



Seasonal Changes in Air Pollutants and Their Relation to Veg-Etation Over the Megacity Delhi-NCR ⁺

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Abstract: Delhi is one of the most densely populated megacities of the world and is experiencing 11 deteriorating air quality due to rapid industrialization and excessive use of transportation. The lim-12 ited emission control measures in Delhi have led to worsening air quality problems, which have 13 become a serious threat to human health and the environment. In the present study, we investigate 14 the long-term (2011-2021) interrelationship between air pollutants and vegetation index using sat-15 ellite datasets. Air pollutant data viz. nitrogen dioxide (NO2) and sulfur dioxide (SO2) obtained from 16 NASA's Aura satellite called Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI), and the data for carbon monox-17 ide (CO) and particulate matter 2.5 (PM2.5) obtained from Modern-Era Retrospective analysis for 18 Research and Applications version 2 (MERRA-2) model. The vegetation indices i.e., Normalized 19 Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) and Enhanced Vegetation Oxide (EVI) collected from the Terra 20 Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) satellite. The analysis of both data re-21 vealed higher concentrations of air pollutants in the summer months when NDVI and EVI were 22 minimal. Further, a higher pollution load was observed in the October-January months when NDVI 23 and EVI were lower. Furthermore, we also investigated the spatial patterns of PM25 and other gas-24 eous pollutants (viz. CO, SO2, and NO2) and observed that they were less in the vegetated region in 25 comparison to the sparsely vegetated area of Delhi. The present study indicates that vegetation 26 could ameliorate various air pollutants; however, it needs to be validated with ground observed 27 data. 28

Keywords: Air quality; Megacity; NDVI; EVI; MODIS; Vegetation

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Urbanization is happening at a rapid pace globally, and Indian cities are no exception 32 to this trend. Urbanization involves the migration of populations from rural to urban ar-33 eas and the expansion of towns and cities into nearby underdeveloped rural regions. This 34 process brings about significant changes in land use and land cover within a given area. 35 These changes often include the removal of vegetation and soil cover, replacing them with 36 concrete or asphalt surfaces. Additionally, low-rise rural areas are converted into high-37 rise urban structures, leading to the substitution of agricultural activities in rural regions 38 with industrial and commercial activities in urban areas [1]. As land use patterns rapidly 39 evolve due to urbanization in developing countries, urban sprawl, as it is often referred 40 to, has been associated with pollution, excessive energy consumption, congested roads, 41 and a decline in community and environmental health [2]. The global deterioration of air 42 quality has become a major threat to both human health and the environment due to the 43 effects of urbanization, industrialization, and increased transportation usage. Rapid ur-44 banization in Indian cities not only modifies the urban climate and air quality but also 45

converts agricultural land and green spaces into built-up areas. Urbanization, along with46rising population densities, leads to vegetation loss, worsened air quality, and the emer-47gence of urban heat islands. Furthermore, worldwide forest destruction is exacerbated by48overexploitation and human activities.49

Delhi, the capital of India, is the world's second-most populous and also one of the 50 most polluted metropolitan cities. Over the past few decades, the city has witnessed rapid 51 expansion, both planned and unplanned, at the expense of its green cover due to urbani-52 zation [3]. A combination of various factors, including vehicle and industrial emissions, 53 dust, and climatic conditions, has contributed to Delhi's status as the most polluted capital 54 in the world. The air quality in Delhi is particularly affected during the winter months as 55 nearby farmers burn crop residue, and the concurrent Diwali celebration involves the use 56 of fireworks that further degrade the air quality. In order to safeguard human health and 57 protect the environment, it is crucial to urgently reduce air pollution and improve air 58 quality through urban greening efforts. It is widely acknowledged that vegetation plays a 59 key role in trapping air pollutants on leaves, mitigating urban heat islands, and seques-60 tering carbon dioxide, all of which contribute to enhancing air quality. Natural vegetation, 61 such as shrubs and trees, plays a significant role in reducing air pollutants and improving 62 air quality [4]. Vegetation can be used to reduce air pollutant concentrations; however, its 63 application to air pollution control strategy in a mega city like Delhi has become manda-64 tory to observe. Urban green spaces are invaluable resources for cities, as they not only 65 preserve ecological diversity but also provide a range of ecological services. These services 66 include regulating microclimates, reducing noise and air pollution, enhancing rainwater 67 infiltration, and sequestering carbon dioxide [5,6]. Thus, urban green spaces offer multiple 68 benefits, making them vital components of cities in efforts to protect and enhance the en-69 vironment and the well-being of their inhabitants. 70

The elimination of air pollutants using green walls and roofs, commonly known as 71 urban green infrastructure (UGI), has previously been the topic of various studies [7]. 72 However, in the context of India, various studies have been conducted, particularly either 73 on vegetation or air pollution, but the studies on the relationships between vegetation and 74 air pollution are very limited. So, the motivation behind this research is to study the rela-75 tionship between vegetation and air pollution. There is a lack of research work addressing 76 the relationships between vegetation and air pollution over Delhi- NCR using satellite 77 data, therefore the main aim of this study is the assessment of variations and relations in 78 vegetation indices (e.g., NDVI–Normalized Difference Vegetation Index & EVI–Enhanced 79 Vegetation Indices) and air pollutants through satellite data. This study has the potential 80 to contribute knowledge that may help researchers and policymakers, to understand the 81 consequences of air pollutants on vegetation and further can be used to formulate air pol-82 lution control policies. 83

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Study Area:

The study was carried out over Delhi-NCR to evaluate satellite data for vegetation 86 indices and air pollutants. Delhi-National Capital Territory (NCT) is geographically situ-87 ated between 28.7041° N and 77.1025° E. Geographically, the NCR spans four states – 88 NCT-Delhi, Uttar Pradesh, Haryana, and Rajasthan – with a total of 23 districts. It is situ-89 ated between 28.4020° N and 76.8260° E [8]. With a total area of 55,038 square kilometers, 90 Delhi-NCR makes up roughly 1.67 percent of India's total land area [9]. Delhi has a humid 91 subtropical climate with long, scorching summers and brief, foggy winters. The annual 92 temperature ranges from 3 degrees Celsius in the winter to 45 degrees Celsius in the sum-93 mer. Between July and September, during the monsoon season, 400-600 mm of precipita-94 tion falls each year [3]. The vegetation found in Delhi is thorny scrub. 95

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The monthly data of the MODIS were used for NDVI and EVI. This satellite data was 97 downloaded from the GIOVANNI online data system (https://giovanni.gsfc.nasa.gov/gio-98 vanni/ accessed on 10 July 2023). These data were created and managed by NASA God-99 dard Earth Science Data and Information Services Centre (GES DISC). Moreover, satellite 100 data for SO₂ and NO₂ were obtained from the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI), 101 whereas data for PM2.5 and CO were received from the Modern-Era Retrospective Analy-102 sis for Research and Applications version 2 (MERRA-2 model). Based on the differential 103 in pigments' absorption or reflection properties of near-infrared (NIR) and red (RED) 104 light, NDVI is the most commonly used indicator of vegetation cover. Rouse et al. [10] 105 suggested the use of NDVI as a proxy for vegetation and researchers frequently use it to 106 calculate leaf area index, green biomass, agricultural productivity, and patterns of vege-107 tation cover change [11,12]. NDVI is the primary indicator of plant health and greenness 108 and its value always ranges between (-1) and (+1). Dense vegetation is indicated by rising 109 positive NDVI values, and non-vegetated surfaces like barren ground and water are indi-110 cated by values that are close to zero or negative [12-14]. In a healthy green leaf, the inte-111 rior mesophyll structure reflects red light, while chlorophyll and other pigments absorb a 112 significant amount of near-infrared light [12,15,16]. Furthermore, an EVI was created to 113 improve vegetation monitoring by boosting the vegetation signal. It responds more read-114 ily to the canopy structure, which includes factors like leaf area index (LAI) and canopy 115 type. EVI is a global vegetation indicator that offers accurate geographical and temporal 116 data on vegetation on a worldwide scale [17]. 117

The satellite data from MODIS, OMI, and MERRA-2 model will be utilized to analyze 118 the spatiotemporal trend analysis of vegetation and air pollutants trend in this study. 119 MODIS is an instrument carried by the Terra and Aqua satellites and readings are taken 120 in the morning and afternoon, by the Terra and Aqua satellites, respectively. It contains 121 36 spectral bands, a resolution of 250 m to 1 km, and its average revisit period is two days 122 [18]. OMI is a 13 km × 24 km spatially resolved ultraviolet/visible backscatter spectrometer 123 that covers the entire planet in a single day [19]. OMI monitored trace gases such as for-124 maldehyde (HCHO), ozone (O_3) , nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), and sulfur dioxide (SO₂). The 125 analysis of levels of carbon monoxide (CO), and PM2.5 is performed using the most recent 126 edition of global atmospheric reanalysis during the satellite era, known as MERRA-2. The 127 satellite and Model data details for air pollutants and vegetation indices are given in Table 128 1. 129

Vegetation indices/	Sensors	Data Product	Spatial	Temporal
air pollutants		Information	resolution	resolution
NDVI / EVI	MODIS (Terra)	L3-MOD13C2	0.05°	Monthly
SO ₂	OMI	L3–OMSO2e	0.25°	Daily
NO ₂	OMI	L3–OMNO2d	0.25°	Daily
СО	MERRA-2	M2TMNXCHM	0.5×0.625°	Monthly
PM2.5	MERRA-2	M2TMNXAER	0.5×0.625°	Monthly

Table 1. Satellite/ Model data description of vegetation indices and air pollutants.

3. Result and Discussion

3.1. Seasonal Variations of Vegetation Indices and Different Air Pollutants

This study focuses on assessing the variations in vegetation indices (specifically 133 NDVI and EVI) and four air pollutants (CO, NO₂, PM_{2.5}, and SO₂) in the Delhi-NCR region 134 from January 2011 to December 2021 (Figure 1). Both NDVI and EVI exhibit similar trends 135 throughout the time period, which is expected since they are derived from the same data product (Figure 1a & 1b). The highest values for NDVI and EVI are observed during the 137 monsoon season (August to September) and spring (February to March), while the lowest 138 values are found in the summer season (May to June) and post-monsoon season (October 139

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to November). CO levels are at their lowest during the summer months and peak in No-140 vember (Figure 1c). It is interesting to note the gradual decrease in CO levels during the 141 monsoon season, which aligns with earlier research conducted by Pandey et al. (2017) [20] 142 in the Indo-Gangetic Plains. The concentration of PM2.5, a prominent air pollutant, is high-143 est during the summer months (May to June) and the post-monsoon period (November). 144Conversely, the lowest concentration of PM2.5 is observed during the monsoon and spring 145 seasons (Figure 1d) [21]. In the case of the tropospheric column NO₂ (Figure 1e), a peak 146 was observed during the winter month (i.e., December) and its minimum value during 147 the monsoon period (August to September) [22]. On the other hand, the seasonal variation 148 of SO₂, with peak levels occurring during winter (December to January) and minimum 149 levels during the monsoon months (July to September) (Figure 1f). 150



Figure 1. Monthly mean variations of vegetation indices and different air pollutants over Delhi-151NCR; (Year Jan 2011 to Dec 2021); (a) NDVI (b) EVI (c) CO variations (d) Surface PM2.5 concentration152(e) Tropospheric NO2 column (f) Tropospheric SO2 column.153

3.2. Comparison of Vegetation Indices with Different Selected Air Pollutants

The mean monthly value of vegetation indices (NDVI and EVI) was compared with 155 individual air pollutants viz. SO₂, NO₂, PM_{2.5}, and CO (Figure 2). The datasets of eleven 156 years (i.e., January 2011- December 2021) have been used to compare trends of vegetation 157 indices and air pollutants. The study found that the concentration patterns of air pollu-158 tants exhibit opposite trends to vegetation indices, suggesting that vegetation cover influ-159 ences pollution levels. Specifically, CO, PM2.5, NO2, and SO2 are consistently higher during 160 the post-monsoon and early winter months (October to December). The winter season is 161 characterized by little rain, which inhibits vegetation development, therefore a declined 162 value of NDVI and EVI have been observed from November to January. Moreover, cold 163 air, being denser and slower, intensifies air pollution due to its increased density and 164

In contrast, during the spring season (February and March), when new leaves emerge 171 and absorb additional pollutants, NDVI and EVI values increase, resulting in a decrease 172 in air contaminants [17]. Moreover, the monsoon season (July to September) sees an in-173 crease in NDVI and EVI values as plant foliage grows during this period [25]. Rain plays 174 a vital role in washing off air pollutants, leading to decreased pollutant concentrations. 175 On the other hand, hot weather during the summer months (April to June) corresponds 176 to low NDVI and EVI values [24], which contributes to higher pollution levels. Conse-177 quently, NDVI and EVI exhibit an inverse relationship with air pollutants [25] 178

factor contributing to higher pollutant concentrations.



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Figure 2. Mean monthly (Jan 2011 to Dec 2021) variation and comparison of different air pollutants 180 with NDVI/EVI of satellite data over Delhi- NCR (a) CO with NDVI & EVI (b) PM2.5 with NDVI & 181 EVI (c) NO2 with NDVI & EVI (d) SO2 variation with NDVI & EVI. 182

4. Conclusions

This study examines the monthly variations and comparisons between satellite data 184 of vegetation indices (NDVI and EVI) and air pollutants (CO, NO₂, PM_{2.5}, and SO₂). The 185 findings demonstrate that as vegetation indices increase, air pollutant levels decrease, and 186 vice versa. The values of indices decrease during the summer and winter seasons but in-187 crease during the monsoon season. Conversely, air pollutant concentrations rise during 188 winter and summer but decrease during the monsoon season. Overall, this research suggests that vegetation can play a crucial role in reducing various air pollutants.

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