



Technical Note

Ambient PM_{2.5} Estimates and Variations during COVID-19 Pandemic in the Yangtze River Delta Using Machine Learning and Big Data

Debin Lu ¹, Wanliu Mao ^{1,2}, Lilin Zheng ³, Wu Xiao ¹, Liang Zhang ⁴ and Jing Wei ^{5,*}

¹ Department of Land Management, Zhejiang University, Hangzhou 310058, China; ludebin@zju.edu.cn (D.L.); 11922077@zju.edu.cn (W.M.); xiaowu@zju.edu.cn (W.X.)

² Zhejiang Academy of Surveying and Mapping, Hangzhou 311100, China

³ School of Geographic Sciences, East China Normal University, Shanghai 200241, China; zhenglilin17@mails.ucas.ac.cn

⁴ School of Urban Construction, Zhejiang Shuren University, Hangzhou 310015, China; zhangliang0930@zju.edu.cn

⁵ Department of Chemical and Biochemical Engineering, Iowa Technology Institute, University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA 52242, USA

* Correspondence: weijing_rs@163.com

Abstract: The lockdown of cities in the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) during COVID-19 has provided many natural and typical test sites for estimating the potential of air pollution control and reduction. To evaluate the reduction of PM_{2.5} concentration in the YRD region by the epidemic lockdown policy, this study employs big data, including PM_{2.5} observations and 29 independent variables regarding Aerosol Optical Depth (AOD), climate, terrain, population, road density, and Gaode map Point of interesting (POI) data, to build regression models and retrieve spatially continuous distributions of PM_{2.5} during COVID-19. Simulation accuracy of multiple machine learning regression models, i.e., random forest (RF), support vector regression (SVR), and artificial neural network (ANN) were compared. The results showed that the RF model outperformed the SVR and ANN models in the inversion of PM_{2.5} in the YRD region, with the model-fitting and cross-validation coefficients of determination R² reached 0.917 and 0.691, mean absolute error (MAE) values were 1.026 μg m⁻³ and 2.353 μg m⁻³, and root mean square error (RMSE) values were 1.413 μg m⁻³, and 3.144 μg m⁻³, respectively. PM_{2.5} concentrations during COVID-19 in 2020 have decreased by 3.61 μg m⁻³ compared to that during the same period of 2019 in the YRD region. The results of this study provide a cost-effective method of air pollution exposure assessment and help provide insight into the atmospheric changes under strong government controlling strategies.

Keywords: PM_{2.5}; machine learning; COVID-19; Yangtze river delta



Citation: Lu, D.; Mao, W.; Zheng, L.; Xiao, W.; Zhang, L.; Wei, J. Ambient PM_{2.5} Estimates and Variations during COVID-19 Pandemic in the Yangtze River Delta using Machine Learning and Big Data. *Remote Sens.* **2021**, *13*, 1423. <https://doi.org/10.3390/rs13081423>

Academic Editors: Luke Knibbs and Qi Wang

Received: 15 March 2021

Accepted: 2 April 2021

Published: 7 April 2021

Publisher's Note: MDPI stays neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.



Copyright: © 2021 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

1. Introduction

Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), as an infectious disease, was identified in the city of Wuhan, China, and spread to nearly every country around the globe [1–3]. On 20 January 2021, COVID-19 has been known to cause more than two million deaths worldwide, with a global mortality rate of 3.4%. In response to the outbreak of COVID-19, a nation-wide lockdown of cities was proposed by the Chinese government after January 2020, putting its 1.3 billion citizens inside their homes [4–6]. Almost all production activities, such as transportation, construction, and industries were completely restricted [7–9]. Such unprecedented stagnation of industrial production and residents' consumption has effectively reduced air pollution emission, providing natural and typical test sites for estimating the impacts of human activities controlling on the air pollution control and reduction [10–13].

At present, studies on PM_{2.5} pollution during COVID-19, mainly use PM_{2.5} concentrations, which are generally sourced from ground observations and satellite remote sensing inversions [14–19]. Ground observations provided by meteorology stations are at a diurnal scale with high accuracy. However, these stations are usually sparsely distributed, limiting the knowledge of spatially continuous distributions of PM_{2.5} concentrations. Comparatively, satellite remote sensing inversions can provide a spatially continuous distribution of PM_{2.5}, which can fill the data gap in areas where there is no monitoring station [20–22]. As a result, this study uses satellite remote sensing inversions to obtain high-precision PM_{2.5} concentration data to assess PM_{2.5} changes during COVID-19. To build the inversion model, variables regarding aerosol optical depth (AOD), climate, LUCC (land use and land cover) were usually selected according to previous studies [23–26]. Classic model and machine learning methods have been applied to fit the linear and non-linear relations between environmental variables and PM_{2.5} concentrations in previous research work [27–30]. It is suggested that classic models are usually sensitive to collinearity between independent variables and fail to handle a very large sample with missing data or outliers [31]. Although the variance expansion test and statistics can avoid the influence of collinearity by deleting those collinear variables [32], such a screening step can lose some important variables by mistake [33]. The linear models, e.g., multiple linear regression, failed to detect non-linear relations [22,34,35], given that the formation, diffusion, migration, and transformation of PM_{2.5} are complex, and perhaps non-linearly related to environmental factors. Machine learning methods can handle a very large sample with fast computing speed [36]. They were proved to be robust and insensitive to missing data and outliers. In recent years, machine learning methods, such as random forest (RF) [23,30,37,38], support vector regression (SVR) [39], and artificial neural network (ANN) [40] have been successfully used in estimating PM_{2.5} concentrations. Consequently, machine learning methods can be used to estimate the PM_{2.5} concentration during COVID-19.

In this study, we hypothesized that the government's "lockdown policy" may have reduced air pollution in urban agglomeration. To address the influence of "lockdown policy" on PM_{2.5} concentrations, spatial PM_{2.5} concentrations during COVID-19 (2020-I) and the same period in 2019 (2019-I) were compared. Firstly, 29 independent variables regarding AOD, climate, terrain, population, road density, and Gaode map POI data were collected to build the RF, SVR, and ANN PM_{2.5} retrieving models. Secondly, the prediction accuracies of the three models were evaluated by determination R², the cross-validation (CV), MAE, and RMSE. The importance of variables was assessed to examine the impact of each predictor on PM_{2.5} concentration. Finally, the optimal model was determined and applied in PM_{2.5} retrieval, to further estimate the influence of "lockdown policy" on PM_{2.5} concentrations. Investigation of PM_{2.5} changes before, and during, COVID-19 not only quantitatively evaluate the impact of the epidemic on economic activities and emission reductions, but also help understand the potential for pollution control in the Yangtze River Delta (YRD). This study aims to obtain high-resolution spatial continuous PM_{2.5} data and analyze the potential of PM_{2.5} pollutant emission reduction during COVID-19. The findings provide a reference for future air pollution control in the YRD.

2. Data and Methods

The Yangtze River Delta is located in the north-central subtropical zone and at the junction of eastern coastal China and the Yangtze River, including Shanghai, Zhejiang Province, and Jiangsu Province, as shown in Figure 1. The study region is the Yangtze River Delta's core area, including 16 cities, such as Shanghai, Nanjing, and Hangzhou. The Yangtze River Delta accounts for 2.2% of the national land and 11.7% of the national population, contributing about 21% of the country's gross domestic product (GDP). The urbanization level has reached 64.7%, and the urban space layout is still expanding. Therefore, the Yangtze River Delta is China's leading economic development area. However, the rapid development of industrialization and urbanization has caused unprecedented pressure on the ecological environment leading to frequent pollution incidents.

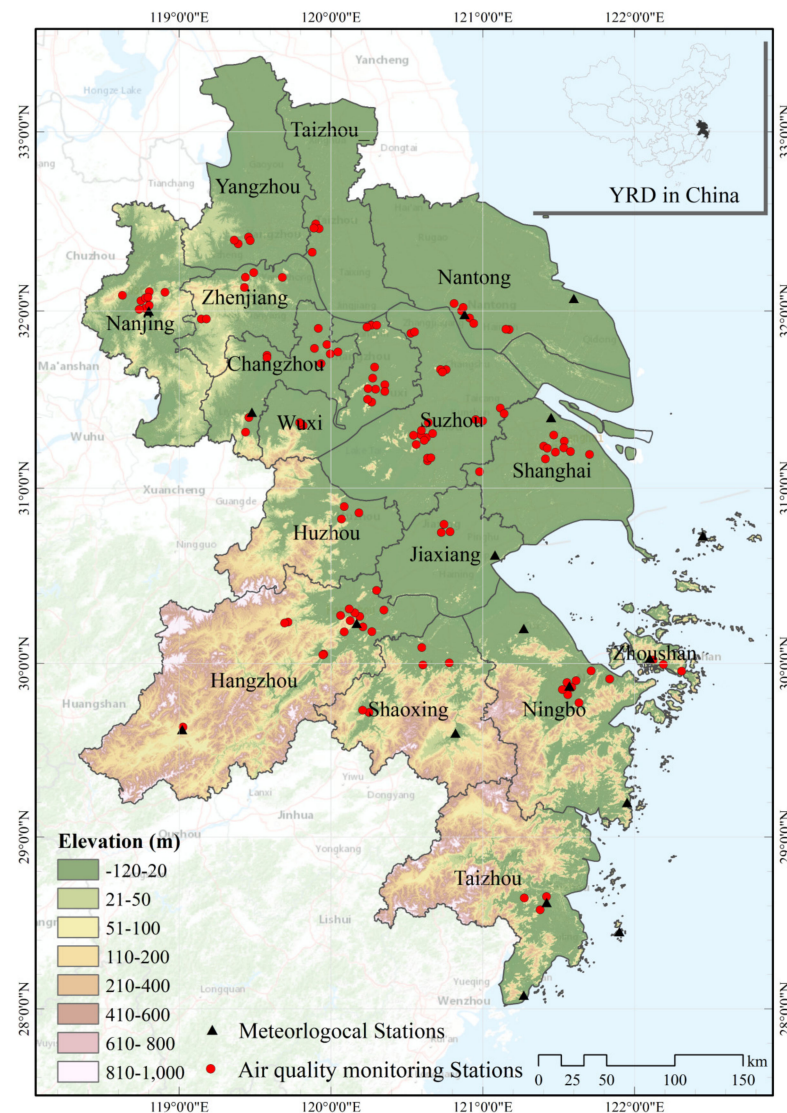


Figure 1. Location Map of the Yangtze River Delta.

2.1. Data

Independent variables covered both natural and socio-economic aspects and were divided into a training dataset (80% of the observation) and a testing dataset (20% of the observation). Table 1 lists seven types of data that were used to fit the $PM_{2.5}$ concentration inversion model and evaluate the accuracy. The retrieval and pre-processing of these datasets in the current study are described below.

Table 1. Datasets used in this study.

Datasets	Format	Source
$PM_{2.5}$	Table	Ministry of Ecology and Environment, China
AOD	Grid	1-km MODIS MAIAC AOD
Meteorological	Table	China Meteorological Administration
Elevation	Grid	Geospatial data cloud of China
POIs	Point features	Gaode Map Services, China
Road network	Line features	Open Street Map
Boundary maps	Line features	Open Street Map

The workflow for processing data, fitting the model to produce the PM_{2.5} map, and assessing accuracy is exhibited in the flowchart in Figure 2.

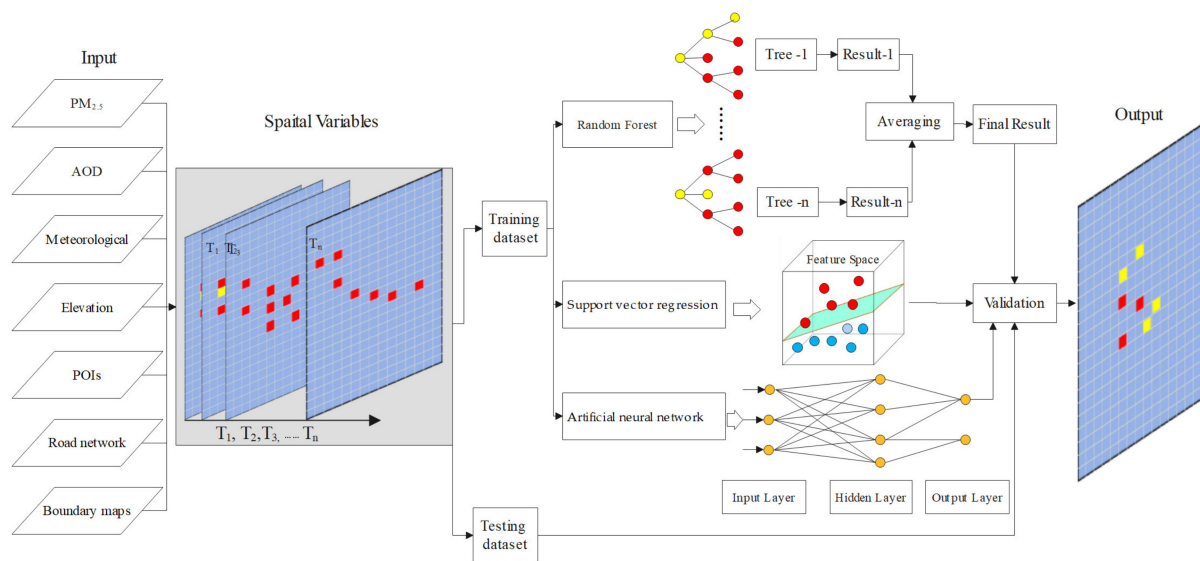


Figure 2. Flowchart for producing and assessing the accuracy of the PM_{2.5} map.

2.1.1. PM_{2.5} Data

PM_{2.5} data were derived from hourly observations in the real-time publishing platform of urban air quality at China Environmental Monitoring Station (<http://www.cnemc.cn/sss/> accessed on 1 December 2020). There is a total of 214 monitoring stations, with the time range from 12 January to 20 February 2019 and 1 January to 9 February 2020. In accordance with the requirements for the validity of air pollutant concentration data in GB3095-2012, the quality control of PM_{2.5} data was performed [15]. Firstly, values of the hourly PM_{2.5} concentrations ≤ 0 and missing values were excluded. Secondly, if the measured data have been missing for more than 4 h in a day, all the data would be invalidated and excluded from the calculation of average daily PM_{2.5}. Finally, a few anomalies with the hourly PM_{2.5} concentrations $> 900 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ were also eliminated. A monthly average of PM_{2.5} was obtained based on the arithmetic mean of the daily average concentration.

2.1.2. Aerosol Optical Depth (AOD) Data

In this study, the MODIS Collection 6 MAIAC AOD products (MCD19A2) at a spatial resolution of 1 km from 12 January to 20 February 2019, and 1 January to 9 February 2020, covering the YRD region, were collected. Here, only the MAIAC AOD retrievals at 550 nm, and passing the recommended quality assurance (QA), are used, which yield a reliable data quality in China, especially in bright urban areas [41–43]. Last, the Terra and Aqua MAIAC AOD data were averaged and integrated to expand the spatial coverage of PM_{2.5} estimates.

2.1.3. POIs Data

POIs is a kind of place or a kind of thing marked on the map, including name, category, coordinate and other information, which can reflect social and economic activities. POIs were retrieved from the Gaode Map (<https://www.amap.com/> accessed on 24 September 2020), which is the largest desktop and mobile map service provider in China. We obtained 8,806,799 POI records from 2019 to 2020 using Gaode Map's application programming interface. Gaode Map classified these POIs into 23 categories based on their Chinese semantic phrase. All records were unified as Gauss Kruger coordinate system. Table 2 presents the 20 categories and the number of POI records for each category, excluding the 3 categories of Place Name and Address, Incidents and Event, and Indoor facilities.

Table 2. Categories of Gaode Map POIs.

Category	Counts	Category	Counts
Food & Beverages	962,507	Auto Service	127,669
Road Furniture	3619	Auto Repair	53,193
Tourist Attraction	35,668	Auto Dealers	25,941
Public Facility	79,557	Commercial House	242,212
Enterprises	874,211	Daily Life Service	836,412
Shopping	1,959,948	Sports & Recreation	109,452
Transportation Service	349,160	Pass Facilities	393,393
Finance & Insurance Service	85,445	Medical Service	138,940
Science/Culture & Education Service	244,247	Governmental Organization & Social Group	232,836
Motorcycle Service	10,517	Accommodation Service	106,669

2.1.4. Meteorological Data

Meteorological data were gathered from the Chinese meteorological data sharing service network (<http://data.cma.cn/> accessed on 24 September 2020), including daily average wind speed, atmospheric pressure, temperature, relative humidity, and 24 h cumulative precipitation. The data was pre-processed and interpolated to obtain the meteorological elements' continuous surface in the area.

2.1.5. Elevation Data

Elevation data were downloaded from China's geospatial data cloud (<http://gdex.cr.usgs.gov/gdex/> accessed on 24 September 2020), with the spatial resolution Define if appropriate of 30 m, and the corresponding location altitude was extracted through the monitoring stations.

2.1.6. Boundary and Road Network Data

The boundary maps at city levels were obtained from the Open Street Map (<https://www.openstreetmap.org/> accessed on 24 September 2020). Such datasets include China's national highways, city roads, provincial, county, and township-level roads. The road density is calculated and generated by the kernel density method of ArcGIS software.

2.2. Model Structure and Validation

2.2.1. Random Forest Model

The random forest is a new machine learning algorithm consisting of multiple classifications and regression tree (CART) integrations [22,44,45]. Compared with CART, there are three distinct characteristics. First, random forests generate many trees, each of which is generated by a bootstrap sample in the original dataset, while in CART, all raw data are utilized to create only one tree. Second, the segmentation of tree nodes is performed by random forest each time based on an optimal variable in the subset of predictors, while CART selects the optimal variable among all predictors to segment the tree nodes. Finally, the trees in the random forest are completely grown without prune. This makes the random forest model not easy to overfit [46]. Three training parameters need to be defined in the random forest algorithm: *n_estimators*, the number of trees in the forest-based on a bootstrap sample of the observations; *max_features*, the number of features to be considered when looking for the best split (the default setting is "auto": then *max_features*=*n_features*) and *min_samples_lea*, the minimum number of samples required to be at a leaf node (the default value is one). The two main parameters (i.e., *n_estimators* and *max_features*) in predicting the PM_{2.5} were determined and optimized, based on the out-of-bag (OOB) error rate of calibration.

2.2.2. Support Vector Regression Model

Support Vector Regression, SVR was proposed by Corinna Cortes and Vapnik in 1995 [47,48], which constructs a hyperplane or a set of hyperplanes in a high- or infinite-dimensional space, which can be used for classification, regression, or other tasks. The performance of SVR can be decided by three parameters, i.e., the kernel function, penalty factor (C), and the variance in kernel function (Gamma). Grid search and cross-validation were applied to determine the optimal values of the three parameters. In this study, radial basis function settings (RBF) with C = 8 and Gamma = 11 were optimal according to the validation results.

2.2.3. Back Propagation Artificial Neural Network

Back Propagation Artificial Neural Network (ANN) was proposed by Rumelhart and McClelland in 1986 [49], which consists of an interconnected group of artificial neurons. It processes information using a connectionist approach to computation. ANN is a non-linear statistical data modeling tool that can fit complex relationships between inputs and outputs, or find patterns in data. The structure of the ANN model includes three levels: Input level (29 neurons), an implication level (25 neurons), and an output level (1 neuron). The activation function was Relu, and the solver was Sigmoid.

2.2.4. Cross Validated Model Accuracy

The model performance is evaluated by determination coefficient (R^2), mean absolute error (MAE), and root mean square error (RMSE). The larger the R^2 , the smaller the MAE and RMSE, indicating that the model prediction accuracy is higher. The relevant calculation formulas are as follows,

$$R^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (P_i - \bar{M})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - \bar{M})^2} \quad (1)$$

$$MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |M_i - P_i| \quad (2)$$

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |M_i - P_i|^2} \quad (3)$$

where M is the measured value, P is the predicted value, \bar{M} is the mean measured value, and n is the number of samples in the validation set.

3. Results and Analysis

3.1. Model Performance

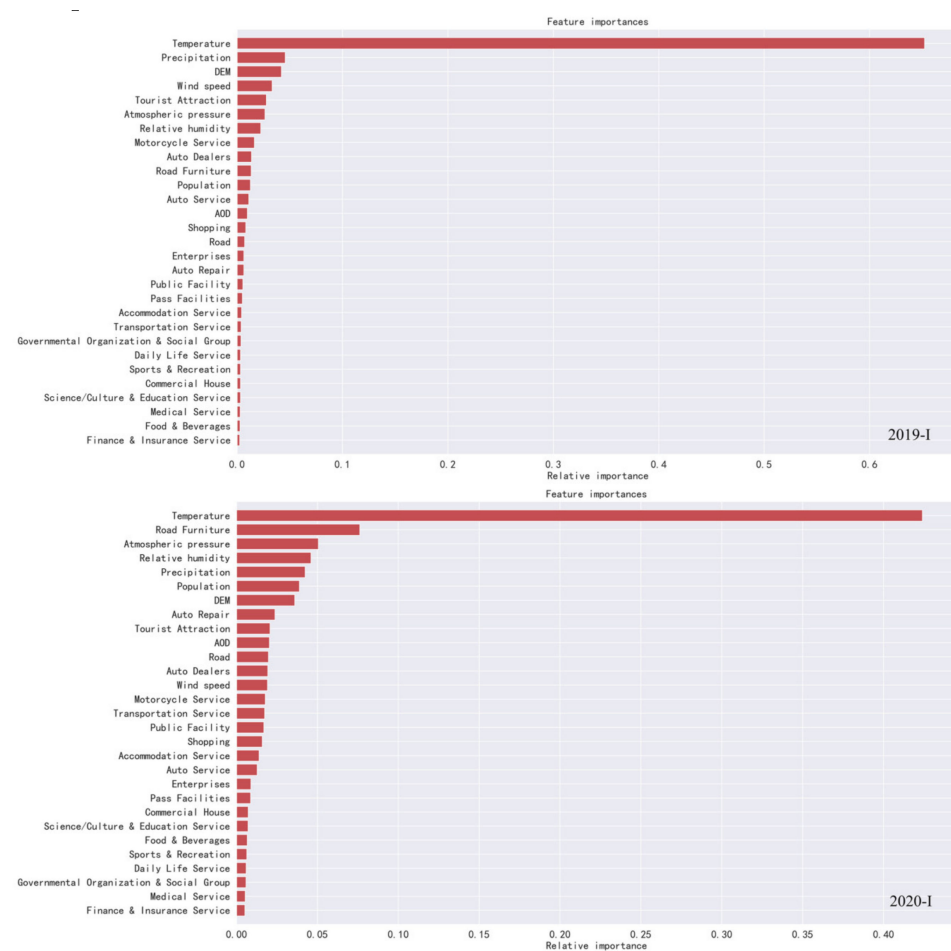
Determination coefficient R^2 , MAE, and RMSE were applied to estimate the accuracy of modeling. As shown in Table 3, during the period of 2019-I (the same period in 2019), values of R^2 , MAE, and RMSE of the RF model were 0.938, $1.663 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and $2.696 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively; for SVR, values of R^2 , MAE, and RMSE were 0.740, $2.148 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and $5.522 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively; for ANN, values of R^2 , MAE, and RMSE were 0.739, $3.582 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, $5.538 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively. During the period of 2020-I (during COVID-19), values of R^2 , MAE, and RMSE of RF model were 0.917, $1.026 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and $1.413 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively; for SVR, values of R^2 , MAE, and RMSE were 0.705, $1.521 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and $2.663 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively; for ANN, R^2 , MAE, and RMSE was 0.917, $2.476 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and $3.258 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively. In general, the RF model performed best in retrieving $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations during both periods, followed by SVR and ANN.

Table 3. Modeling set the precision of estimated PM_{2.5} concentrations.

	R ²	RF MAE	RMSE	R ²	SVR MAE	RMSE	R ²	ANN MAE	RMSE
2019-I	0.938	1.663	2.696	0.740	2.148	5.522	0.739	3.582	5.538
2020-I	0.917	1.026	1.413	0.705	1.521	2.663	0.559	2.476	3.258

RF model provides an important assessment for each predictor variable. The importance of each variable could be assessed via the percent increase in prediction error (MSE) resulting from randomly permuting the values of an explanatory variable for the out-of-bag observations [22]. The importance assessment can make the variable selection more efficient.

As shown in Figure 3, during 2019-I, the five impact factors ranked by importance were as follows: temperature, precipitation, DEM, wind speed, tourist attraction. In contrast, during 2020-I, the order of importance was as follows: Temperature, road furniture, atmospheric pressure, relative humidity, and precipitation. It is suggested that RF models utilized a higher number and diverse selection of predictors for PM_{2.5}. Over-parameterization can be avoided as the RF can detect non-linear relations between variables and PM_{2.5} concentration, and the variable selection was included as a part of the cross-validation process [22,38].

**Figure 3.** Feature importance during 2019-I and 2020-I.

3.2. Cross Validated Model Accuracy

Cross-validation on the validation data set was applied to check to overfit of models. The cross-validated R², MAE, and RMSE for PM_{2.5} and model type are presented in Figure 4. As shown in Figure 4, during the period of 2019-I (the same period in 2019), values of R²,

MAE, and RMSE of RF model were 0.774, 3.914 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and 4.756 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively; for SVR, values of R^2 , MAE, and RMSE were 0.703, 4.679 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and 5.458 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively; for ANN, values of R^2 , MAE, and RMSE were 0.702, 4.578 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, 5.468 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively. During the period of 2020-I (during COVID-19), values of R^2 , MAE, and RMSE of RF model were 0.691, 2.353 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and 3.144 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively; for SVR, values of R^2 , MAE, and RMSE were 0.571, 2.794 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and 3.702 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively; for ANN, R^2 , MAE, and RMSE were 0.529, 2.995 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and 3.889 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively. Values of R^2 all decreased slightly, while values of MAE and RMSE all increased slightly after cross-validation. The results of cross-validation suggested that the three models are slightly over-fitting.

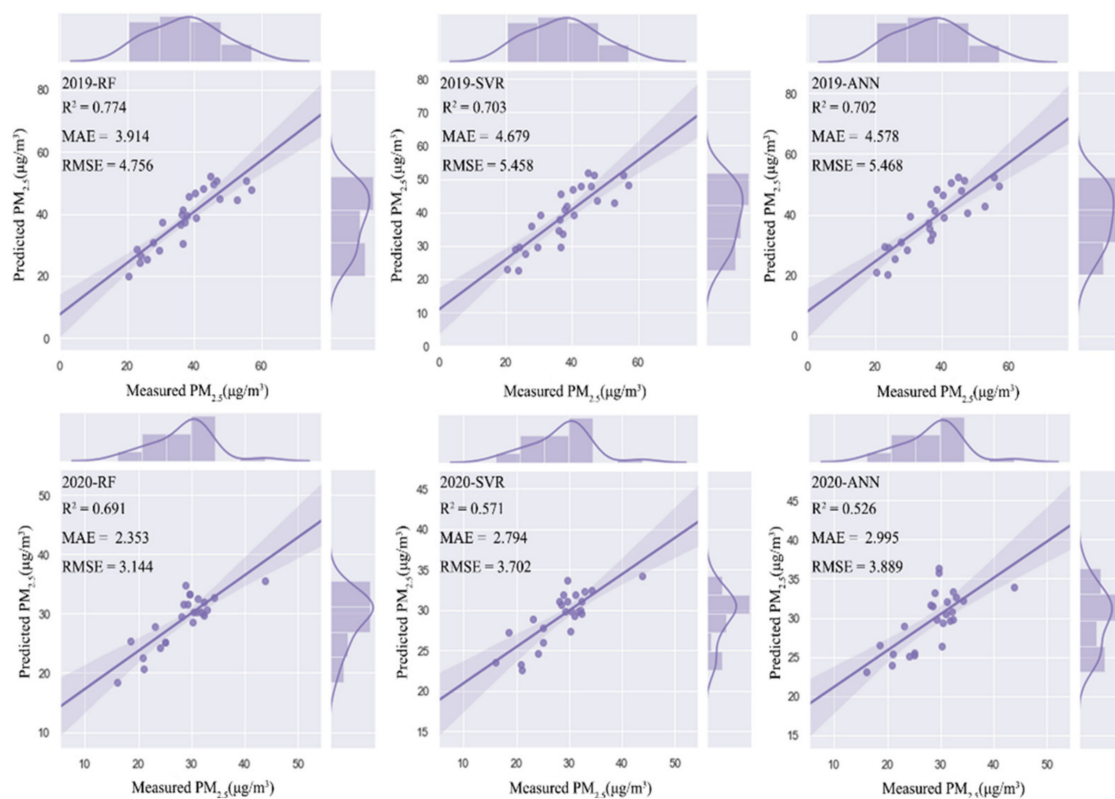


Figure 4. Validation between predicted and measured $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ by different methods.

In the Yangtze River Delta, the regional mean value of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations during 2019-I (the same period in 2019) and 2020-I (during COVID-19) were 38.353 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and 29.94 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively. According to ground-truth observations. The values are very close to the estimations of the RF model, of which the values are 38.628 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and 30.453 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively. The results indicate that the RF estimation should be a good approximation to the true state of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations in the Yangtze River Delta.

The regional mean value of measured $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and predicted $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ (RF) of 16 cities in the Yangtze River Delta are shown in Figure 5. During 2019-I (the same period in 2019), differences between measured $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and predicted $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ ranged from 0.089 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ to $-2.867 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$; comparatively, during 2020-I (during COVID-19), differences between measured $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and predicted $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ ranged from 0.121 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ to 1.669 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. RF model performed well in most cities of Yangtze River Delta with satisfying goodness of fit. Cities with relatively big estimations errors are Zhoushan, Nantong, Taizhou, and Huzhou. The cities, as mentioned above, are coastal cities with low concentrations of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, where the weather conditions are complex and changeable, and which give rise to larger estimation errors.

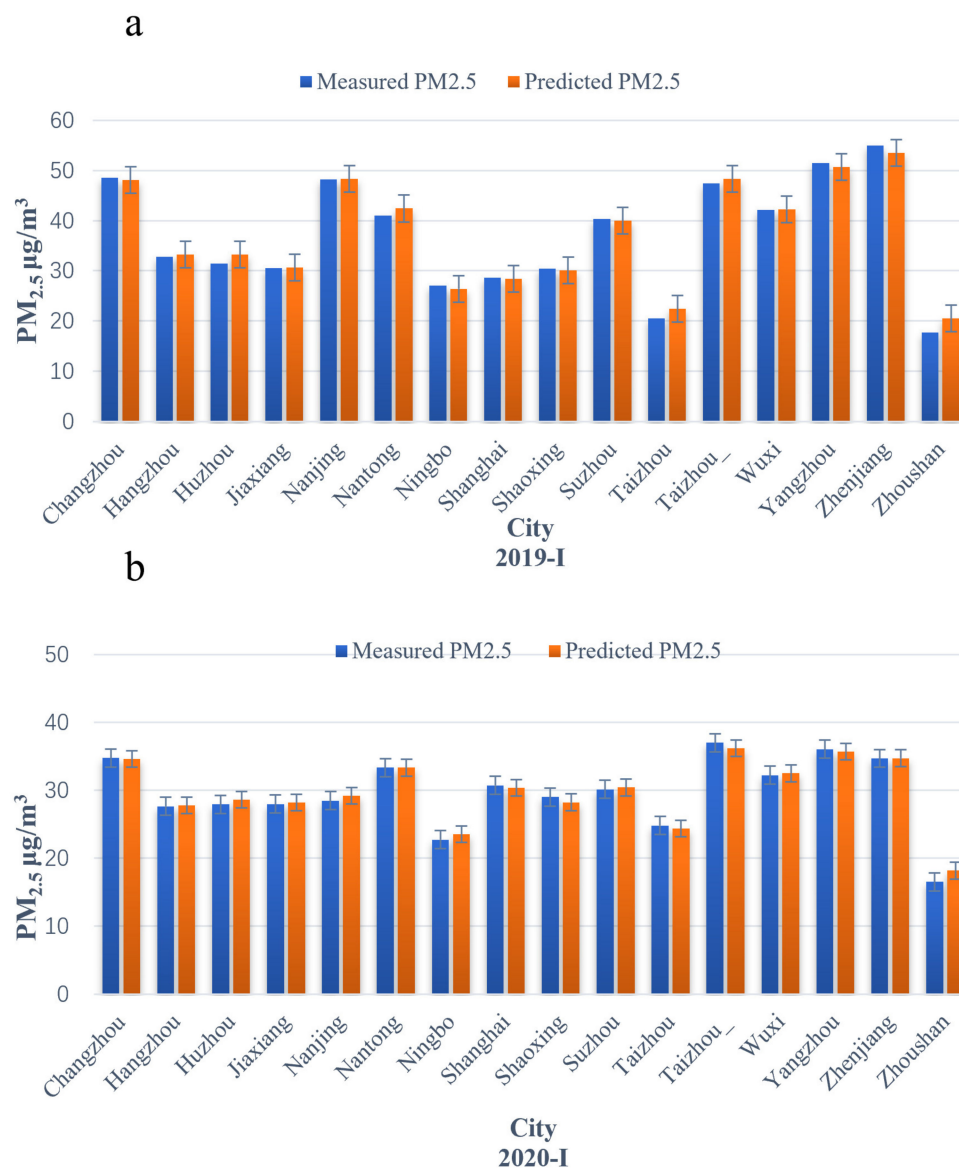


Figure 5. Regional mean measured/predicted PM_{2.5} average monitored concentrations and average simulated concentration of each city (a:2019-I; b:2020-I).

In conclusion, a comprehensive comparison between models shows that R^2 values of RF model are higher than SVR and ANN, while MAE values and RMSE values of RF are lower than those of SVR and RMSE. The results suggest that RF model is optimal in predicting PM_{2.5} concentrations. Therefore, RF model was selected for estimation of PM_{2.5}.

3.3. PM_{2.5} Estimates during COVID-19

In this study, RF model was developed to estimate PM_{2.5} in the Yangtze River Delta with MODIS AOD data, meteorological, DEM, road density, and POI data. The results of the prediction of PM_{2.5}, which are based on RF were mapped in the ArcGIS platform (Figure 6). According to our estimates, the mean value of PM_{2.5} concentrations during 2019-I (the same period in 2019) in the Yangtze River Delta was $25.129 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, while in 2020-I (during COVID-19), the mean value was $21.519 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. The highest/lowest values of PM_{2.5} concentrations during 2019-I (the same period in 2019) in Yangtze River Delta was $51.245 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and $20.247 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively; while in 2020-I (during COVID-19), the highest/lowest values decreased to $34.85 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and $19.81 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively. Higher PM_{2.5} concentrations were found in Jiangsu Province, especially in Wuxi, Changzhou,

Suzhou, Taizhou, and other southern and middle Jiangsu regions. The low values of $PM_{2.5}$ were mainly observed in the mountainous areas of Zhejiang Province, where the weak human activities in the mountains resulted in fewer emissions of $PM_{2.5}$ precursors.

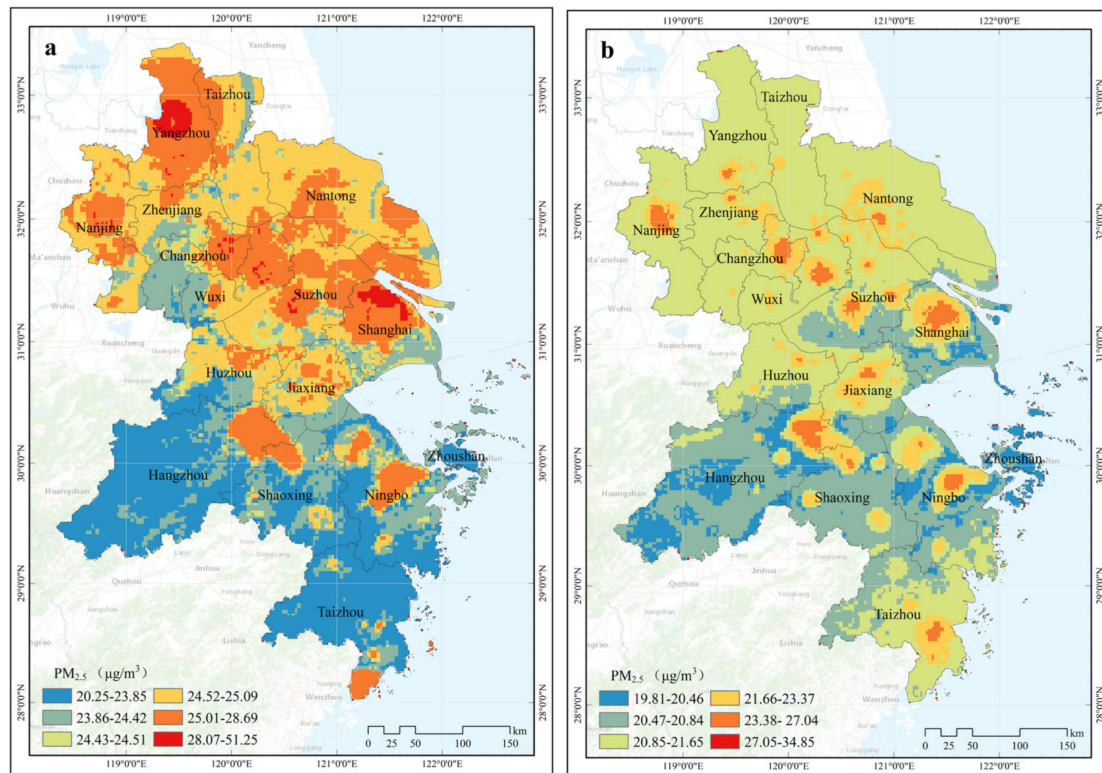


Figure 6. Spatial distributions of estimated $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in Yangtze River Delta (a) The same period in 2019; (b) During COVID-19.

Overall, the spatial distribution of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in the Yangtze River Delta showed a pattern of high north and low south; $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations significantly decreased under the “lockdown policy” during COVID-19 in 2020. We pushed the $PM_{2.5}$ site data into space through the model, effectively making up for the lack of space in the $PM_{2.5}$ monitoring stations and obtaining data covering the entire region during COVID-19.

3.4. $PM_{2.5}$ Variations during COVID-19

The overall declining trends of $PM_{2.5}$ in the Yangtze River Delta can be found during COVID-19 in 2020, with only a few areas in Taizhou showed upward trends (Figure 7). The regional mean value of $PM_{2.5}$ in the Yangtze River Delta has declined by $3.61 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during COVID-19, with the highest decline rate found in Yangzhou ($5.70 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), and lowest rate found in Taizhou ($2.26 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), respectively. In general, higher decline rates of $PM_{2.5}$ were mainly found in the north part of the Yangtze River Delta, which is also consistent with the spatial clustering of $PM_{2.5}$ in the north part of the Yangtze River Delta. The area with high $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations is usually the area with a high concentration of human activities. The northern part of the Yangtze River Delta has a flat terrain with a densely distributed population, industries, and farming activities. In contrast, the southern part is a mostly hilly and mountainous area with low population density and low air pollutant emission. According to previous studies, $PM_{2.5}$ pollution in the Yangtze River Delta mainly comes from industry and traffic. Therefore, the obvious reductions of $PM_{2.5}$ found in this study were directly related to the strict lockdown actions. The majority of fine particles from industry and traffic emissions were the primary emissions from industrial. It was found that traffic emissions decreased with an increase in secondary particles in $PM_{2.5}$ during the COVID-19 lock period.

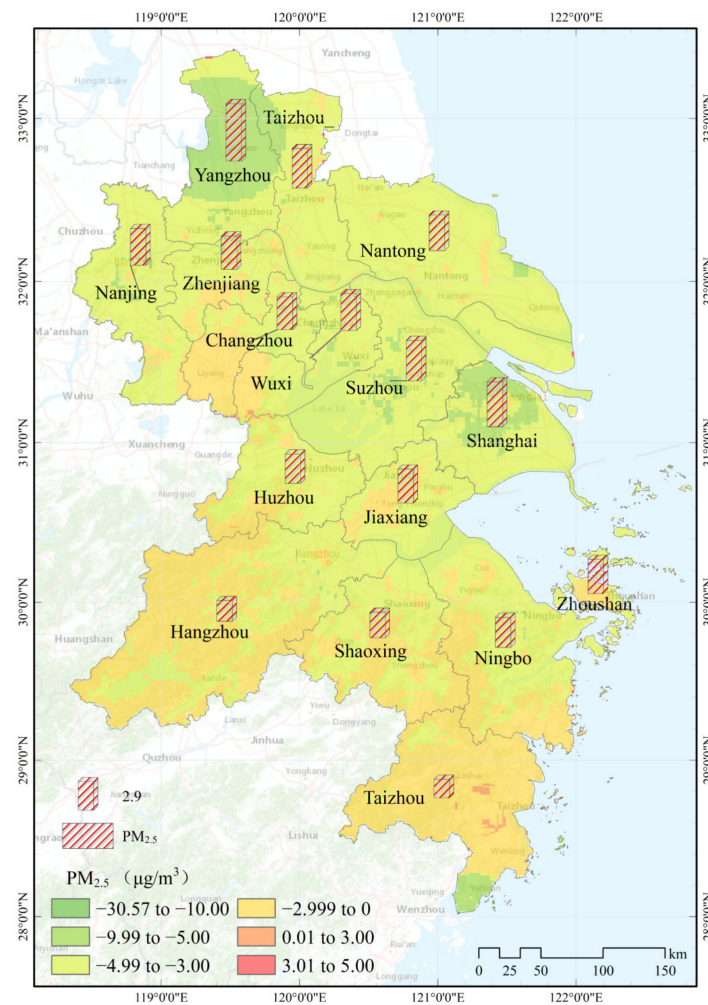


Figure 7. Reduction of city $PM_{2.5}$ in Yangtze River Delta during COVID-19.

4. Discussion

Air pollution brings about many challenges for the sustainable development of cities. The sparse distribution of monitoring stations limits our understanding of spatial-temporal dynamics of air conditions. To address this gap, many researchers try to obtain the spatially continuous distribution of $PM_{2.5}$ based on relations between $PM_{2.5}$ and AOD. The AOD products, applied in earlier studies, have coarse spatial resolutions of about 10 km, which is difficult to apply in air pollution estimation studies at the urban scale. The recent newly developed AOD product, based on MODIS data, has a high resolution of 1 km, which significantly improves the spatial resolution of regional $PM_{2.5}$ mapping and is gradually applied to the estimation model of urban $PM_{2.5}$.

In this study, R^2 value of RF model during COVID-19 in 2020 and the same periods of 2019 are 0.93, and 0.917, respectively; and the cross-validation R^2 are 0.77 and 0.69, respectively. The RF model outperformed the SVR and ANN models in the Yangtze River Delta. It is suggested that the RF model explained a large fraction of the measured $PM_{2.5}$ spatial variability based on the monitoring data and AOD in the Yangtze River Delta. To be comparable with our study, only those studies on AOD- $PM_{2.5}$ estimations over the Yangtze River Delta are selected (Table 4). RF model can capture 69–77% of the variations in the sample-based CV and can outperform most previous models used for generating 3 km resolution $PM_{2.5}$ maps of Yangtze River Delta, e.g., the Spatio-temporal model (STM) (CV $R^2 = 0.63$; Yang et al., 2017) [25] and Linear mixed-effects (LME) model (CV $R^2 = 0.725$; Ma et al., 2016) [50]. The accuracy of the current RF model is close to the results of the $PM_{2.5}$ mapping model with 6 km and 10 km resolutions, including the geographically weighted

regression model (GWR) model (Jiang et al., 2017) [51] and the three-stage hierarchical spatial and temporal statistical model (T-SSM) (She et al., 2020) [52]. The comparison indicates that the RF model is suitable for estimating and predicting PM_{2.5} concentration in the Yangtze River Delta. However, the RF model, developed in this study, is slightly over-fitting. Humidity correction and vertical correction are suggested in future modeling of PM_{2.5} to reduce the error of input variables to obtain the optimal research results.

Table 4. Statistics for the comparisons in performances of different regression models in Yangtze River Delta.

Related Study	Model	Model Fitting			Model Validation			Spatial Resolution
		R ²	MAE	RMSE	R ²	MAE	RMSE	
Ma et al. (2016)	LME	0.771	-	16.72	0.725	-	18.30	3 km
		0.838 (spring)	-	12.84	0.753 (spring)	-	16.12	
Jiang et al. (2017)	GWR	0.85 (summer)	-	6.18	0.74 (summer)	-	8.29	10 km
		0.915 (autumn)	-	9.86	0.882 (autumn)	-	12.33	
		0.867 (winter)	-	16.34	0.785 (winter)	-	21.15	
Yang et al. (2018)	STM	0.86	-	8.15	0.63	-	4.22	3 km
She et al. (2020)	T-SSM	-	-	-	0.72	-	23	6 km
Out study	RF	0.938 (2019-I)	1.663	2.696	0.77 (2019-I)	3.914	4.756	1km
		0.917 (2020-I)	1.026	1.413	0.691 (2020-I)	2.353	3.144	1km

Recent pioneer studies revealed that the mean value of PM_{2.5} concentrations in 367 cities during COVID-19 has decreased by 18.9 µg m⁻³ compared with the periods before COVID-19; PM_{2.5} in the city with the worst breakouts of COVID-19: Wuhan decreased by 1.4 µg m⁻³ [53]. The mean value of PM_{2.5} concentrations in Zhejiang province declined by 14.691 µg m⁻³ during COVID-19 [54]. The varying degree of PM_{2.5} varied due to different spatial-temporal scales of studies. However, a consensus is that PM_{2.5} concentrations decreased, in general, under the strict “lockdown policy” during COVID-19, and the air quality had improved [10,55–58]. This study provides a theoretical basis for controlling human activities to enhance the quality of air under extreme air pollution conditions. The published literature uses PM_{2.5} data from urban monitoring sites. This paper compares different models and uses the most accurate model to estimate PM_{2.5} data in the Yangtze River Delta during the epidemic and obtain PM_{2.5} data covering the entire region. Therefore, compared with the published literature, the PM_{2.5} data, estimated by the model, covers urban areas and rural areas, and can be reached through spatial analysis. The research results revealed the spatial heterogeneity of PM_{2.5} pollution during COVID-19.

In summary, RF-derived PM_{2.5} concentrations during COVID-19 in 2020 and the same period in 2019 were compared to assess the influence of “lockdown policy” on air pollution. The results of this study provide an important reference for air pollution control strategy. Although PM_{2.5} reduction, during COVID-19, is mainly caused by declining emissions caused by the stagnation of production and human activities, the effects of climatic change or previous inertia emission reduction cannot be ignored. Their contributions need to be clarified in future studies.

5. Conclusions

The machine learning method was able to explain a large proportion of the variability in the ambient PM_{2.5} concentrations in the Yangtze River Delta, with variables of meteorology, elevation, population, road, and POI data. The RF model of PM_{2.5} outperformed the SVR and ANN models in the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) region, and the predicted PM_{2.5} concentration, based on RF model, was of high spatial variations in the YRD region. Therefore, the RF model was found to provide an exposure assessment for studies on air pollution in China in the future. RF-based results suggested that PM_{2.5} concentrations in the YRD region decreased at multiple spatial scales during COVID-19 in 2020, compared with the value during the same period, in 2019, under the influence of “lockdown policy”

on air pollution. We propose that further studies could look into the applications of the RF model as a decision-making tool in air pollution control, and the temporal and spatial resolution should be further improved.

Author Contributions: Conceptualization, D.L. and W.X.; methodology, D.L.; validation, W.M. and D.L.; formal analysis, D.L.; data curation, D.L. and J.W.; writing—original draft preparation, D.L. and L.Z.; writing—review and editing, J.W. and L.Z.; visualization, D.L. and W.M.; supervision, L.Z.; project administration, L.Z.; funding acquisition, L.Z. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding: This research was funded by The Philosophy and Social Sciences Foundation of Zhejiang Province, grant number 21NDQN270YB.

Institutional Review Board Statement: Not applicable.

Informed Consent Statement: Not applicable.

Data Availability Statement: No new data were created or analyzed in this study. Data sharing is not applicable to this article.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

References

1. Sulaymon, I.D.; Zhang, Y.; Hopke, P.K.; Zhang, Y.; Hua, J.; Mei, X. COVID-19 pandemic in Wuhan: Ambient air quality and the relationships between criteria air pollutants and meteorological variables before, during, and after lockdown. *Atmos. Res.* **2021**, *250*, 105362. [[CrossRef](#)]
2. Guan, D.; Wang, D.; Hallegatte, S.; Davis, S.J.; Huo, J.; Li, S.; Bai, Y.; Lei, T.; Xue, Q.; Coffman, D.; et al. Global supply-chain effects of COVID-19 control measures. *Nat. Hum. Behav.* **2020**, *4*, 577–587. [[CrossRef](#)]
3. Coker, E.S.; Cavalli, L.; Fabrizi, E.; Guastella, G.; Lippo, E.; Parisi, M.L.; Pontarollo, N.; Rizzati, M.; Varacca, A.; Vergalli, S. The Effects of Air Pollution on COVID-19 Related Mortality in Northern Italy. *Environ. Resour. Econ.* **2020**, 1–24. [[CrossRef](#)]
4. Ming, W.; Zhou, Z.; Ai, H.; Bi, H.; Zhong, Y. COVID-19 and Air Quality: Evidence from China. *Emerg. Mark. Financ. Trade* **2020**, *56*, 2422–2442. [[CrossRef](#)]
5. Liu, S.; Kong, G.; Kong, D. Effects of the COVID-19 on Air Quality: Human Mobility, Spillover Effects, and City Connections. *Environ. Resour. Econ.* **2020**, 1–19. [[CrossRef](#)]
6. Brimblecombe, P.; Lai, Y. Effect of sub-urban scale lockdown on air pollution in Beijing. *Urban Clim.* **2020**, *34*, 100725. [[CrossRef](#)]
7. Chakraborty, I.; Maity, P. COVID-19 outbreak: Migration, effects on society, global environment and prevention. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2020**, *728*, 138882. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
8. Li, M.; Wang, T.; Xie, M.; Li, S.; Zhuang, B.; Fu, Q.; Zhao, M.; Wu, H.; Liu, J.; Saikawa, E.; et al. Drivers for the poor air quality conditions in north China Plain during the COVID-19 outbreak. *Atmos. Environ.* **2020**, 118103. [[CrossRef](#)]
9. Pei, Z.; Han, G.; Ma, X.; Su, H.; Gong, W. Response of major air pollutants to COVID-19 lockdowns in China. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2020**, *743*, 140879. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
10. Feng, S.; Jiang, F.; Wang, H.; Wang, H.; Ju, W.; Shen, Y.; Zheng, Y.; Wu, Z.; Ding, A. NO_x Emission Changes Over China During the COVID-19 Epidemic Inferred from Surface NO₂ Observations. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **2020**, *47*, e2020GL090080. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
11. Yuan, Q.; Qi, B.; Hu, D.; Wang, J.; Zhang, J.; Yang, H.; Zhang, S.; Liu, L.; Xu, L.; Li, W. Spatiotemporal variations and reduction of air pollutants during the COVID-19 pandemic in a megacity of Yangtze River Delta in China. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2021**, *751*, 141820. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
12. Han, Y.; Lam, J.C.K.; Li, V.O.K.; Guo, P.; Zhang, Q.; Wang, A.; Crowcroft, J.; Wang, S.; Fu, J.; Gilani, Z.; et al. The Effects of Outdoor Air Pollution Concentrations and Lockdowns on Covid-19 Infections in Wuhan and Other Provincial Capitals in China. *Preprints* **2020**. [[CrossRef](#)]
13. Bao, R.; Zhang, A. Does lockdown reduce air pollution? Evidence from 44 cities in northern China. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2020**, *731*, 139052. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
14. Fang, X.; Zou, B.; Liu, X.; Sternberg, T.; Zhai, L. Satellite-based ground PM_{2.5} estimation using timely structure adaptive modeling. *Remote Sens. Environ.* **2016**, *186*, 152–163. [[CrossRef](#)]
15. Wang, S.; Zhou, C.; Wang, Z.; Feng, K.; Hubacek, K. The characteristics and drivers of fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) distribution in China 2016. *J. Clean. Prod.* **2017**, *142*, 1800–1809. [[CrossRef](#)]
16. Chen, G.; Li, S.; Knibbs, L.D.; Hamm, N.A.S.; Cao, W.; Li, T.; Guo, J.; Ren, H.; Abramson, M.J.; Guo, Y. A machine learning method to estimate PM_{2.5} concentrations across China with remote sensing, meteorological and land use information. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2018**, *636*, 52–60. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]

17. Ma, Z.; Hu, X.; Sayer, A.M.; Levy, R.; Zhang, Q.; Xue, Y.; Tong, S.; Bi, J.; Huang, L.; Liu, Y. Satellite-Based Spatiotemporal Trends in PM_{2.5} Concentrations: China, 2004–2013. *Environ. Health Perspect.* **2016**, *124*, 184–192. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
18. Xue, W.; Zhang, J.; Zhong, C.; Ji, D.; Huang, W. Satellite-derived spatiotemporal PM_{2.5} concentrations and variations from 2006 to 2017 in China. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2020**, *712*, 134577. [[CrossRef](#)]
19. Ma, Z.; Hu, X.; Huang, L.; Bi, J.; Liu, Y. Estimating ground-level PM_{2.5} in China using satellite remote sensing. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2014**, *48*, 7436–7444. [[CrossRef](#)]
20. Lu, D.; Xu, J.; Yang, D.; Zhao, J. Spatio-temporal variation and influence factors of PM_{2.5} concentrations in China from 1998 to 2014. *Atmos. Pollut. Res.* **2017**, *8*, 1151–1159. [[CrossRef](#)]
21. Zhai, L.; Zou, B.; Fang, X.; Luo, Y.; Wan, N.; Li, S. Land Use Regression Modeling of PM_{2.5} Concentrations at Optimized Spatial Scales. *Atmosphere* **2017**, *8*, 1. [[CrossRef](#)]
22. Brokamp, C.; Jandarov, R.; Hossain, M.; Ryan, P. Predicting Daily Urban Fine Particulate Matter Concentrations Using a Random Forest Model. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2018**, *52*, 4173–4179. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
23. Wei, J.; Huang, W.; Li, Z.; Xue, W.; Peng, Y.; Sun, L.; Cribb, M. Estimating 1-km-resolution PM_{2.5} concentrations across China using the space-time random forest approach. *Remote Sens. Environ.* **2019**, *231*, 111221. [[CrossRef](#)]
24. Stafoggia, M.; Bellander, T.; Bucci, S.; Davoli, M.; de Hoogh, K.; de’ Donato, F.; Gariazzo, C.; Lyapustin, A.; Michelozzi, P.; Renzi, M.; et al. Estimation of daily PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} concentrations in Italy, 2013–2015, using a spatiotemporal land-use random-forest model. *Environ. Int.* **2019**, *124*, 170–179. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
25. Yang, D.; Lu, D.; Xu, J.; Ye, C.; Zhao, J.; Tian, G.; Wang, X.; Zhu, N. Predicting spatio-temporal concentrations of PM_{2.5} using land use and meteorological data in Yangtze River Delta, China. *Stoch. Environ. Res. Risk Assess.* **2018**, *32*, 2445–2456. [[CrossRef](#)]
26. Di, Q.; Amini, H.; Shi, L.; Kloog, I.; Silvern, R.; Kelly, J.; Sabath, M.B.; Choirat, C.; Koutrakis, P.; Lyapustin, A.; et al. An ensemble-based model of PM_{2.5} concentration across the contiguous United States with high spatiotemporal resolution. *Environ. Int.* **2019**, *130*, 104909. [[CrossRef](#)]
27. Wei, J.; Li, Z.; Lyapustin, A.; Sun, L.; Peng, Y.; Xue, W.; Su, T.; Cribb, M. Reconstructing 1-km-resolution high-quality PM_{2.5} data records from 2000 to 2018 in China: Spatiotemporal variations and policy implications. *Remote Sens. Environ.* **2021**, *252*, 112136. [[CrossRef](#)]
28. Wei, J.; Li, Z.; Xue, W.; Sun, L.; Fan, T.; Liu, L.; Su, T.; Cribb, M. The ChinaHighPM₁₀ dataset: Generation, validation, and spatiotemporal variations from 2015 to 2019 across China. *Environ. Int.* **2021**, *146*, 106290. [[CrossRef](#)]
29. Meng, X.; Hand, J.L.; Schichtel, B.A.; Liu, Y. Space-time trends of PM_{2.5} constituents in the conterminous United States estimated by a machine learning approach, 2005–2015. *Environ. Int.* **2018**, *121*, 1137–1147. [[CrossRef](#)]
30. Huang, K.; Xiao, Q.; Meng, X.; Geng, G.; Wang, Y.; Lyapustin, A.; Gu, D.; Liu, Y. Predicting monthly high-resolution PM_{2.5} concentrations with random forest model in the North China Plain. *Environ. Pollut.* **2018**, *242*, 675–683. [[CrossRef](#)]
31. Kashima, S.; Yorifuji, T.; Tsuda, T.; Doi, H. Application of land use regression to regulatory air quality data in Japan 2009. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2009**, *407*, 3055–3062. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
32. Ryan, P.H.; Lemasters, G.K.; Biswas, P.; Levin, L.; Hu, S.; Lindsey, M.; Bernstein, D.I.; Lockey, J.; Villareal, M.; Khurana Hershey, G.K.; et al. A comparison of proximity and land use regression traffic exposure models and wheezing in infants. *Environ. Health Perspect.* **2007**, *115*, 278–284. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
33. Thompson, B. Stepwise Regression and Stepwise Discriminant Analysis Need Not Apply here: A Guidelines Editorial. *Educ. Psychol. Meas.* **1995**, *55*, 525–534. [[CrossRef](#)]
34. Lu, D.; Xu, J.; Yue, W.; Mao, W.; Yang, D.; Wang, J. Response of PM_{2.5} pollution to land use in China. *J. Clean. Prod.* **2020**, *244*, 118741. [[CrossRef](#)]
35. Hino, M.; Benami, E.; Brooks, N. Machine learning for environmental monitoring. *Nat. Sustain* **2018**, *1*, 583–588. [[CrossRef](#)]
36. Mao, W.; Lu, D.; Hou, L.; Liu, X.; Yue, W. Comparison of Machine-Learning Methods for Urban Land-Use Mapping in Hangzhou City, China. *Remote Sens.* **2020**, *12*, 2817. [[CrossRef](#)]
37. Yang, L.; Xu, H.; Yu, S. Estimating PM_{2.5} concentrations in Yangtze River Delta region of China using random forest model and the Top-of-Atmosphere reflectance. *J. Environ. Manag.* **2020**, *272*, 111061. [[CrossRef](#)]
38. Hu, X.; Belle, J.H.; Meng, X.; Wildani, A.; Waller, L.A.; Strickland, M.J.; Liu, Y. Estimating PM_{2.5} Concentrations in the Conterminous United States Using the Random Forest Approach. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2017**, *51*, 6936–6944. [[CrossRef](#)]
39. Yang, W.; Deng, M.; Xu, F.; Wang, H. Prediction of hourly PM_{2.5} using a space-time support vector regression model. *Atmos. Environ.* **2018**, *181*, 12–19. [[CrossRef](#)]
40. Gupta, P.; Christopher, S.A. Particulate matter air quality assessment using integrated surface, satellite, and meteorological products: 2. A neural network approach. *J. Geophys. Res.* **2009**, *114*. [[CrossRef](#)]
41. Wei, J.; Li, Z.; Peng, Y.; Sun, L.; Yan, X. A regionally robust high-spatial-resolution aerosol retrieval algorithm for MODIS images over Eastern China. *IEEE Trans. Geosci. Remote Sens.* **2019**, *57*, 4748–4757. [[CrossRef](#)]
42. Liu, N.; Zou, B.; Feng, H.; Wang, W.; Tang, Y.; Liang, Y. Evaluation and comparison of multiangle implementation of the atmospheric correction algorithm, Dark Target, and Deep Blue aerosol products over China. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.* **2019**, *19*, 8243–8268. [[CrossRef](#)]
43. Lyapustin, A.; Wang, Y.; Korkin, S.; Huang, D. MODIS collection 6 MAIAC algorithm. *Atmos. Meas. Tech.* **2018**, *11*, 5741–5765. [[CrossRef](#)]

44. Breiman, L.I.; Friedman, J.H.; Olshen, R.A.; Stone, C.J. *Classification and Regression Trees*; Wadsworth: Belmont, CA, USA, 1984; p. 40.
45. Breiman, L. Random Forests. *Mach. Learn.* **2001**, *45*, 5–32. [[CrossRef](#)]
46. Liu, Y.; Cao, G.; Zhao, N.; Mulligan, K.; Ye, X. Improve ground-level PM_{2.5} concentration mapping using a random forests-based geostatistical approach. *Environ. Pollut.* **2018**, *235*, 272–282. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
47. Cortes, C.; Vapnik, V. Support-vector networks. *Mach. Learn.* **1995**, *20*, 273–297. [[CrossRef](#)]
48. Drucker, H.; Burges, C.J.C.; Kaufman, L.; Chris, J.C.; Kaufman, B.L.; Smola, A.; Vapnik, V. Support Vector Regression Machines. *Adv. Neural Inf. Process. Syst.* **1997**, *28*, 779–784.
49. Rumelhart, D.E.; McClelland, J.L. *Parallel Distributed Processing*; The MIT Press: Cambridge, MA, USA, 1986; pp. 45–76.
50. Ma, Z.; Liu, Y.; Zhao, Q.; Liu, M.; Zhou, Y.; Bi, J. Satellite-derived high resolution PM_{2.5} concentrations in Yangtze River Delta Region of China using improved linear mixed effects model. *Atmos. Environ. (1994)* **2016**, *133*, 156–164. [[CrossRef](#)]
51. Jiang, M.; Sun, W.; Yang, G.; Zhang, D. Modelling Seasonal GWR of Daily PM_{2.5} with Proper Auxiliary Variables for the Yangtze River Delta. *Remote Sens.* **2017**, *9*, 346. [[CrossRef](#)]
52. She, Q.; Choi, M.; Belle, J.H.; Xiao, Q.; Bi, J.; Huang, K.; Meng, X.; Geng, G.; Kim, J.; He, K.; et al. Satellite-based estimation of hourly PM_{2.5} levels during heavy winter pollution episodes in the Yangtze River Delta, China. *Chemosphere* **2020**, *239*, 124678. [[CrossRef](#)]
53. Chen, K.; Wang, M.; Huang, C.; Kinney, P.L.; Anastas, P.T. Air pollution reduction and mortality benefit during the COVID-19 outbreak in China. *Lancet Planet. Health* **2020**, *4*, e210–e212. [[CrossRef](#)]
54. Li, L.; Li, Q.; Huang, L.; Wang, Q.; Zhu, A.; Xu, J.; Liu, Z.; Li, H.; Shi, L.; Li, R.; et al. Air quality changes during the COVID-19 lockdown over the Yangtze River Delta Region: An insight into the impact of human activity pattern changes on air pollution variation. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2020**, *732*, 139282. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
55. Xian, T.; Li, Z.; Wei, J. Changes in air pollution following the COVID-19 epidemic in Northern China: The role of meteorology. *Front. Environ. Sci.* **2021**, 1–9. [[CrossRef](#)]
56. Wang, M.; Liu, F.; Zheng, M. Air quality improvement from COVID-19 lockdown: Evidence from China. *Air Qual. Atmos. Health* **2020**, 1–14. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
57. Mahato, S.; Pal, S.; Ghosh, K.G. Effect of lockdown amid COVID-19 pandemic on air quality of the megacity Delhi, India. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2020**, *730*, 139086. [[CrossRef](#)]
58. Chauhan, A.; Singh, R.P. Decline in PM_{2.5} concentrations over major cities around the world associated with COVID-19. *Environ. Res.* **2020**, *187*, 109634. [[CrossRef](#)]