

Assessing PM₁₀ Transmission Changes under Different Lockdown Phases. A Case Study of the City of Colombo

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Abstract

Air pollution is a major man-made disaster, and most researchers have reported that lockdown events such as COVID-19 pandemic are likely to impact air quality. However, there are limited studies in Sri Lanka about spatial and temporal changes in PM₁₀ before, during and after the COVID-19 pandemic. Therefore, this study focused on assessing the spatiotemporal impacts of COVID-19 on PM₁₀ in the Colombo Municipal Council. Landsat 8 (OLI) data and observed PM₁₀ data collected from the NBRO and US embassies in Sri Lanka and Arc GIS 10.5 were used to analyze the PM₁₀ data. The study was conducted in 2019, 2020 and 2021. The year 2020 was identified according to three main phases: Before COVID-19 Lockdown Period, COVID-19 Lockdown Period and the Travel Restriction Period. In 2019 and 2021 were divided according to the 2020 phases, to identify the variations in PM₁₀. According to the results of this study, the accuracy assessment revealed a strong correlation ($R^2 = 0.89$) between the calculated and observed PM₁₀ concentrations. The city of Colombo is highly vulnerable to PM₁₀, and the TRP concentration in 2019 was reported to be high, at 182.33 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. The lowest PM₁₀ concentration was 20.03 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, which was reported for LP in 2020. Most areas exceeded the World Health Organization standard value of 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ for PM₁₀ during these three years. The highest PM₁₀ concentrations can be found in port city area, city center, trade center (Fort), road junctions, industrial zones, construction areas, etc. Therefore, it is necessary to take necessary actions to reduce this man-made disaster to create a healthy environment for urban inhabitants.

Keywords: Air pollution, COVID-19, PM₁₀, Landsat, GIS

1. Introduction

Air pollution is a major man-made disaster worldwide and is currently one of the enormous ongoing threats faced by world public health (WHO, 2016). Approximately 90% of the world's population is estimated to reside in areas with air pollution levels beyond those judged safe for human health (WHO, 2018), which causes 7 million deaths annually (or 13% of all deaths worldwide) and a 2-year decline in average life expectancy (Greenstone and Fan, 2018). However, it is currently one of the main problems in developing countries (Othman et al., 2010). In the urbanization process in developing countries, population growth and human-induced anthropogenic activities are the core factors influencing air pollution. The most important air quality

parameters are particulate matter, SO₂, NO₂, CO₂, O₃, and NH₃. PM with an aerodynamic diameter lower than 10 µm, called PM₁₀ (Alvarez-Mendoza et al., 2019), is one of the main direct contaminants of air quality (WHO, 2018). PM₁₀ has undesirable environmental impacts on air quality and is linked to public health issues such as respiratory diseases and cardiovascular disease (Joss et al., 2017; Kobza et al., 2018) and atmospheric visibility and climate change in developing countries.

The primary anthropogenic emission sources of particulate matter (PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5}) are the household, transport, and industrial sectors (Gurjar et al., 2016). Industries, coal-based thermal power plants, and transportation are the main sources of NO₂ emissions in the atmosphere, while industries, home biomass burning, and transportation are the main sources of CO₂ emissions. The use of sulfur-containing fuel in coal-based thermal power plants and other sectors is related to SO₂ emissions (Sharma & Dikshit, 2015).

As a developing country, Sri Lanka faces several environmental issues, and air pollution is a key environmental, health and social problem in Sri Lanka. Poor urban air quality has been one of the major environmental problems (Premasiri, 2020) faced during the last few years in Sri Lanka, and according to the Central Environmental Authority (CEA), the annual average ambient PM₁₀ concentration in Colombo has continued to increase within the 60 to 82 µg/m³ range, with a slight increasing trend from 1998 to 2011, and it has consistently exceeded the latest WHO guideline value of 50 µg/m³ for PM₁₀. Thus, the city of Colombo is very unhealthy in terms of particulate pollution (CEA, 2017). Motor vehicle emissions are the most significant cause of air pollution in the area. More than one million vehicles arrive in the city of Colombo through the eight entrances, and the number of vehicles leaving the city of Colombo is 173,611 per day. For these reasons, the city of Colombo can be recognized as a major air-vulnerable area in Sri Lanka.

Today, the spread of the severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) pandemic, called coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), is aggressive. In Sri Lanka, the first case of COVID-19 was reported on 27th January 2020. From 27th January 2020 to 28th July 2021, there were more than 301,832 island-wide cases and more than 4,000 confirmed deaths (WHO, 2021). Most global researchers have attempted to identify how this pandemic has affected the environment sector, especially the air. Before COVID-19, high levels of urban air pollution, mainly through concentrations of particulate matter (PM)/dust, nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) and sulphur dioxide (SO₂), were observed around the world (Sargsyan et al., 2022). Notably, Kumari and Toshniwal (2020) noted that the recent COVID-19 pandemic has had a positive effect on environmental sectors such as air, water, and soil. Singh et

al. (2020) proposed that the spread of the COVID-19 pandemic at the national level has caused major changes in air pollution worldwide. Consequently, as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic's global reduction in air pollutant emissions, air pollution-related causes of morbidity and mortality are expected to decline (Katoto et al., 2021).

Most researchers have reported that the COVID-19 pandemic has had a considerable impact on air quality in several cities/countries around the world. Different studies in various regions of the world have confirmed that national lockdowns have led to air pollutant reductions in the atmosphere (Skirience & Stasiskiene, 2021). Accordingly, the goal of this study was to determine the variations in the PM₁₀ concentration in Sri Lankan air due to COVID-19. To this end, several papers were cited, and their summaries are provided below.

Venter et al. (2020) and Romano et al. (2021) showed that the COVID-19 pandemic resulted in unprecedented reductions in economic activity, and in 34 countries, lockdown events reduced the population-weighted concentrations of nitrogen dioxide and particulate matter by approximately 60% and 31%, respectively. Mendez-Espinosa et al. (2020) reported that the concentrations of PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, and NO₂ decreased in Northern South America during the COVID-19 lockdown. Singh et al. (2020) reported that NO₂, PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, CO₂, O₃, NH₃ and SO₂ decreased and O₃ increased during the lockdown period in the megacity of Delhi, India. Hashim et al. (2021) studied the impact of the COVID-19 lockdown on NO₂, O₃, PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ concentrations and assessed air quality changes in Baghdad, Iraq.

In addition, Yuan et al. (2020) focused on spatiotemporal disparities and reductions in air pollutants during the COVID-19 pandemic in a megacity of the Yangtze River Delta in China. Hasnain et al. (2021) assessed air pollution before, during and after the COVID-19 pandemic in Nanjing, China, and their results showed that compared to that in the previous three years, 2017–2019, the reduction in PM₁₀ in the lockdown period was -37.99%. In addition, Kumari and Toshniwal (2020) investigated the variations in air pollutants such as NO₂, PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, O₃ and SO₂ during the pre and post-lockdown phases in major cities such as Beijing, Bengaluru and Delhi, Lima, Las Vegas, Peru, Spain, Moscow, Mumbai, Wuhan, Rome, and Sao Paulo. Menut et al. (2020) analysed the impact of the COVID-19 lockdown on air quality over Western Europe. Moreover, Khaniabadi et al. (2022) estimated the air temperature, PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀ and relative humidity in Ahvaz, Iran, and their results revealed a significant reduction in PM₁₀ (29.6%) during the lockdown period.

Furthermore, Doval-Minarro and Bueso (2023) analysed meteorological conditions and traffic intensity, and the concentrations of PM₁₀, NO, O₃, SO₂ and NO₂ were measured at three different locations-rural, urban, and industrial

in Southeastern Spain (from 2016 to 2021). According to the literature review, most studies were conducted using GIS and remote sensing techniques to analyse the air quality concentrations during the COVID-19 period.

However, in Sri Lanka, very few studies have investigated the spatial pattern of PM₁₀ before COVID-19 using GIS and remote sensing methods. Most studies have been conducted to describe the impact of PM₁₀ on health in Sri Lanka both before and during the COVID-19 pandemic. However, few studies have explored spatial and temporal changes in PM₁₀ before, during and after the COVID-19 pandemic in Sri Lanka and the Colombo MC Area. Hence, effective mapping and analysis of a city's PM₁₀ concentration is essential for identifying the air quality situation and formulating effective policies (Mahato et al., 2020) in the future.

The results of this study provide a practical and theoretical approach for assessing air quality based on the RS and GIS and provide information for environmental protection, management, and sustainability in the country.

The main objective of this study was to determine the impacts of the COVID-19 outbreak on the PM₁₀ concentration in the Colombo MC Area. Under this main objective, three specific objectives were identified as follows: [1] to estimate the PM₁₀ data values using satellite images in the Colombo MC Area. [2] to examine the accuracy of those estimated data [3], to study the spatial-temporal distribution changes in the PM₁₀ distribution in the Colombo MC Area.

2. Study Area

In this study, the Colombo Municipal Council, Sri Lanka, was considered the study area, and it is the main commercial capital in Sri Lanka (Figure 1). It is situated in the Western part of the Colombo District and consists of 47 wards. The total land extent is 37.3 km² and it has since increased 41.35 sq. km due to the expansion of harbours (Dissanayake & Manawadu, 2016). According to the Department of Statistics, the urban population in Sri Lanka is 18.2%, and 77.6% of the urban population lives in the Colombo District. The total population of the city of Colombo in 2012 was 561,314, and the population density was 13,364 km² (DCS, 2012). Built-up areas are the major land use pattern in this area. Figure 1 shows a map of the study area.

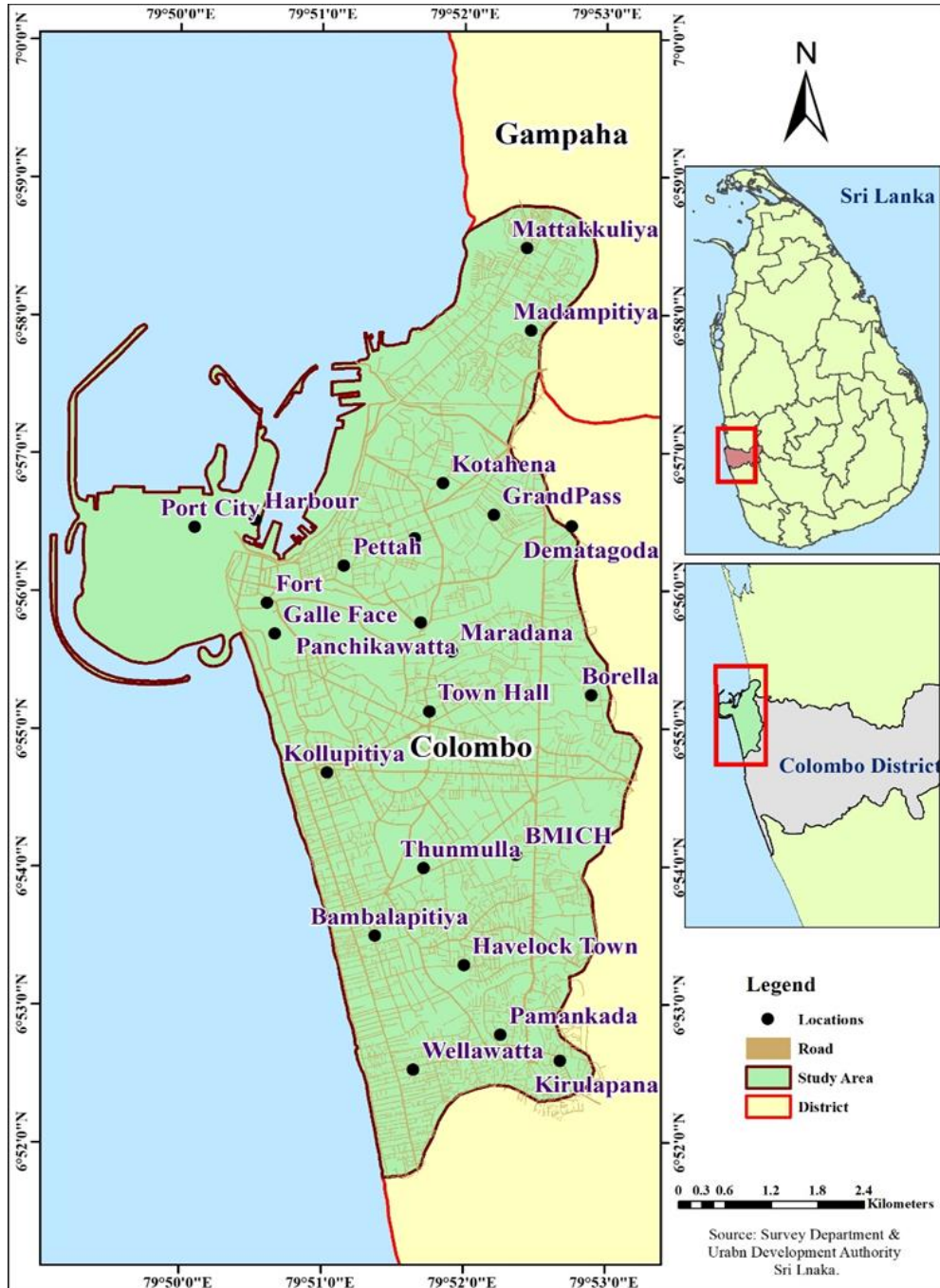


Figure 1: Map of the study area

3. Research Methodology

The methodology has been divided into several parts: data acquisition, pre-processing, data processing and accuracy validation. Data pre-processing and processing were performed using ArcGIS 10.5 software. The study was conducted over three years and one year was divided into three phases according to the 2020 COVID-19 period. The year 2020 can be divided into three main phases: before the lockdown period (BL-January to March 10), during the lockdown period (LP-March 11 to May 20), and during the travel restriction period (TRP-May 21 to December). These phases were divided into 2019 and 2021 to identify the changes in PM₁₀.

3.1 Data Acquisition

Satellite images were collected and analysed for the periods after and during the new coronavirus outbreak in 2020. The data from 2019 (before COVID-19) and 2021 (after COVID-19) were analysed according to the 2020 COVID-19 phase in Sri Lanka. Landsat 8 data were used to estimate the PM₁₀ concentration in the Colombo MC Area. All satellite data were downloaded from the USGS earth explorer website: <https://glovis.usgs.gov/>. The path/raw ratio was 141/55, and all satellite data were selected based on less than 10% cloud cover. The images were acquired in tiff format at 30×30 pixels.

3.2 Data Pre-processing

All Landsat images were georeferenced using the WGS 1984 coordinate reference, and radiometric and atmospheric corrections were performed for the visible bands (red, blue and green).

Typically, the received DN values can be converted into radiance using simple linear radiometric correction, and this method can be applied by transforming the values of DN to radiance or radiance to reflectance values. During image pre-processing, PM₁₀ was estimated using the algorithms recommended by Saleh and Hasan (2014) and bellow equations were obtained from the Landsat 8 data handbook of the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS).

Table 1: Attribute data of the satellite images used in this study

Phases	Acquisition Date	Path/ Row	Cloud cover (%)	Rainfall (mm)*	Temperature (Max-Min (°C))*
Before covid-19 Lockdown Period (January to March 10)	2019.03.05	141/55	3.56	0.00	32.07 - 24.03
	2020.03.05		4.56	01.04	30.06 - 24.05
	2021.03.05		3.02	0.00	31.02 - 22.55
During covid-19 Lockdown Period (March 11 to May 20)	2019.04.16		2.35	0.00	32.07 - 23.08
	2020.04.17		3.25	0.00	33.75 - 23.71
	2021.04.16		4.01	0.00	30.61 - 26.22
Travel Restriction Period (May 21 to December)	2019.07.19		7.89	18.4	28.03 - 23.03
	2020.07.16		6.23	0.00	27.51 - 24.93
	2021.07.19		3.21	0.00	27.99 - 25.25

Source: Weather data were obtained from the global NASA power database

OLI spectral radiance data can be converted to TOA reflectance using reflectance rescaling coefficients provided in the Landsat 8 OLI metadata file. The following algorithms were used to convert the DN values to TOA reflectance:

$$\rho\lambda' = M\rho * Q\text{ cal} + A\rho \dots(1)$$

where:

$\rho\lambda'$ = TOA planetary reflectance without correction for solar angle. ($\rho\lambda'$ does not contain a correction for the sun angle)

$M\rho$ = Band-specific multiplicative rescaling factor from the metadata (Reflectance_Mult_Band_x, where x is the band number)

$A\rho$ = Band-specific additive rescaling factor from the metadata (Reflectance_Add_Band_x, where x is the band number)

$Q\text{ cal}$ = Quantized and calibrated standard product pixel values (DN)

The TOA reflectance with a correction for the sun angle is then:

$$\rho\lambda = \frac{\rho\lambda'}{\cos(\theta_{SZ})} = \frac{\rho\lambda'}{\sin(\theta_{SE})} \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

where:

$\rho\lambda$ = TOA planetary reflectance

θ_{SE} = Local sun elevation angle. The scene center sun elevation angle in degrees is provided in the metadata (Sun Elevation).

θ_{SZ} = Local solar zenith angle; $\theta_{SZ} = 90^\circ - \theta_{SE}$

3.3 Estimate Aerosol Optical Thickness (AOT) and PM₁₀

After image pre-processing, PM₁₀ was estimated using the algorithms recommended by Saleh and Hasan (2014). The AOT algorithm for a single band or wavelength (λ) is simplified as:

$$AOT(\lambda) = a_n R(\lambda) \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

Equation (5) is rewritten as a multiband equation as follows:

$$AOT(\lambda) = a_0 R_{\lambda 1} + a_1 R_{\lambda 2} + a_2 R_{\lambda 3} \dots \dots (4)$$

where

R_{λ} = atmospheric reflectance ($i = 1, 2, 3 \dots$ corresponding to the wavelength for the satellite)

a_j = algorithm coefficient ($j = 0, 1, 2, \dots$), which is empirically determined

The relationship between the PM concentration and AOT is derived for a single homogeneous atmospheric layer containing spherical aerosol particles. Hence, it can be expected that the parameter PM directly correlates better with the AOT. Using the information obtained by spectral AOT retrieval, a method has been developed to retrieve particulate matter concentrations. By substituting AOT in terms of PM₁₀ into equation (2) (Saleh and Hasan, 2014), the algorithm of PM₁₀ with the spectral reflectance of multiband wavelengths (λ_i) is simplified as:

$$PM_{10} = a_j R_{\lambda 1} + a_1 R_{\lambda 2} + a_2 R_{\lambda 3} \dots (5)$$

where

$R_{\lambda i}$ = atmospheric reflectance ($i = 1, 2, 3, 4$ corresponding to satellite bands)

a_j = algorithm coefficient ($j = 0, 1, 2, 3 \dots$) is empirically determined

Othman et al. (2010) and Saleh and Hasan (2014) reported that AOT and PM₁₀ are linearly related. They found that the correlation was high and ranged from 0.78 to 0.95 (retrieved between the AOT values and PM₁₀ measurements).

Finally, spatial analysis and statistical methods were used to identify the spatial and temporal patterns of the PM₁₀ concentration in the Colombo MC area.

3.4 Data accuracy and validation

The accuracy was determined using observed PM₁₀ data, and the variations in both the observed and estimated PM₁₀ data were calculated via ANOVA and regression analysis.

The observed data were collected from NBRO (National Building Research Organization) and the US Embassy in Sri Lanka. These institutes observed four stations that covered the study area, such as Pelawatta, Gregory's Road, the US Embassy and the Meteorology Department Station. The accuracy assessment was performed for two days, which were selected using available satellite image dates and available data within the study period. The selected dates were 16.04.2021 and 19.07.2021. In Sri Lanka, there is a lack of PM₁₀ data, and there are very few PM₁₀ measurement stations for the whole country. The accuracy of the estimated data was determined, and using these methods, the procedure was applied to the study for different time periods.

3.5 Spatial and temporal variations in PM₁₀

In this study, spatial analysis was used to determine the spatial distribution patterns of air pollution in the study area. For this purpose, PM₁₀ was analysed, and the spatial distribution of air pollutants in the study area was visualized using a color-range map and bar charts to determine the distribution of PM₁₀ in the area. Figure 2 shows the overall methodology used in this study.

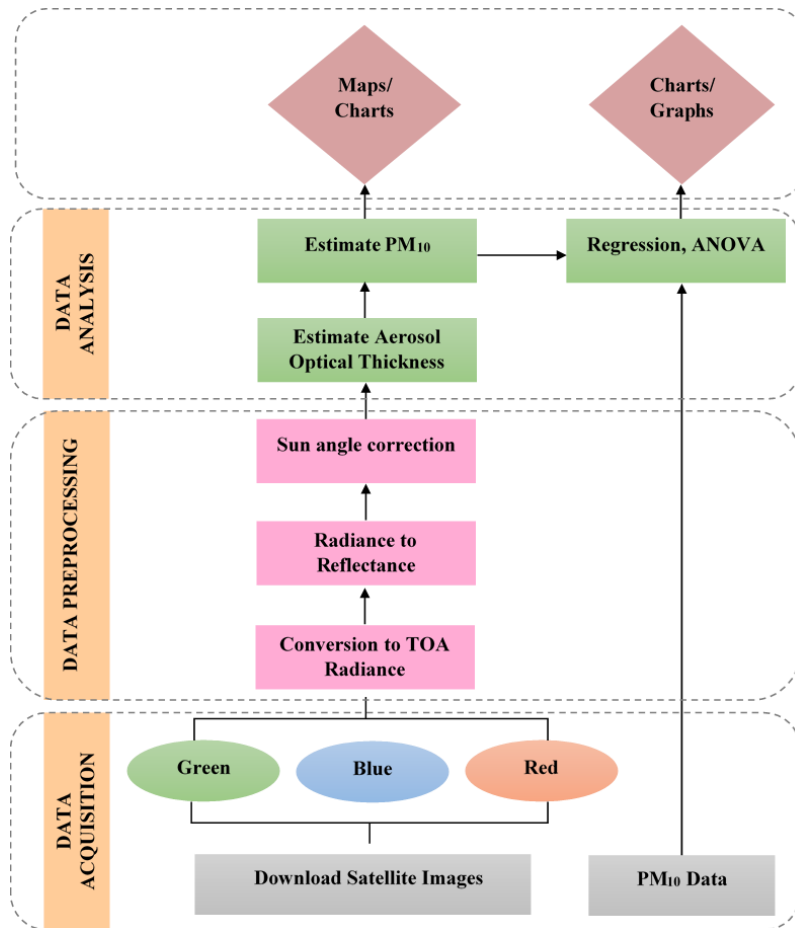


Figure 2: Methodology design used in this study

4. Results

The accuracy assessment was performed for two days during the study period. This study revealed that the accuracy of the estimated data was more than 80%, and ANOVA indicated that the F-crit value (5.9086) was greater than the F value (0.759) in 16.04.2021 and that the F-crit value (5.986) was greater than the F value (0.059) in 19.07.2021. These results clearly indicated that there was no significant difference between the calculated and observed PM₁₀ concentrations in the study area.

Figure 3a and 3b show the results of the regression analysis between the observed data and the estimated data during the study period. The R² was 0.89 on 2021.04.16, and the R² was 0.86 on 2021.07.19 between the observed data and the estimated data. These results showed that there was no significant variance in the estimated data. Therefore, this methodology is very useful and can be used in future studies.

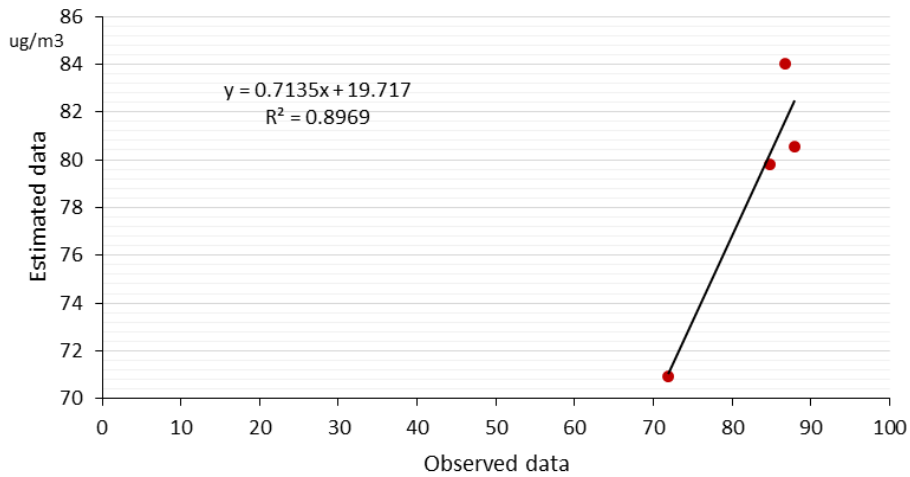


Figure 3a: Relationships between the observed and estimated data for 2021.04.16

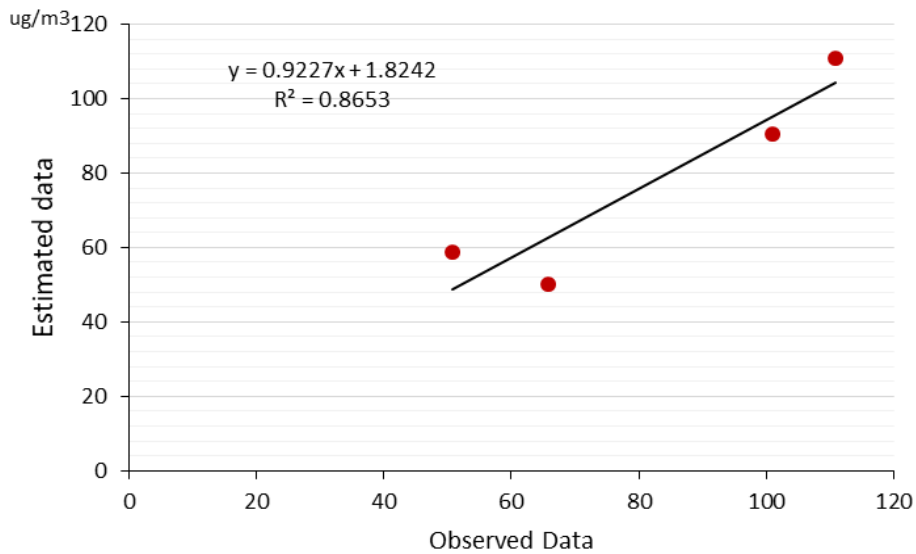


Figure 3b: Relationships between the observed and estimated data for 2021.07.19

After image analysis, this study identified the spatial distribution of PM₁₀ in 2019, 2020 and 2021 across the study area. Figure 4 illustrates the spatial distribution pattern of PM₁₀ in the Colombo MC Area in 2019 (based on before the lockdown period, during the lockdown period and during the travel restriction period with COVID-19 in 2020).

In 2019, the highest and lowest PM₁₀ values were reported for TRP (185.42 µg/m³ and 36.94 µg/m³, respectively). The Port of Colombo city area, Galle face, Kotahena, Town Hall, Maradana, and Borella were identified as hotspots of PM₁₀ during the TR phase in 2019.

Moreover, in 2019 (based on 2020 before the lockdown period, lockdown period and travel restriction period), PM₁₀ contaminants fluctuated in the study area, and the PM₁₀ concentration was greater than that in 2020 and 2021.

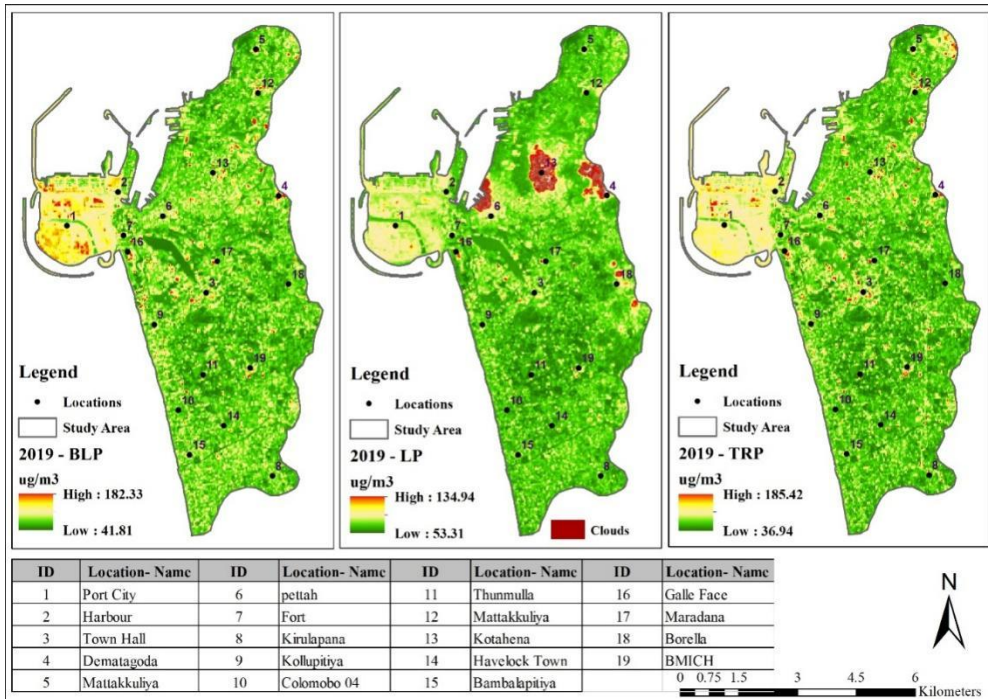


Figure 4: Spatial and temporal variability in air quality over the Colombo MC area in 2019

Figure 5 shows the spatial and temporal variability of PM₁₀ in 2020. In 2020, the PM₁₀ concentration decreased compared with that in 2019. In this year, the highest PM₁₀ concentration was reported in the BLP, and it fluctuated over the area between 179.11 and 44.66 µg/m³. The lowest values of PM₁₀ were reported for LP, with values between 75.56 µg/m³ and 20.03 µg/m³. The PM₁₀ concentration decreased more rapidly in this phase than in other phases of the year. This reduction occurred due to COVID-19 being spared in that year. Figure 4 shows that the most vulnerable areas, such as the Port of Colombo city area, Galle face, Kotahena, Town Hall, Maradana, and Borella, had lower PM₁₀ concentrations on the LP than on the BLP in 2019.

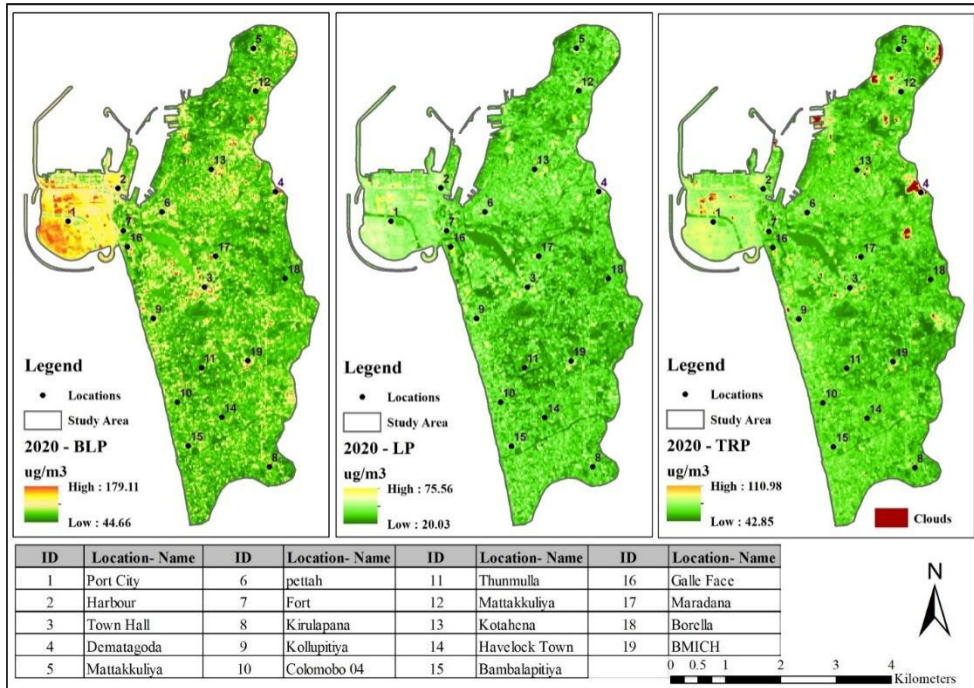


Figure 5: Spatial and temporal variability in air quality over the Colombo MC area in 2020

The PM₁₀ concentration started to increase again with the TRP in 2020. However, it did not exceed the PM₁₀ of BLP in 2019. In this phase, the government gave permission to travel and do other daily work on some days of the week. Therefore, the community has the chance to perform daily routing work on these days, and most of the PM₁₀ release activities might have been performed on these days.

Figure 6 shows the spatial and temporal variability in PM₁₀ concentrations in 2021. In this year, the lowest concentration of PM₁₀ reported in BLP was between 119.52 and 43.27 μg/m³. However, its values were greater than those of LP and TRP in 2020.

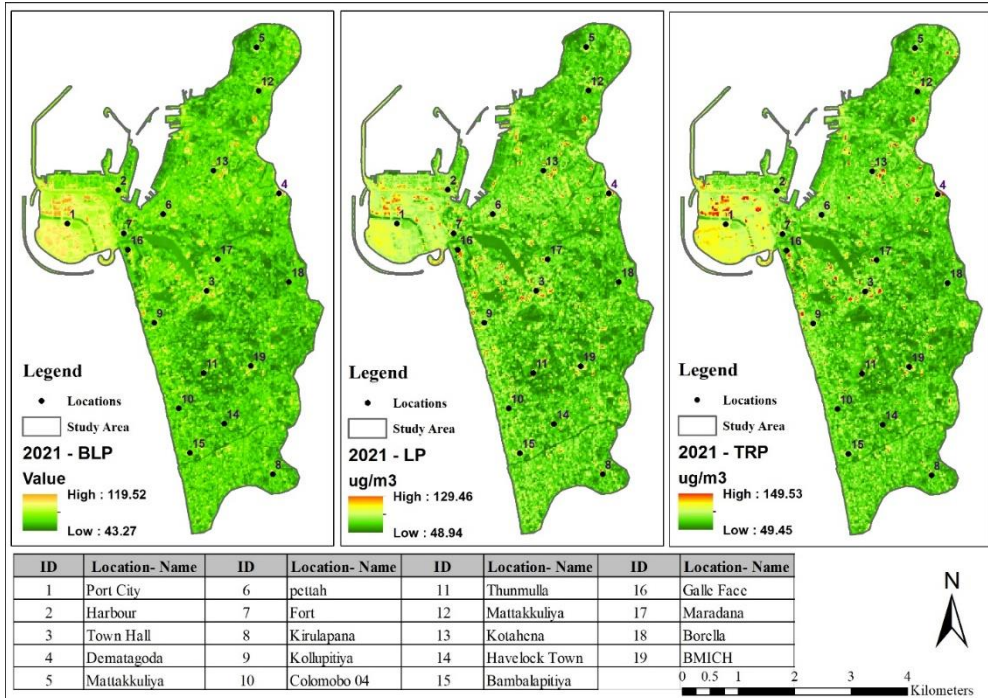


Figure 6: Spatial and temporal variability in air quality over the Colombo MC area in 2021

The highest PM₁₀ concentrations were reported in the TRP in this year, and the values were between 149.53 and 49.45 μg/m³. Hence, in 2021, the PM₁₀ concentration reported was greater than that in the previous year (2020), but it was lower than that in 2019. The concentration of PM₁₀ fluctuated across the study area, and the highest concentrations were detected mostly in the upper part of the study area rather than in the lower part. The highest PM₁₀ concentrations were found in the Galle face, Kotahena, Town Hall, Maradana, Borella, Kollupitiya, and BMICH in this year. On the other hand, this study focused on identifying PM₁₀ variations at specific locations, and the results revealed trends in PM₁₀ variation over the study period (2019, 2020 and 2021).

Figure 7 shows the concentrations of PM₁₀ in the main areas of Colombo MC in 2019, 2020, and 2021 and the BLP based on the COVID-19 situation in 2020 in Sri Lanka.

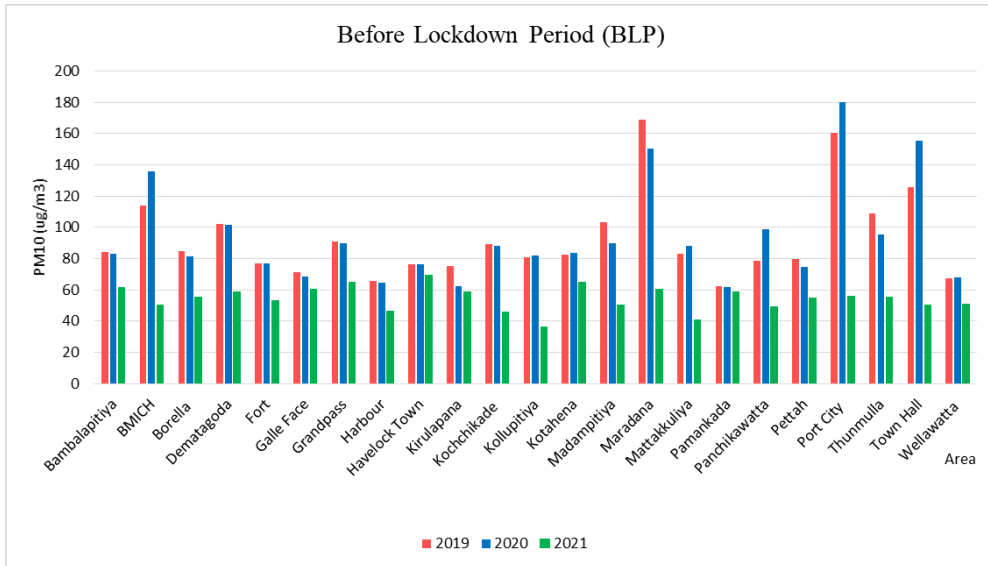


Figure 7: PM₁₀ of BLP in the main areas of the Colombo MC in 2019, 2020, and 2021

This figure compares the PM₁₀ concentration in BLP within three years. Therefore, before the lockdown period, the highest PM₁₀ concentrations were reported in 2019 and 2020. Most areas exhibited the same range of PM₁₀ in both phases, and Thunmulla, Pettah, Maradana, and Madampitiya exhibited the highest PM₁₀ in BLP in 2019. The BMICH, Mattakkuliya, Port City, and Town Hall had the highest PM₁₀ concentrations in 2020. The main reason for this is that COVID-19 has not affected Sri Lanka in this phase. Therefore, the country’s daily routing had no difficulties, and all the participants worked normally during that period. The lowest PM₁₀ concentration in this area was reported for BLP in 2021. The BLP in 2021 was the country recovery period, and there was a regulation for the daily work routines of the country. However, it was not completely locked down.

Figure 8 shows the concentrations of PM₁₀ in the main areas of the LP in 2019, 2020, and 2021 based on the COVID-19 situation in 2020 in Sri Lanka. According to this figure, the highest PM₁₀ concentration was reported in 2019, and the lowest PM₁₀ concentration was reported in 2020. The Port City area had the highest reported PM₁₀ concentration in 2019. In 2019, there was no COVID-19, and people did not experience any problems during this period. However, in 2020, the LP was in the lockdown period in Sri Lanka, and all of the countries working there were in this period (LP refers to Lockdown Period in Sri Lanka. Therefore, PM₁₀ emissions were not active, and therefore, PM₁₀ concentrations were reduced in the air.

However, the concentration of PM₁₀ again started to increase in 2021 during this phase. Figure 6 shows that the PM₁₀ concentration in 2021 increased compared with that in 2020 but decreased compared with that in 2019. In 2021, this phase was the country recovery period from COVID-19, and most regulations changed. Most of the country’s day-to-day activities, such as office work, construction, transportation systems, and business, started during this period. Therefore, PM₁₀ started to increase during this period.

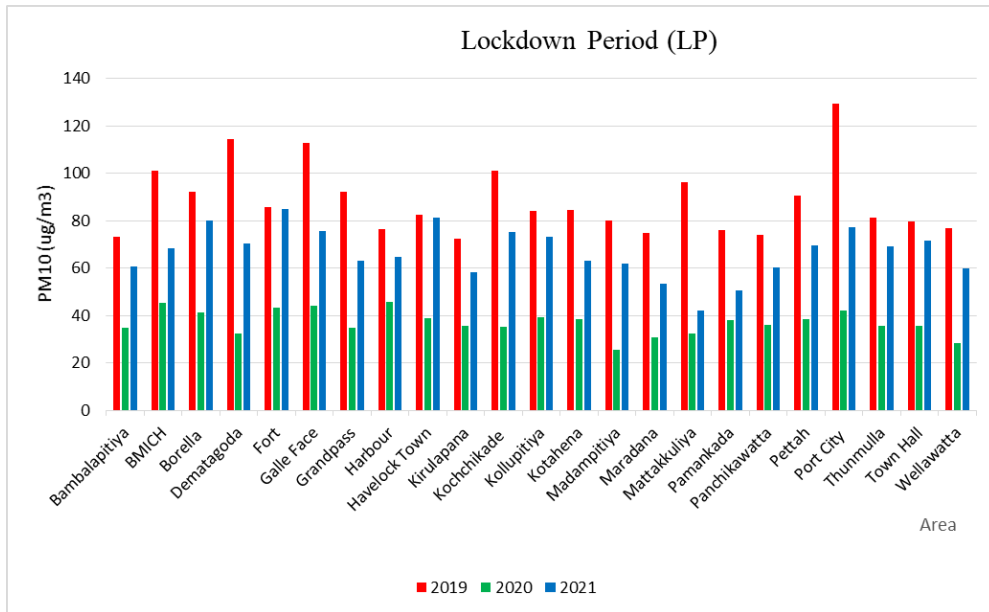


Figure 8: PM₁₀ on the LP in the main areas of the Colombo MC in 2019, 2020 and 2021

Moreover, Figure 09 shows that the concentrations of PM₁₀ in the main areas of the Colombo MC were the TRP in 2019, 2020, and 2021, which was based on the COVID-19 situation in 2020 in Sri Lanka. The highest value of PM₁₀ was reported in 2019, and the lowest was reported in 2020. In 2021, the PM₁₀ concentrations were greater than those in 2020 but lower than those in 2019. In addition, in 2021, the reported PM₁₀ concentrations were higher than those in the 2021 lockdown phase. Port City, Galle Face and BMICH reported the highest values during the three years. After COVID-19 in 2020, the country slowly recovered to a normal state, and all sectors, such as the government, private, and agriculture, started to work. Therefore, the PM₁₀ concentration in the air started to increase again.

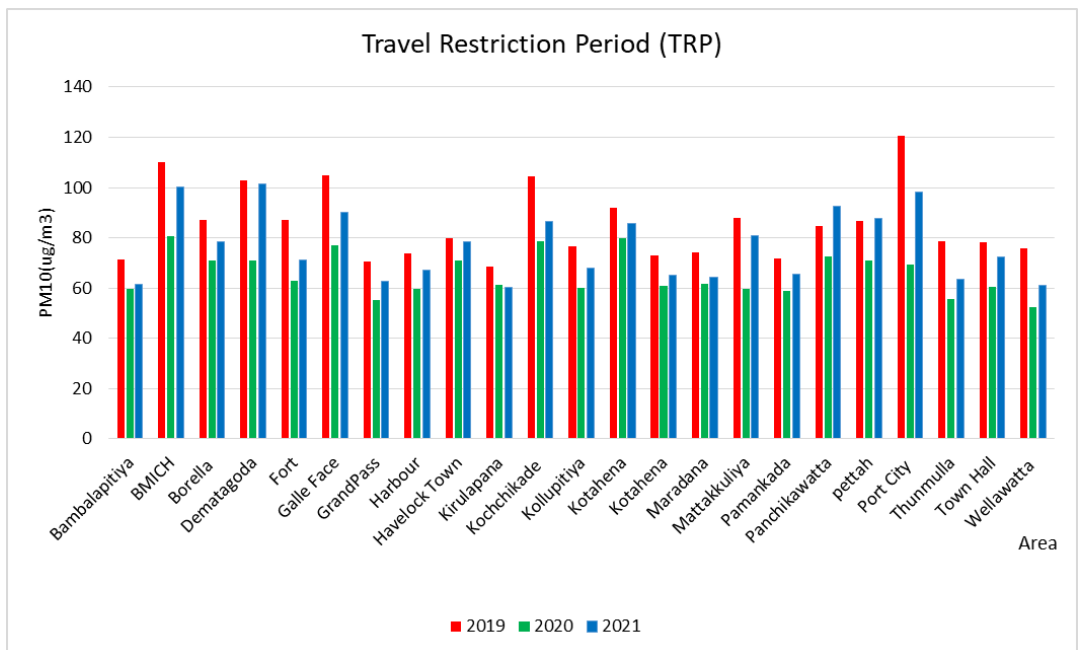


Figure 9: PM₁₀ in TRP in the main areas of the Colombo MC in 2019, 2020 and 2021

5. Discussion

The Results section revealed that the PM₁₀ concentration decreased during the COVID-19 lockdown period. On average, the variations were 78.48% for the lockdown phase and 63.68% for the travel restriction period in 2020. Singh et al. [15] reported that the levels of PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} decreased by ~50% and 60%, respectively, during the lockdown in the North-western region of India. Barbara et al. (2022) [31] reported that the average PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ concentrations decreased by -55.56% and -55.17% respectively, during the lockdown periods of 2019 and 2020 in Victoria, Mexico.

Seo et al. (2020) [32] showed that the PM_{2.5}/PM₁₀ ratio decreased to 24.5% after the implementation of social distancing, suggesting a decrease in anthropogenic emissions in Korea. According to the results of this study, the city of Colombo is highly vulnerable to PM₁₀, and before the COVID-19 pandemic, high PM₁₀ concentrations were reported. The highest concentration of PM₁₀ during these three years was 185.36 µg/m³, which was reported in 2019. The lowest PM₁₀ concentration was 20.03 µg/m³, and it was reported in 2020. In addition, during the 2021 travel restriction period, the PM₁₀ concentration slightly increased in this area.

Mahato et al. (2020) reported that, some amount of PM₁₀ was released into the air from traffic and industrial sources after two weeks of lockdown,

and this may be due to a slight relaxation of lockdown measures for necessary vehicles and localized industries in Delhi, India. Moreover, Gamelas et al. in 2021, noted a development in air quality regarding PM₁₀, which can be attributed to the restrictions of anthropogenic activities (such as traffic) promoted during the March-May 2020 national lockdown that occurred due to the pandemic in Portugal.

The city of Colombo is highly vulnerable to PM₁₀, and it had exceeded 50 µg/m³ in some years. The highest concentration of PM₁₀ is found in the central part of the city, and this area includes the Port City area, city center and main trade center area, road junctions, industrial zones, and construction areas. This may be due to urban center-oriented traffic flow and urban agglomeration.

This study revealed how human activities affect the PM₁₀ concentration in the air, and several reasons can be attributed to this vulnerability in this study area. This study area is a highly urbanized area in the country and is the commercial capital of Sri Lanka. This area has more than 555,000 inhabitants and is home to nearly 500,000 people floating daily. Hence, millions of vehicles enter Colombo city through the eight entrances, and the number of vehicles leaving Colombo city is more than 173,000 per day. Therefore, traffic congestion is greater in this area than in other areas of Sri Lanka. Elangasinghe and Shanthini (2008) reported that PM₁₀ concentrations indicate that PM pollution is significant along roads with high traffic intensity. Moreover, road density and building density are high, and more industries are located in these areas.

Moreover, there is a large amount of construction land in this area, and Port City construction projects have led to the reporting of highly particular matters in this area. These factors were identified as highly significant contributing factors to the PM₁₀ concentration, and grasslands and water bodies were identified as having negative effects. Elangasinghe and Shanthini (2008) reported that the lowest PM₁₀ concentration, approximately 4 µg/m³, occurred within the Peradeniya Botanical Garden premises approximately 300 m away from Kandy-Peradeniya Road. Therefore, green areas and water areas help to reduce the PM₁₀ concentration in the air. Moreover, the limited urban activities during the COVID-19 lockdown and travel restriction period caused a decrease in the concentration of PM₁₀ in this area.

6. Conclusion

This study analysed the behaviour of PM₁₀ air pollutants during the period of COVID-19 based on three phases i.e., before the lockdown period, during the lockdown period, and during the 2020 travel restriction period) in 2019, 2020, and 2021. According to the experiments and analysis results, the

following conclusions can be presented:

The spatiotemporal patterns of PM₁₀ in the Colombo MC Area were influenced by COVID-19 mitigation lockdown and reopening policies. The lockdown policy generally reduced the concentration of PM₁₀ in the Colombo MC Area; the reopening increased the emissions of PM₁₀ back to a normal trend compared to the previous and after-year levels.

High levels of PM₁₀ can directly affect the health of urban residents. In particular, the incidents of respiratory diseases can increase, and sensitive groups may be marginalized. Therefore, essential measures should be taken to control harmful human activities and minimize the concentration of PM₁₀ in the Colombo MC area, such as introducing methods to control mainly vehicle emissions and construction in the study area. Ecosystem-friendly public transport systems, awareness programs and urban agroforestry programs can be suggested to minimize the concentration of PM₁₀ in the study area. Air quality management in urban environments is required to reduce industrial losses, safeguard human health, maximize worker productivity, and enhance indoor and outdoor air quality in any area (Singh et al., 2022).

This study has some limitations and future improvements. This study focused only on the PM₁₀ concentration and its spatial-temporal variation with respect to COVID-19 and did not consider other conditions (weather parameters, health conditions etc.), which affect air quality. Moreover, this study only used Landsat images, and it was very difficult to obtain free images. Therefore, several improvements are needed in the near future, such as the use of other types of air quality parameters and their variations with respect to COVID-19 and studying of other conditions that affect air quality during the COVID-19 pandemic. Further, additional studies may focus on re-examining other types of satellites to retrieve air quality in Sri Lanka.

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