, including school closures, workplace closures, public event cancellations, restrictions in gathering size, and travel bans, among others. The index is rescaled to a number between 0 and 100, with 100 being the most extreme lockdown situation (Hale et al., 2021). In this study, we use the stringency index to identify major lockdown periods to facilitate the analysis of change in $PM_{2.5}$ air quality. Although for 11 stations in China, India, and USA the stringency indices were derived from lockdown measures implemented at the state/province level, the stringency indices for other 10 stations were determined based on national lockdown measures.

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3. Results

In this section, we first present a detailed analysis of $PM_{2.5}$ change in response to the lockdowns on the 5-day running mean and monthly mean basis in six populated major cities (marked as filled black dots in Figure 1), namely Shanghai (China), New Delhi (India), Los Angeles (USA), Paris (France), Lima (Peru), and Kuwait City (Kuwait). These cities are selected to represent broad geographical regions with different aerosol characteristics in terms of source sectors (as shown in Figure 2), which would determine how $PM_{2.5}$ levels responded to the COVID-19 lockdowns. Then we interpret the observed changes in $PM_{2.5}$ in the context of regional $PM_{2.5}$ trends and attribute them to the COVID-lockdown induced anthropogenic emissions reductions and the interannual variability of meteorological conditions with the aid of GEOS modeling experiments. Finally, we present a general discussion of observed $PM_{2.5}$ changes during the major lockdown periods in the remaining 15 stations (open circles in Figure 1).

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3.1. Observed changes in $PM_{2.5}$ corresponding to COVID lockdowns – Case studies in selected stations.



Figures 3-8 display $PM_{2.5}$ variations in the six stations on the 5-day running mean and monthly mean basis. For each monitoring station, shown in the top panel (a) is the time series of stringency index during 2020 – 2022 period, which can be used to identify the lockdown periods and facilitate the interpretation of observed $PM_{2.5}$ variations, whereas shown in panel (b) and (c) are the observed time series of 5-day running mean and monthly average of $PM_{2.5}$, respectively, in pre-pandemic years prior to 2020 (the number of years depending on available observations at the station) and during the pandemic years of 2020-2022. The pre-pandemic (2019 and earlier) climatology are represented by the average (black lines) and the range of observations (gray vertical bars). We also display the time series in 2019, a year immediately prior to the pandemic, laying the ground for a focused analysis of 2020 and 2019 in the next section. Major characteristics of the $PM_{2.5}$ level in response to the COVID-19 lockdowns are detailed in the following. We particularly focus on $PM_{2.5}$ changes during relatively stringent lockdown periods, defined in this study as periods with a stringency index > 60 .

3.1.1. Shanghai, China

Shanghai's lockdowns began in late January 2020, when its stringency index increased from almost 0 to more than 70 on January 27 (day of the year or DOY = 27), as shown by the red line in Figure 3a. Moderately strict lockdown regulations continued through the rest of this year, seeing that values for the stringency index remained above 45. The station's observed 5-day moving average concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$ in 2020 were generally lower than that in 2019 and other pre-pandemic years. There was a sudden drop of the 2020 (red line) average from the pre-pandemic multi-year average (black line) in Figure 3b when DOY = 27, and a clear disparity between the two lines continues throughout the year except a period of DOY=196-265 (mid-July to late-September). Similarly, monthly $PM_{2.5}$ levels portrayed in Figure 3c from February through December 2020 were significantly lower than the pre-pandemic averages except July-September when differences became smaller. The most evident pullback from years preceding the pandemic to 2020 seems to be in March, which was a relative reduction of 55% in comparison to the pre-pandemic average. This matches with how Shanghai's stringency index was at its largest for that year from February through May. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that Shanghai's lockdowns during this time contributed to lowering the $PM_{2.5}$ levels.

Furthermore, Shanghai's second major lockdown began around April 2022 that was even stricter than the 2020 lockdown with the stringency index > 90 . The blue line in Figure 3a reaches a peak of 97, an almost maximum stringency, and only falls to



approximately 60 at the start of June. During these months of regulations triggered by the Chinese government's zero-COVID policy, where rapid lockdowns and mass testing would occur whenever positive cases emerged, and Shanghai's 26 million citizens were mostly confined in their homes (Han et al., 2024). As indicated in Figure 3c, Shanghai's 2022 monthly PM_{2.5} means during April, May, and June 2022 reached record lows, staying well below the means of all past years. In particular, the April 2022 average was less than the 2012-2019 average by about 35 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. On the monthly basis, PM_{2.5} from March to May decreased from pre-pandemic means by 43% to 56%. In Figure 3b, 5-day moving averages for 2022 also occasionally dipped to historical minimums once in late April and twice in May. It is evident that Shanghai's unyielding shutdown of 2022 that practically locked its population indoors had a pronounced impact on PM_{2.5} levels.

In summary, the above data analysis shows that the COVID-19 lockdowns reduced the PM_{2.5} load, consistent with the fact that 60% of PM_{2.5} in Shanghai came from those potential LERS (Figure 2) as discussed in section 2.1.

3.1.2. New Delhi, India

In New Delhi, it is estimated that about 47% of PM_{2.5} were sourced from those potential LERS, while residential sector accounted for about 27% (Figure 2). Based on the time series in **Figure 4a**, New Delhi's government started imposing stricter shutdown measures in February of 2020, and went into a full lockdown by mid-March that lasted until the end of May, where the stringency index hit 100. From June through September 2020, the stringency index gradually decreased yet was always above 60, meaning that New Delhi continued moderate COVID-19 regulations for most of the year. Comparing these values with the 5-day running means of PM_{2.5} in Figure 4b, it is likely that the COVID-19 lockdowns had at least some impact on air quality in New Delhi. The red line of PM_{2.5} in 2020 falls under the black line of pre-pandemic (2015-2019) averages from around DOY = 90 to DOY = 135, demonstrating lowered PM_{2.5} in April and part of May, when lockdown measures were at maximum severeness. The monthly PM_{2.5} levels for March through May 2020 in Figure 4c were also lower than the corresponding 2015-2019 monthly means by 29% to 45%. In the later months of 2020, when shutdown restrictions lessened, monthly average PM_{2.5} concentrations became similar to those in past years.

In the spring of 2021, New Delhi experienced a second, smaller-scale COVID-19 lockdown. According to the stringency index graph, the yellow line representing the city's index in 2021 up ticked to values between 80 and 100 from DOY = 109 to DOY = 158. New Delhi's PM_{2.5} levels, however, did not have any noticeable decrease or change in the early stages of this timeframe,



as the March and April 2021 means were almost the same magnitude as or even higher than the same means of pre-pandemic years. But by the end of the lockdown period, the monthly $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration dropped to a record low (October 2021). The May 2021 average $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ dropped to as small as the May 2020 mean. Despite this occurrence, there is no strong indication that the 2021 lockdown in New Delhi had much influence on air pollution, because the amount of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in its atmosphere only decreased during less than half of the highly stringent period.

3.1.3. Los Angeles, USA

For Los Angeles, 58% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in pre-pandemic years were sourced from potential LERS. The reductions in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ from these LERS during the pandemic years might be compensated by an increase associated with the residential sector, which accounted for about 17% of pre-pandemic $\text{PM}_{2.5}$. COVID-19 lockdown measures were strictest when the stringency index quickly elevated to above 80 in mid-March 2020, specifically on DOY = 79, from an initial value of around 20 ten days earlier (Figure 5a). The index plateaued in the low 80s through April of 2020. In this timespan, $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations diminished to some extent, with the red line of 2020 means remaining under the black line of pre-pandemic means throughout March and the beginning of April (Figure 5b). Moreover, we show in Figure 5c that March 2020 and April 2020 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ averages were smaller than their pre-pandemic counterparts by 47% and 32%.

Several steep spikes in 5-day moving averages of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ levels also occurred in the 2020 summer and autumn (Figure 5b), due to the extreme wildfires that struck California that year, which burned about 4.3 million acres of land total, a number twice the state's previous record (Safford et al., 2022).

3.1.4. Paris, France

Paris experienced lockdowns induced by COVID-19 in 2020 and 2021. In 2020, the city's stringency index reached 88 at DOY = 77 (mid-March) and stayed at a similar level until around DOY = 131 (mid-May) in Figure 6a. Interestingly, the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ level hit the record low in many days in February, prior to the lockdown (Figure 6b). For the rest of the year, the 5-day moving average of the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ level stayed below the 2013-2019 mean for most days, although it became closer to the 2019 level starting from July after the lockdown measures were eased. For the monthly averages in Figure 6c, $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ values in March and April 2020 decreased from the 2013-2019 means by approximately 43% and 13%, respectively, although it is noticed that the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in February (before lockdown) was the lowest in the entire year. Unlike other sites discussed earlier in this essay, the



PM_{2.5} levels in Paris rarely hit record lows during lockdowns, even though they are near the bottom of the range from pre-pandemic years.

Another less rigid lockdown for Paris went into place during January to mid-May of 2021, where the stringency index lay
305 between 60 and 80. This time, the PM_{2.5} concentrations were also lower than the pre-pandemic values (except April) but higher than in 2020. This is more clearly seen in the monthly means, as the PM_{2.5} in 2021 from January to May are lower than the same months before the pandemic but are higher than 2020 except May, apparently consistent with the different degrees of the stringency between 2020 and 2021, although such attribution might be ambiguous.

3.1.5. Lima, Peru

310 Lima's most strict lockdown occurred mid-March through June of 2020, as seen in Figure 7a. In these nearly four months, the stringency index ranged from 90 to 97, a sign of extremely tight lockdown measures. Evidently, in Figure 7b, the PM_{2.5} levels for 2020 fell well below 2016-2019 amounts during the exact same period. Monthly averages of PM_{2.5} in Lima rendered by Figure 7c were also significantly diminished in March to June of 2020, where concentrations consistently were lower than pre-pandemic averages by 47% to 54%. Since the timings of declines in PM_{2.5} matched with the timings of escalated stringency
315 indices, it seems to present a line of strong evidence that the reduction of human activities had direct impact on lowering the PM_{2.5} levels in Lima. Such effects are more clearly seen in the monthly mean PM_{2.5} in Figure 7c that the 2020 values are lower than the pre-pandemic years throughout the year with the largest reduction in the months with highest stringency index.

In contrast, the lockdown measures in 2021 did not seem to help reducing the PM_{2.5} in Lima despite the still high stringency index (around 60) throughout the year. The PM_{2.5} levels in 2021 were very similar to the pre-pandemic values, although they
320 were noticeably lower by 6.5 and 10.3 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (corresponding to 30% and 41%) in February and March of 2021 respectively (Figure 7b and 7c) when the stringency index was higher (~70-75).

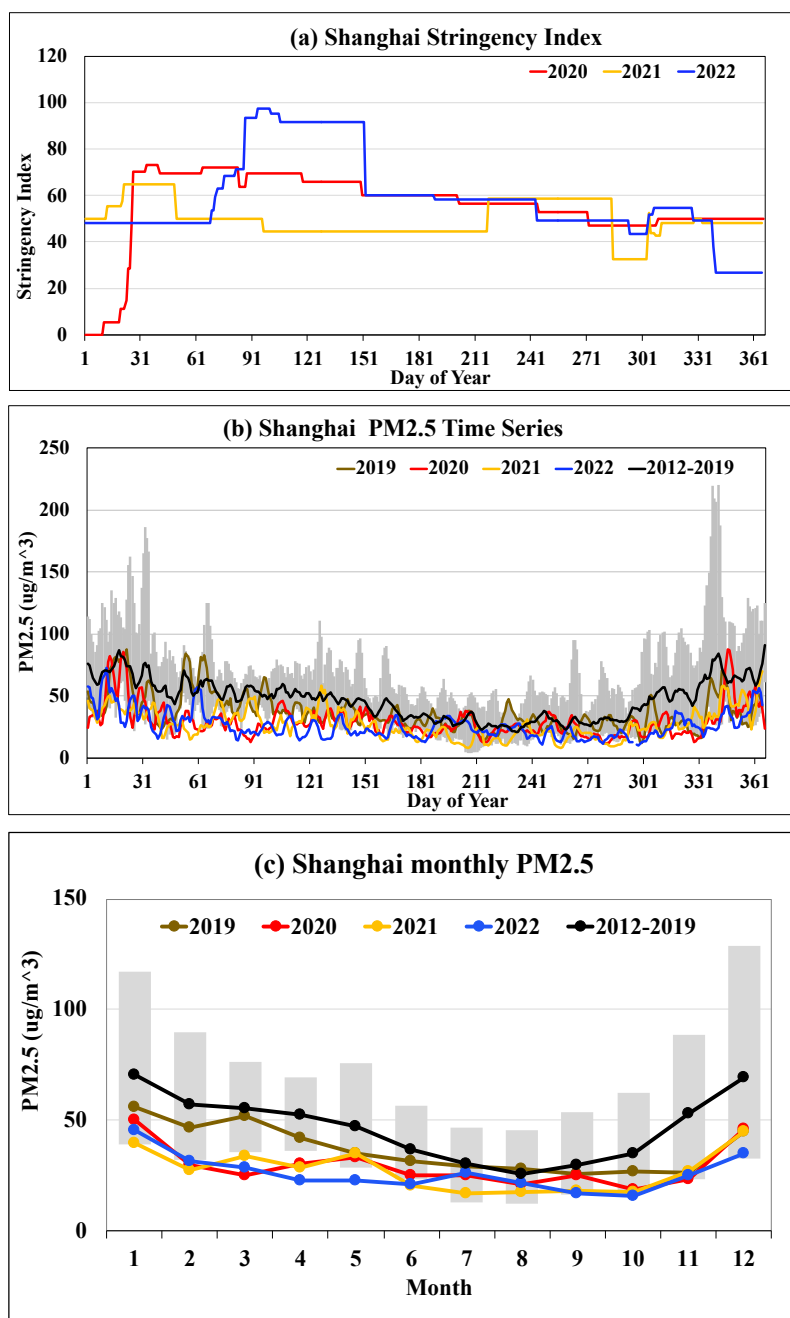
3.1.6. Kuwait City, Kuwait

During April, May, June, and July of 2020, Kuwait City's stringency index enlarged to values between 80 and nearly 100 (Figure 8a). Despite this severe lockdown, there were not many apparent signs of change in PM_{2.5} concentrations in the spring
325 and summer of 2020, which often surpassed pre-pandemic concentrations and occasionally fell to record lows. Figure 8b's red line for PM_{2.5} 5-day moving averages in 2020 does reach minimums under the black line of pre-pandemic averages at points



in mid-April and early May, and monthly means in Figure 8c for March and April 2020 were less than their complementary 2017-2019 means by 13% to 40%. Nonetheless, the concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ in 2020 in general were well within the range of pre-pandemic years. In 2021, although the stringency index remained above 60 from January to July, the $PM_{2.5}$ levels did not
330 respond to the stringency measures (Figure 8b and 8c). These levels hit the record low in August-October despite the relaxed stringency.

It should be noted that Kuwait City is heavily influenced by desert dust, which was not affected by the lockdown. Therefore, it is expected that dust frequently plays a determining role in $PM_{2.5}$ levels in Kuwait City. This is most evident in 2022 (blue lines in Figures 8b and 8c) when the $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations were pulsed and abnormally large with the May average being close
335 to twice as high as the mean for May from pre-pandemic years. The heavy dust storms that occurred in late May across the Middle East in that year (Francis et al., 2023) are a probable explanation for this growth. It is logical to assume then, that this event is proof of how the presence of dust storms can have a magnified effect on the overall levels of $PM_{2.5}$ in Kuwait City, which would overwhelm changes due to other influences like COVID-19 lockdowns, in observational data.



340 Figure 3: Time series of (a) the lockdown stringency index during the pandemic years (2020 - red, 2021 - orange, and
 345 (b) the 5-day running mean $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration over years for four individual years of 2019-2022
 (with brown, red, orange, and blue line denotes 2019, 2020, 2021, and 2022, respectively) in Shanghai, China. The
 monthly average $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) are shown in (c). Also shown in (b) and (c) is the pre-pandemic
 climatology with black line denoting the average and gray shaded areas the range of observations during the pre-
 pandemic period.

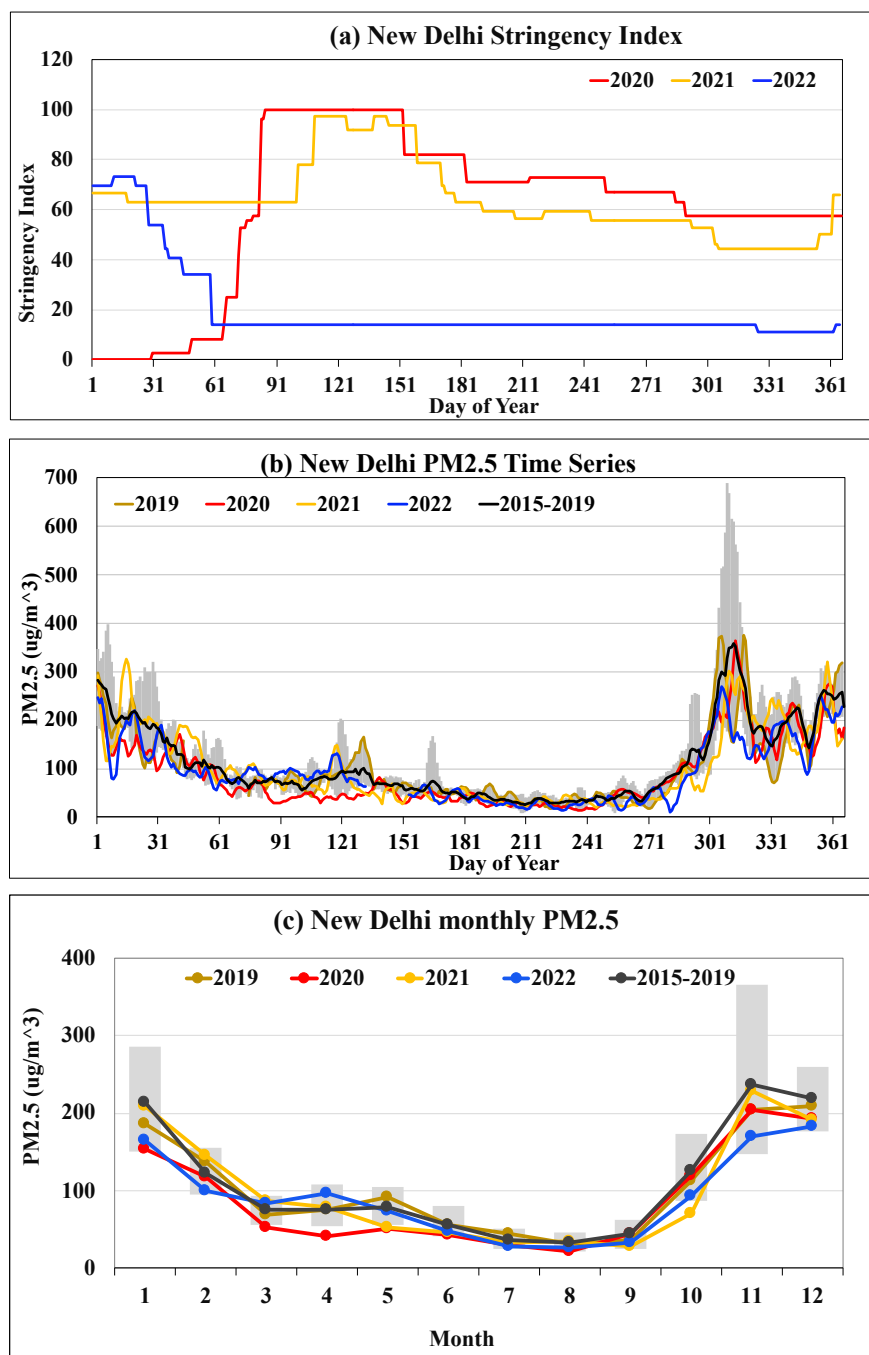
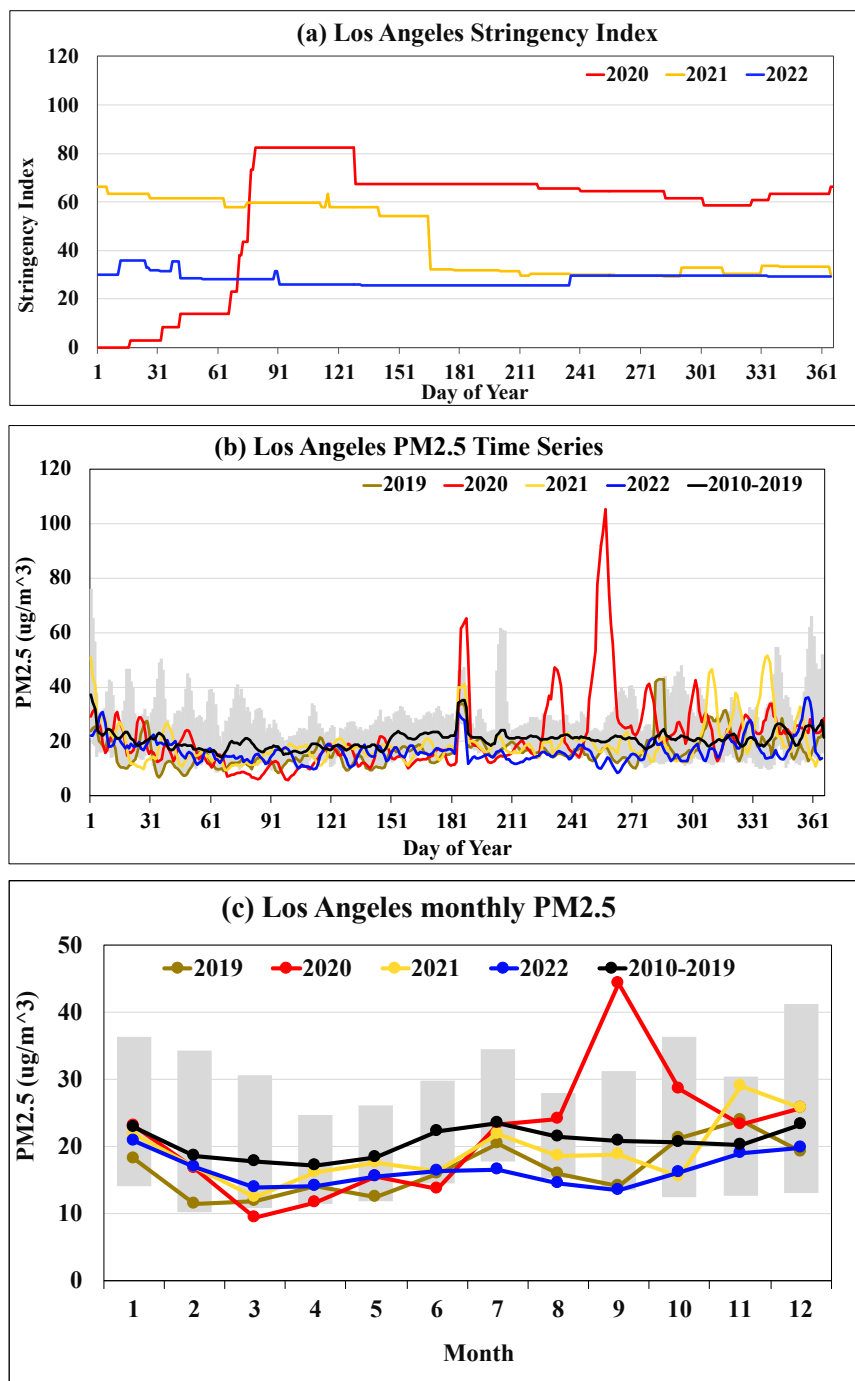


Figure 4: Same as Figure 3, except for New Delhi, India.



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Figure 5: Same as Figure 3 except for Los Angeles, USA.

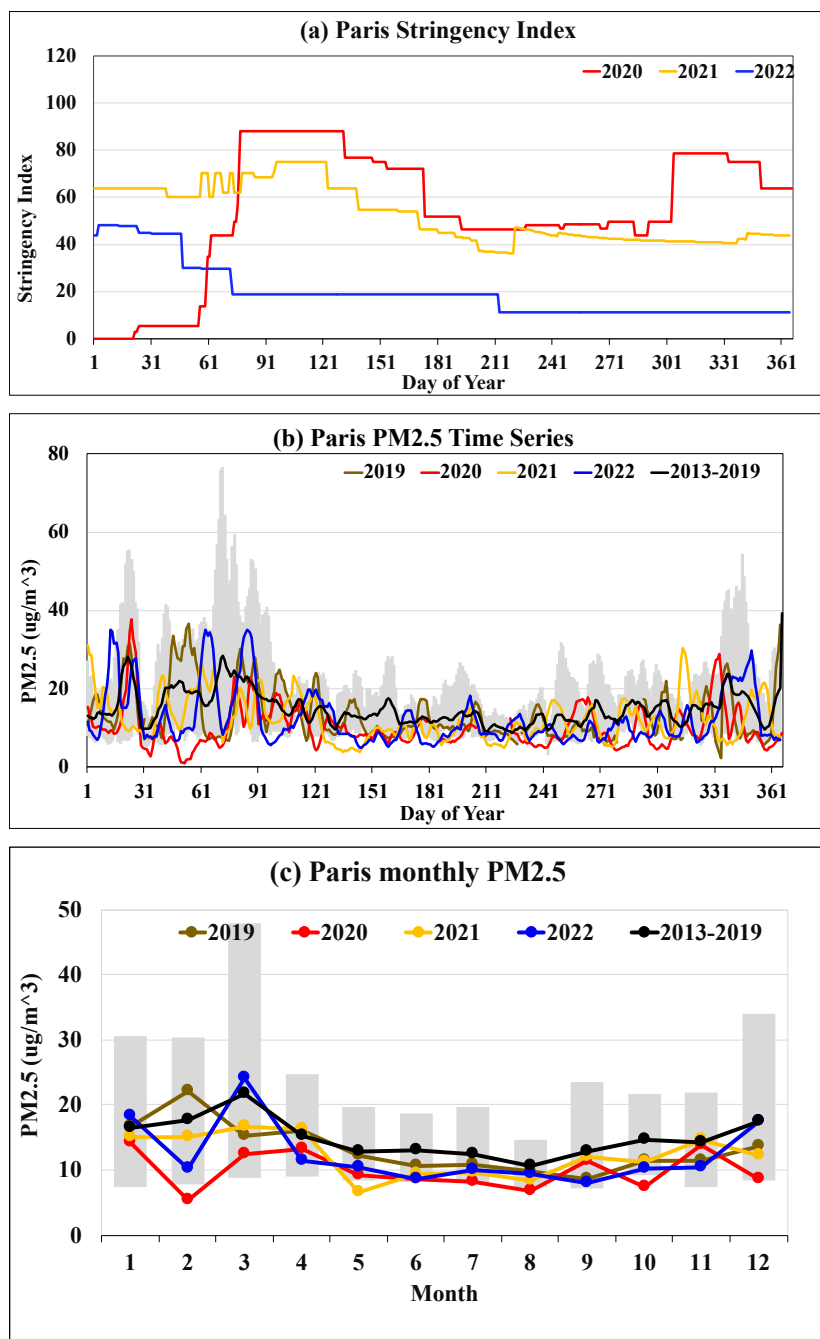


Figure 6: Same as Figure 3, except for Paris, France.

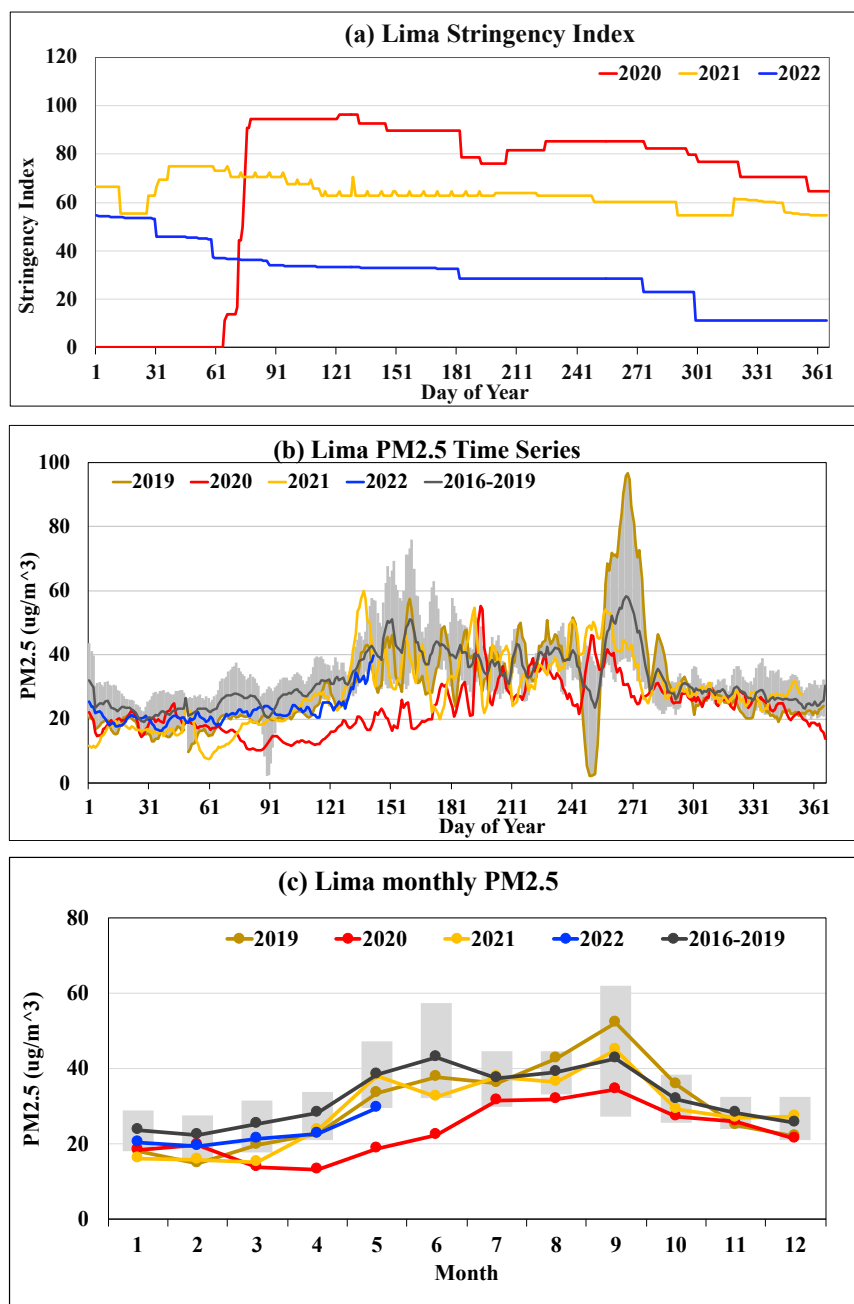


Figure 7: Same as Figure 3, except for Lima, Peru.

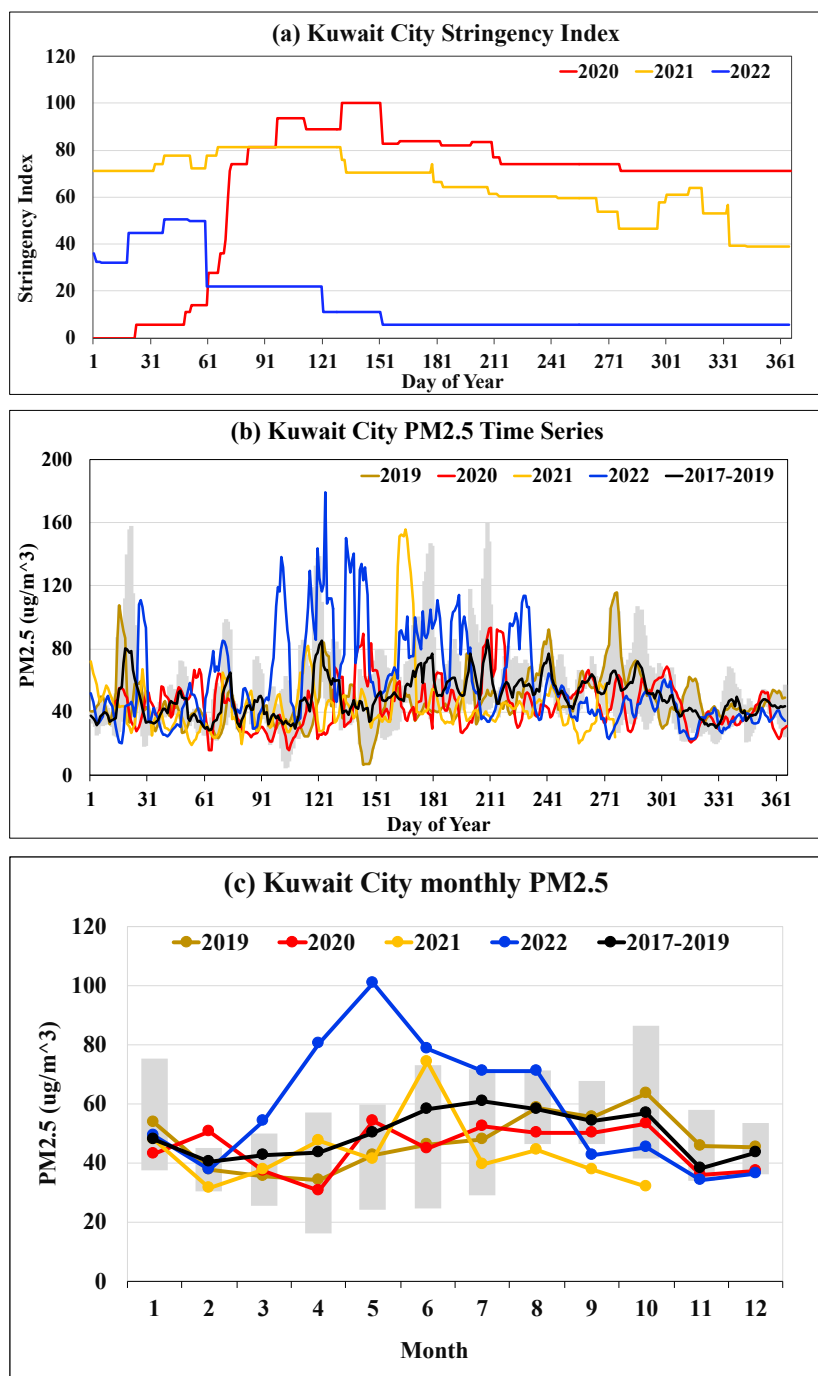


Figure 8: Same as Figure 3, except for Kuwait City, Kuwait.



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3.2. Attribution of the observed changes in $PM_{2.5}$ between the pandemic and pre-pandemic years

In this section, we attempt to interpret the observed changes in $PM_{2.5}$ by carrying out additional analyses of in-situ $PM_{2.5}$ observations and GEOS model simulations to address two major questions: (1) are the observed changes in $PM_{2.5}$ during the lockdowns coincident with the regional $PM_{2.5}$ trends? (2) what are the relative contributions of the COVID-lockdown induced anthropogenic emission reductions, interannual variability of meteorology, and natural emissions to the $PM_{2.5}$ changes during the pandemic?

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3.2.1. Inferring the Lockdowns' impacts in the context of regional $PM_{2.5}$ trends

The analysis in section 3.1 showed that on a monthly basis, $PM_{2.5}$ in 2020 during the lockdown periods was systematically lower than the pre-pandemic averages in six cities except at locations significantly affected by wildfires and dust storms. In some cities, the 2020 $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations even made it to record lows in the study periods. However, these reductions in $PM_{2.5}$ during the pandemic may not be simply credited to the effects of COVID-19 lockdowns. For instance, if $PM_{2.5}$ level in a city had been declining before the pandemic, an apparent decrease in $PM_{2.5}$ observed in 2020 might be just following the trend in a business-as-usual scenario. It is thus necessary to put them in the context of regional $PM_{2.5}$ interannual variations or trends to reduce ambiguity in attributing the observed $PM_{2.5}$ reductions to the lockdown impacts.

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Here we investigate the March-April average $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in pre-pandemic years (black dots) and during the pandemic years (red triangles) for all six cities, as shown in **Figure 9**. We restricted the period to March and April because this was when the first wave of lockdowns occurred at most of the cities in 2020. These plots also contain standard deviations and linear regression lines (black lines) of the data for all years up until 2019 (i.e., excluding the pandemic years 2020-2022). The coefficients of determination, R^2 , of the linear regressions for Shanghai, Paris, Lima, and Kuwait City, are between 0.739 and 0.907, implying that there are generally statistically significant decreasing trends for these sites' $PM_{2.5}$. Contrary to the other four locations, $PM_{2.5}$ levels in New Delhi and Los Angeles contained no meaningful trends, as R^2 values for both sets of data points are 0.1 or less. The linear regression lines based on the pre-pandemic $PM_{2.5}$ observations are then extrapolated to later years as an estimation of $PM_{2.5}$ under a BAU scenario in 2020-2022 without COVID-19 lockdown. A deviation of observed $PM_{2.5}$ levels during the pandemic years from the predicted values is compared with the pre-pandemic standard deviation to assess the likelihood of influences by the COVID-19 lockdown. For Shanghai, the deviation of observed $PM_{2.5}$ from the

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predicted value is -13.73 , -7.07 , and $-9.94 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for 2020, 2021, and 2022, respectively. For comparison, the pre-pandemic standard deviation is $7.33 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. This suggests that emission decreased associated with Shanghai's stringent pandemic restrictions most likely have caused significant reductions of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in 2020 and 2022. Similarly, the deviation from the predicted value in 2020 is -30.94 , -5.44 , and $-6.38 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in New Delhi, Los Angeles, and Lima, respectively. These deviations are significantly greater than the corresponding pre-pandemic standard deviations of 6.81 , 2.58 , and $3.89 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, most likely suggesting that the COVID-19 lockdowns in 2020 caused significant reduction of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in New Delhi, Los Angeles, and Lima. On the other hand, 2020's $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ levels in Paris and Kuwait City were above the regression line by 2.55 and $4.12 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively, despite being lower than pre-pandemic averages. In these cases, external causes may have offset any impacts of reduced anthropogenic emissions during COVID-19 lockdowns.

Notably, in March-April of 2021 and 2022, all six cities except for Shanghai demonstrated upticks in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration to a level near or well above the BAU projection. Shanghai's $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ increased in 2021 but decreased again in 2022 due to the second stringent lockdown discussed earlier. The $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration in 2022 was even lower than that in 2020. The question of how much the loosening of COVID-19 pandemic regulations truly contributed to these increases in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ requires further investigation, but so far, there is some evidence of elements besides the lockdown stringency, such as the dust storms in Kuwait City, playing a role as well.

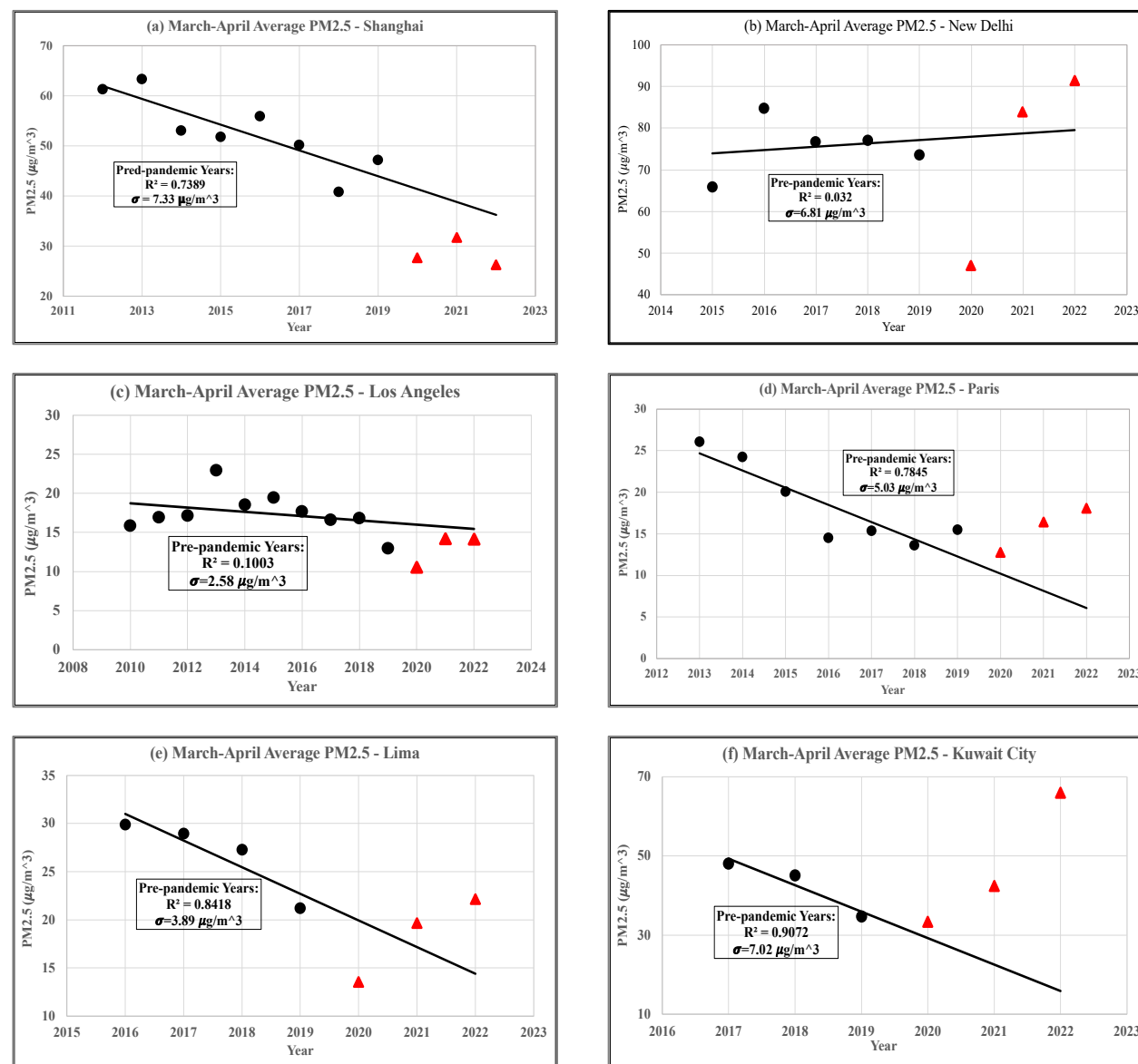


Figure 9: Interannual variations of the March-April average PM_{2.5} ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) in (a) Shanghai, (b) New Delhi, (c) Los Angeles, (d) Paris, (e) Lima, and (f) Kuwait City. Black dots indicate pre-pandemic years and red dots for the pandemic years. Black line represents a linear regression of PM_{2.5} for pre-pandemic years only (excluding data points in the pandemic years), which is used to predict the business-as-usual (BAU) PM_{2.5} during the pandemic years. R² and pre-pandemic standard deviation (σ) is noted in the box. Red triangles indicate average PM_{2.5} in the pandemic years.

3.2.2. Attributing the observed PM_{2.5} changes to the lockdown-induced emission reductions with GEOS modeling

In this section, we focus on an analysis of the observed and modeled changes in March-April average PM_{2.5} concentration between 2020 and 2019. This focused analysis is done based on the three GEOS model experimental runs (as described earlier)



to provide insight into how the observed PM_{2.5} changes are related to the anthropogenic emission reductions associated with the COVID-lockdowns and differing meteorology/natural emissions. The three GEOS runs for 2019, 2020-BAU, and 2020-COVID are compared against each other to distinguish a change associated the lockdowns (i.e., reductions in anthropogenic emissions) from those non-lockdown effects (e.g., interannual variations in meteorological conditions and natural emissions).
Specifically, the difference between 2020-BAU and 2019 indicates the effect of differing meteorology and natural emissions between 2020 and 2019, as the same anthropogenic emissions were applied in these two runs. On the other hand, the difference between 2020-COVID and 2020-BAU measures the effect of reducing anthropogenic emissions by the lockdown restrictions, as the two runs were driven by the same meteorology and emissions of natural aerosols from dust storms, sea sprays, biogenic/volcanic sources, and wildfires were largely the same. These simple attributions are insightful, although the so-derived lockdown effects and those by the differing meteorology and natural emissions (i.e., non-lockdown effects) may not add up exactly to the reduction in PM_{2.5} due to the nonlinearity of aerosol system.

Table 1 lists the relative changes (%) of anthropogenic SO₂, NH₃, BC, and OC emissions in the six cities due to implementation of the lockdowns, on a basis of March-April average (annual cycles of BAU and COVID emissions are shown in the supplement, *Figures S3-S8*). While the anthropogenic emissions generally decreased because of the lockdowns by a large range of magnitudes (-2.1% to -45.9%) depending on locations and species, OC in New Delhi increased slightly by +1.5%. Our analysis shows that the increase of OC in New Delhi (and other cities in India) came from the increase of OC in residential sector, presumably due to the large share of biofuel uses in residential cooking that increased significantly during the lockdowns.

Table 1: Relative change (%) of March-April average anthropogenic SO₂, NH₃, BC, and OC emissions averaged over 3°x3° box around the cities due to COVID lockdowns. Negative value indicates a decrease of emission due to the lockdowns.				
City, Country	SO ₂	NH ₃	BC	OC
Shanghai, China	-16.1	-11.7	-14.4	-10.4
New Delhi, India	-28.2	-12.3	-2.1	+1.5
Los Angeles, USA	-26.3	-16.4	-27.7	-19.2
Paris, France	-34.3	-6.8	-27.0	-5.3
Lima, Peru	-45.9	-11.1	-28.9	-10.5
Kuwait City, Kuwait	-9.3	-8.1	-23.3	-21.1



Figure 10 shows the observed and modeled PM_{2.5} changes (2020-2019) as well as the GEOS attributions of bulk PM_{2.5} changes into different aerosol components and into the lockdown and meteorological/natural effects. For brevity, we group the GEOS aerosol components into four broad groups, namely inorganic aerosols (including sulfate, ammonia, and nitrate), carbonaceous aerosols (including organic matter, black carbon, and brown carbon), dust, and sea-salt. Relative changes in total PM_{2.5} between 2020 and 2019 derived from both the observations and GEOS simulations are listed in **Table 2**. Major features for the individual cities are summarized in the following:

Shanghai, China: The observations show that PM_{2.5} in 2020 was 19.5 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ or 41.4% lower than that observed in 2019. In comparison, GEOS model shows a smaller reduction of PM_{2.5} in 2020, i.e., 12.2 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ or 18.4% (with respect to the modeled value), of which 7.5% is due to the lockdown-induced reduction in anthropogenic emissions and 11.8% due to the differing meteorology and natural emissions. Analysis of aerosol composition further shows that carbonaceous PM_{2.5} made a larger contribution to the reduction of PM_{2.5} than inorganic PM_{2.5} did for both the lockdown-induced emissions reduction and the differing meteorology and natural emissions.

Table 2: March-April average PM_{2.5} in 2019 and relative change (%) of PM_{2.5} between 2020 and 2019 derived from the observations and GEOS simulations. Negative values indicate that PM_{2.5} was smaller in 2020 than 2019. The relative changes of 2020_COVID vs 2020_BAU and 2020_BAU vs 2019 represent contributions of the lockdown-induced anthropogenic emission reductions and the differing meteorology, respectively.						
City, Country	Observed PM _{2.5}		GEOS-simulated PM _{2.5}			
	2019 ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	2020 vs 2019 (%)	2019 ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)	2020_COVID vs 2019 (%)	2020_COVID vs 2020_BAU (%)	2020_BAU vs 2019 (%)
Shanghai, China	47.2	-41.4	66.3	-18.4	-7.5	-11.8
New Delhi, India	73.6	-36.2	48.3	-7.7	-3.2	-4.6
Los Angeles, USA	12.9	-18.4	7.2	-3.0	-8.2	+5.7
Paris, France	15.5	-17.5	9.8	-8.0	-5.1	-3.0
Lima, Peru	21.2	-36.3	15.5	-26.7	-16.7	-12.1
Kuwait City, Kuwait	34.7	-3.8	83.3	-5.6	-2.0	-3.7

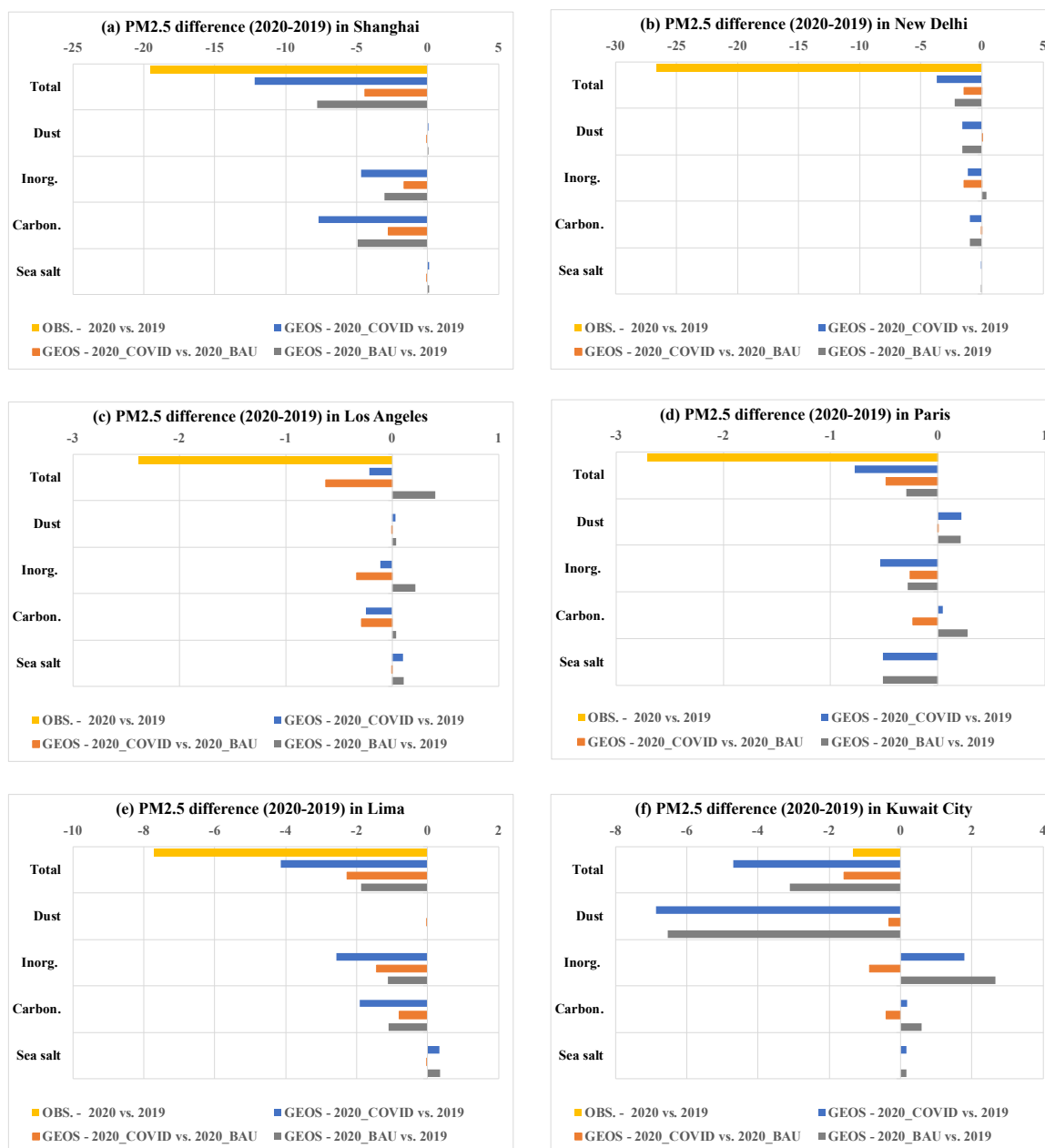


Figure 10: Absolute differences ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) in March-April average $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ between 2020 and 2019 (a negative value indicating that $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ was smaller in 2020 than 2019) in Shanghai, China (a), New Delhi, India (b), Los Angeles, USA (c), Paris, France (d), Lima, Peru (e), and Kuwait City, Kuwait (f). Shown here include observed (yellow bars) and GEOS simulated (blue bars) changes in total $\text{PM}_{2.5}$. The GEOS simulations are further classified into dust, inorganic aerosol, carbonaceous aerosol, and sea salt, shown below the total $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ change. For both total and component $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, GEOS simulation is partitioned into GEOS $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ change due to anthropogenic emission change (orange) and GEOS $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ change due to differing meteorology (gray). Relative changes in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ are listed in Table 2.



New Delhi, India: The observed $PM_{2.5}$ in 2020 was about $27 \mu g m^{-3}$ or 36.2% smaller than that in 2019. GEOS model predicted
460 a much smaller reduction of $4 \mu g m^{-3}$ or 7.7% in 2020. The model also suggests that the differing meteorology and natural
emissions (e.g., carbonaceous aerosol from wildfires and dust driven by meteorology) constitutes of about the 4.6% reduction,
while the lockdown-induced reduction in anthropogenic inorganic emissions for the 3.2% reduction.

Los Angeles, USA: Observed $PM_{2.5}$ in 2020 was lower than that in 2019 by $2.4 \mu g m^{-3}$ or 18.4%. In comparison, the GEOS
predicted a much smaller reduction of only $0.2 \mu g m^{-3}$ or 3%. However, the 3% reduction in $PM_{2.5}$ is a balance of the 8.2%
465 reduction in both inorganic and carbonaceous aerosols associated with the lockdown and the 5.7% increase in inorganic aerosol
and sea salt due to differing meteorology. Dust and carbonaceous aerosol had much smaller increases, compared to inorganic
aerosol and sea salt.

Paris, France: Although observed $PM_{2.5}$ decreased by $2.7 \mu g m^{-3}$ or 17.5% from 2019 to 2020, GEOS model only predicted a
reduction of $0.8 \mu g m^{-3}$ or 8%. Further analysis of GEOS modeling experiments shows that the reduction of anthropogenic
470 emissions due to the lockdowns contributed to a 5.1% reduction in $PM_{2.5}$, which is evenly contributed by inorganic and
carbonaceous $PM_{2.5}$. Due to the differing meteorology between 2020 and 2019, dust $PM_{2.5}$ increased by $0.2 \mu g m^{-3}$ while sea-
salt $PM_{2.5}$ decreased by $0.5 \mu g m^{-3}$. An increase of $0.3 \mu g m^{-3}$ in carbonaceous $PM_{2.5}$ was presumably due to increased wildfire
emissions. However, differing meteorology reduced the formation of inorganic $PM_{2.5}$ by $0.3 \mu g m^{-3}$ in 2020.

Lima, Peru: $PM_{2.5}$ was observed to decrease by $7.5 \mu g m^{-3}$ or 36.3% in 2020. In comparison, the GEOS modeling predicted a
475 relatively smaller reduction of 26.7% in $PM_{2.5}$. Further analysis shows that the lockdown-induced anthropogenic emission
reduction yielded a 16.7% reduction in $PM_{2.5}$, with more reduction in inorganic than carbonaceous aerosol. The differing
meteorology affected inorganic and carbonaceous $PM_{2.5}$ by a similar amount, which collectively contributed to the 12.7%
reduction in total $PM_{2.5}$.

Kuwait City, Kuwait: Different from the five cities discussed above, the observed reduction of $1.4 \mu g m^{-3}$ in $PM_{2.5}$ in 2020
480 is smaller than the GEOS simulated reduction of $4.7 \mu g m^{-3}$ by more than a factor of 3. However, due to GEOS model
overestimated $PM_{2.5}$ in 2019 by more than a factor of 2, the relative reduction is 3.8% and 5.6% for the observation and GEOS
model respectively. Furthermore, the GEOS model suggests that the reduction of 2.0% associated with the lockdowns is
smaller than the 3.7% reduction due to the differing meteorology. The lockdown-induced reduction in inorganic $PM_{2.5}$ is more



than a factor of two larger than that in carbonaceous $PM_{2.5}$. One can also notice that dust $PM_{2.5}$ had a small reduction caused
485 by the lockdown-induced anthropogenic emissions reduction, which might be attributed to the dynamic aerosol-radiation
interactions accounted for in the GEOS simulations that affected both emissions and transport of dust. The differing
meteorology in 2020 caused the reduction of dust $PM_{2.5}$ by $6.5 \mu g m^{-3}$, but an increase of $2.6 \mu g m^{-3}$ in inorganic $PM_{2.5}$ followed
by an increase of $0.4 \mu g m^{-3}$ in carbonaceous $PM_{2.5}$.

In summary, the GEOS modeling experiments show that both the lockdowns and the differing meteorology as well as natural
490 emissions contribute to the $PM_{2.5}$ reduction in 2020, in comparison to that in 2019. In Shanghai, New Delhi, and Kuwait City,
the differing meteorology and natural emissions made a larger contribution to the $PM_{2.5}$ reduction than the lockdowns did. On
the other hand, the lockdown effects in Los Angeles, Paris, and Lima were larger than that due to the differing meteorology
and natural emissions. Clearly, for all cities the effects of the differing meteorology and natural emissions need to be considered
when interpreting and attributing the observed $PM_{2.5}$ reduction in 2020 to the lockdown induced reductions in anthropogenic
495 emissions.

3.3. Observed changes in $PM_{2.5}$ during the major lockdown period in other cities.

In previous sections, we have presented a detailed analysis in the six representative cities about the responses of surface $PM_{2.5}$
to the lockdowns marked by the stringency index as well as to the meteorological conditions and natural aerosol events.
Although similar analysis has been performed for all the cities, for the sake of brevity here we only present monthly $PM_{2.5}$
500 during and prior to the pandemic years for other 16 sites in 15 cities (Jakarta South and Central sites are presented separately),
as shown in **Figures 11-12**. When examining these plots along with the stringency index of lockdowns (Figures S1 and S2),
we observe that eight cities in Figure 11 show the reduced monthly $PM_{2.5}$ in correspondence to the elevation of stringency
index. These cities are in China, India, and United States. For those in China, the high stringency index was recorded not only
in early 2020 (February – April) but also in March-October of 2022. On the contrary, the cities in Figure 12 generally do not
505 show a clear decrease in monthly $PM_{2.5}$ corresponding to the lockdowns. When further looking into the source attributions of
 $PM_{2.5}$ in individual cities (Figure 2), we notice that those cities showing the reduced $PM_{2.5}$ in correspondence to the lockdowns
generally have a higher contribution (e.g., >47%) from the LERS, a much smaller fraction (16-27%) for residential sources,
and no significant contribution (<6%) from episodic events such as dust storms. On the contrary, those cities without displaying



a decrease in $PM_{2.5}$ corresponding to the high stringency index have a lower LERS contribution (e.g., <40%) and a relatively higher contribution (20-50%) by the residential sector (Jakarta and Hanoi, in particular), or the predominance of desert dust (e.g., Dubai, Manama, and Addis Ababa). It is necessary to note that extremely high $PM_{2.5}$ in spring and summer of 2022 in Dubai may suggest a potential problem associated with the measurements in this station. Although high dust events occurred frequently in the region in 2022 (Francis et al., 2023), Manama and Kuwait City in the region did not record as high $PM_{2.5}$ as that in Dubai.

In summary, our analysis shows that there were no systematic reductions in $PM_{2.5}$ in response to the reduced human mobility due to the implementation of lockdown measures. In some urban areas, the coincidences of decreasing $PM_{2.5}$ and increasing stringency index strongly suggest the impact of COVID-lockdowns on improving air quality. In fact, the lockdowns yielded a historic low $PM_{2.5}$ level in several cities. In other urban areas, there was no reduction of $PM_{2.5}$ in response to the lockdown, suggesting that the impact of lockdowns could have been compounded with other factors such as meteorological conditions and natural emissions (desert dust and wildfire smoke) to some extent. Our analysis also manifests the importance of $PM_{2.5}$ source attributions in determining how the level of $PM_{2.5}$ responds to the lockdowns. When the energy, industry, transportation, commercial and other combustions, AFCID (anthropogenic fugitive, combustion, and industrial dust), and international shipping sectors are major attributors of $PM_{2.5}$, it would be easier to detect the $PM_{2.5}$ reduction in response to the lockdowns. On the other hand, when residential sector and/or natural emissions such as dust or wildfires are major contributors of $PM_{2.5}$, the response of $PM_{2.5}$ to the lockdowns might be masked out and even an increase of $PM_{2.5}$ could occur during the lockdown periods. Finally, it is important to bear in mind that even for those cities with the lowest level of $PM_{2.5}$ in the recent decade occurred during the COVID-19 lockdowns, the observed $PM_{2.5}$ reductions should not be attributed fully to the lockdowns. The variability in meteorological conditions and natural emissions might have made sizable contributions.

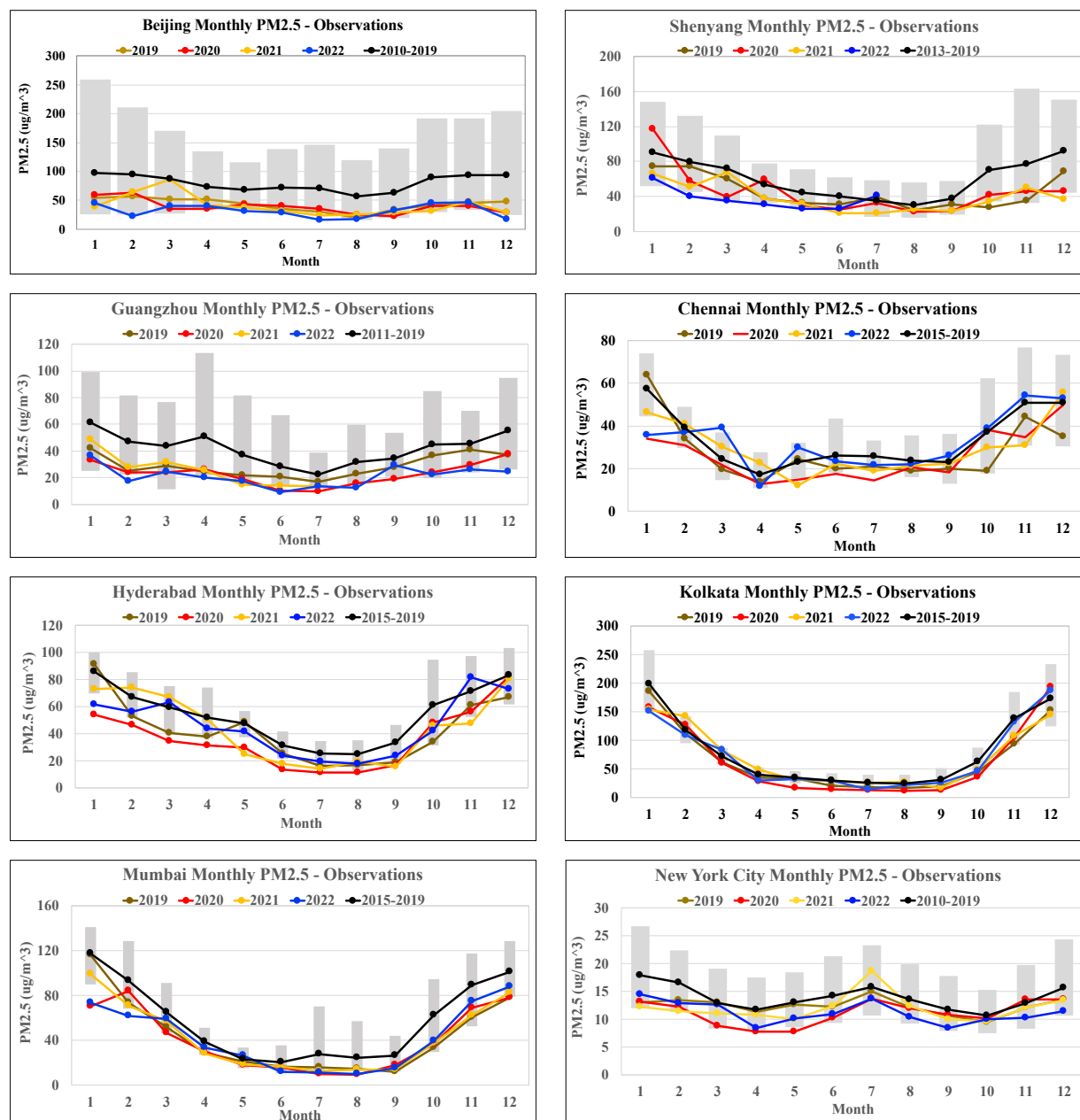


Figure 11: Monthly variations of PM_{2.5} concentration in 2019 (brown), 2020 (red), 2021 (orange), 2022 (blue), and the pre-pandemic climatology (with black line denoting the average and gray shaded areas the range of observations during the pre-pandemic period) in Beijing, Shenyang, Guangzhou, Chennai, Hyderabad, Kolkata, Mumbai, and New York City. The time series of stringency index for these cities are shown in Figure S1.

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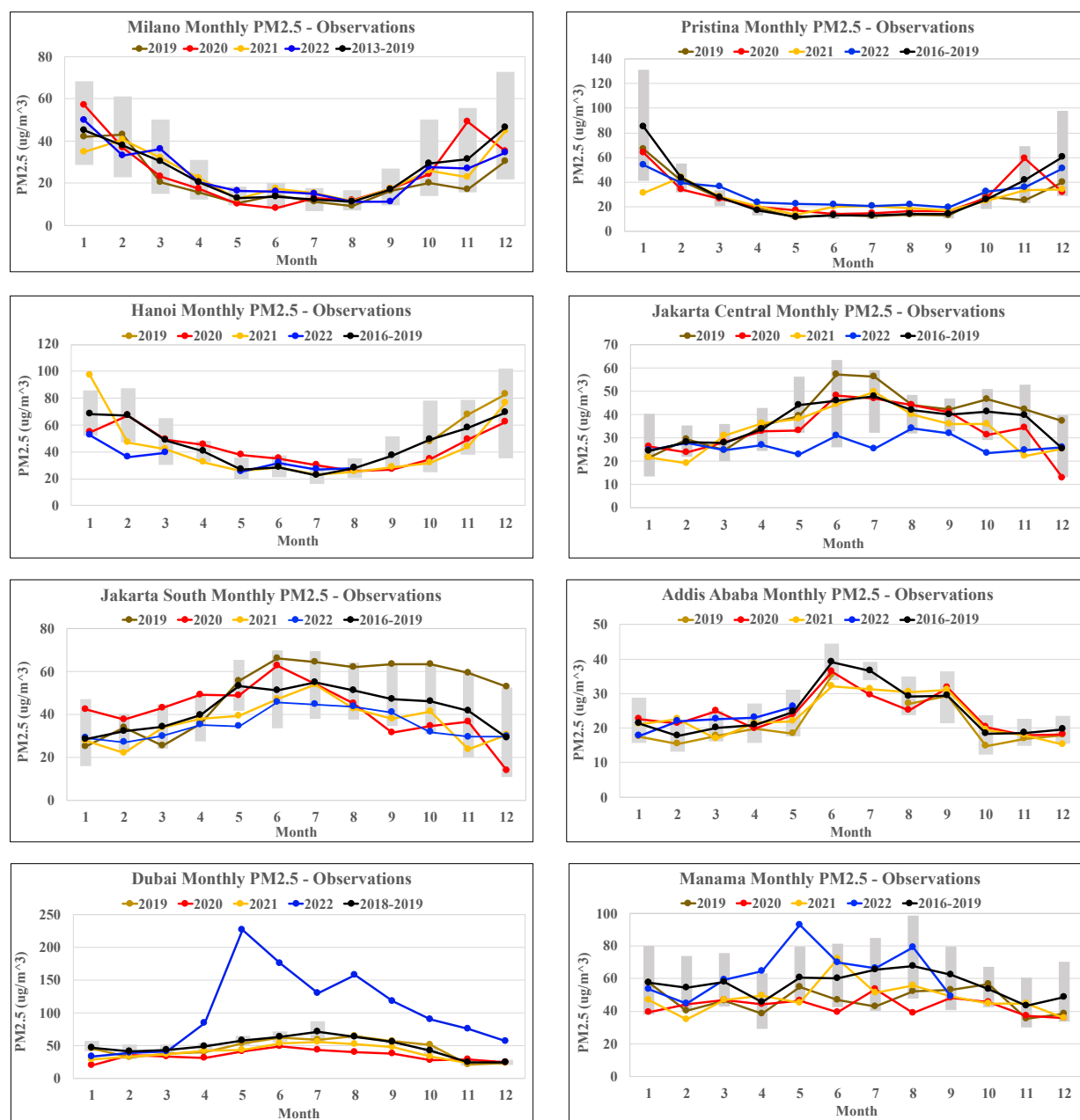


Figure 12: Monthly variations of PM_{2.5} concentration in 2019 (brown), 2020 (red), 2021 (orange), 2022 (blue), and the pre-pandemic climatology (with black line denoting the average and gray shaded areas the range of observations during the pre-pandemic period) in Milano, Pristina, Hanoi, Jakarta (central and south), Addis Ababa, Dubai, and Manama. The time series of stringency index for these cities are shown in Figure S2.

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4. Discussion

4.1. Can satellite observations of AOD be used to detect surface PM_{2.5} changes in response to the lockdowns?

The ground-based observations of PM_{2.5} are inherently limited in spatial coverage. Numerous studies have explored the use of
555 satellite observations of AOD to estimate the surface PM_{2.5} that can fill the spatial gaps of surface based PM_{2.5} measurements
(van Donkelaar et al., 2010; Wei et al., 2021). Satellite remote sensing is appealing in this regard because it provides routine
observations of AOD on a global scale and over a multi-year or even multi-decade time scale. Can such satellite remote sensing
observations be used to discern the lockdowns' impacts on surface PM_{2.5}? To answer this question, we sample MODIS/Aqua
AOD over the 21 cities in 2019 (a pre-pandemic year) and 2020 (the pandemic year). We then calculate the relative changes
560 of March-April average AOD values between 2020 and 2019 as follows:

$$AOD\ change\ (\%) = \frac{AOD_{2020} - AOD_{2019}}{AOD_{2019}} \times 100\%$$

The relative changes of observed March-April average PM_{2.5} at the location of the same sites are calculated with similar
methodology. From the modeling perspective, we compute the relative changes of AOD and PM_{2.5} based on GEOS simulations
for 2019 and 2020 (for the COVID scenario, namely 2020-COVID, as discussed earlier).

565 **Figure 13** compares the relative changes of AOD and PM_{2.5} in March-April from 2019 to 2020 over the 21 cities from both
observational (left panel) and modeling (right panel). The observations show that in half (10) of those 20 cities (excluding
Hanoi because of the lack of PM_{2.5} data in March and April of 2019) where the changes of AOD and PM_{2.5} are in the same
directions. In the other half the changes are opposite. On the other hand, the GEOS model shows a majority (17) of the 20
cities having the same directions of AOD and PM_{2.5} changes. Quantitatively, AOD and PM_{2.5} changes can differ substantially
570 for both observations and modeling, depending on cities. This presumably reflects the complexity of local/regional aerosol
sources including both anthropogenic and natural, transported amount, and their dependence on altitudes. Our analysis suggests
that satellite AOD, despite its great advantage in spatial and temporal sampling, cannot always be used to detect changes in
surface PM_{2.5} quantitatively (e.g., percentage of change) or even qualitatively (e.g., direction of change). Previous studies using
satellite AOD measurements for detecting or inferring the COVID-lockdown's impacts on PM_{2.5} air quality need to be
575 reassessed. There is also a possibility that MODIS AOD is subject to large uncertainties (e.g., 15-20% at least), particularly in
urban areas where the surface is bright and highly heterogeneous (Levy et al., 2013). It is understandable that when the AOD



uncertainty in satellite remote sensing is comparable to or larger than the interannual variability, the value of using satellite remote sensing product for discerning the changes is greatly reduced.

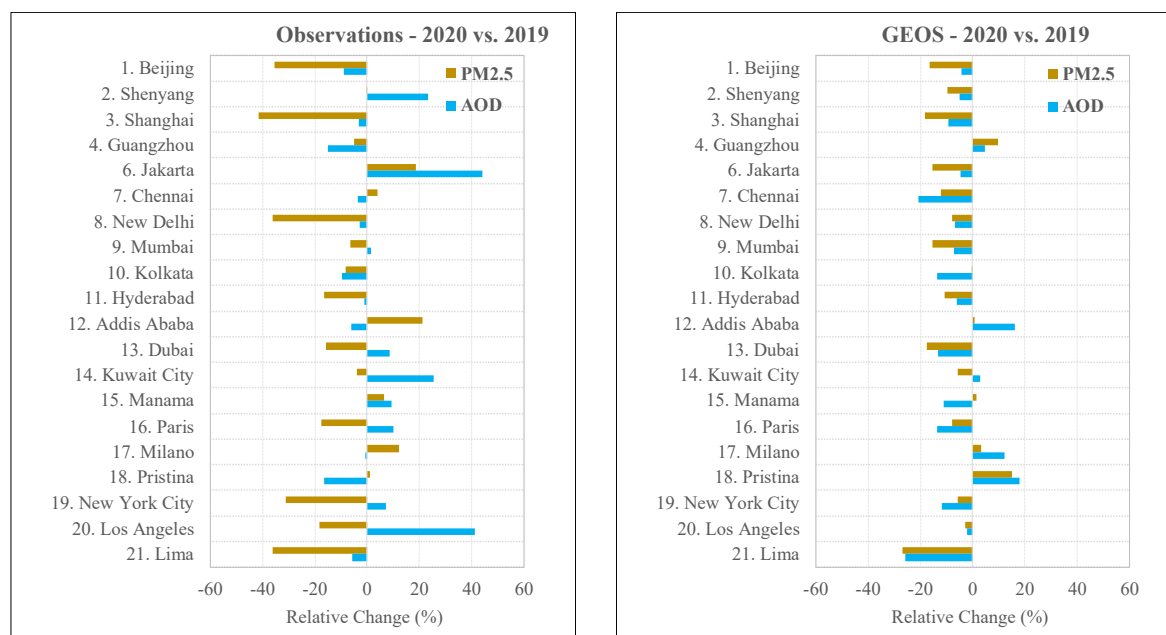


Figure 13: Relative changes (%) of March-April average PM_{2.5} and AOD between 2020 and 2019 in 20 stations based on the observations (left panel) and GEOS simulations (right panel).

4.2. Discrepancies in PM_{2.5} changes between observations and GEOS simulations.

To use the GEOS modeling for attributing the observed changes in PM_{2.5} to different factors, it requires that the GEOS simulations and observational data are at least consistent in the direction of PM_{2.5} changes. This fundamental requirement was met for the six stations discussed in section 3.2.2, albeit the magnitude of the changes in the GEOS results was smaller than observed. Here we examine observation-model discrepancies in the PM_{2.5} changes for 20 stations, as shown in **Figure 14**, both for absolute (left panel) and relative (right panel) changes in the March-April average PM_{2.5} concentration (i.e., 2020 minus 2019). Note again that the Hanoi/Vietnam station was excluded because it did not have PM_{2.5} observations in March-April 2019. We found that 17 out of 20 stations show consistent directional changes in PM_{2.5} concentration between observations and GEOS simulations. Of these, 13 stations had negative differences (2020 lower than 2019) and four stations had positive differences (2020 higher than 2019). Opposite changes in PM_{2.5} between the observations and GEOS modeling were found in



the remaining three stations, namely Guangzhou/China, Chennai/India, Jakarta/Indonesia. We defer these three stations to further investigation in the future to understand the model-observation disparities. Quantitatively, the observation-model disparity can be substantial, depending on stations. For all the stations the relative changes in the observed $PM_{2.5}$ between 2020 and 2019 range from -41.4% to +21.0%, while the GEOS modeling gives a relatively smaller range of -25.2% to +10.6%. To better explain the observed $PM_{2.5}$ changes with the model simulations, future research is needed to improve the model's performance. One of such endeavors is to improve the accuracy of emission inventories, particularly the relative importance of individual source sectors. The estimated emission reduction used in the GEOS model simulation was obtained by applying the adjustment factors to the 2019 emission based on preliminary, incomplete information from the Apple/Google mobility data, which could have large uncertainties. The newly released CEDS emission that covers the emission inventory during the COVID years is expected to be more accurate for use in the model for future studies.

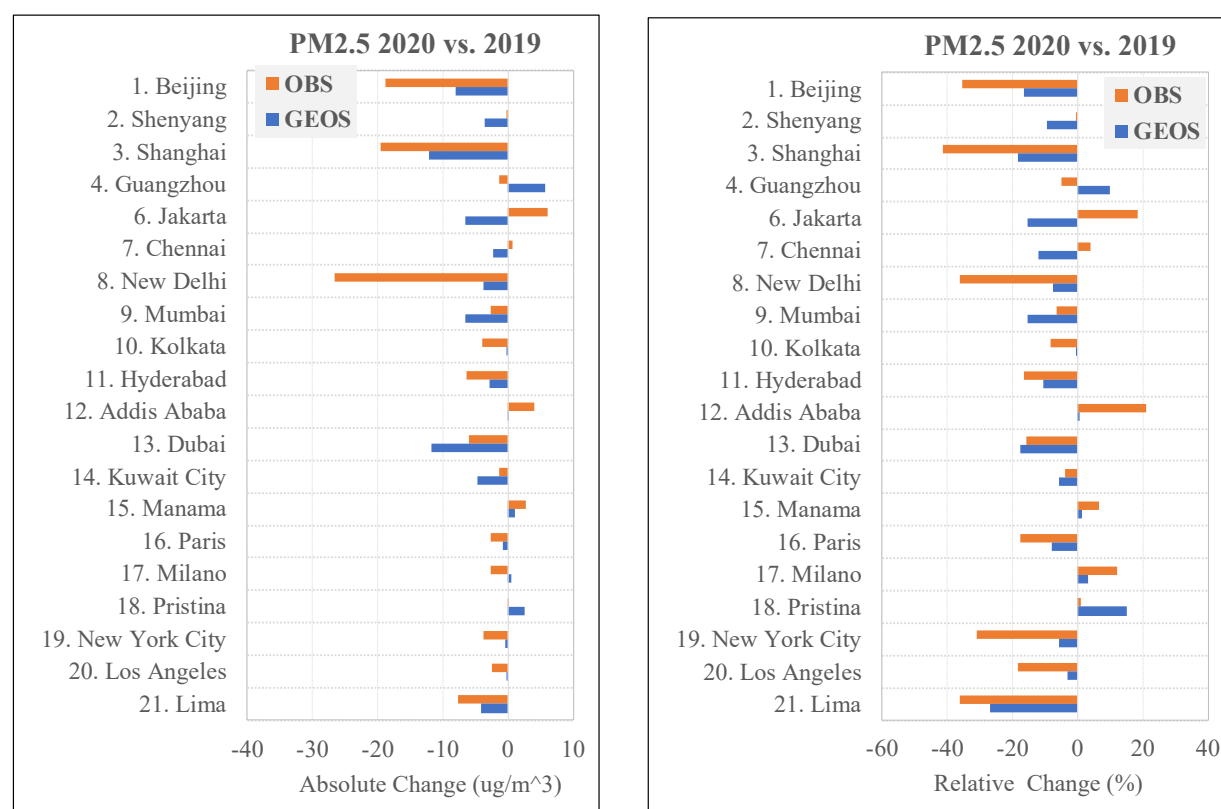


Figure 14: Changes in $PM_{2.5}$ concentration (March-April average, 2020 minus 2019) from the observations (orange bars) and GEOS simulations (blue bars) in 20 stations. Left panel is for absolute change in $PM_{2.5}$ ($\mu g m^{-3}$) and right panel for relative change (%).



5. Conclusion

Our analysis of multi-year surface $PM_{2.5}$ observations in 21 cities around the globe shows that reductions in $PM_{2.5}$ did not occur systematically in all the cities in response to the reduced human activities due to the implementation of COVID-19 lockdown measures. In some cities, the decreasing $PM_{2.5}$ was coincident with the increasing stringency index and yielded a historic record of low $PM_{2.5}$ level, strongly suggesting the impact of COVID-lockdowns on improving the air quality. On the contrary, in other cities there was no reduction of $PM_{2.5}$ in response to the lockdown, suggesting that the positive impact of lockdown-induced emission reductions on air quality could have been compounded with other factors such as meteorological conditions and emissions/transport of desert dust and wildfire smoke. Our analysis also suggests that the $PM_{2.5}$ source attributions determine how the level of $PM_{2.5}$ responds to the lockdowns. When the potential LERS such as the energy, industry, transportation, combustions, AFCID, and shipping sectors predominates over the residential sector, it was easier to detect the $PM_{2.5}$ reduction in response to the lockdowns. On the other hand, when residential sector and/or natural emissions such as dust storms and wildfires were more important contributors of $PM_{2.5}$ than those potential LERS, the response of $PM_{2.5}$ to the lockdown-induced anthropogenic emission reductions might be masked out and even an increase of $PM_{2.5}$ could occur during the lockdown. This manifests the importance of $PM_{2.5}$ source attributions in developing effective pollution control strategies for improving the air quality. Results of this study provides a preview of potential mixed effects on urban air quality when transitioning gasoline and diesel-powered vehicles to electric vehicles.

Even for those cities with the lowest level of $PM_{2.5}$ in the recent decade that was coincident with the elevation of stringency index, the observed $PM_{2.5}$ reductions should not be attributed fully to the lockdowns. The non-lockdown effect resulting from variabilities in meteorological conditions and natural emissions might have made sizable contributions. The analysis of GEOS modeling experiments suggests that effects other than anthropogenic emissions were significant and could well exceed the lockdown effect in some cases.

Our analysis also suggests that the GEOS model is still subject to large uncertainties and cannot be used to reliably attribute the observed $PM_{2.5}$ changes to anthropogenic emissions, natural emissions, and meteorological conditions. The model and observation show disparities in quantitative change in $PM_{2.5}$. In some cases, the direction of change in $PM_{2.5}$ can be opposite



between the model and observations, which makes it impossible to use the model to interpret the observations. This manifests the importance of continuous efforts on improving modeling performance in general and the source apportionments of PM_{2.5} particularly. The change of anthropogenic emissions in each sector during COVID is subject to large uncertainties, and the model results shown here should be considered more as a “sensitivity” study. When the gridded CEDS 2024 release is prepared, we could rerun the model for a more systematic assessment.

Despite the advantage of satellite remote sensing in terms of routine daily sampling over decadal time spans, using AOD observations from satellites cannot always detect the impacts of COVID-19 lockdowns on the PM_{2.5} air quality and even the columnar aerosol loading. This is a result of the complex and non-proportional relationship between AOD and surface PM_{2.5}, and as well as the large uncertainty in MODIS AOD measurements.

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