



Potential hotspot modeling and monitoring of PM_{2.5} concentration for sustainable environmental health in Maharashtra, India

Dipankar Ruidas¹ · Subodh Chandra Pal¹

Received: 2 August 2021 / Accepted: 4 June 2022
© The Author(s), under exclusive licence to Springer Nature Switzerland AG 2022

Abstract

Modern human civilization has suffered from the disastrous impact of COVID-19, but it teaches us the lesson that the environment can restore its stability without human activity. The government of India (GOI) has launched many strategies to prevent the situation of COVID-19, including a lockdown that has a great impact on the environment. The present study focuses on the analysis of PM_{2.5} concentration levels in pre-locking, lockdown, and unlocking phases across ten major cities of Maharashtra (MH) that were the COVID hotspot of India during the COVID-19 outbreak; phase-wise and year-wise (2018–2020) hotspot analysis, box diagram and line graph methods were used to assess spatial variation in PM_{2.5} across MH cities. Our study showed that the PM_{2.5} concentration level was severe at pre-lockdown stage (January–March) and it decreased dramatically at the lockdown stage, later it also increased in its previous position at the unlocking stages, i.e., PM_{2.5} decreased dramatically (59%) during the lockdown period compared to the pre-lockdown period due to the shutdown of outdoor activities. It returns to its previous position due to the unlocking situation and increases (70%) compared to the lockdown period which illustrated the ups and downs of PM_{2.5} and ensures the position of different cities in the AQI categories at different times. In the pre-lockdown phase, maximum PM_{2.5} concentration was in NAV (358) and MUM (338), and PUN (335) and NAS (325) subsequently, whereas at the last of the lockdown phase, it becomes CHN (82), NAG (76), and SOL (45) subsequently. Hence, the restoration of the environment during the lockdown phase was temporary rather than permanent. Therefore, our findings propose that several effective policies of government such as relocation of polluting industries, short-term lockdown, odd–even vehicle number, installation of air purifier, and government strict initiatives are needed in making a sustainable environment.

Keywords PM_{2.5} · Sustainable · Hotspot · Lockdown · COVID-19

Introduction

The whole world is now facing a serious threat from COVID-19, which was first identified in Wuhan City, China, in December 2019, and spread around the world in a very short time. This condition was primarily referred to as Wuhan pneumonia due to its concentration in the area. Later, however, the International Committee on Virus Taxonomy officially renamed the virus as corona virus acute respiratory syndrome 2 (SARS-COV-2). The disease is very infectious,

and the spread of nature from China to other countries has been very rapid (Kodge 2021). WHO (2021a) declared it a global pandemic on 12 March 2020 making it the fifth largest pandemic after the 1918 Spanish flu, 1957 Asian flu, 1968 Hong Kong flu, and 2009 flu pandemic. COVID-19 is now a global threat to public health (Das et al. 2020). The changing nature of this pandemic has had an impact on the natural environment system and more than billions of people are living. According to the United Nations, this pandemic is a social, human and economic crisis for the world. The impact on the global scenario is very pitiful, with more than 83,910,386 confirmed cases and 1,839,660 worldwide deaths until 4 January 2021 (WHO 2021b). Among all the countries, many European and American countries are facing much worse conditions (Kumar et al. 2020). The USA takes the first position on confirmed cases as well as death tolls so far, but as an Asian country, India is also very

✉ Subodh Chandra Pal
geo.subodh@gmail.com

Dipankar Ruidas
idipankarruidas@gmail.com

¹ Department of Geography, The University of Burdwan, Burdwan, West Bengal 713104, India

52 significantly affected by its population density (Kumar et al.
53 2013) and takes second place in the global scenario (WHO
54 2021b).

55 The first confirmed case in India was identified by a
56 student from the Southern State of Kerala on 30 January
57 2020 who was a student at Wuhan University. Keeping in
58 mind the rapid expansion of the novel corona virus Indian
59 Government has taken some initiatives to prevent the rapid
60 spread of corona virus. First, 14 h of self-quarantine curfew
61 come into effect on 22 March 2020 in the name of *Janata*
62 *Curfew* (Government of India). After that, the Government
63 of India declared a complete lockdown of the entire human
64 population of the country for 21 days, from 25 March to
65 14 April, to break the COVID-19 chain. This lockdown
66 strategy was further renewed three times as a second (15
67 April–3 May), third (4th May–17th May), and fourth (18th
68 May–31st May) phase, respectively. India reached its peak
69 in confirmed cases during September 2020 after which the
70 curve gradually declined. Till now as of 5th January, India
71 reported 10,356,844 confirmed cases and 149,850 death tolls
72 (WHO 2021b) throughout the country.

73 The preventive measures adopted by the central govern-
74 ment of India during the lockdown period are physical dis-
75 tancing, wearing a mask, improving room ventilation, and
76 cleaning or sanitizing hands every time they do and touch
77 anything. All kinds of strict measures are taken to limit the
78 spread of this global pandemic. The lockdown of all actions
79 affects all parts of society as well as the environmental and
80 economic sectors (Das et al. 2021). The poor strategy of
81 Indian government pushes the migrant workers in a diffi-
82 cult condition during lockdown period (Pal et al. 2021b).
83 COVID-19 lockdown has been introduced for social dis-
84 tances, reduction of travel, closure of all outdoor activities
85 during this period, including factories, industries, transport
86 facilities, in particular, several anthropogenic actions; such
87 reduction of economic activities has led to a decrease of
88 anthropogenic emissions that resulting radical changes in
89 environmental pollution as well as air pollution in India
90 (Zhang et al. 2020; Sharma et al. 2020; Kumar et al. 2020).
91 Hence, addressed public health policies made indirect
92 health benefits through lower levels of air pollution (Son
93 et al. 2020). Approximately, half of the population has been
94 affected by this lockdown, which has been imposed on at
95 least 89 countries that place serious restrictions on global
96 economic activity resulting in a reduction in air pollution
97 (Air pollution 2021). The Central Pollution Control Board
98 (CPCB 2020) report shows that air pollution levels have
99 decreased significantly during several phases of lock-up
100 in India (Das et al. 2021). Lockdown periods are produc-
101 tive for the environment to regain its normal condition as
102 well as its natural glory by reducing the amount of emitted
103 pollutants produced by many anthropogenic activities. air
104 quality Index was significantly improved at all parts of the

world especially major pollutants such as $PM_{2.5}$ and PM_{10} 105
were observed maximum reduction (40–60%) in a metro- 106
politan city of India (Chowdhuri et al. 2022); the maximum 107
and average temperature also significantly associated with 108
the reduction of ambient air pollutants (Chakraborty et al. 109
2021) that denotes that there is a notable reduction in air 110
temperature due to improvement of air quality (Pal et al. 111
2021a). Pal et al. (2022) show how the strict lockdown influ- 112
ence in reducing the air pollutant and improve the air quality 113
of four megacities of India. A distinctive study by Saha et al. 114
(2021) estimated that how the air pollution got dramatic 115
change in Delhi after unlocking India. In this study, we will 116
find that these dramatic changes in air pollution are mainly 117
 $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in ten cities of Maharashtra State, 118
recorded as having the highest COVID-19 cases among all 119
the states of India with the reference of previous years. 120

Substantial reductions in air pollution have been recorded 121
throughout the world during this lockdown period. Many 122
polluted cities such as Beijing, Delhi as well as developed 123
cities such as New York, Paris, and Sydney are experienced 124
dramatic improvement in air quality and reduced 46% partic- 125
ulate matter (Karupphasamy et al. 2020). Northern Italy also 126
experienced a high reduction in NO_2 from January to March 127
2020 (Das et al. 2021). (Hashim et al. 2021) established the 128
fact that there is about an 8% $PM_{2.5}$ reduction in Bagdad. 129
China has also experienced a significant reduction in $PM_{2.5}$ 130
due to the closure of industry and transportation (Wang et al. 131
2020). Therefore, several studies (Li et al. 2017; Zhu et al. 132
2020; Paital 2020; Venter et al. 2020; Jain et al. 2021) have 133
ensured the variability of $PM_{2.5}$ in a global scenario during 134
the COVID-19 situation which is very significant. Earlier, 135
many studies were conducted based on $PM_{2.5}$ concentration 136
in several cities in India (Guttikunda and Kopakka 2014; 137
Guttikunda et al. 2014; Nagar et al. 2019; Chowdhury et al. 138
2019; Mahesh et al. 2019; Das et al. 2021). But till now 139
very few studies have been conducted on the concentration 140
of $PM_{2.5}$ during the COVID-19 period (Chauhan and Singh 141
2020; Sharma et al. 2020; Singh and Chauhan 2020; Mahato 142
et al. 2020). 143

India's average $PM_{2.5}$ concentration level was 75 to over 144
85 μg per cubic meter in 2019 (Hindustan Times, 2020) 145
which was 7.5 to 8.5 times greater than the WHO's (2005) 146
clean air guidelines ($10 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) resulting in more than bil- 147
lions of people suffering under the risk of $PM_{2.5}$ (Chowd- 148
hury and Dey 2016). According to the Hindustan Times 149
report, 980,000 premature deaths were recorded in India in 150
2019. As a result, GOI adopted several initiatives to reduce 151
 $PM_{2.5}$ such as National Clean Air Program launched in 2019 152
to achieve a 20–30% reduction in emission of $PM_{2.5}$ and 153
other measures like LPG use and promotion of electric vehi- 154
cles. Several government initiatives have tried to decrease 155
 $PM_{2.5}$, but all these policies become unsuccessful due to the 156
substantial growth of urbanization and economic activities 157

throughout the country. Among them road dust, thermal power plant, coal combustion, and vehicular and industrial emission are the major source of PM_{2.5} in the Northern plain (Kulshrestha et al. 2009; Chakraborty and Gupta 2010; Villalobos et al. 2015); whereas in western India especially Maharashtra significantly affected due to industries, waste burning, household and marine sources (Shah and Nagpal 1997). The aforementioned research studies show that the COVID-19 phase brings dramatic changes in environmental restoration throughout the world as well as in India rather than implementing man-made policies. The commercial state of Maharashtra also gets the same benefit from it. Very few studies are available to analyze the air quality of Maharashtra (MH) as well as the concentration of PM_{2.5} despite the harsh air quality of the MH state in the last few years (Hindustan Times, 2019). More than 11 crores of MH people breathe toxic air that does not meet the WHO's allowable limit (10 µg/m³) of clean air (airpollution.io). The present study focuses on PM_{2.5}, a major pollutant due to its size, which can easily penetrate the human body and pose a serious health risk (WHO 2018). This scientific study will help to understand and analyze the variability of the concentration of PM_{2.5} in the most vulnerable commercial state of Maharashtra during pre-locking, lockdown, and unlocking periods. This state was mostly affected by COVID-19 and, faced with the worst effect, passes through a strict lockdown period resulting in a temporary reduction of PM_{2.5}.

Materials and methods

Study area

Maharashtra state is located in the north-central part of India with altitudinal extension of 15°33'46" N to 22° 02'13" N and 72°38'45" E to 80°53'17" E latitude. The state shared its boundary with many Indian states such as Gujrat and Madhya Pradesh in the north, Chhattisgarh and Telangana in the East, and Karnataka and Goa in the South (Fig. 1). The Arabian Sea is situated on the entire western coast and different hills are located here (Kodge 2021). It is the most populous and progressive state of India and is notably famous as an industrial and commercial hub as well as the financial capital of India (Pagar 2015). The state with an area of 3.08 lakh Km² is situated in the western part of Peninsular India. The monsoon type of climate is very suitable for the population density in this region and makes it the most developed state of India. Demographically, this state ranked 3rd with a population of 11, 23,72,972 as per the 2011 census, and population density is 365 person/km².

Maharashtra state has suffered from a huge amount of PM_{2.5} concentration due to its industrial, transportation, and construction activities (Fig. 2). A report in The Times

of India (<https://timesofindia.indiatimes.com/city/mumbai/articleshow/83445637.cms>) (12 June 2021) shows that the aforementioned cities are significantly polluted and ranked top of the order in pollution levels before the lockdown stage due to excessive vehicle exhaust and waste burning throughout the cities. Therefore, the continuous burning of fossil fuels releases several air pollutants to the atmosphere and makes the atmosphere vulnerable to the inhabitants. Thus, ten important cities located in this state experience severe unhealthy air quality conditions most of the time.

- (i) Aurangabad (AUR) city is situated in the hilly uplands of the deccantrap region with 19.8762° N latitude and 75.3433° E longitude. It is the fourth most populous city of MH having a population of more than 11 lakh. The city is most popular due to its textile industry and is also known as the city of Gates.
- (ii) Chandrapur (CHN), this city is popularly known as the geological museum and black gold city of MH due to its geological pattern and availability of coal. It is located at the confluence of the Zarpit and Irai Rivers with 19.9615° N latitude and 79.2961° E longitude.
- (iii) Kalyan (KAL) is the neighboring city of Mumbai situated at 19.2403° N latitude and 73.1305° E longitude and is also a part of the Mumbai Metropolitan Region. It is the 9th biggest city in MH. PM_{2.5} concentration is very alarming in this region in recent years.
- (iv) Mumbai (MUM) metropolitan region ranked 6th in the world (Pacione 2006) and is popularly known as the financial capital of India with a population of more than 20 million and a density of 3850 per Km² (Kumar et al. 2020). According to a Greenpeace report, Mumbai is the 37th most polluted city in India (Hindustan Times 2020). It is located at the coastline of the state in the 19.0760° N latitude and 72.8777° E longitude.
- (v) Nagpur city is the winter capital of MH. It is the third-largest city of MH and the 13th largest city in India based on population (Oxford Economic report) which was 24.1 lakh as of the 2011 census. This city is very significant in industrial development and is located at 21.1458° N latitude and 79.0882° E longitude.
- (vi) Nashik is known as the Wine capital of India and is situated on the bank of the Godavari River; its absolute location is 19.9925° N and 73.7898° E. This city is significantly vulnerable to air pollution as well as PM_{2.5} concentration. Most of the residents are facing breathing problems due to its unhealthy and poor air quality.
- (vii) Navi Mumbai is the largest planned city in India situated in the western part of the state with an absolute location of 19.0330° N and 73.0297° E. The majority of the time, the atmosphere is unhealthy.
- (viii) Pune is located at 18.5204° N latitude and 73.8567° E longitude with a dense population. The city is suf-

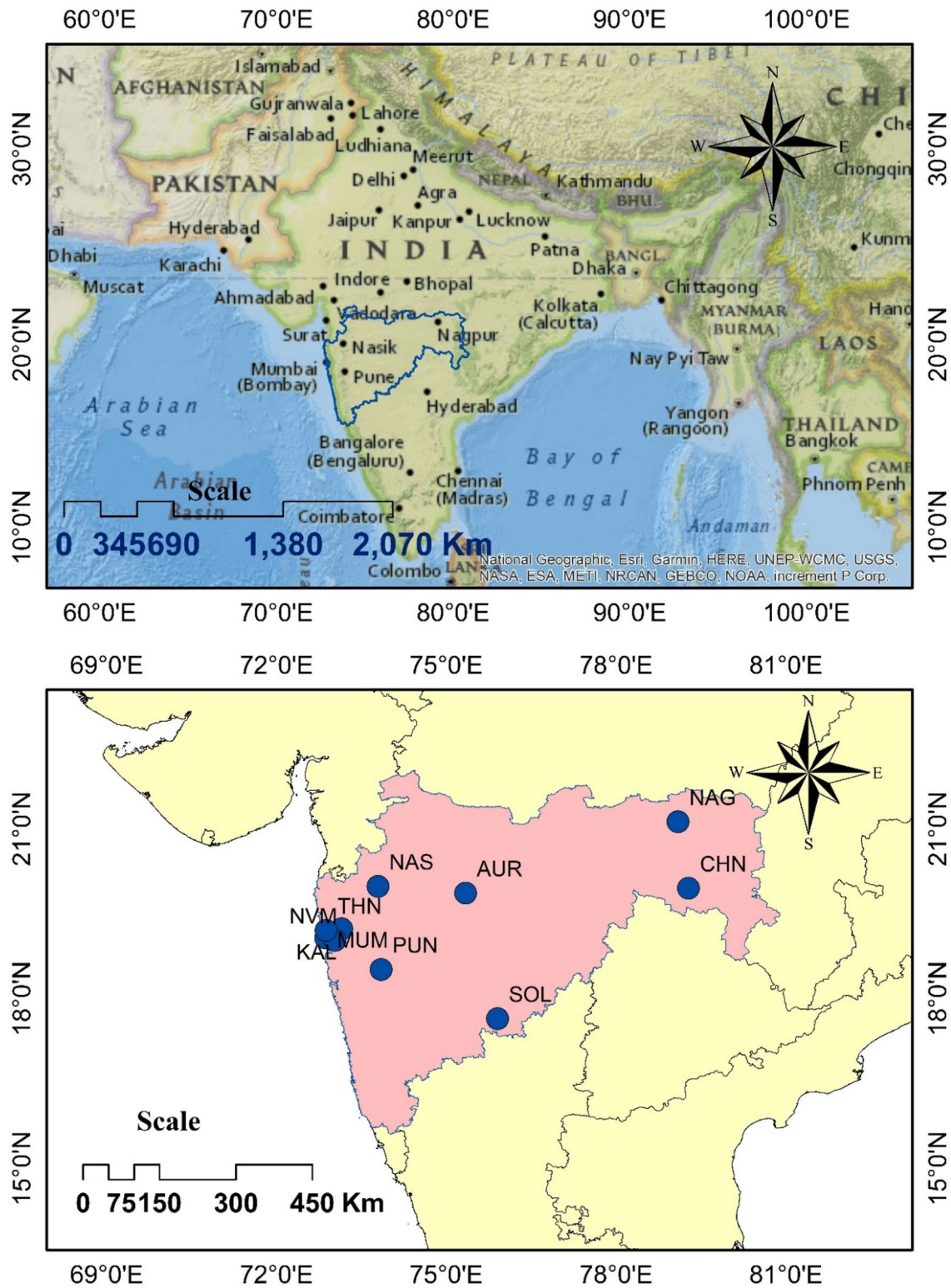


Fig. 1 Location map of study area

259 fering from unhealthy and moderate air conditions
 260 because of its huge transportation and manufacturing
 261 industry which are the key sector of this city.

(ix) Solapur is the south-western city of MH, located at the 262
 17.6599° N latitude and 75.9064° E longitude sharing a 263

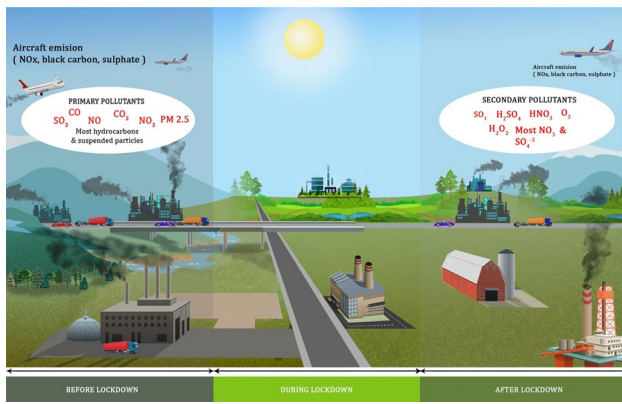


Fig. 2 Environmental pollution during different phases of lockdown period

264 close border with Karnataka. This city has a population
 265 of 9.51 lakh as of the 2011 census.
 266 (x) Thane is a part of the Mumbai Metropolitan Region
 267 (MMR) which is situated in the north-western part of
 268 MH and close to Mumbai city. The city is characterized
 269 by more than 18 lakh population as of the 2011 census
 270 and the population density is 13000/Km².

271 **Data source**

272 The delineation of PM_{2.5} concentration has been done based
 273 on hourly data provided by Central Pollution Control Board
 274 (CPCB). These data are collected to analyze the spatio-temporal
 275 variation in PM_{2.5} throughout ten important cities of
 276 MH. It also helps in the hotspot analysis of each city. The
 277 hourly data are classified into three categories for the year
 278 2020 such as before lockdown (1st January–15 March), lock-
 279 down period (25th March–31st May) and after lockdown,
 280 which means unlock situation (1st June–30th June, 1st
 281 October–31st December) which are collected from CPCB
 282 (https://app.cpcbcr.com/AQI_India/). The yearly data of 4
 283 months (March to June) for the years 2018, 2019, and 2020
 284 have also been collected to compare the variability of PM_{2.5}
 285 concentration during the lockdown period with the previous
 286 year. All these data can help to assess the actual trend of
 287 PM_{2.5} concentration in pre-lockdown, during the lockdown
 288 and unlock period in India.

289 **Methods**

290 **Spatial interpolation of PM_{2.5} throughout the cities**

291 Different kinds of interpolation methods are available to ana-
 292 lyze data such as Natural Neighbor Method, Nearest Neighbor
 293 Method, Kriging Method, Moving Average Method, Poly-
 294 nomial Regression Method, and Inverse Distance Weighted

Method which are used by the different scholars in their studies
 (Rukundo and Cao 2012; Apak and Atay 2013; Ma et al. 2019;
 Das et al. 2021; Ruidas et al. 2021, 2022a, b). Musikavong and
 Gheewala (2017) have proposed that the Kriging method can
 be a more efficient spatial analysis tool at the national level;
 whereas the method is appropriate and mostly used spatial
 analysis tool at the regional level (Zhang and Tripathi 2018).
 Therefore, in this study, IDW method has been used to analyze
 the spatial concentration of PM_{2.5} with the help of Arc GIS
 10.4. This method is performed in this finding with the help
 of the following equation:

$$Z_0 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^S \frac{Z_i}{d_i^k}}{\sum_{i=1}^S \frac{1}{d_i^k}} \tag{1}$$

where the values of the unknown point pointed by Z₀, z_i
 stands for the observed value at i point, d_i refers to the dis-
 tance between point i and 0, s represent the no. of known
 points provided in assessment and k stands for specified
 power (Guan and Wu 2008).

Hotspot analysis of PM_{2.5} throughout the cities

IDW method helps to assess the spatio-temporal as well as
 spatial variation of PM_{2.5} throughout the ten cities of MH but
 it does not identify the spatial cluster significantly (Das et al.
 2021). Due to this reason, Zhang and Tripathi (2018) state
 that hotspots can describe the grouping of spatial clusters
 efficiently. This is very helpful in assessing point density in
 a particular area as well as it measures the extent of point
 occurrence to describe the spatial pattern. In this study, the
 Getis-Ord-Gi* application has been used to identify the hot-
 spot and coldspot which plays a very efficient role (Das et al.
 2021). This method has been performed in Arc GIS 10.4 for
 this study based on the following equations:

$$Gi^* = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n w_{ij} w_j - x \sum_{j=1}^n w_{ij}}{\sqrt{\frac{\sum_{j=1}^n w_{ij}^2 - (\sum_{j=1}^n w_{ij})^2}{n-1}}} \tag{2}$$

where the weight of ith sub-component is represented by w_j,
 spatial weight between ith and jth components is referred
 by w_{ij}, x_j is the value of jth component with the n number
 of features:

$$X^- = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n x_j}{n} \tag{3}$$

$$S = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{j=1}^n x_j^2}{n} - (X^-)^2} \tag{4}$$

336 The advantage of this Getis-Ord-Gi* application is that
 337 it is very easy to perform and understand. Here, high cluster
 338 value represents the hotspot and the low cluster value
 339 means the coldspot. Therefore, in this study, high and low
 340 concentrations of PM_{2.5} mean the hotspot and coldspots,
 341 respectively.

342 **Different statistical methods**

343 In the present study, various statistical methods such as
 344 box diagram and line graph analysis are also performed
 345 for a detailed assessment of PM_{2.5} concentration in ten
 346 important cities of MH (Fig. 3). The spatio-temporal maps
 347 were prepared based on hourly data of before lockdown,
 348 during the lockdown, and during unlocking phases to show
 349 the trend of PM_{2.5} at different times. Box diagram of dif-
 350 ferent times depicts the variability of PM_{2.5} in the different
 351 periods from January to December in 2020. Line graph of
 352 several cities of MH also shows the up and down of the
 353 PM_{2.5} curve in a different months of the lockdown period.

354 **Results and discussion**

355 Many studies (Li et al. 2017; Yang et al. 2017; Das et al.
 356 2021) have shown that PM_{2.5} is an important component of
 357 the atmosphere that plays a significant role in controlling
 358 atmospheric temperature, humidity, and other characteristics
 359 at a regional scale. Singh and Chauhan (2020), Berman and
 360 Ebisu (2020), Yin et al. (2021), Jephcote et al. (2021) have
 361 displayed how worldwide lockdown events due to COVID-
 362 19 help to decrease air pollution in a global scenario.
 363 Besides, several studies (Singh et al. 2020; Chakrabarty
 364 et al. 2020; Laxmipriya and Narayanan 2021) have tried
 365 to find out the direct relation between PM_{2.5} and COVID-
 366 19-positive cases in different areas. According to the esti-
 367 mation of Wu et al. (2020), about 8% COVID-19 death rate
 368 has been increased with the only rise of only 1 µg/m³ PM_{2.5}.
 369 PM_{2.5} also has a great impact on visibility and put adverse
 370 effects on the environment and also poses a great impact on
 371 human health especially affecting the lung and heart of the
 372 human body, making lung cancer like deadly disease (Hu
 373 and Jiang 2014) that can increase the mortality and morbidity
 374 by weakening the immune system (Glencross et al. 2020).

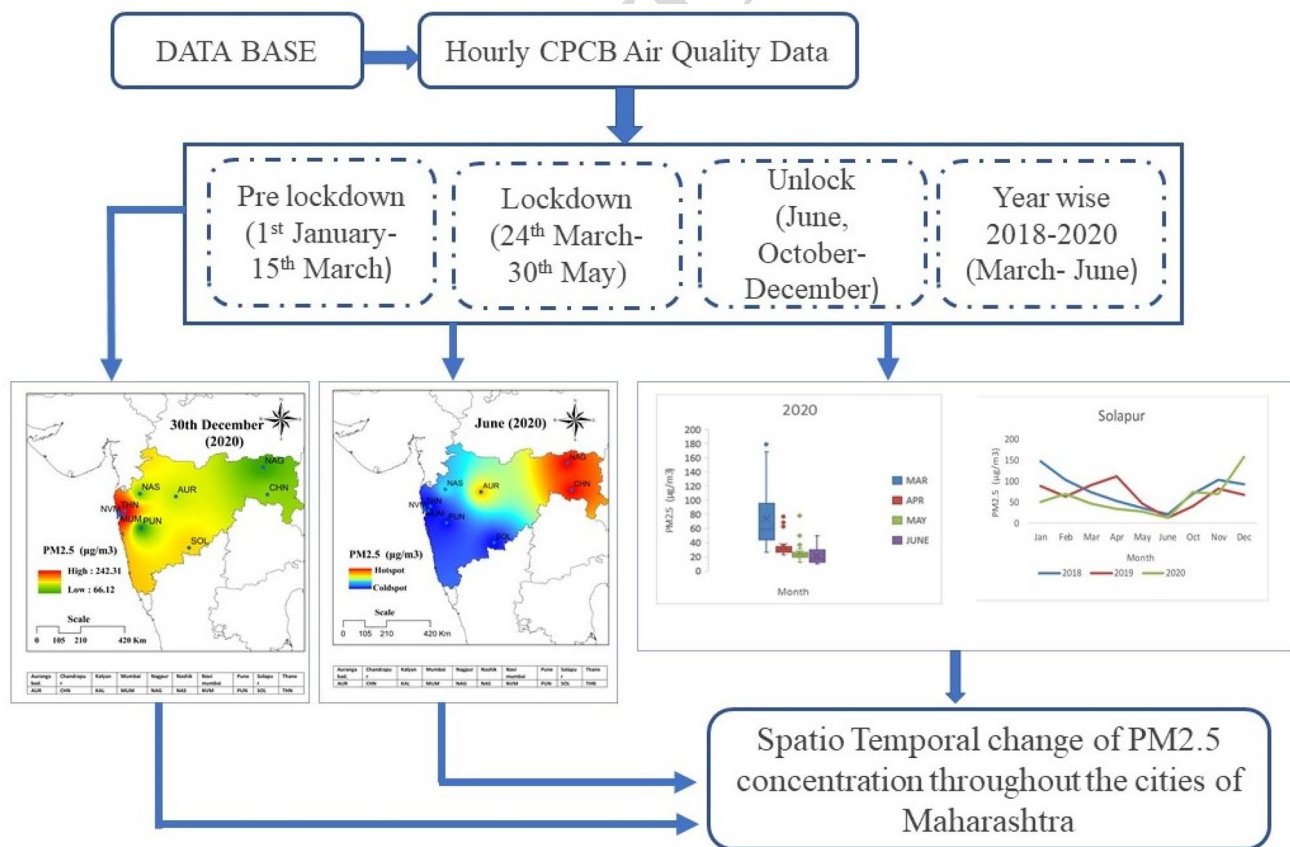


Fig. 3 Methodological frameworks for the study

375 That is why PM_{2.5} is a very crucial component in measuring
 376 the air quality of an area. Routine monitoring is the only
 377 way to control this fatal particulate matter. Maximum cit-
 378 ies of India are highly vulnerable to PM_{2.5} concentration
 379 which makes poor air quality index occurring due to its high
 380 population, transportation, and industrial activities. All the
 381 ten important cities of MH experienced very high PM_{2.5} con-
 382 centration in previous years as well as in the current year.
 383 But during the lockdown period, MH experienced a dramatic
 384 change in PM_{2.5} level. In this study, we are going to find this
 385 phenomenon by establishing the relationship between lock-
 386 down and lowering of PM_{2.5} concentration across the cities
 387 of MH. GOI implemented the lockdown strategy to prevent
 388 COVID-19 which has a direct effect on the setting down of
 389 PM_{2.5} resulting in a very significant curve line and variation
 390 in spatio-temporal context throughout the cities during the
 391 different periods of lockdown (Table 1).

392 **Spatial variation of PM_{2.5} concentration** 393 **throughout the cities in pre-lockdown period**

394 The MH state and its cities are most vulnerable to PM_{2.5}
 395 levels during previous years and remain almost the same
 396 in the current year, resulting, in adverse effects in a large
 397 population of MH. Before implementing the lockdown, the
 398 cities of MH, as well as India, were under pre-lockdown
 399 stage (1st Jan–15th Mar). During this time, several cities
 400 of MH have experienced extremely high PM_{2.5} concentra-
 401 tions compared to the permissible limit of a human body
 402 (10 µg/m³, WHO). Spatial distribution of PM_{2.5} shows
 403 that it is mainly concentrated at MMR due to excessive
 404 engagement in several economic activities and its sur-
 405 rounding region, whereas it is less at the areas far away
 406 from the MMR region based on various activities. During
 407 the month of January, maximum PM_{2.5} concentration was
 408 in NAV (358) and MUM (338), and PUN (335) and NAS
 409 (325) subsequently take their position which picturize the

Table 1 Temporal concentration level of PM_{2.5} on various time peri-
 ods

Different phases of lockdown (2020)	Time period	PM _{2.5} concentration (µg/m ³)
Before lockdown	1st January to 15th March	109
I Phase	24th March to 14th April	57.27
II Phase	15th April to 3rd May	42.38
III Phase	4th May to 17th May	42
IV Phase	18th May to 31st May	35.72
Unlock I	1st June to 30th June	19
Unlock V	1st October to 31st October	72
Unlock VI	1st November to 30th November	99
Unlock VII	1st December to 31st December	110

410 pollution level of cities of MH having an impact upon
 411 meteorological phenomenon in regional level. The average
 412 PM_{2.5} concentration is also significantly unhealthy for the
 413 environment as well as the human body; the highest level
 414 concentration in January was mainly concentrated at NAV
 415 (248) followed by MUM (236), NAS (190), AUR (142),
 416 and PUN (141).

417 In the month of February, maximum PM_{2.5} concen-
 418 tration is identified at PUN (372) than NAV (337), KAL
 419 (325), and MUM (309); whereas the highest average con-
 420 centration was recorded in this month at KAL (225) and
 421 NAV, MUM and PUN also take a position in the top with
 422 223, 222, and 210 µg/m³, respectively. Around half of the
 423 days of March fall under pre-lockdown phase (Fig. 4), and
 424 in this month, minor decrease of PM_{2.5} was recorded, but
 425 after adopting lockdown from 24th March, it significantly
 426 decreases where average PM_{2.5} in the first week of Janu-
 427 ary was 142 µg/m³ then it declined to 32 µg/m³ in the first
 428 week of May.

429 **Spatial variation of PM_{2.5} concentration** 430 **throughout the cities during the lockdown period**

431 This lockdown period serves as a very crucial time for
 432 the environment to repair her disease which occurs due to
 433 anthropogenic activities. It was identified that there was
 434 a significant change in air pollution after enactment of
 435 lockdown from 24th March which stayed up to 31st May;
 436 that involves shutting down of all the industries, outdoor
 437 activities, and stagnation of transport vehicles leading to
 438 a dramatic decline in PM_{2.5} level, helping the state popu-
 439 lation to breath better air. All the cities of MH experi-
 440 enced low PM_{2.5} concentration during that period which
 441 provides a very healthy condition for human beings with
 442 sequential changes such as about 50% decrease at the end
 443 of March, 65% at the end of April, and 74% at the end
 444 of May compared to before lockdown period. The mean
 445 PM_{2.5} throughout the cities was 74 µg/m³ on 24th March
 446 2020 then it was 26 µg/m³ on 30th May (the last day of
 447 the lockdown period). The decline of spatial variation of
 448 PM_{2.5} across the cities (Figs. 4, 5) was remarkable when
 449 the mean PM_{2.5} was so high in pre-lockdown situation but
 450 in this period, it became very low. At the end of April,
 451 PM_{2.5} concentration was recorded at KAL (80) followed
 452 by THN (73) and MUM (68), whereas in May, it was high-
 453 est at CHN (82), NAG (76), and SOL (45); therefore, the
 454 mean PM_{2.5} concentration (µg/m³) was 47 at KAL at the
 455 end of April and 35 at CHN at the end of May; this situa-
 456 tion may be the first time in state history. The transmission
 457 of several infectious diseases was significantly restricted
 458 due to improvement in air quality (Manoj et al. 2020).

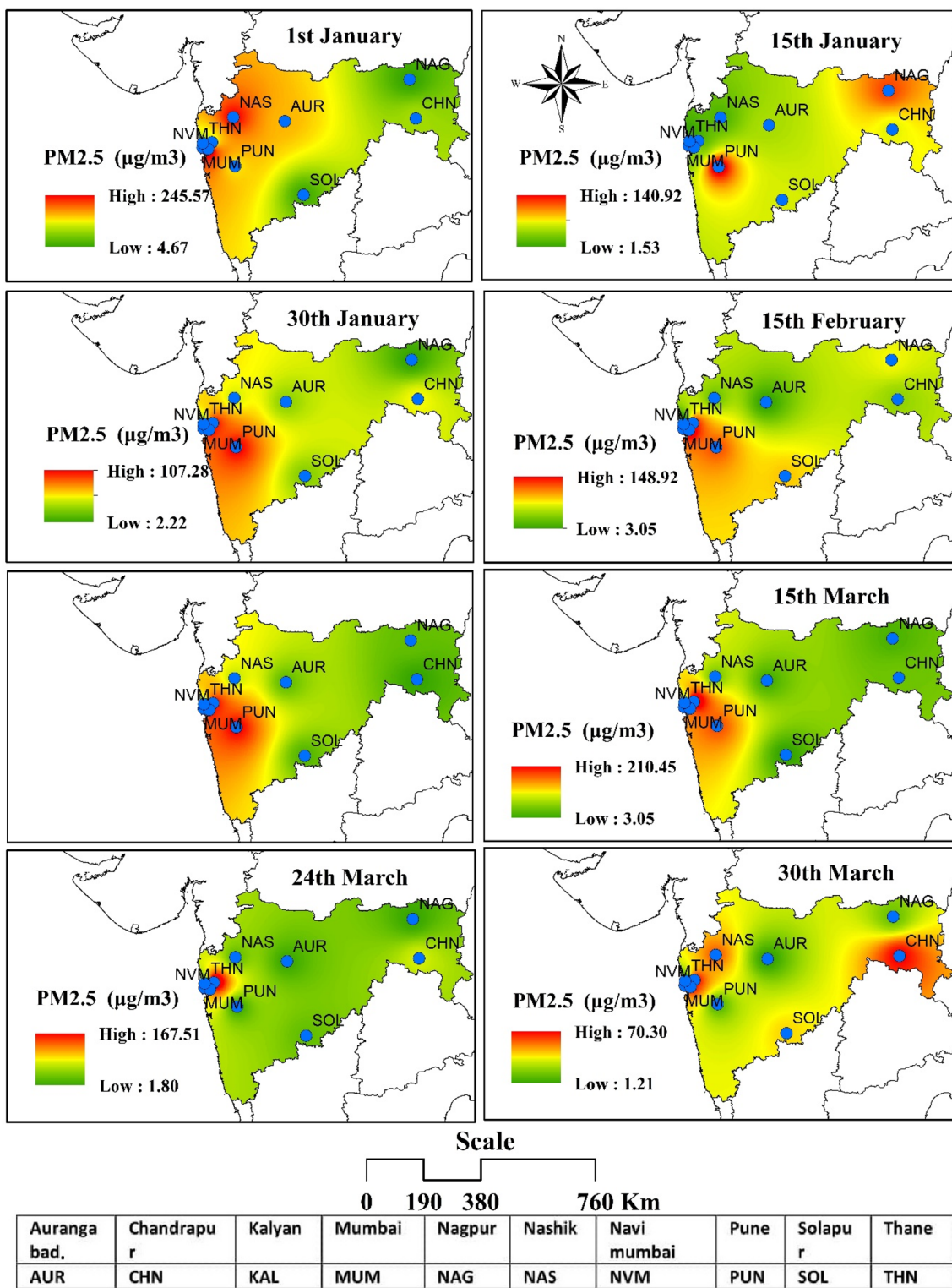


Fig. 4 Spatial variation of PM_{2.5} concentration (January–March)

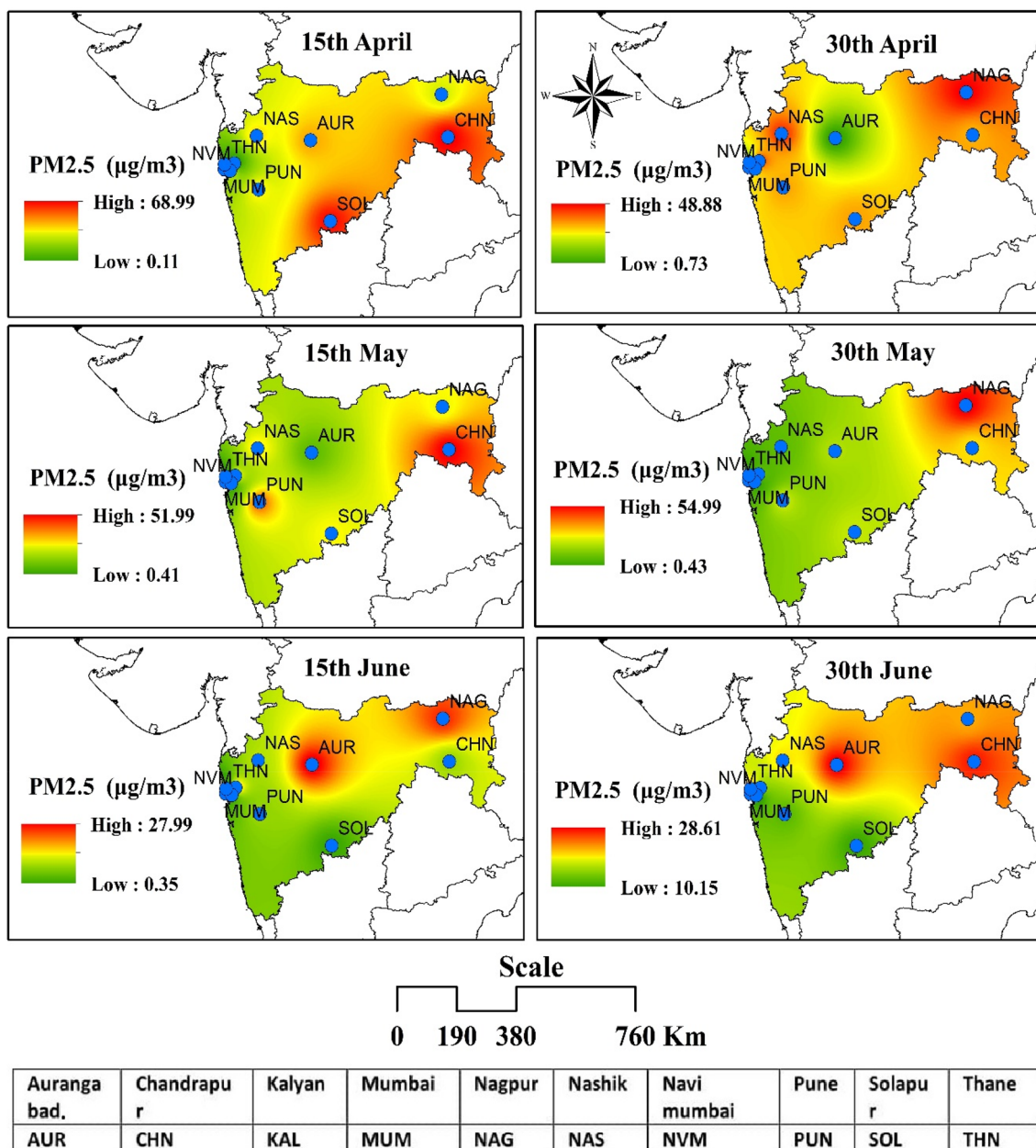
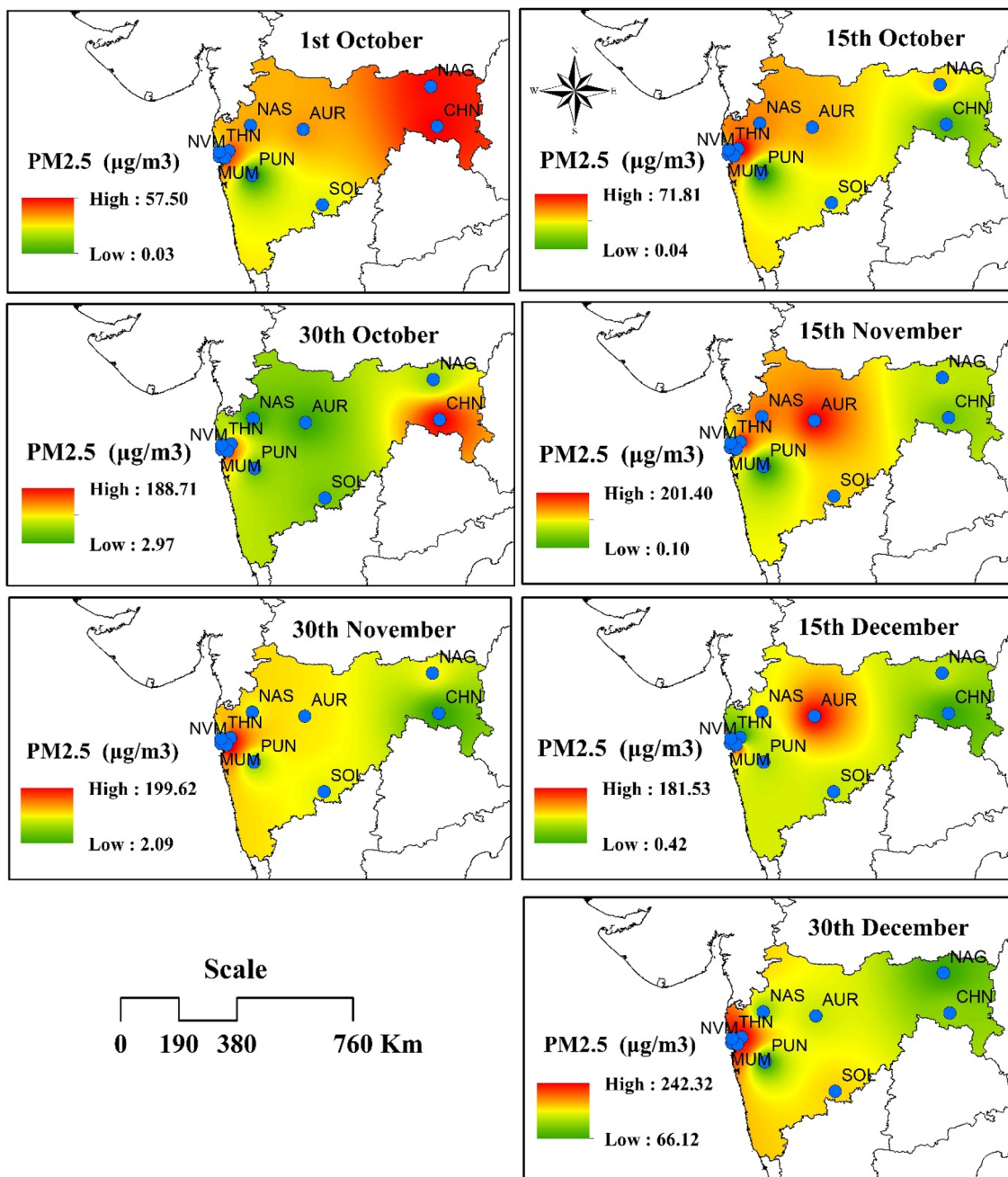


Fig. 5 Spatial variation of PM_{2.5} concentration (April–June)

459 **Spatial variation of PM_{2.5} concentration**
 460 **throughout the cities in unlock period**

461 Although the lockdown situation gives a great opportunity to the environment to rejuvenate its sustainability, it
 462 has a significant impact on human civilization pointedly
 463 economic activities of several regions. The same situation
 464 has occurred in the cities of India as well as MH state
 465 because of the closedown of industrial activities which are
 466 the strength of MH. Hence, GOI started to open up all the
 467 activities step by step. The process of partial unlocking
 468

occurred in various stages by GOI from 1st June to 31st
 December (Unlock I–VII). During this time period, the cities
 were gradually reaching their previous situation of air
 condition during lockdown (Figs. 5, 6). During the unlock
 I (June), the PM_{2.5} concentration was very low because the
 effect of lockdown in nature was still present at that time.
 The mean PM_{2.5} concentration in June was 19 µg/m³ which
 represents a very good condition of the atmosphere. But
 later it gradually increases across the cities and reaches AQI 7
 the previous situation of lockdown because all the outdoor
 activities started again. The maximum average PM_{2.5}



Auranga bad.	Chandrapur	Kalyan	Mumbai	Nagpur	Nashik	Navi mumbai	Pune	Solapur	Thane
AUR	CHN	KAL	MUM	NAG	NAS	NVM	PUN	SOL	THN

Fig. 6 Spatial variation of PM_{2.5} concentration (October–December)

480 concentration in the month of June was recorded at THN
 481 (29) followed by AUR (28) and NAG (26), and then in

the month of December (Unlock VII), it was maximum 482
 at KAL (238) followed by NAV (211) and SOL (159), 483

484 became worse and unhealthy environment like before
485 COVID-19 phase.

486 **Changes occurring in AQI among cities of MH**
487 **during different stages of lockdown**

488 Although PM_{2.5} concentration level decreases at a significant
489 rate during these three phases. CPCB calendar also shows
490 dramatic changes in AQI among several cities of MH and
491 change in their position at AQI categoral division based
492 on the range of concentration (24 h) of before lockdown,
493 lockdown, and unlock stages in India. The air quality index
494 for pollutants is categorized in six by the System of Air
495 Quality and Weather Forecasting (SAFAR) such as good,
496 satisfactory, moderate, poor, very poor, and severe as 0–50,
497 51–100, 101–200, 201–300, 301–400, and 401–500, respec-
498 tively. According to WHO (2018) air pollution database,
499 Mumbai is the fourth most polluted megacity in the world.
500 Before the lockdown period, the PM_{2.5} concentration level
501 across ten cities of MH was so high and it resembled the
502 previous year’s hazardous condition in AQI which was very
503 harmful for the human population to survive. Several cities
504 during the pre-lockdown phase were under the poor category
505 and most of them were under the moderate category, only
506 a few cities were under the satisfactory category mentioned
507 in Table 2. The huge amount of manufacturing industry,
508 construction activities, and a large number of traffic is held
509 responsible for this kind of situation.

The lockdown phase served as a gift to the environment
to heal and overcome its previous situation. Several cities of
MH that fell under the poor category during the pre-lock-
down stage have recovered themselves very well and take a
position in the good to the satisfactory category as well as
no cities of MH fall under the poor category which is a very
good sign for the environment as well as a human population
which is shown in Table 3.

After the lockdown, GOI started to unlock to heal the
economy of India but it became a curse for the environment
which leads to the substantial increase in PM_{2.5} level that
was responsible for poor AQI. Table 4 displays that several
cities which were earlier positioned in the good to satisfac-
tory category stepped down their position and reach the spot
of moderate to poor AQI again.

Therefore, before the lockdown situation, the lockdown
situation and unlock situation experienced ups and downs in
the average PM_{2.5} concentration level in different months of
the year 2020 (Fig. 7). These situations are slightly related
to COVID-19 because at that time, MH was the hotspot of
India in the COVID-19 outbreak and suffered from a huge
impact of it.

**Comparison of PM_{2.5} concentration levels
during the month of March–June (2018–2020)**

Previous years are the evidence of high PM_{2.5} concentra-
tion from which we can easily understand the trend and

Table 2 Number of cities under AQI categories on PM_{2.5} in before lockdown

AQI Category	Range of concentration (24 Hrs)	Total no of cities under these categories					
		Before lockdown					
		1 st January	15 th January	30 th January	15 th February	29 th February	15 th March
Good	0 - 50			1 (10%)			
Satisfactory	51 - 100	2 (20%)	5 (50%)	4 (40%)	1 (10%)	2 (20%)	4 (40%)
Moderate	101 - 200	5 (50%)	5 (50%)	5 (50%)	8 (80%)	4 (40%)	3 (30%)
Poor	201 - 300	3 (30%)			1 (10%)	4 (40%)	3 (30%)
Very poor	301 - 400						
Severe	401 - 500						

Table 3 Number of cities under AQI categories on PM_{2.5} during lockdown

AQI Category	Range of concentration (24 Hrs)	Total no of cities under these categories					
		Lockdown period					
		24 th March	30 th March	15 th April	30 th April	15 th May	30 th May
Good	0 - 50		1 (10%)	1 (10%)	4 (40%)	3 (30%)	3 (30%)
Satisfactory	51 - 100	8 (80%)	9 (90%)	9 (90%)	6 (60%)	7 (70%)	7 (70%)
Moderate	101 - 200	2 (20%)					
Poor	201 - 300						
Very poor	301 - 400						
Severe	401 - 500						

Table 4 Number of cities under AQI categories on PM_{2.5} in unlock stages

AQI Category	Range of concentration (24 Hrs)	Total no of cities under these categories								
		Unlock time								
		15 th JUN	30 th JUN	1 st OCT	15 th OCT	30 th OCT	15 th NOV	30 th NOV	15 th DEC	31 st DEC
Good	0 - 50	9 (90%)	8 (80%)		4 (40%)			1 (10%)		
Satisfactory	51 - 100	1 (10%)	1 (10%)	6 (60%)	5 (50%)	4 (40%)	1 (10%)	5 (50%)	3 (30%)	2 (20%)
Moderate	101 - 200		1 (10%)	4 (40%)	1 (10%)	6 (60%)	7 (70%)	4 (40%)	7 (70%)	4 (40%)
Poor	201 - 300						1 (10%)			4 (40%)
Very poor	301 - 400									
Severe	401 - 500									

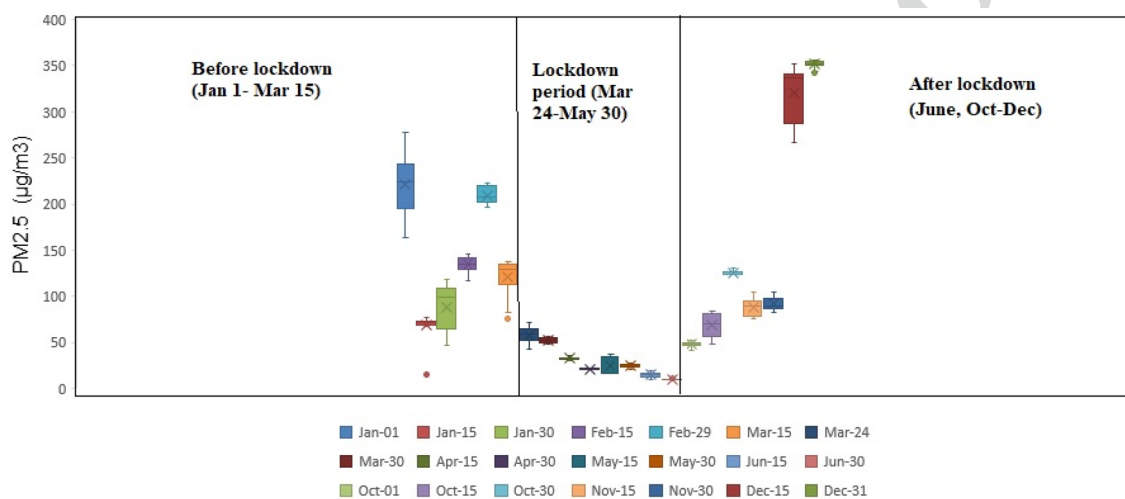


Fig. 7 Situation of PM_{2.5} concentrations before lockdown, during lockdown and unlock stages

536 compare it with recent times. It ensures that the signifi-
 537 cant decline in PM_{2.5} only occurred due to the lockdown
 538 effect. In this study, we make a comparison among 2018,
 539 2019, and 2020 PM_{2.5} concentration levels during the
 540 month of March to June of each year (Fig. 8). This can
 541 help to understand the impact of COVID-19 as well as the
 542 lockdown on the atmosphere. The mean PM_{2.5} concentra-
 543 tion of the earlier 2 years (2018, 2019) was 76 µg/m³,
 544 whereas 39 µg/m³ in 2020 that represents a significant
 545 decline (48%) compared to previous years. The maximum
 546 mean PM_{2.5} (µg/m³) was documented at CHN (187) in
 547 2018, THN (192) in 2019, and KAL (69) in 2020. All the
 548 cities experienced a substantial decrease of PM_{2.5} from
 549 March to June in 2020 compared to 2018, and 2019. Max-
 550 imum decrease was occurring at AUR (83%), NAG (78%),
 551 CHN (68%), PUN (56%), SOL (56%), MUM (51%), and
 552 NAS (29%) compared to the year 2018.

Hotspot analysis of different phases of lockdown

553
 554 Lockdown was the preventive measure of the COVID-19
 555 situation which is a serious threat to human civilization
 556 and its impact on economic activity is very severe. Vari-
 557 ous industries and many outdoor activities were stopped
 558 during this time. Therefore, the PM_{2.5} level drastically
 559 changes in different phases of lockdown which depicts
 560 different hotspot regions (Fig. 9) of MH across the cities.
 561 Basically, 100 AQI and 35 µg/m³ of PM_{2.5} is the higher
 562 limit of satisfactory category by CPCB standard and it
 563 is also the permissible value for human health; when it
 564 crosses its value, then this area turns into an atmospheri-
 565 cally polluted and hotspot region. PM_{2.5} has a notable
 566 contribution in making the harsh AQI. Thus, there is a
 567 significant relationship between the AQI and hotspot
 568 region. These hotspot regions are significantly different

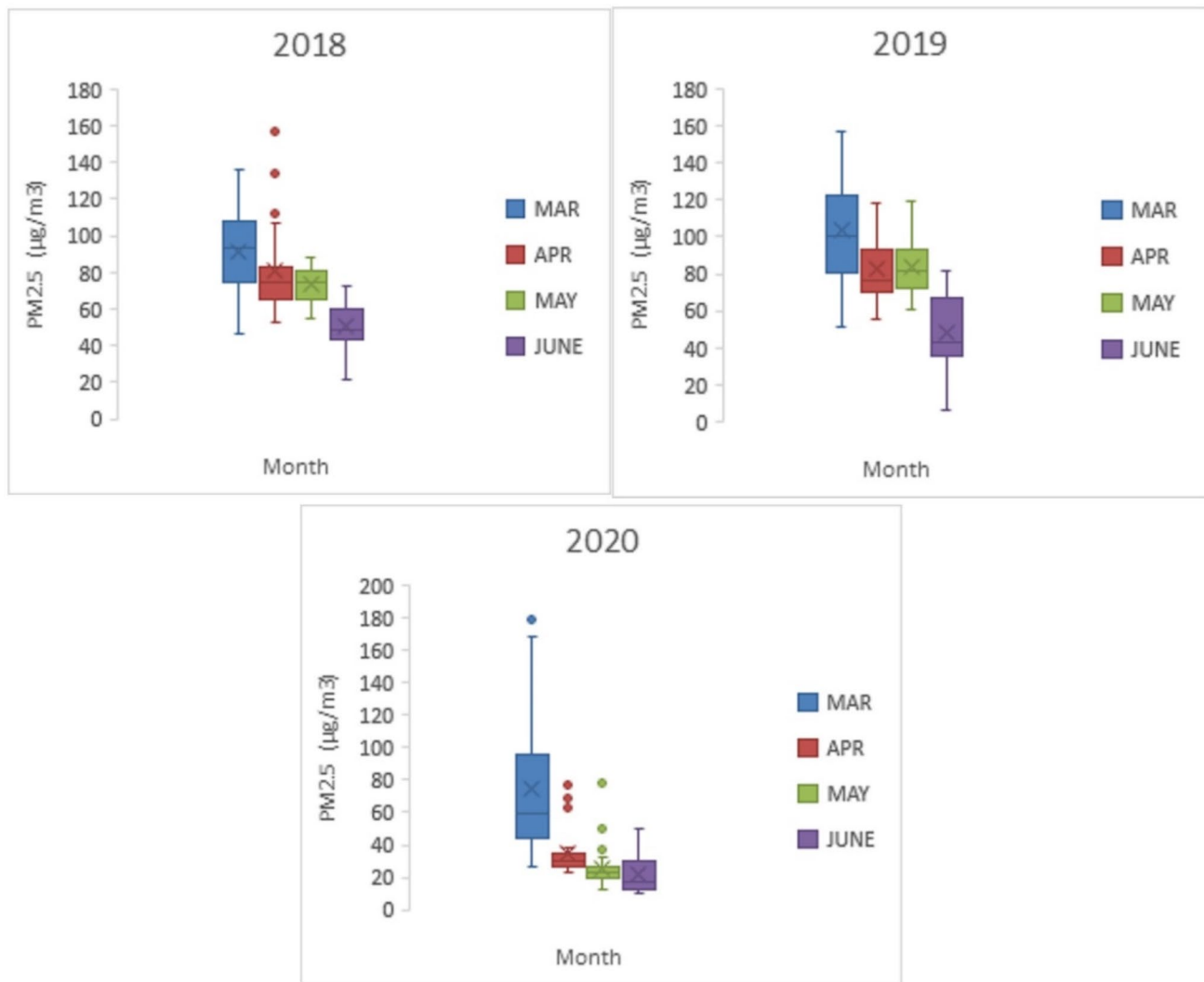


Fig. 8 Average PM_{2.5} concentration during March to June of the year 2018–2020

569 from the previous year's situation because their opposite
 570 situations are there. Most of the time, hotspots are located
 571 in the western part and decrease towards the eastern part
 572 of the state but during the lockdown, opposite situations
 573 have been seen. PM_{2.5} concentration zone changes in this
 574 time, and in unlock situations, these hotspots also tend to
 575 achieve the previous condition. Lowering PM_{2.5} creates an
 576 impact on the regional climate and cools down the temper-
 577 ature of the cities of MH. It is clear from some previ-
 578 ous work of researcher's temperature has a great impact
 579 on the COVID-19 outbreak. This low level of PM_{2.5} may
 580 be the cause of the COVID-19 outbreak in these cities of
 581 MH because low PM_{2.5} levels are slightly responsible for
 582 regional climate change that could accelerate the outbreak
 583 of COVID-19. Several researchers (Comunian et al. 2020;
 584 Zoran et al. 2020; Paital and Agrawal 2021) have tried to

find out the relation between PM_{2.5} concentration and the
 spreading of COVID-19 in different areas.

Hotspot analysis of different years from 2018 to 2020 (March–June)

The hotspot of any region means the large concentration of
 any particular matter in a particular region. In this study, hot-
 spot analysis has been done to identify PM_{2.5} concentration
 hotspots throughout the cities of MH state. MH is known as
 the hotspot of our commercial activity, but in recent years,
 it became a hotspot for COVID-19 outbreak due to the large
 number of COVID-19 cases found in the cities of MH.

In this present study, hotspot analysis method has been
 used to compare the PM_{2.5} concentration of the previous
 year 2018 and 2019 for the months of March to June with

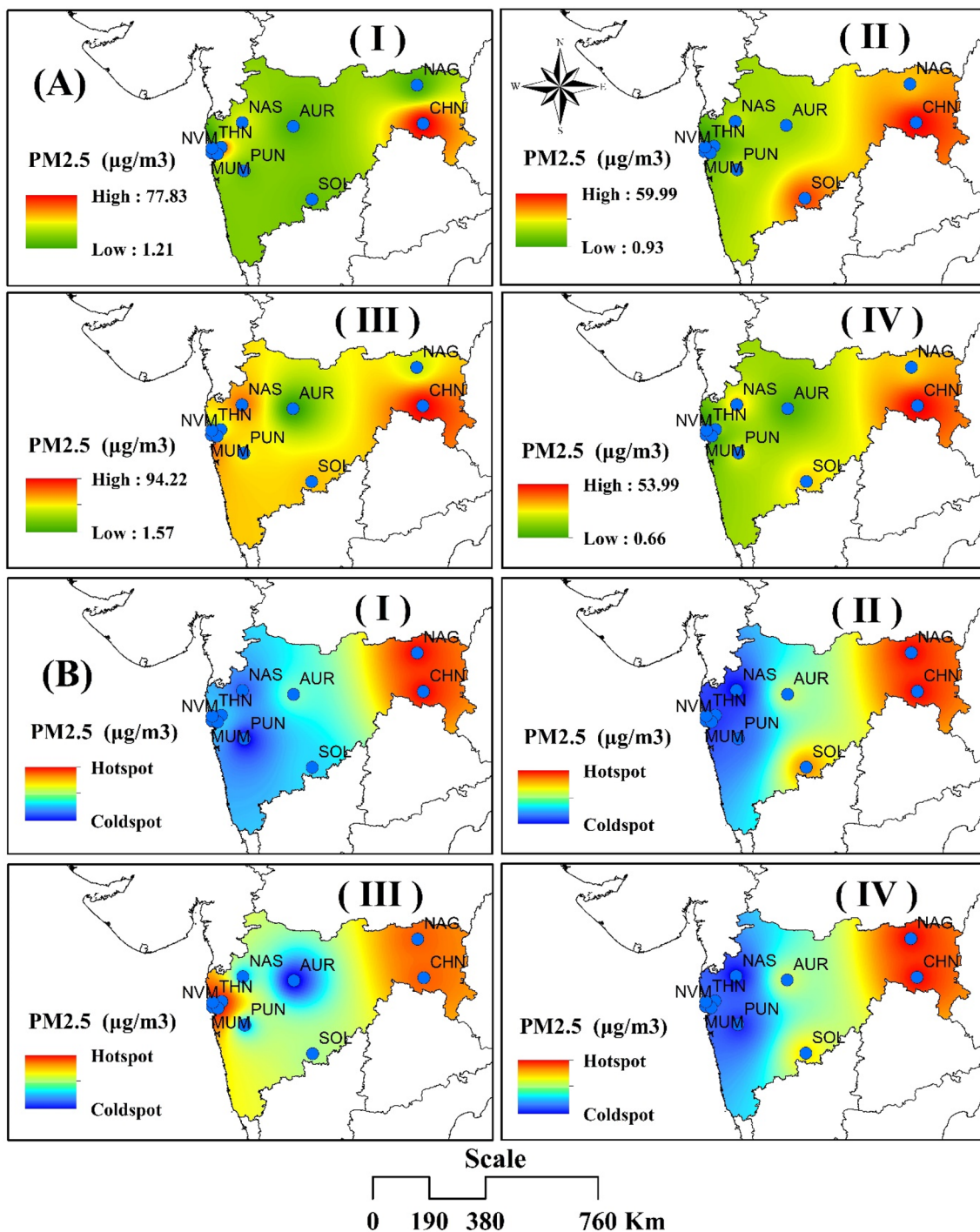


Fig. 9 A Spatial distribution and B hotspot of PM_{2.5} during different phases of lockdown

599 recent 2020 because these months were very vulnerable
 600 during 2020. From the hotspot analysis of the year 2018
 601 (March–June), it is clear that the main concentration of

hotspots in MH state developed in MMR due to its various
 602 outdoor activities (Fig. 10). The same situation occurred
 603 during the year 2019 here spatial concentration of PM_{2.5}
 604

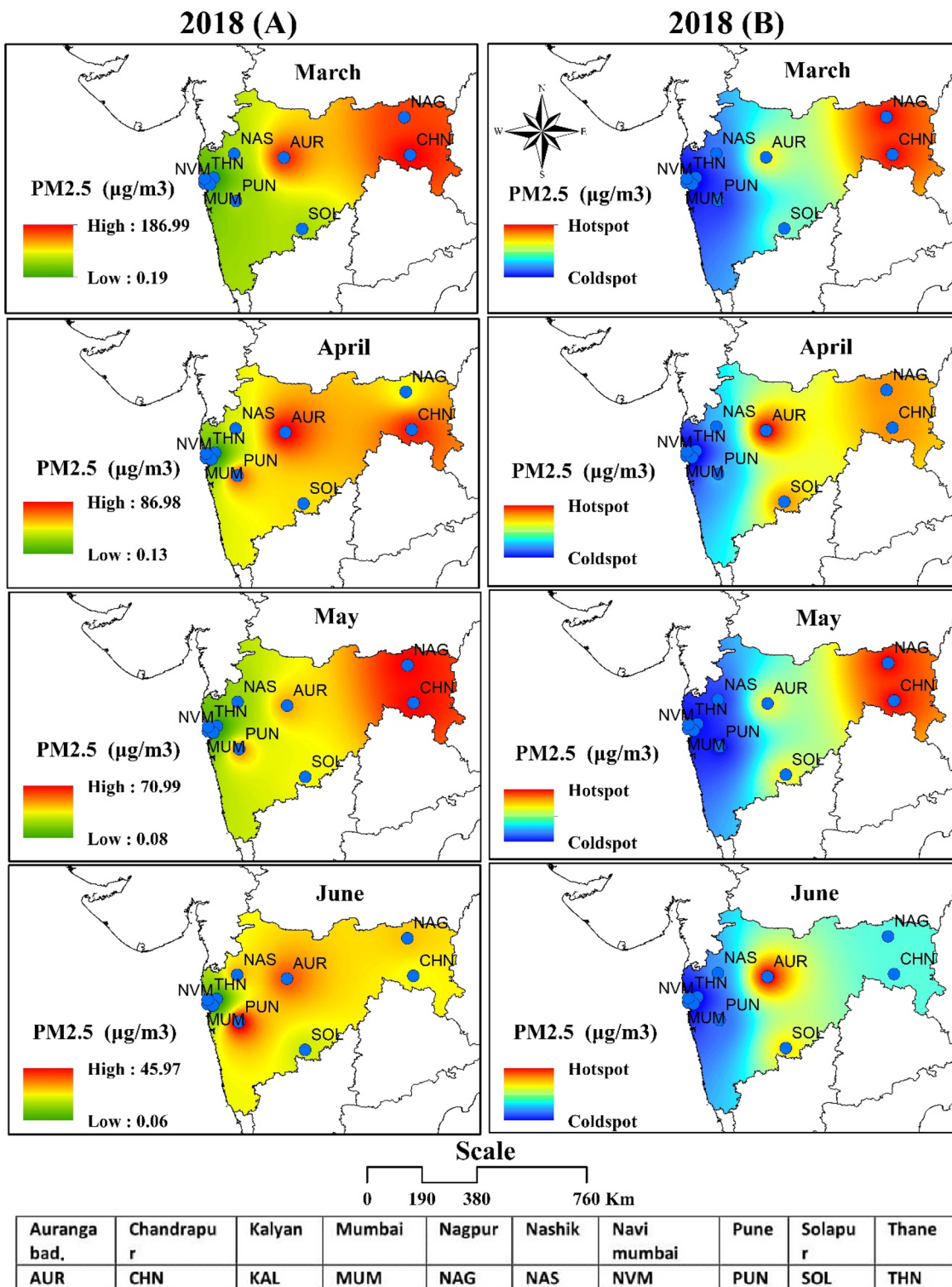


Fig. 10 A Spatial distribution and B hotspot of PM_{2.5} during March–June of 2018

605 and hotspots were found in the cities of the western part
 606 and some cities of the east (Fig. 11). But this situation
 607 dramatically changes in the year 2020; hotspots have

been shifted towards the central part and eastern part
 of the state. It also proved that different phases of lock-
 down were responsible for a decline in the PM_{2.5} level.

608
 609
 610

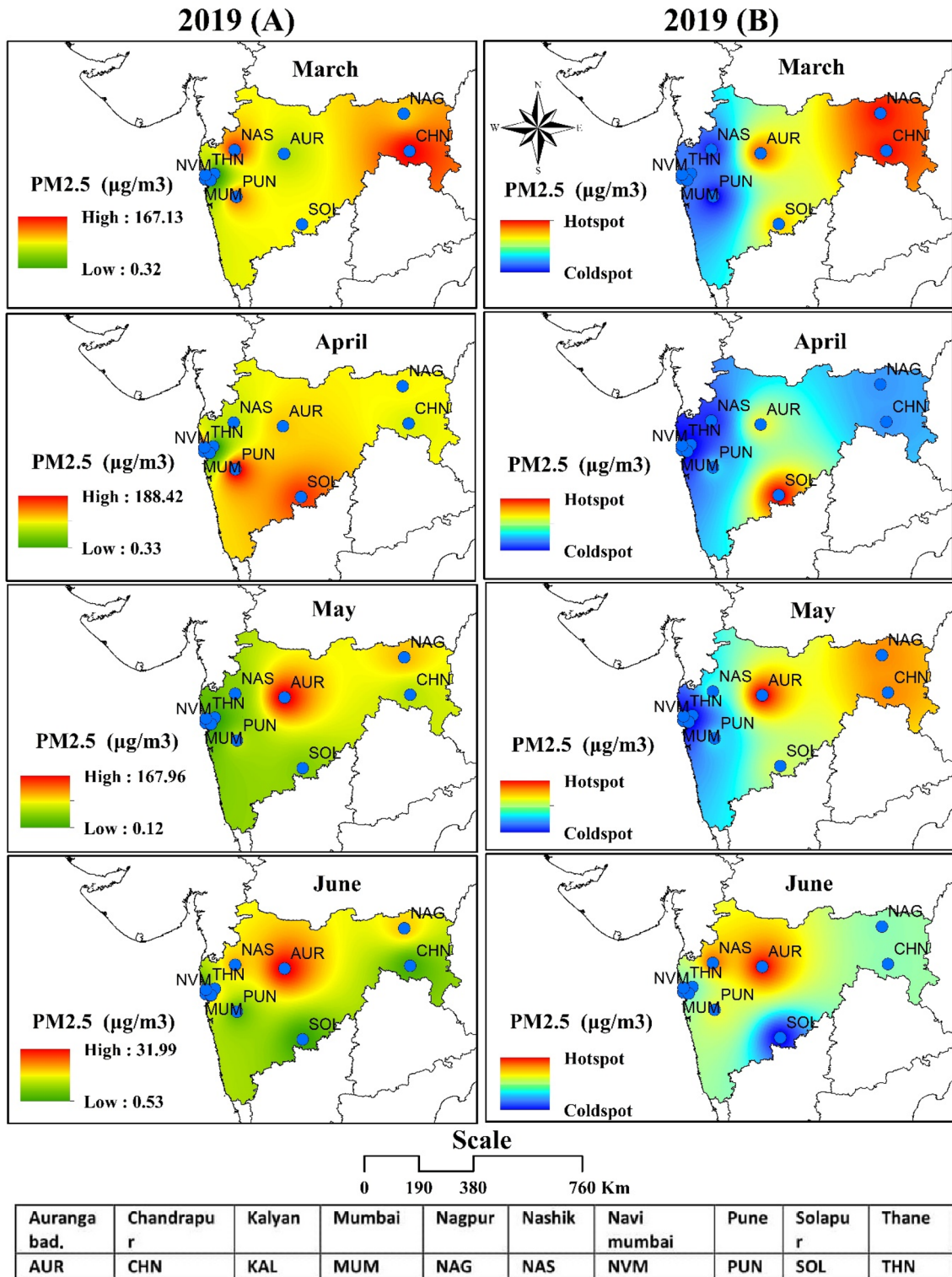


Fig. 11 A Spatial distribution and B hotspot of PM_{2.5} during March–June of 2019

611 Primarily, the hotspot of MH state is concentrated at the
 612 surrounding region of MMR which is the western part
 613 of the state (NAS, NVM, PUN, MUM, and THN). But

from present findings, it can be observed that the hotspot
 of PM_{2.5} concentration is developed in the cities of the
 eastern part (NAG, CHN, AUR, and SOL) of the state

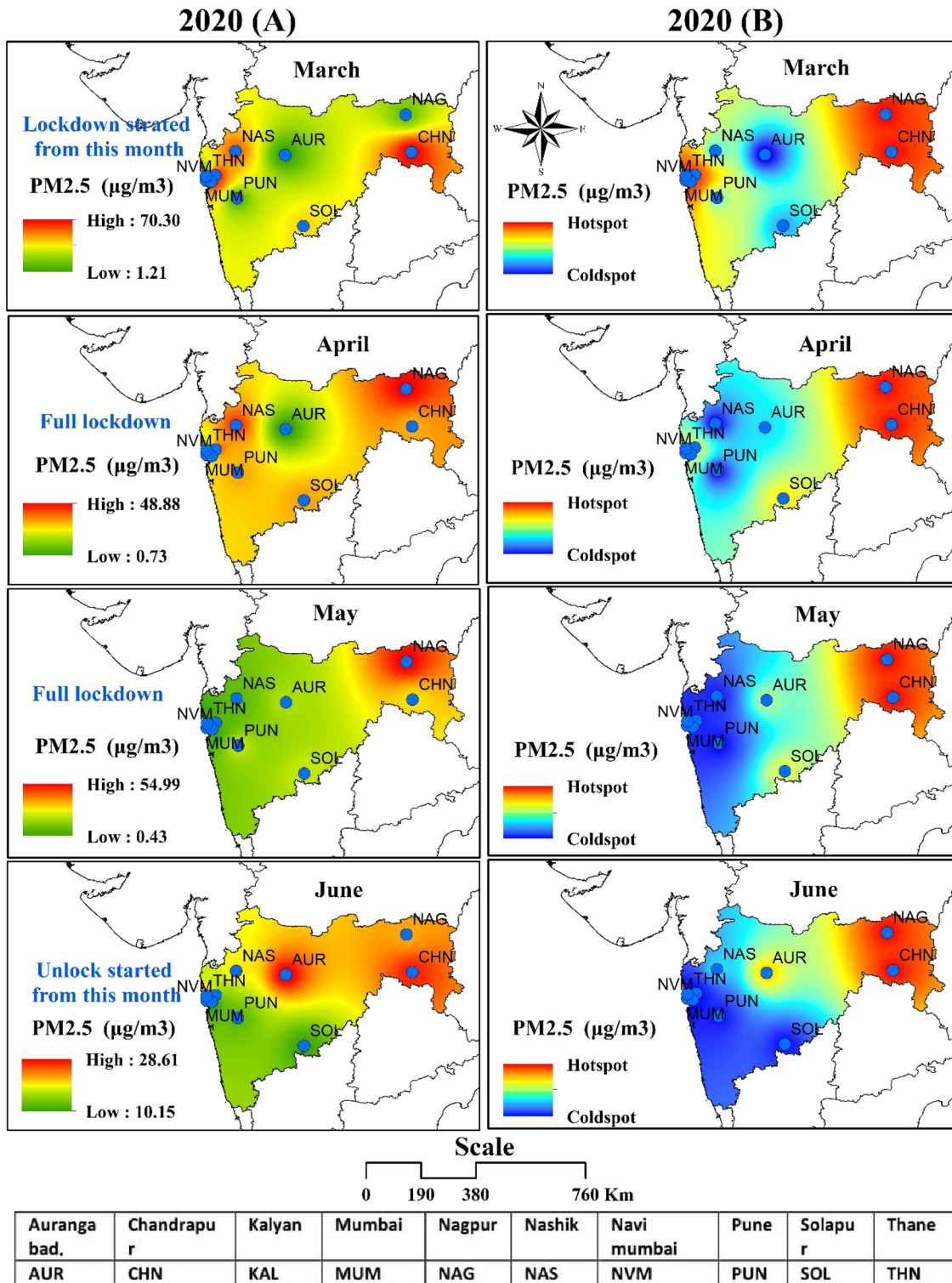


Fig. 12 A Spatial distribution and B hotspot of PM_{2.5} during March–June of 2020

617 because several economic activities were closed down dur-
 618 ing lockdown resulting in coldspots at the western part
 619 of the state (Fig. 12). MMR is the most vulnerable place
 620 in PM_{2.5} concentration that is all time hotspot of PM_{2.5}

but during the lockdown, it has changed its position. Our
 study also has shown the variation of PM_{2.5} in adopted ten
 important cities throughout the entire year of 2018, 2019,
 and 2020 (Fig. 13).

621
622
623
624

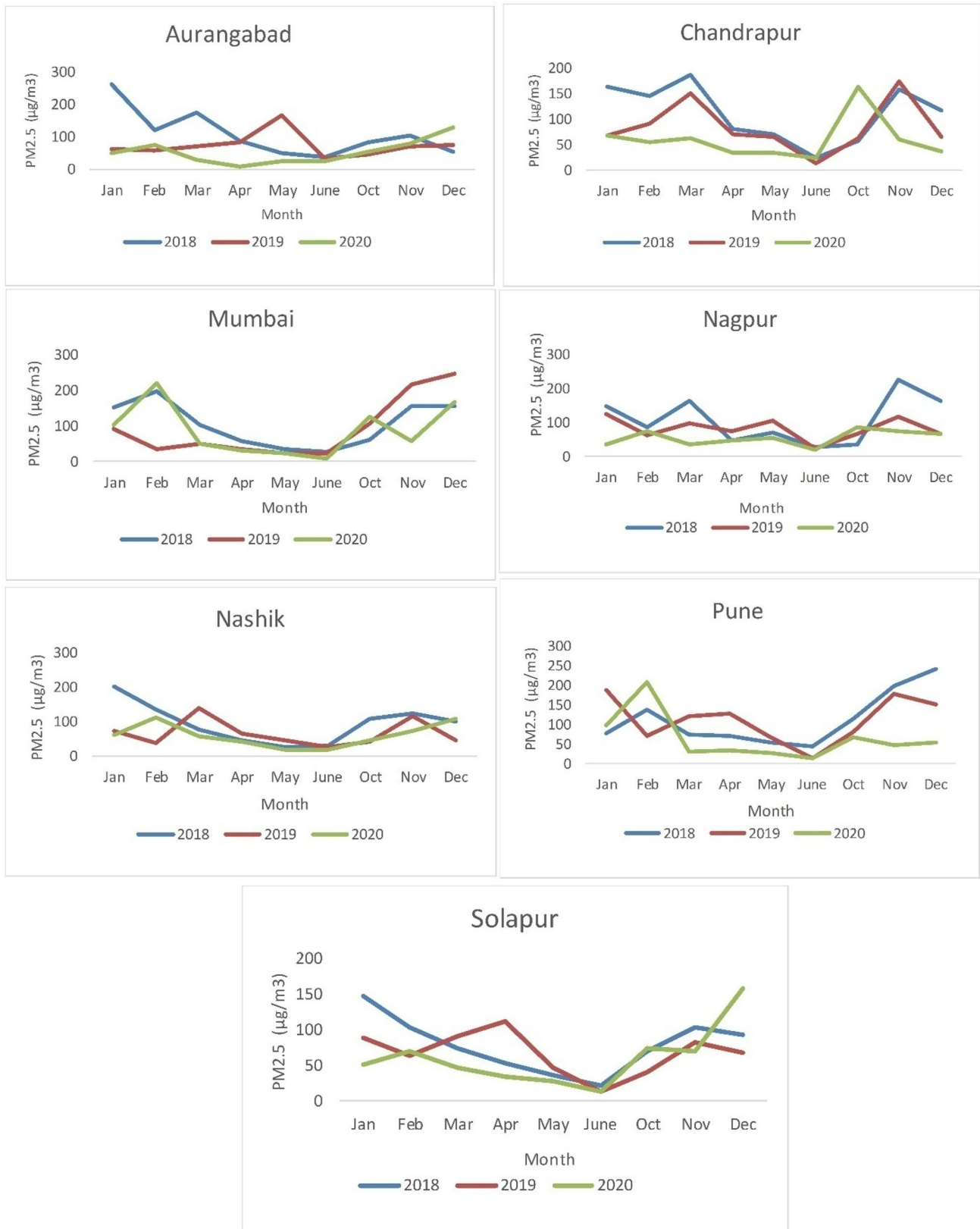


Fig. 13 Comparison of PM_{2.5} concentration throughout the cities of the year 2018, 2019, 2020 (before lockdown, lockdown, and after lockdown)

Apart from this, the most significant air pollution has notable relation to water resources. Suspended particulate matter can directly influence the water quality of a region because this can easily transfer from one place to another place and settle on water after a consecutive time and then it affects the water body by its chemical composition (Yunus et al. 2020). According to (USEPA), particulate matter can make several changes in the lakes, streams and any water body such as it can acidify the water body by its chemical properties. Particulate matter also brings substantial changes in nutrient balance in the river and coastal water; besides, this atmospheric component plays a significant role in producing acid rain which has a significant impact on the water body by direct mixing of acid water with available surface water (Bilotta et al. 2012).

Therefore, this study with spatial distribution and hotspot analysis of $PM_{2.5}$ can help in easy identification of particulate matter concentration zone and that also helpful in detecting the potential water resource vulnerable zone due to deteriorating nature of air quality more specifically because of $PM_{2.5}$ in a particular area. Our present study shows the $PM_{2.5}$ hotspot zone more significantly and this is directly related to water quality deterioration.

Conclusion

Since the beginning of 2020, COVID-19 has become a global threat to the human population. Because of this serious situation, GOI initiated a lockdown strategy by shutting down all outdoor activities. In response to its natural environment, the atmospheric conditions underwent a dramatic change during this time period and sensible effects also have been seen in cities rather than rural areas. MH government has taken various strategies to overcome the COVID situation that brings several changes in the atmosphere. This study seeks to analyze the ups and downs of the $PM_{2.5}$ concentration of ten major MH cities identified as the hotspot of the outbreak of COVID-19, in three consecutive periods, namely before lockdown, lockdown, and post-lockdown. In this study, we have seen that various MH cities have undergone significant changes in $PM_{2.5}$ levels that could trigger the outbreak of COVID-19 and make this state a hotspot in India. Generally, MH states experienced unhealthy as well as very poor air quality (Chattopadhyay and Shaw 2021); Bashir et al. (2020) and Fattorini and Regoli (2020) showed how air polluted areas become COVID hotspots during this time. Hence, MH faced devastating consequences of it.

This change in the atmosphere varies at different times at different rates. Before the lockdown period, MH was facing very critical condition in $PM_{2.5}$ ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) concentration level. Several cities experienced very unhealthy $PM_{2.5}$

levels. The highest average concentration was found in NAV (248) then MUM (236) and NAS (190) subsequently. During the lockdown period, all the ten cities of MH experience a substantial decrease in $PM_{2.5}$ where there was about a 50% decrease at the end of March, 65% at the end of April, and 74% at the end of May compared to before lockdown period. After lockdown or the unlock, stages were opposite to the lockdown period where the cities have experienced a gradual increase in $PM_{2.5}$ concentration level. On 30th May, average, $PM_{2.5}$ concentration across the cities was 26 ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) which becomes 130 ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) on the 31st December. Therefore, it can be said that there was a significant rise of $PM_{2.5}$ seen in unlock period, although it can also be concluded that a record level of decline in $PM_{2.5}$ concentration has occurred from March to June period of 2020 rather than the years 2018 and 2019.

The hotspot analysis in this study plays a significant role in identifying the highest concentrated $PM_{2.5}$ area in 2020 compared to the previous years in 2018 and 2019. It also shows how the $PM_{2.5}$ hotspot region of cities of MH converts to coldspots during the lockdown period; whereas at the beginning of lockdown (March 2020), some cities such as Navi Mumbai, Thane, Pune, and Mumbai were under hotspots of $PM_{2.5}$ concentration and those places transform into coldspot in June due to lockdown effect; the previous hotspot regions moved from western cities to eastern cities. All the above discussions ensure that although this COVID-19 situation has posed a very serious threat to the human population, it gives time to the environment to overcome its disease and bring sustainability to the environment.

This study ensures that it is very necessary to give the environment time to rejuvenate easily; COVID-19 as a natural power forces us to implement mandatory lockdowns throughout the world that bring change to the environment. But it is not a permanent solution, rather than a temporary one. As a result, the environment reached its previous poor condition gradually after the unlocking phase in the world. Nor is India, as well as the MH state, an exception in this case. GOI has taken several steps to balance the level of pollution in the various cities of the country. But it is not being properly maintained. Until now, many Indian cities are ranked among the top polluted cities in the world by crossing their upper pollution limits. In MH, the concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ is in very serious condition and a large number of people are suffering from critical illness due to its excessive levels. Central authorities need to be more focused, and take more effective and strict preventive measures to overcome this situation.

Data availability Data will be made available on request.

725 **Declarations**

726 **Conflict of interest** The authors declare that they have no competing
727 interests.

728 **References**

729 (2020) How China managed to consistently reduce PM 2.5 concentra-
730 tions in recent years. In: Hindustan Times. <https://www.hindustanimes.com/delhi-news/how-china-managed-to-consistently-reduce-pm-2-5-concentrations-in-recent-years/story-dtWOaWt6JyMrHyJgCCxA4L.html>. Accessed 9 Jan 2021

734 Air Pollution: Locked Down by COVID-19 but Not Arrested. <https://www.worldbank.org/en/news/immersive-story/2020/07/01/air-pollution-locked-down-by-covid-19-but-not-arrested>. Accessed 9 Jan 2021

738 Ambient (outdoor) air pollution. [https://www.who.int/news-room/factsheets/detail/ambient-\(outdoor\)-air-quality-and-health](https://www.who.int/news-room/factsheets/detail/ambient-(outdoor)-air-quality-and-health). Accessed 23 Apr 2021

741 Apak S, Atay E (2013) Industrial policy and climate change manage-
742 ment of Turkey as an EU candidate country. *Procedia Soc Behav Sci* 75:246–254. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.04.028>

744 Bashir MF, Ma B, Bilal et al (2020) Correlation between climate indi-
745 cators and COVID-19 pandemic in New York, USA. *Sci Total Environ* 728:138835. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.138835>

748 Berman JD, Ebisu K (2020) Changes in U.S. air pollution during the
749 COVID-19 pandemic. *Sci Total Environ* 739:139864. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.139864>

751 Bilotta GS, Burnside NG, Cheek L et al (2012) Developing environ-
752 ment-specific water quality guidelines for suspended particulate
753 matter. *Water Res* 46:2324–2332. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2012.01.055>

755 Chakrabarty RK, Beeler P, Liu P et al (2020) Ambient PM2.5 exposure
756 and rapid spread of COVID-19 in the United States. *Sci Total Environ*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.143391>

758 Chakraborty R, Pal SC, Ghosh M et al (2021) Weather indicators and
759 improving air quality in association with COVID-19 pandemic in
760 India. *Soft Comput*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00500-021-06012-9>

761 Chakraborty A, Gupta T (2010) Chemical characterization and source
762 apportionment of submicron (PM1) aerosol in Kanpur Region,
763 India. *Aerosol Air Qual Res* 10:433–445. <https://doi.org/10.4209/aaqr.2009.11.0071>

765 Chattopadhyay A, Shaw S (2021) Association between air pollution
766 and COVID-19 pandemic: an investigation in Mumbai, India.
767 *GeoHealth*. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2021GH000383>

768 Chauhan A, Singh RP (2020) Decline in PM2.5 concentrations over
769 major cities around the world associated with COVID-19. *Environ Res* 187:109634. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2020.109634>

771 Chowdhuri I, Pal SC, Arabameri A et al (2022) Have any effect of
772 COVID-19 lockdown on environmental sustainability? A study
773 from most polluted metropolitan area of India. *Stoch Environ Res Risk Assess* 36:283–295. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00477-021-02019-8>

776 Chowdhury S, Dey S (2016) Cause-specific premature death from
777 ambient PM2.5 exposure in India: estimate adjusted for baseline
778 mortality. *Environ Int* 91:283–290. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2016.03.004>

780 Chowdhury S, Dey S, Guttikunda S et al (2019) Indian annual ambient
781 air quality standard is achievable by completely mitigating emis-
782 sions from household sources. *PNAS* 116:10711–10716. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1900888116>

Comunian S, Dongo D, Milani C, Palestini P (2020) Air pollution
784 and COVID-19: the role of particulate matter in the spread and
785 increase of COVID-19’s morbidity and mortality. *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 17:4487. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17124487>

788 Das A, Das M, Ghosh S (2020) Impact of nutritional status and ane-
789 mia on COVID-19: is it a public health concern? Evidence from
790 National Family Health Survey-4 (2015–2016), India. *Public Health* 185:93–94. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.puhe.2020.06.001>

792 Das M, Das A, Ghosh S et al (2021) Spatio-temporal concentration
793 of atmospheric particulate matter (PM2.5) during pandemic: a
794 study on most polluted cities of Indo-Gangetic plain. *Urban Clim* 35:100758. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.uclim.2020.100758>

796 Fattorini D, Regoli F (2020) Role of the chronic air pollution levels in
797 the Covid-19 outbreak risk in Italy. *Environ Pollut* 264:114732. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2020.114732>

799 Glencross DA, Ho T-R, Camiña N et al (2020) Air pollution and its
800 effects on the immune system. *Free Radical Biol Med* 151:56–68. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.freeradbiomed.2020.01.179>

802 Guan X, Wu H (2008) Parallel optimization of IDW interpolation algo-
803 rithm on multicore platform. In: *Geoinformatics 2008 and Joint Conference on GIS and Built Environment: Advanced Spatial Data Models and Analyses*. International Society for Optics and Photonics, p 71461Y

807 Guttikunda SK, Kopakka RV (2014) Source emissions and
808 health impacts of urban air pollution in Hyderabad, India. *Air Qual Atmos Health* 7:195–207. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11869-013-0221-z>

810 Guttikunda SK, Goel R, Pant P (2014) Nature of air pollution, emis-
811 sion sources, and management in the Indian cities. *Atmos Environ* 95:501–510. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2014.07.006>

814 Hashim BM, Al-Naseri SK, Al-Maliki A, Al-Ansari N (2021) Impact
815 of COVID-19 lockdown on NO2, O3, PM2.5 and PM10 concentra-
816 tions and assessing air quality changes in Baghdad, Iraq. *Sci Total Environ* 754:141978. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.141978>

818 Hu D, Jiang J (2014) PM_{2.5} pollution and risk for lung cancer: a rising
819 issue in China. *J Environ Prot*. <https://doi.org/10.4236/jep.2014.58074>

821 Jain S, Sharma SK, Vijayan N, Mandal TK (2021) Investigating the
822 seasonal variability in source contribution to PM2.5 and PM10
823 using different receptor models during 2013–2016 in Delhi, India. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 28:4660–4675. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-020-10645-y>

827 Jephcote C, Hansell AL, Adams K, Gulliver J (2021) Changes in air
828 quality during COVID-19 ‘lockdown’ in the United Kingdom. *Environ Pollut* 272:116011. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2020.116011>

830 Karuppasamy MB, Seshachalam S, Natesan U et al (2020) Air pol-
831 lution improvement and mortality rate during COVID-19 pan-
832 demic in India: global intersectional study. *Air Qual Atmos Health* 13:1375–1384. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11869-020-00892-w>

835 Kodge BG (2021) A review on current status of COVID19 cases in
836 Maharashtra state of India using GIS: a case study. *Spat Inf Res* 29:223–229. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s41324-020-00349-3>

838 Kulshrestha A, Satsangi PG, Masih J, Taneja A (2009) Metal concentra-
839 tion of PM2.5 and PM10 particles and seasonal variations in
840 urban and rural environment of Agra, India. *Sci Total Environ* 407:6196–6204. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2009.08.050>

842 Kumar P, Jain S, Gurjar BR et al (2013) New directions: can a “blue
843 sky” return to Indian megacities? *Atmos Environ* 71:198–201. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2013.01.055>

845 Kumar M, Patel AK, Shah AV et al (2020) First proof of the capabil-
846 ity of wastewater surveillance for COVID-19 in India through
847 detection of genetic material of SARS-CoV-2. *Sci Total Environ* 746:141326. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.141326>

- 850 Laxmipriya S, Narayanan RM (2021) COVID-19 and its relationship
851 to particulate matter pollution—case study from part of greater
852 Chennai, India. *Mater Today Proc* 43:1634–1639. [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.matpr.2020.09.768)
853 [10.1016/j.matpr.2020.09.768](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.matpr.2020.09.768)
- 854 Li X, Chen X, Yuan X et al (2017) Characteristics of particulate pol-
855 lution (PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀) and their spacescale-dependent rela-
856 tionships with meteorological elements in China. *Sustainability*
857 9:2330. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su9122330>
- 858 Ma J, Ding Y, Gan VJL et al (2019) Spatiotemporal prediction of
859 PM_{2.5} concentrations at different time granularities using IDW-
860 BLSTM. *IEEE Access* 7:107897–107907. [https://doi.org/10.1109/](https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2019.2932445)
861 [ACCESS.2019.2932445](https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2019.2932445)
- 862 Mahato S, Pal S, Ghosh KG (2020) Effect of lockdown amid COVID-
863 19 pandemic on air quality of the megacity Delhi, India. *Sci Total*
864 *Environ* 730:139086. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.139086)
865 [139086](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.139086)
- 866 Mahesh B, Rama BV, Spandana B et al (2019) Evaluation of MER-
867 RAero PM_{2.5} over Indian cities. *Adv Space Res* 64:328–334.
868 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asr.2019.04.026>
- 869 Manoj MG, Satheesh Kumar MK, Valsaraj KT et al (2020) Potential
870 link between compromised air quality and transmission of the
871 novel corona virus (SARS-CoV-2) in affected areas. *Environ Res*
872 190:110001. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2020.110001>
- 873 MoHFWHome. <https://www.mohfw.gov.in/>. Accessed 23 Apr 2021
- 874 Musikavong C, Gheewala SH (2017) Assessing ecological footprints of
875 products from the rubber industry and palm oil mills in Thailand.
876 *J Clean Prod* 142:1148–1157. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.08.117)
877 [2016.08.117](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.08.117)
- 878 Nagar PK, Sharma M, Das D (2019) A new method for trend analyses
879 in PM₁₀ and impact of crop residue burning in Delhi, Kanpur
880 and Jaipur, India. *Urban Climate* 27:193–203. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.uclim.2018.12.003)
881 [1016/j.uclim.2018.12.003](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.uclim.2018.12.003)
- 882 National Air Quality Index. https://app.cpcbcr.com/AQI_India/.
883 Accessed 9 Jan 2021
- 884 Pagar S (2015) Geographical study of growth and level of urbanization
885 in Maharashtra state, India. *Golden Research Thought*. 5:2015
- 886 Paital B (2020) Nurture to nature via COVID-19, a self-regenerating
887 environmental strategy of environment in global context. *Sci*
888 *Total Environ* 729:139088. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.139088)
889 [2020.139088](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.139088)
- 890 Paital B, Agrawal PK (2021) Air pollution by NO₂ and PM_{2.5} explains
891 COVID-19 infection severity by overexpression of angiotensin-
892 converting enzyme 2 in respiratory cells: a review. *Environ Chem*
893 *Lett* 19:25–42. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10311-020-01091-w>
- 894 Pal SC, Chowdhuri I, Saha A et al (2021a) Improvement in ambient-
895 air-quality reduced temperature during the COVID-19 lockdown
896 period in India. *Environ Dev Sustain* 23:9581–9608. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10668-020-01034-z)
897 [org/10.1007/s10668-020-01034-z](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10668-020-01034-z)
- 898 Pal SC, Saha A, Chowdhuri I et al (2021b) Threats of unplanned move-
899 ment of migrant workers for sudden spurt of COVID-19 pandemic
900 in India. *Cities* 109:103035. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cities.2020.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cities.2020.103035)
901 [103035](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cities.2020.103035)
- 902 Pal SC, Chowdhuri I, Saha A et al (2022) COVID-19 strict lockdown
903 impact on urban air quality and atmospheric temperature in four
904 megacities of India. *Geosci Front*. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gsf.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gsf.2022.101368)
905 [2022.101368](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gsf.2022.101368)
- 906 Ruidas D, Pal SC, Islam ARMd, Saha A (2021) Characterization
907 of groundwater potential zones in water-scarce hardrock regions
908 using data driven model. *Environ Earth Sci* 80:809. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1007/s12665-021-10116-8)
909 [org/10.1007/s12665-021-10116-8](https://doi.org/10.1007/s12665-021-10116-8)
- 910 Ruidas D, Chakraborty R, Islam ARMd et al (2022a) A novel
911 hybrid of meta-optimization approach for flash flood-susceptibility
912 assessment in a monsoon-dominated watershed, Eastern
913 India. *Environ Earth Sci* 81:145. [https://doi.org/10.1007/](https://doi.org/10.1007/s12665-022-10269-0)
914 [s12665-022-10269-0](https://doi.org/10.1007/s12665-022-10269-0)
- Ruidas D, Pal SC, Towfiqul Islam ARMd, Saha A (2022b) Hydrogeo-
chemical evaluation of groundwater aquifers and associated health
hazard risk mapping using ensemble data driven model in a water
scarcely plateau region of Eastern India. *Expo Health*. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1007/s12403-022-00480-6)
[org/10.1007/s12403-022-00480-6](https://doi.org/10.1007/s12403-022-00480-6)
- Rukundo O, Cao H (2012) Nearest neighbor value interpolation.
IJACSA. <https://doi.org/10.14569/IJACSA.2012.030405>
- Saha A, Pal SC, Chowdhuri I et al (2021) Impact of firecrackers burn-
ing and policy-practice gap on air quality in Delhi during Indian's
great mythological event of Diwali festival. *Cities* 119:103384.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cities.2021.103384>
- Shah JJ, Nagpal T (1997) Urban Air quality management strategy in
Asia: greater Mumbai report. World Bank Publications
- Sharma S, Zhang M, Anshika et al (2020) Effect of restricted emis-
sions during COVID-19 on air quality in India. *Sci Total Environ*
728:138878. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.138878>
- Singh RP, Chauhan A (2020) Impact of lockdown on air quality in India
during COVID-19 pandemic. *Air Qual Atmos Health* 13:921–928.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11869-020-00863-1>
- Singh P, Dey S, Purohit B, et al (2020) Robust association between
short-term ambient PM_{2.5} exposure and COVID prevalence in
India. In Review
- Son J-Y, Fong KC, Heo S et al (2020) Reductions in mortality result-
ing from reduced air pollution levels due to COVID-19 mitiga-
tion measures. *Sci Total Environ* 744:141012. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.141012)
940 [1016/j.scitotenv.2020.141012](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.141012)
- USEPA Drinking Water Standards and Health Advisories (2000)
- Venter ZS, Aunan K, Chowdhury S, Lelieveld J (2020) COVID-19
lockdowns cause global air pollution declines. *PNAS* 117:18984–
18990. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2006853117>
- Villalobos AM, Amonov MO, Shafer MM et al (2015) Source ap-
portionment of carbonaceous fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) in two
contrasting cities across the Indo-Gangetic Plain. *Atmos Pollut*
Res 6:398–405. <https://doi.org/10.5094/APR.2015.044>
- Wang Y, Yuan Y, Wang Q et al (2020) Changes in air quality related
to the control of coronavirus in China: implications for traffic and
industrial emissions. *Sci Total Environ* 731:139133. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.139133)
951 [org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.139133](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.139133)
- WHO Coronavirus (COVID-19) Dashboard. <https://covid19.who.int>.
952 Accessed 23 Apr 2021b
- WHO Director-General's opening remarks at the Mission briefing on
COVID-19 - 12 March 2020. [https://www.who.int/director-gener-](https://www.who.int/director-general/speeches/detail/who-director-general-s-opening-remarks-at-the-mission-briefing-on-covid-19---12-march-2020)
953 [al/speeches/detail/who-director-general-s-opening-remarks-at-](https://www.who.int/director-general/speeches/detail/who-director-general-s-opening-remarks-at-the-mission-briefing-on-covid-19---12-march-2020)
954 [the-mission-briefing-on-covid-19---12-march-2020](https://www.who.int/director-general/speeches/detail/who-director-general-s-opening-remarks-at-the-mission-briefing-on-covid-19---12-march-2020). Accessed
955 23 Apr 2021a
- Wu X, Nethery R, Sabath B et al (2020) Exposure to air pollution and
COVID-19 mortality in the United States: a nationwide cross-
sectional study. *MedRxiv*. [https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.04.05.](https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.04.05.20054502)
956 [20054502](https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.04.05.20054502)
- Yang Q, Yuan Q, Li T et al (2017) The relationships between PM_{2.5}
and meteorological factors in China: seasonal and regional vari-
ations. *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 14:1510. [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph14121510)
957 [10.3390/ijerph14121510](https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph14121510)
- Yin Z, Zhang Y, Wang H, Li Y (2021) Evident PM_{2.5} drops in the east
of China due to the COVID-19 quarantine measures in Febru-
ary. *Atmos Chem Phys* 21:1581–1592. [https://doi.org/10.5194/](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-21-1581-2021)
958 [acp-21-1581-2021](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-21-1581-2021)
- Yunus AP, Masago Y, Hijioka Y (2020) COVID-19 and surface water
quality: improved lake water quality during the lockdown. *Sci*
Total Environ 731:139012. [https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.139012)
959 [2020.139012](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.139012)
- Zhang H, Tripathi NK (2018) Geospatial hot spot analysis of lung
cancer patients correlated to fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) and
industrial wind in Eastern Thailand. *J Clean Prod* 170:407–424.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.09.185>

980	Zhang R, Zhang Y, Lin H et al (2020) NO _x emission reduction and recovery during COVID-19 in East China. Atmosphere 11:433. https://doi.org/10.3390/atmos11040433	particulate matter impact on COVID-19 in Milan, Italy. Sci Total Environ 738:139825. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.139825	989
981			990
982			991
983	Zhu Y, Xie J, Huang F, Cao L (2020) Association between short-term exposure to air pollution and COVID-19 infection: evidence from China. Sci Total Environ 727:138704. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.138704	Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.	992
984			993
985			
986			
987	Zoran MA, Savastru RS, Savastru DM, Tautan MN (2020) Assessing the relationship between surface levels of PM _{2.5} and PM ₁₀		994
988			

UNCORRECTED PROOF