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# 1 Investigation on the Impacts of COVID-19 Lockdown and 2 Influence Factors on Air Quality in Greater Bangkok, Thailand

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## 7 Abstract

8 With the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic around the world, many countries announced  
9 lockdown measures, including Thailand. Several scientific studies have reported on  
10 improvements in air quality due to the impact of these COVID-19 lockdowns. This study aims  
11 to investigate the effects of the COVID-19 lockdown and its driving influence factors on air  
12 pollution in Greater Bangkok, Thailand using in-situ measurements. Overall PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>,  
13 O<sub>3</sub>, and CO concentrations presented a significant decreasing trend during the COVID-19  
14 outbreak year based on three periods: the before, lockdown and after periods, for PM<sub>2.5</sub>: 0.7%,  
15 15.8% and 20.7%; PM<sub>10</sub>: 4.1%, 31.7% and 6.1%; O<sub>3</sub>: 0.3%, 7.1% and 4.7%, respectively,  
16 compared to the same periods in 2019. CO concentrations, especially, were increased by  
17 14.7%, but decreased by 8.0% and 23.6% during the before, lockdown and after periods,  
18 respectively. Meanwhile, SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> increased by 54.0%, 41.5% and 84.6%, and 20.1%,  
19 3.2% and 26.6%, respectively, during the before, lockdown and after periods. PCA analysis  
20 indicated a significant combination effect of atmospheric mechanisms that were strongly linked  
21 to emission sources such as traffic and biomass burning. It has been demonstrated that the  
22 COVID-19 lockdown can pause some of these anthropogenic emissions, i.e. traffic,  
23 commercial and industrial activities, but not all, even low traffic emissions can't absolutely  
24 cause reductions in air pollution, since there are several primary emission sources that dominate  
25 the air quality over Greater Bangkok. Finally, these findings highlight the impact of the  
26 COVID-19 lockdown measures, not only on the air pollution levels, but also affects to air  
27 pollution characteristics, as well.

28

## 29 Introduction

30 The entire world has been battling with the Coronavirus since the first case was reported on 31  
31 December 2019 in Wuhan, China. Ultimately, the Coronavirus was declared a pandemic by the  
32 World Health Organization (WHO) on 11 March 2020 [1] as COVID-19 spread. As of updated  
33 numbers, on 23 October 2020, there were 42,026,831 reported positive cases, and 1,143,225  
34 deaths worldwide, including Thailand [2]. Soon after COVID-19 was discovered, lockdown  
35 measures and social distancing started being used as a global pandemic action plan to prevent  
36 COVID-19 from spreading. In Thailand, government authorities announced COVID-19  
37 prevention and control actions including lockdown and curfew hours for the whole country  
38 from 26 March 2020 to 31 May 2020. This COVID-19 lockdown decreased human activities,  
39 especially in the traffic, industrial, and energy production sectors, which assumes a  
40 corresponding decrease in anthropogenic emissions of air pollutions. Generally, air quality is

41 indicated by several pollutants such as surface ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) levels, emissions of NO<sub>x</sub>, CO, SO<sub>2</sub>  
42 and aerosol emissions (PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub>). Many research studies have reported on  
43 improvements in air quality due to the effects of COVID-19 lockdown measures [3-7]. For  
44 example, Xu, et al. [8] indicated that effects of the COVID-19 outbreak presented positive  
45 feedback in reductions of average concentrations of atmospheric PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, CO, and  
46 NO<sub>2</sub> in central China, by 30.1%, 40.5%, 33.4%, 27.9%, and 61.4%, respectively during  
47 February 2020 in Central China. Meanwhile, Southeast Asian cities such as Manila, Kuala  
48 Lumpur and Singapore also reported decreasing trends of NO<sub>2</sub> (27% - 30%) and of PM<sub>10</sub>,  
49 PM<sub>2.5</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, and CO concentrations, of 26–31%, 23–32%, 63–64%, 9–20%, and 25–  
50 31%, respectively [9]. In addition, Nadzir, et al. [3] found that in Malaysia, CO dropped by  
51 48.7%, but PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub> increased up to 60% and 9.7%, respectively, as their results  
52 indicated high AODs from Himawari-8, and NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations from Aura-OMI satellite  
53 sensors, associated with massive biomass burning in northern Thailand and Laos during the  
54 lockdown period (March 2020) which prevented the exploration of impacts due to lockdown  
55 on the air pollution in this region. Most of the research has been performed in the mega-city,  
56 Stratoulias and Nuthammachot [10] analysed concentrations of air pollutants over a medium-  
57 sized city (Songkhla Province) in Southern Thailand and found that concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub>,  
58 PM<sub>10</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> had decreased by 21.8%, 22.9%, 33.7% and 12.5% in the first 3 weeks of  
59 the lockdown compared to the respective pre-lockdown period. Kerimray, et al. [11] presented  
60 the effects of the COVID-19 lockdown with traffic-free conditions in Kazakhstan, with a  
61 PM<sub>2.5</sub> reduction of 21%, and other gaseous pollutants down by 15% - 49%.

62 Recently, Bangkok has experienced winter pollution events with more frequency. Previous  
63 studies have mentioned that the common sources of PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions in Bangkok are from  
64 biomass burning, traffic and industrial activities with varying concentration caused by seasonal  
65 factors [12-14]. Moreover, Watcharaviton, et al. [15] presented spatial and temporal variation  
66 trends of gaseous air pollutant concentrations for O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, CO, and SO<sub>2</sub> from 1996 to 2009 in  
67 Bangkok between residential and roadside areas. They reported seasonal trends of gaseous air  
68 pollutant concentrations which decrease from January to August and then increase from  
69 September to December. The gaseous air pollutant concentrations clearly presented higher  
70 concentration levels at the roadside areas than the residential areas.

71 Bangkok is a big city, if the people are largely restricted to their homes, with higher numbers  
72 of vehicles, there should have been greater reductions in vehicle emissions during the lockdown  
73 period, and the same should have been true for the industrial sector. However, the COVID-19  
74 lockdown's impact on air quality in Bangkok is currently unknown. Therefore, this study aims  
75 to explore the effects and driving influence factors of the COVID-19 lockdown measures on  
76 air quality in Greater Bangkok, Thailand using in-situ measurements using Principal  
77 Component Analysis (PCA).

## 78 **Materials and Methods**

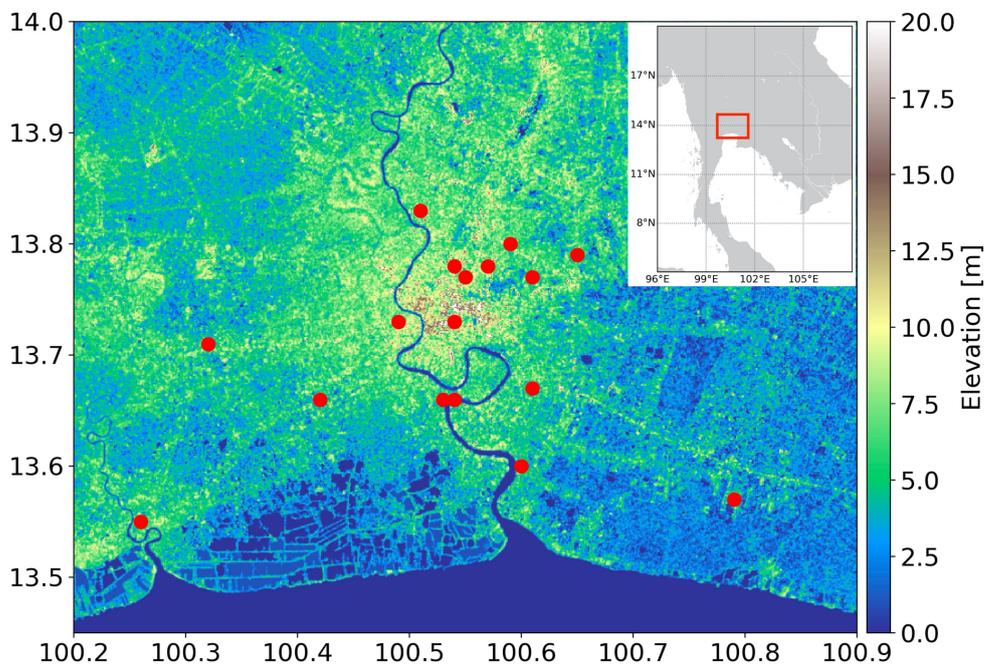
### 79 **Study area**

80 Greater Bangkok refers to Bangkok the capital along with the surrounding provinces, including  
81 Nakhon Pathom, Nonthaburi, Pathum Thani, Samut Prakan and Samut Sakhon. Greater  
82 Bangkok covers an area of 7,762 km<sup>2</sup> (100.20E to 100.9E, 13.0N to 14.0N) and is the center  
83 of economic development and an important industrial base for the surrounding provinces (Fig.  
84 1). Some industries in Samutprakarn, Samutsakorn, and Pathumthani have already become the  
85 main emission sources of atmospheric pollution from industry.

86 **Ground-based air pollution monitoring, traffic index and fire spots**

87 Major air pollutants and aerosols, including carbon monoxide (CO), ozone (O<sub>3</sub>), nitrogen  
88 dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>), sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>), particulate matter with diameter lower than 10 μm (PM10)  
89 and 2.5 μm (PM2.5) concentration data were collected from the Pollution Control Department  
90 (PCD) of Thailand by observing 23 automatic monitoring sites [16]. The monitoring sites are  
91 almost all located in the Bangkok metropolitan area, as shown in Figure 1. Data was collected  
92 hourly from the period of 1 January 2019 to 20 July 2020 for both aerosols and gaseous  
93 pollutants. In addition, the traffic index refers as TI [17] for the same period, as the air pollutant  
94 dataset will be used to analyze the emission source from vehicles on the entire road network in  
95 Bangkok with a range of 0 to 10 (from Free-flow to Jam) to link air pollution with people  
96 movements. Moreover, in order to relate the emission source from biomass burning, active fire  
97 data (Fire) from satellite observations by the Visible Infrared Imaging Radiometer Suite  
98 (VIIRS), provided through NASA's Fire Information for Resource Management System [18]  
99 at same period as the air pollutants, will be used in this study.

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Figure 1: Study area and the 23 PM2.5 automatic monitoring stations in Greater Bangkok, Thailand.

104 **Meteorological dataset**

105 It's not only emission sources that influence air quality, meteorological factors also  
106 significantly impact the dilution and accumulation process of pollutants emitted from local  
107 sources [19]. Therefore, to access the variations of air pollutants, meteorological factors must  
108 be examined. In this study, the meteorological factors were achieved from the ECMWF's fifth-  
109 generation Reanalysis (ERA5), the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts  
110 [20]. The meteorological dataset contains total precipitation (TP), 2-meter air temperature  
111 (T2M), planetary boundary layer height (BLH), relative humidity (RH), surface pressure (SP),  
112 and wind speed (WS), which have a horizontal resolution of 30 km × 30 km at hourly temporal

113 resolutions. The meteorological data were picked up at the same hour of the day as the sampling  
114 time for the air pollutants.

## 115 **Data analyses methods**

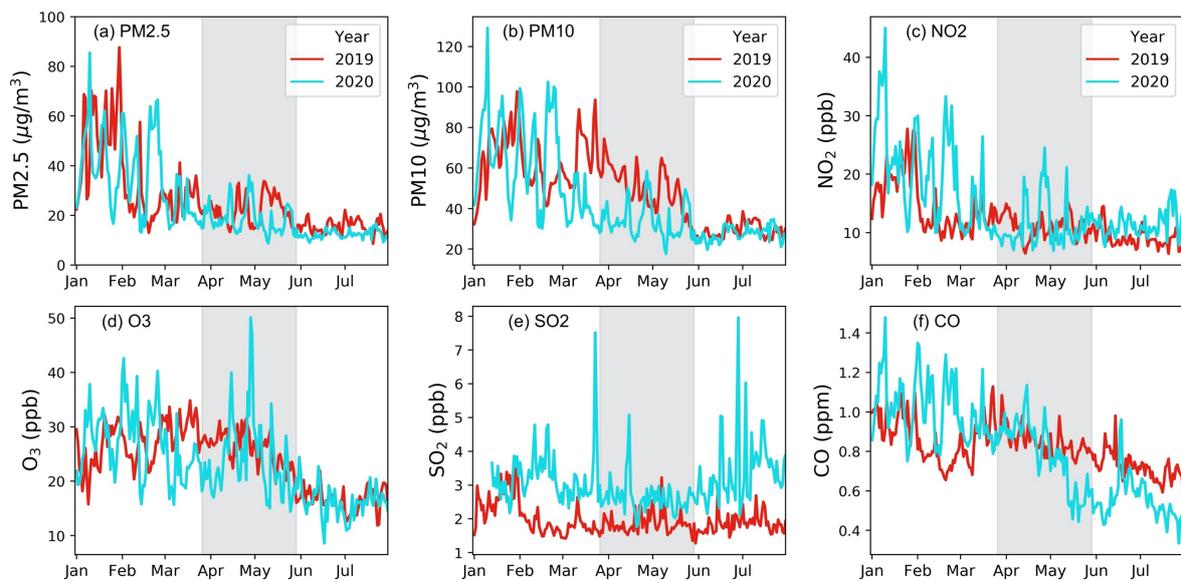
116 Variations of air quality regarding the COVID-19 outbreak were investigated for three different  
117 periods, before-lockdown (from 1 January 2020 to 25 March 2020), lockdown (26 March 2020  
118 to 31 May 2020) and after-lockdown (1 June 2020 - 20 June 2020). The evaluation of impacts  
119 of COVID-19 were compared with data in 2019 at the same period, which was used as a  
120 baseline. The changes in the air pollutant levels were evaluated by comparing those 3 different  
121 periods in year 2020 with 2019 at the same time (expressed in %) between the before, lockdown  
122 and after periods. In order to access the influences between meteorological factors, the air  
123 pollutants and other accompanying parameters gave different responses between the three  
124 periods associated with the COVID-19 lockdown. We performed data analysis using a  
125 Principal Component Analysis (PCA), which is a statistical multivariate analysis for data that  
126 features a large variable set. This method enables the researcher to identify correlations and  
127 patterns in a dataset by transforming them into a new smaller set of uncorrelated variables,  
128 namely principal components (PCs), that still contain most of the information in the large set  
129 [21]. Therefore, by applying a PCA method to air pollutant concentrations and meteorological  
130 variables, a dataset could be obtained with the most significant variables, which could indicate  
131 the source of the pollutants and largely explain the variations in the air pollution [22]. In this  
132 study, the meteorological variables of T2M, SP, TP, RH, WS and BLH; the major air  
133 pollutants: PM10, PM2.5, NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, CO and O<sub>3</sub> concentrations; and the anthropogenic  
134 activities, TI and Fire, were taken up for analysis. The PCs created by PCA were rotated using  
135 an orthogonal rotation method (varimax) to compute the explained variance matrix, the number  
136 PCs were selected according to an eigenvalue greater than or equal to 1. These PCs are a linear  
137 combination of the explanatory variables; therefore, Pearson correlation tests were used to  
138 determine the correlation between the PCs and the original variables as a loading factor. The  
139 significant variables were identified when the correlation value was greater than or equal to  
140 0.3.

## 141 **Results and Discussion**

### 142 **The influence of COVID-19 lockdown on variations of air quality over Greater** 143 **Bangkok**

144 Figure 2 presents a time series of the rolling 24-hour average of daily PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration  
145 variations on a daily scale for 23 measurement stations for the periods from 1 March to 31 July  
146 of 2019 and 2020 in Greater Bangkok, Thailand. The grey colour represents the lockdown  
147 period from 26 March 2020 to 31 May 2020. The concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>,  
148 SO<sub>2</sub>, and CO were compared between the 3 different periods: before (1 January–25 March  
149 2020), lockdown (26 March–31 May 2020) and after (1 June–31 July 2020). There were  
150 similarly significant seasonal variations in the PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub> and CO concentrations,  
151 where the highest mean concentrations occurred in January during the before lockdown period  
152 for Greater Bangkok, then decreasing concentrations during and after the lockdown period.  
153 While SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations show highly fluctuating time series throughout the year, especially  
154 in 2020, there were higher concentration levels and more fluctuation by degree than those in  
155 2019. As illustrated in Fig. 3, changes in the mean concentration values of six major pollutants  
156 during the COVID-19 outbreak reveal that there were no different decreases in PM<sub>2.5</sub> (0.7%),  
157 PM<sub>10</sub> (4.1%) and O<sub>3</sub> (0.3%) concentrations during the before-lockdown period with the

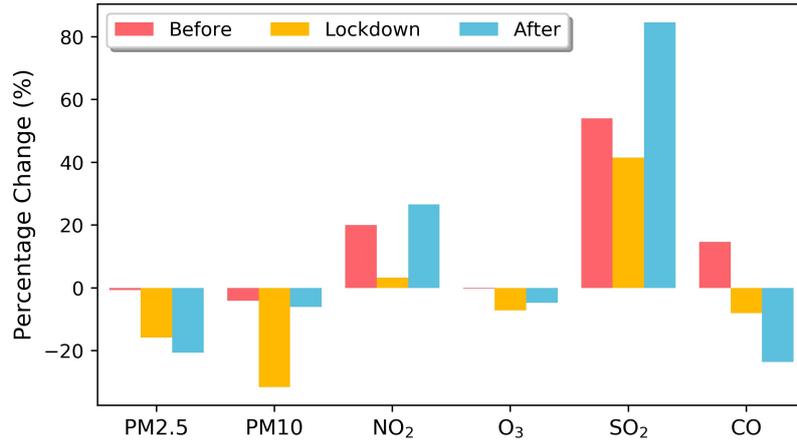
158 previous year. But there were 54.0%, 20.1% and 14.7%, increases in SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and CO  
 159 concentrations during the before-lockdown period. Whereas there were reductions in PM<sub>2.5</sub>,  
 160 PM<sub>10</sub>, CO and O<sub>3</sub> concentrations by 15.8%, 31.7%, 8.0% and 7.1% during the lockdown  
 161 period, and by 6.11%, 20.7%, 23.6% and 4.72% during the after-lockdown period, when  
 162 compared to the previous year. Stratoulis and Nuthammachot [10] similarly reported a  
 163 decreased range in PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations during the lockdown period. On the other  
 164 hand, NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations increased in this study during the lockdown (3.2% and  
 165 41.5%) and the after-lockdown periods (26.6% and 84.6%) in 2019 and 2020, respectively. In  
 166 contrary, Kanniah, et al. [9] and Stratoulis and Nuthammachot [10] found that there were  
 167 decreased concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> according to the Aura satellite in Malaysia and Southern  
 168 Thailand. Generally, the average concentration of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub> and CO have a  
 169 decreasing trend from March to August [15], even in the previous years before the COVID-19  
 170 outbreak, as shown in Fig 2, excepting SO<sub>2</sub>. Seasonal variations (summer and rainy seasons)  
 171 denoted by rising temperatures and more frequent rains caused decreasing air pollutant  
 172 concentrations, excluding some periods when the air pollutant concentrations showed several  
 173 peaks association with open biomass burning and traffic index peaks, due to added  
 174 anthropogenic pollutants during harvest season [23] and road traffic congestion in Bangkok  
 175 [24].  
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178 Figure 2: Rolling 24-hour average of hourly air pollutant concentration variations of major air pollutants over 23  
 179 ground-based stations in Greater Bangkok for year 2019 and 2020. Grey color highlights the lockdown period  
 180 from 26 March 2020 to 31 May 2020.

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Figure 3: Impact of the COVID-19 lockdown on mean concentrations of air pollution: PM10, PM2.5, O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> and CO at 23 ground-based measurements during the before, lockdown and after lockdown periods in Bangkok, Thailand.

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In principle, air pollutant concentrations in the atmosphere fluctuate by complex factors such as emission sources (TI and Fire), meteorological factors (BLH, T2M, TP, WS and RH) and so on [25]. Anthropogenic sources and meteorological condition changes during the COVID-19 outbreak period were examined by comparing them with previous years, as shown in Table 1. During the before-lockdown period, TI, Fire, WS and RH all increased by 4%, 26%, 22% and 14%, respectively, whereas there were decreases in BLH, TP and T2M by 42%, 99% and 5%, respectively. The increasing TI and Fire conditions in 2020 may cause higher NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, and CO concentrations than in 2019 at the same time. During the first weeks of lockdown beginning in 2020, there was a sharp decrease in the TI due to limited transportation in greater Bangkok; after that, the concentrations increased gradually until the end of June (Fig. 4a). A similar trend is observed for NO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 2c). As well, Fire (counts per day) within a 240 km. radius of Bangkok city (Fig. 4b) shows a high number in the first week of the lockdown period. News reports indicate there were great wildfires in northern Thailand, which produced tons of aerosols and pollutants [26]. The hourly meteorological data of Greater Bangkok during the study period in 2019 was compared to 2020, with results shown in Table 1. As indicated in Fig. 4 c-h, there is no obvious change during the COVID-19 outbreak in terms of SP, T2M, WS, BLH and TP from January to March 2020 compared with previous years. Whereas SP and RH during the lockdown period are somehow higher than previous years, T2M and BLH are lower than in previous years. As shown during the after-lockdown period, RH was higher, while BLH, TP, WS and T2M were lower than in previous years.

Table 1: Statistical description of meteorological factors; mean and standard deviation (S.D.) values in 2019 and 2020 over Greater Bangkok.

	Before 2019		Before 2020	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
TI	3.66	1.79	3.79	0.40
Fire (counts/day)	389.77	338.04	492.06	303.68
SP (mbar)	1011.86	2.25	1012.11	1.90
BLH (m)	511.71	428.72	295.21	160.70
TP (mm)	0.03	0.18	0.00	0.01

WS (m/s)	13.75	11.52	16.81	11.30
RH (%)	72.72	16.44	82.84	10.14
T2M (°C)	28.22	2.92	26.93	1.07
	Lockdown 2019		Lockdown 2020	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
TI	3.93	1.93	3.10	0.38
Fire (counts/day)	80.68	81.87	164.55	326.44
SP (mbar)	1007.66	2.33	1009.69	1.73
BLH (m)	615.80	371.17	393.45	130.12
TP (mm)	0.11	0.36	0.04	0.21
WS (m/s)	14.77	11.33	18.64	11.30
RH (%)	72.30	13.75	83.48	3.70
T2M (°C)	30.81	2.50	28.99	1.02
	After 2019		After 2020	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
TI	4.29	1.94	3.82	0.63
Fire (counts/day)	8.72	8.65	7.84	7.60
SP (mbar)	1006.72	1.54	1007.13	2.73
BLH (m)	584.75	350.74	301.21	125.16
TP (mm)	0.22	0.58	0.10	0.21
WS (m/s)	12.74	10.70	8.66	5.67
RH (%)	76.81	11.25	85.30	5.29
T2M (°C)	29.95	2.16	27.94	0.89

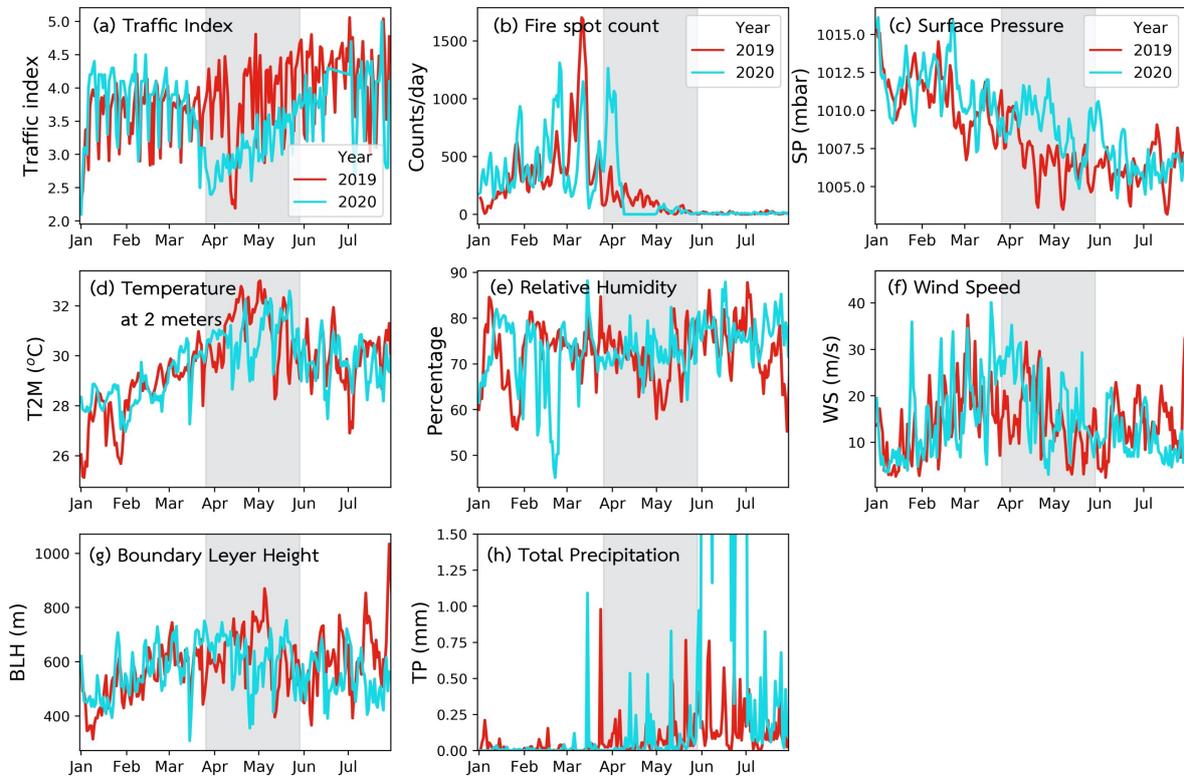
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211 It is evident that the lockdown corresponding to COVID-19 has had an effect on average  
212 pollutant concentrations because of human activity restrictions since the lockdown measure  
213 began on 26 March 2020 in Greater Bangkok. Moreover, higher WS in 2020 could help to  
214 dilute the pollutant concentrations in the air [27]. In contrast, Kerimray et al. (2020) reported  
215 no significant change in average PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations during the COVID-19 lockdown when  
216 compared with previous years in Almaty, Kazakhstan. It is possible that they had a shorter  
217 period of lockdown (19 March 2020 – 14 April 2020) than in Bangkok, thus, the impact of  
218 COVID-19 can't be well taken compared to Almaty. In addition, it is during the seasonal  
219 transition from summer to rainy seasons in Almaty, and PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations may be highly  
220 influenced by meteorological factors. As well as the after-lockdown period, there were  
221 decreases in both the source and meteorological variables, excepting RH, which increased  
222 compared with the previous year. In additional, many studies report that O<sub>3</sub> concentrations had  
223 increasing trends [28-30], while in this study we found decreasing O<sub>3</sub> concentrations over  
224 Greater Bangkok. NO<sub>2</sub> is an oxidation product from Nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>) and O<sub>3</sub>, which is  
225 emitted from combustion sources such as vehicle exhausts, industries, power plants and  
226 residential heating [14]. Thus, this decrease in O<sub>3</sub> could be due to greater increases in NO<sub>2</sub>  
227 concentrations.

228 Furthermore, different degrees of reduction in the pollutant concentrations point out that the  
229 decreasing pollution levels in three different periods cannot be explained by the limited  
230 emissions only, but depend on meteorological condition too. To obtain influence factors  
231 driving the air quality improvement between expected emission sources, meteorological

232 variables and these six pollutants during the COVID-19 outbreak, this study used PCA to  
233 investigate more details, as shown in the following sections.

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236 Figure 4: Temporal variations of the Traffic index (a), Fire spot count (b), surface pressure (c), air temperature  
237 at 2 meters (d), relative humidity (e), wind speed (f), boundary layer height (g) and total precipitation (h),  
238 respectively. Grey color highlights the lockdown period from 26 March 2020 to 31 May 2020.

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## 240 Influence factors driving the improvements in air quality

241 In order to clarify what the main influence is between expected emission sources,  
242 meteorological parameters and the six pollutants during the COVID-19 outbreak will be  
243 explored in this section. To obtain a better understanding and interpretation of the data, the  
244 principal components (PC) were subjected to a Varimax rotation matrix. Only components with  
245 an eigenvalue greater than 1 are determined as principal components (grey color), as shown in  
246 Table 2. There are five major PCs in each subset period, comprising PC1, PC2, PC3, PC4 and  
247 PC5. The percentage of total variance represents how much proportion of that PC largely  
248 explains the variation in air quality. In each period at the same year, the percentage of total  
249 variance was slightly different. However, it had some significant differences between the  
250 before-lockdown and the lockdown periods. To obtain the factor loading, the Varimax rotation  
251 with Kaiser Normalization (Fig. 5) was computed, a loading factor higher than 0.3 contained  
252 from the output will become a principle component (PC). The results of PCA are summarized  
253 in Fig. 5, presenting the significant PC contributions. A loading factor of more than 0.70 is  
254 considered as strong, a range of 0.50 – 0.69 is considered moderate, and a range of 0.31 - 0.49  
255 is considered weak.

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Table 2: Total Variance explaining the principal components of air pollutants and meteorological elements in 2019 and 2020 over Greater Bangkok.

2019	Before			Lockdown			After		
	Component	Eigent	Variance (%)	Cumulative (%)	Eigent	Variance (%)	Cumulative (%)	Eigent	Variance (%)
1	<b>3.84</b>	27.40	27.40	<b>3.50</b>	25.00	25.00	<b>3.58</b>	25.60	25.60
2	<b>2.55</b>	18.20	45.60	<b>2.32</b>	16.60	41.60	<b>2.21</b>	15.80	41.40
3	<b>1.22</b>	8.70	54.40	<b>1.34</b>	9.50	51.10	<b>1.44</b>	10.30	51.60
4	<b>1.08</b>	7.70	62.10	<b>1.28</b>	9.10	60.30	<b>1.34</b>	9.50	61.20
5	<b>1.02</b>	7.30	69.30	<b>1.14</b>	8.10	68.40	<b>1.16</b>	8.30	69.40
6	0.83	5.90	75.30	0.98	7.00	75.40	0.87	6.20	75.70
7	0.82	5.80	81.10	0.77	5.50	80.80	0.84	6.00	81.70
8	0.66	4.70	85.80	0.64	4.60	85.40	0.57	4.10	85.70
9	0.61	4.40	90.10	0.58	4.20	89.60	0.53	3.80	89.50
10	0.45	3.20	93.40	0.46	3.30	92.80	0.45	3.20	92.70

2020	Before			Lockdown			After		
	Component	Eigent	Variance (%)	Cumulative (%)	Eigent	Variance (%)	Cumulative (%)	Eigent	Variance (%)
1	<b>5.15</b>	36.70	36.70	<b>3.58</b>	25.50	25.50	<b>3.25</b>	23.00	23.00
2	<b>1.67</b>	11.90	48.60	<b>2.20</b>	15.70	41.20	<b>2.43</b>	17.20	40.20
3	<b>1.22</b>	8.70	57.30	<b>1.84</b>	13.10	54.20	<b>1.68</b>	11.90	52.10
4	<b>1.09</b>	7.80	65.10	<b>1.61</b>	11.50	65.70	<b>1.62</b>	11.50	63.60
5	<b>0.96</b>	6.80	71.90	<b>0.99</b>	7.00	72.80	<b>1.15</b>	8.10	71.70
6	0.89	6.40	78.30	0.85	6.10	78.80	0.87	6.10	77.90
7	0.86	6.10	84.40	0.74	5.30	84.10	0.80	5.70	83.60
8	0.60	4.30	88.70	0.57	4.10	88.20	0.61	4.30	87.90
9	0.48	3.50	92.20	0.47	3.30	91.50	0.52	3.70	91.60
10	0.43	3.10	95.30	0.41	2.90	94.40	0.42	3.00	94.50

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260 During the before-lockdown period, which denotes the winter season in Thailand, the PC1 and  
261 the PC2 could explain the variance by 27.4% and 18.2% for 2019, and 36.7% and 11.9% for  
262 2020, respectively. The results reveal some similarities between those two years, there were  
263 significant mechanisms associated with the air quality. PM10, NO<sub>2</sub> and CO are dominant  
264 pollutant parameters that associate with the particular atmospheric mechanism of low T2M,  
265 BLH and WS, and high SP and RH. Hence, these atmospheric mechanisms reduced the ability  
266 of the pollutants to disperse from their sources [31]. These pollutants relate to unknown  
267 emissions as major and traffic-originated emissions were minor sources in 2019, while in 2020  
268 the major and minor pollutants related to biomass burning and unknown emission sources,  
269 respectively. These results supporting a comparison of concentrations for PM2.5, PM10 and  
270 O<sub>3</sub> in Section 3.1 between those two years are not significantly different. As mentioned before,  
271 the common sources of air pollution in Greater Bangkok are from biomass burning, traffic and  
272 industrial activities with varying concentrations due to seasonal factors [12-14]. Due to some  
273 limitations, emission-related data for the industrial sector was not available for this study. Thus,  
274 the unknown emission source might be from industrial or other sources. Moreover, the PC2 in  
275 2019 shows moderate positive contributions of O<sub>3</sub> and T2M, which indicates a strong oxidative  
276 air condition producing the formation of secondary particles, which could result in a positive  
277 loading factor of PM2.5 and O<sub>3</sub>. As well, in 2020 the PC2 exhibits moderate positive

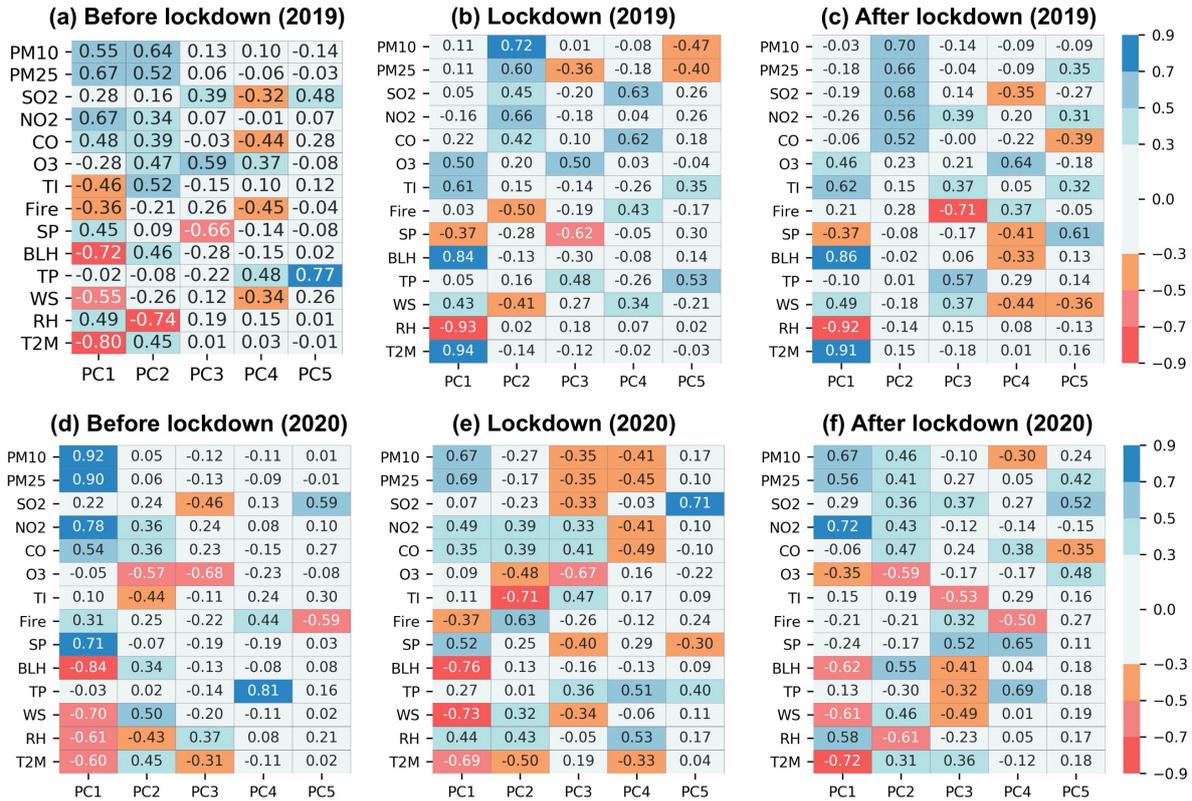
278 contributions of T2M but negative contributions of O<sub>3</sub>, this is mainly affected by  
279 photochemical reaction. The reaction system can produce NO<sub>2</sub> (positive contribution) due to  
280 the reaction of NO with O<sub>3</sub> [32]. Additionally, a comparison of the PC1 also explains the  
281 increase of NO<sub>2</sub> and CO regarding higher positive contribution magnitude in 2020 than those  
282 in 2019. As well, the PC5 had a higher contribution magnitude for SO<sub>2</sub> in 2020 than in 2019,  
283 resulting in increased SO<sub>2</sub> (Section 3.1).

284 During the lockdown period, which denotes the summer season in Thailand, there were  
285 significantly different major pollutant parameters contributing to the PC1 (explained: 25.0%  
286 and 25.5%) and PC2 (explained: 16.6% and 15.7%) for 2019 and 2020, respectively. In 2019,  
287 O<sub>3</sub> contributed as a major pollutant (PC1) corresponding to photochemical reaction (NO<sub>2</sub> + O<sub>2</sub>  
288 → NO + O<sub>3</sub>), as seen in the strong contribution of T2M with the significant emission source of  
289 TI. This explains the correlations with temperature and, partly, with O<sub>3</sub> concentrations that are  
290 commonly higher in summer [15]. For PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, and CO, these are minor  
291 pollutants (PC2) which relate to unknown emission sources, with the exception of SO<sub>2</sub> and CO,  
292 which are associated with biomass burning (the PC4). And vice versa in 2020, the increases in  
293 PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and CO concentrations originated from unknown emission sources (PC1),  
294 accompanied with strong contributions from decreases in BLH, T2M and WS. Meanwhile, the  
295 moderately negative O<sub>3</sub> was related to chemical reaction (NO + O<sub>3</sub> → NO<sub>2</sub> + O<sub>2</sub>), becoming a  
296 minor mechanism (PC2) corresponding to the NO added from traffic (TI) and biomass burning  
297 (Fire) emissions. These results indicate some important evidence which explains the reduction  
298 of air pollutant concentrations in Section 3.1. With COVID-19 lockdown measures, people  
299 were largely restricted to their homes, and greater Bangkok with its higher numbers of vehicles  
300 should have had greater reductions in traffic emissions during the lockdown period. The  
301 decreases in PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub> and CO concentration in 2020 strongly contributed to the increased  
302 fire (PC1) and the decreased TI (PC2), suggesting that the changes in traffic emissions were  
303 more responsible for the improvements air quality during the lockdown period, especially fine  
304 particles, than biomass burning. On the contrary, the increases in NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in 2020  
305 (PC2) are significantly related to biomass burning. According to during the lockdown period  
306 (March 2020), there were massive forest fires in northern Thailand, which reduced the impact  
307 of the lockdown on air pollution in that region. A report found an increase in some pollutants  
308 during the lockdown period regarding forest fires in Malaysia [3, 10]. In addition, the increased  
309 SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were associated with unknown emission sources, which were probably  
310 emitted from the industrial sector.

311 During the after-lockdown period, which denotes the rainy season in Thailand, the PC1 and the  
312 PC2 could explain the variance by 25.6% and 15.8% for 2019, and 23.0% and 17.2% for 2020,  
313 respectively. In 2019, there were similar contributions of air pollutants with the lockdown  
314 period in 2020, as seen with the increases in O<sub>3</sub> concentrations by the production of  
315 photochemical reactions being the major mechanism (PC1), and the increased PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>,  
316 NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, and CO concentrations, which were minor mechanism (PC2). In 2020, PM<sub>2.5</sub>,  
317 PM<sub>10</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, and CO were major pollutants that originated from unknown resources, with  
318 the exception of the PC3, where SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were weakly associated with biomass  
319 burning. It can be denoted that there are decreases in BLH, WS and T2M, which are  
320 accumulative atmospheric conditions. Interestingly, there were significant decreases in both TI  
321 and Fire, while all pollutants except O<sub>3</sub> concentrations had increasing trends. However, as the  
322 results in Section 3.1 exclaim, concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub> and CO were still decreased to  
323 a lower degree during the after-lockdown period. Therefore, the results demonstrate that the  
324 improvement of air quality in Greater Bangkok after the easing of lockdown were a combined  
325 effect of other emission sources (industrial, household, etc.) and the atmospheric mechanism.

326 All PCs during the lockdown of 2020 are important evidence that indicates influence factors  
 327 driving the improvement of air quality were affected by the COVID-19 lockdown in Greater  
 328 Bangkok. Atmospheric mechanisms play an important role in diluting or accumulating  
 329 pollutant concentrations, while the emission sources influence the concentrations and type of  
 330 major pollutants. Therefore, the COVID-19 lockdown measures influenced not only the air  
 331 pollution levels, but also affected to the air pollution characteristics.

332



333

334 Figure 5: Loading factors of 14 companies in 5 principal components and their estimated comprehensive  
 335 eigenvalues.

336

### 337 Conclusions

338 This study was carried out to expose the affects and influence factors of air quality due to the  
 339 COVID-19 lockdown in Greater Bangkok, Thailand. Low traffic conditions and reduced  
 340 human activities due to lockdown measures led to improved air quality in Bangkok. Overall  
 341 PM2.5, PM10, O<sub>3</sub>, and CO concentrations presented a significant decreasing trend during the  
 342 COVID-19 outbreak year based on three periods: the before-lockdown, lockdown and after-  
 343 lockdown periods, by the following amounts: PM2.5 by 0.7%, 15.8% and 20.7%; PM10 by  
 344 4.1%, 31.7% and 6.1%; O<sub>3</sub> by 0.3%, 7.1% and 4.7%, respectively. CO increased by 14.7% and  
 345 decreased by 8.0% and 23.6%, respectively, compared to the same periods in 2019, while SO<sub>2</sub>  
 346 and NO<sub>2</sub> increased by 54.0%, 41.5% and 84.6%, and 20.1%, 3.2% and 26.6% during the  
 347 before-lockdown, lockdown and after-lockdown periods, respectively. PCA analysis was used  
 348 to explore influence factors driving the improvements in air quality. The results indicated  
 349 significant combination effects from atmospheric mechanisms that were strongly linked to

350 emission sources such as traffic and biomass burning. The atmospheric mechanisms played an  
351 important role in diluting or accumulating the pollutant concentrations, while the emission  
352 sources influenced the concentrations and types of major pollutants. However, it was  
353 demonstrated that the COVID-19 lockdown measures had a significant positive impact on the  
354 improvement of air quality due to decreased traffic emissions. With regard to the lockdown  
355 measures, they are not restricted by natural disasters such as forest fires in northern Thailand,  
356 the pollution from these sources can transport to Greater Bangkok, resulting in decreasing  
357 magnitudes of each pollutant being lower than other countries. Furthermore, the results show  
358 that after the lockdown was relieved, all pollutants except O<sub>3</sub> tended to increase, even though  
359 Greater Bangkok's people still kept to decreased mobility and social activity. This implies that  
360 the COVID-19 lockdown was able to pause some anthropogenic emissions i.e. traffic,  
361 commercial and industrial activities, but not all, even low traffic emissions could not absolutely  
362 cause a reduction in air pollution, since several primary emission sources dominate the air  
363 quality over Greater Bangkok. In addition, social distancing guideline recommend that people  
364 stay at home, which causes consumption of higher electricity, resulting in electric power plant  
365 increasing their production capacity and emitting more air pollution. Finally, the results  
366 demonstrate that the COVID-19 lockdown measures influenced not only the air pollution  
367 levels, but also affected air pollution characteristics.

## 368 **Data Availability**

369 All the data used in this study are available from the corresponding author upon request.

## 370 **Conflicts of Interest**

371 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

## 372 **Funding Statement**

373 This work was supported by the Faculty of Social Sciences, Srinakharinwirot University,  
374 grant number 301/2562.

## 375 **Acknowledgments**

376 The authors are sincerely grateful for supporting from the Faculty of Social Sciences,  
377 Srinakharinwirot University, grant number 301/2562 and the Pollution Control Department  
378 (PCD) of Thailand for providing PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration data which was used in the study. We  
379 gratefully acknowledge the ECMWF (<https://apps.ecmwf.int/datasets>) and Longdo Traffic  
380 (<https://traffic.longdo.com>) for providing the meteorological variable dataset and traffic index,  
381 respectively.

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