

Satellite Imagery Reveals Differing Pathways to Adaptation to a Global Shock

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A large body of literature on adaptation strategies in social systems is based on the analysis of local-scale shocks in tightly coupled social-ecological systems. In this work, we identified and explored adaptation pathways at a global scale. We utilized nighttime lights (NTLs) satellite imagery, which are independent of national bias or misreporting, to assess impacts and recovery pathways from the COVID-19 shock. We categorized 170 countries into four different adaptation pathways: impacted and *Not Yet Recovered*, impacted and now *Back On Track*, impacted and *Built Back Better*, and *No Response* observed. We found that stringent lockdown policies were associated with a strong decline in nighttime lights. We also found that the immediate implementation of health policies at the onset of the pandemic, such as contact tracking and testing, was associated with faster NTL recovery and better overall adaptation, compared to countries whose response strategies were focused mainly on lockdown policies. These results provide a complement, not an alternative, to cross-country comparisons on adaptation to the COVID-19 pandemic using more traditional outcome measures such as infection rates, mortality, or GDP.

Adaptation | Nighttime lights | COVID-19 | Resilience

Constrained or enabled by local conditions and external influences, communities, institutions, and nations may take different actions in response to unexpected shocks, which in turn may influence the pathways to recovery (1). Each pathway, and their integration within portfolios of actions in response to the shock, is associated with certain benefits, impacts and risks, and may constrain or facilitate the ability to respond to other future shocks. Much of the literature on adaptation in social systems has tended to focus on local-scale shocks and communities that are intimately connected to, and largely dependent upon, natural systems such as farmers, herders, and fishers (2–4). In this work, we identify and explore global scale adaptation pathways to the COVID-19 pandemic shock, hopefully shedding light on how nations can adapt to future climate (5), health (6), economic (1, 7), social (8), and conflict (9) shocks.

The COVID-19 pandemic provides a unique opportunity to explore how nations were impacted by, responded to, and recovered from a near-global, near-simultaneous shock. However, cross-country comparisons of adaptation strategies to the COVID-19 pandemic are impaired by the lack of homogeneous information, as data on infection rates, hospitalizations, mortality, and economic activity were not collected in a consistent manner across countries (10) and, in some cases, severely under-reported, when not deliberately manipulated (11). For example, compare and contrast epidemiological data from two neighboring countries, Tanzania and Kenya. Tanzania (whose late president, John Magufuli, was an outspoken COVID-19 skeptic) has a slightly larger population than Kenya (66 vs 54 millions, respectively) but reported eighth times fewer COVID-19 cases (42,906 vs 342,937) and nearly seven times fewer deaths (846 vs 5,688) than Kenya in spite of similar population densities, economies, climatic conditions and Global Health Security Index (12). Likewise, the US state of California, home to ca. 39 million inhabitants, reported more total deaths from COVID-19 than the People’s Republic of China with a population of 1.4 billion. Statistics on economic activity, such as GDP, are also susceptible to misreporting bias (13–15) and are typically only available on an annual time-scale (16).

To overcome the limitations of conventional data to understand the impact of COVID-19, we used satellite imagery of nighttime lights (NTLs) to quantify and categorize country-level responses and recovery pathways. NTL data are independently measured, are available at a fine temporal scale, and are known to be correlated with on-the-ground human activity (both across space and time). NTLs are often used as a proxy for economic activity: for instance, (17) developed a

Significance Statement

Using statistics reported by national governments to study global events can be limited if data reporting standards vary widely across countries. To overcome reporting biases, our study uses satellite images of nighttime lights to measure changes in brightness over time in response to the COVID-19 pandemic, a recent near-global near-simultaneous shock. Adaptation responses to the shock vary, but most countries can be broadly categorized into one of four adaptation pathways based on the severity of the initial response and the speed of recovery. This same approach can be used to study adaptation to other shocks when high resolution data on mortality or economic activity is not available at a global scale.

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125 statistical framework to use NTLs to estimate income growth
126 at the national and sub-national level and (18) found that the
127 correlation between NTLs and economic activity in Sweden
128 is strong enough to make it a good proxy for population
129 and establishment density. In a more recent example, (14)
130 shows that NTLs are strongly correlated with on-the-ground
131 economic activity and this relationship can be used to prove
132 that autocracies, on average, overstate yearly GDP growth by
133 35%. (19) found a significant relationship between a nighttime
134 lights-based inequality indicator and existing estimates of net
135 income inequality; this correlation between light-based and
136 traditional income estimates exists not only across countries,
137 but also on a smaller spatial scale comparing the 50 states
138 within the United States.

139 A number of studies have used NTL to investigate single
140 large-scale events such as natural disasters or civil unrest. For
141 example, the curfew imposed by the Egyptian government on
142 Cairo neighborhoods in response to terrorist attacks and
143 widespread protests led to a drop in NTLs in late-2016
144 and early-2017 (20, 21). Nighttime lights have been used
145 to measure the impacts of events ranging from Hurricanes
146 Katrina (22) and Maria (23) to earthquakes in Nepal and
147 Chile (24).

148 Here we found that the COVID-19 pandemic also had a
149 dramatic affect on NTLs in many parts of the world, akin
150 to a major natural disaster or armed conflict. As a preview
151 of our main results, we show in Figure 1 that a drop in
152 NTLs was clearly detectable in a selection of large cities
153 such as Tokyo, Los Angeles, and Cairo. Each panel in the
154 figure shows the change in NTL from the same quarter in the
155 previous year. In the second quarter of 2020 (April-June),
156 Cairo, LA, and Tokyo are noticeably darker compared to the
157 same time period in 2019. In fact, we find that the majority
158 of countries experienced a dramatic impact on human activity
159 during the COVID-19 pandemic that was visible from space.
160 77% of countries (approx. 86% of the world's population)
161 experienced a reduction in NTLs during the pandemic unlike
162 anything else they experienced during the period 2014-2019
163 (Figure S1).

164 Here, we used country-level NTLs and regression tech-
165 niques to calculate measures of impact and recovery for 170
166 countries. Specifically, for each country we used pre-pandemic
167 NTL data to project NTL trajectories as if the pandemic had
168 never happened. The projected trends in NTLs were then
169 used as baseline to identify different adaptation pathways
170 to the COVID-19 pandemic. We then explored correlational
171 relationships between the drop in NTLs and strategic policy
172 responses across geographical regions and income levels.

173 Other studies have used NTLs to gauge the impacts
174 of the pandemic and consistently observed reductions in
175 NTL luminosity during pandemic periods (25–35). However,
176 our study is the first global-level cross-country comparison
177 contextualizing NTL patterns within the framework of
178 adaptation and resiliency, i.e., the stringency of lockdown
179 policies and the extent of testing, tracing, and vaccination.

180 We found that high-income and most European countries
181 experienced the largest immediate reductions in NTLs
182 whereas low-income and many African countries showed the
183 smallest immediate responses. We also found that the imme-
184 diate reduction in NTLs across regions and income groups was
185 best explained by the stringency of lockdown policies. On the
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187 contrary, health-related policy measures, such as increased
188 testing and contact tracing, were significantly correlated with
189 smaller negative impacts over the long-term.

190 Results

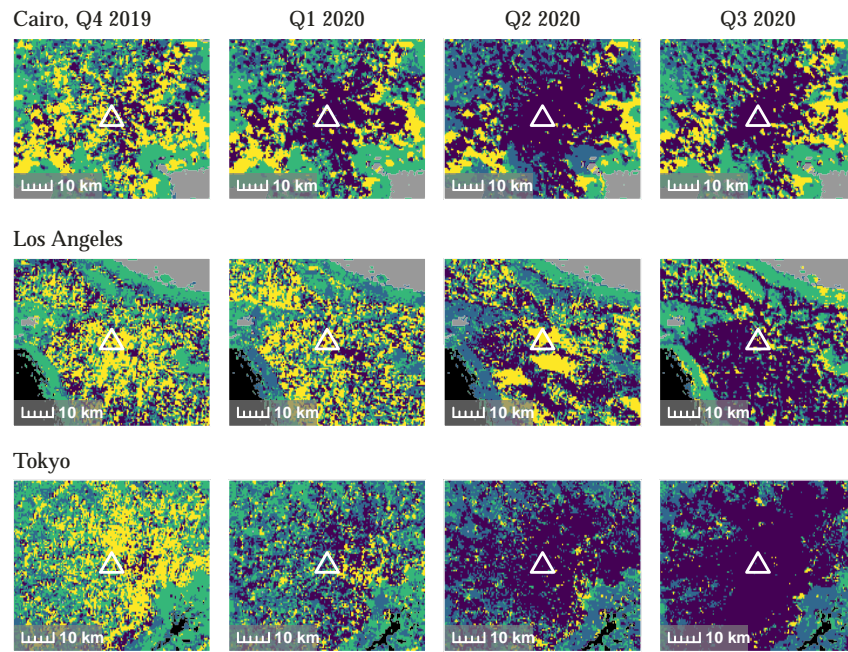
191 We first fit a Weighted Least Squares regression model
192 (Equation 1 in Materials and Methods section) to quarterly
193 NTL values for each country individually, while accounting
194 for cloud cover, satellite sensor re-calibrations in Q1 2017
195 (36), quarterly seasonal effects, and changes in post-pandemic
196 trends. Then, we estimated counterfactual values by removing
197 the pandemic effects on NTL trends from Equation 1. The
198 resulting counterfactual values are essentially a continuation
199 of pre-pandemic trends estimated using Equation 2. Figure
200 2 illustrates how we fit our regression model and calculate
201 impacts for the country of Kenya. In Panel (a), the solid line
202 represents the fitted values estimated by Equation 1. The
203 dashed line represents the projected counterfactual values
204 estimated using Equation 2. We classified countries as fully
205 recovered from the pandemic when their NTL trends returned
206 in line with their counterfactual values, i.e., with the pre-
207 pandemic trend line projected as if the pandemic had never
208 happened. Kenya, for instance, took 10 quarters to fully
209 recover (Quarter 3 of 2022).

210 We calculated the country level magnitude of the pan-
211 demic impact as the difference between observed values and
212 projected counterfactual values, i.e., the distance between
213 the blue points and the dashed line in Figure 2 (b). The
214 red error bars indicate negative values and the blue error
215 bars indicate non-negative values. We calculated three simple
216 measures that summarize response and recovery pathways:
217 immediate impact, first-year impact, and overall impact
218 between the onset of the pandemic and the third quarter
219 in 2023. *Immediate impact* is estimated by the coefficient β_{1i}
220 in equation 1 and is depicted by the purple double-arrow line
221 in Figure 2 (a) and (b), *first-year impact* is the cumulative,
222 net impact in NTLs for all four quarters in 2020 (i.e. the
223 net sum of the first four error bars in Figure 2 (b) starting
224 at $t=0$), and *overall impact* is the cumulative net impact
225 on NTLs from Q1 2020 to Q3 2023 (i.e., the net sum of all
226 the error bars in Figure 2 (b) starting at $t=0$). This process
227 was repeated for each country separately (see *Materials and*
228 *Methods*) for more details).
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231 Categorizing Impact, Adaptation, and Recovery Pathways.

232 We categorize countries using the criteria summarized in Table
233 1. *No Response* countries ($n=38$) like Greece, El Salvador,
234 the Solomon Islands, Iran, and Ghana had non-negative
235 values for both immediate and first-year impact. Affected
236 countries ($n=132$) are countries that experienced a negative
237 impact immediately (Quarter 1 of 2020) or were net negative
238 at the end of 2020. We further classify affected countries
239 into two groups: recovered ($n=97$) and not yet recovered
240 ($n=35$). If a country's fitted trend line never crosses over
241 their projected counterfactual trend line up to Quarter 3
242 of 2023, then they have *not yet recovered*. Some countries
243 that have not yet recovered include Nigeria, the Philippines,
244 Qatar, and Portugal. Countries that *recovered* (e.g. France,
245 Brazil, Egypt, Cameroon, and South Korea) had their fitted
246 trend line cross over the projected counterfactual trend line
247 at some point during the time series. We further classify
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Fig. 1. This figure shows impacts on nighttime lights in select cities. Darker colors (purple and blue) indicate darkening relative to the same quarter in the previous year. Lighter colors (green and yellow) indicate brightening relative to the same quarter in the previous year.

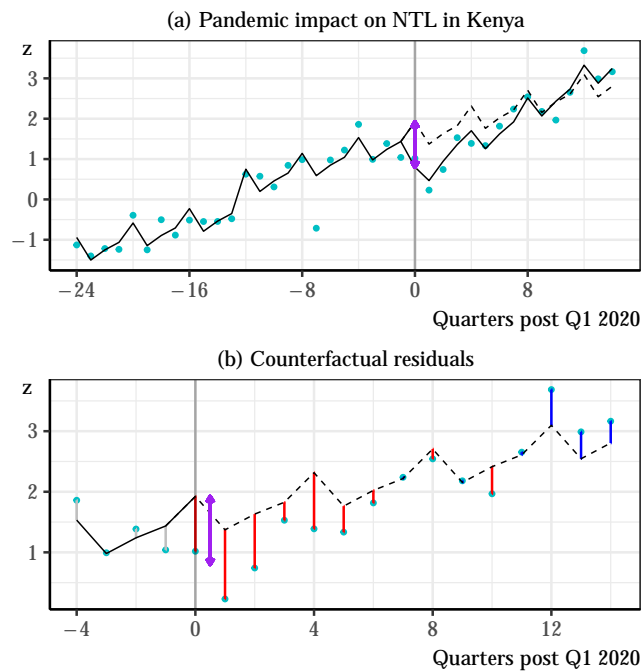


Fig. 2. An example of how impacts are calculated for Kenya. Blue points are the observed values from the NTL data. The solid line shows the fitted values estimated by equation 1. The dashed line shows the counterfactual values estimated by equation 2, i.e., the projected NTL trend as if the COVID-19 pandemic never occurred. Purple lines are the estimated *immediate impact* in the first quarter of the pandemic estimated by 1. Red error bars indicate negative impacts and the blue error bars indicate non-negative impacts on NTLs. Quarter 2 in 2018 was an obvious outlier for Kenya, likely due to heavy flooding that displaced nearly 300,000 people (this also explains why Kenya is one of a small number of countries to have previously experienced an NTL shock larger than the pandemic shock).

recovered countries into two groups: back on track ($n=38$) and built back better ($n=59$). Countries that were *back on track* returned to their counterfactual (i.e., their projected pre-pandemic trend), but had a net negative overall impact. Countries like Fiji, Uruguay, Russia, Egypt, and Japan were back on track as of Quarter 3 of 2023. Countries that *built back better* were initially impacted by the pandemic but, by the end of 2023, they had bounced back *above* the counterfactual, i.e., their projected pre-pandemic trend. These countries include Peru, Iraq, Germany, Mexico, and the Gambia.

Figure 3 shows both pre-pandemic and post-pandemic deviations from trend (error bars shown in Figure 2 Panel (b)) over time for all countries in each category. Post-pandemic impacts start in Quarter 1 2020 ($t=0$) and are calculated as residuals from the projected counterfactual values. We see that No Response countries, like Turkmenistan, tend to exceed their projected counterfactual trend. The autocratic government of Turkmenistan largely denied the existence of COVID-19 within its borders and did not implement large-scale mobility or health-related measures (37).

Compared to No Response countries (Figure 3a, left panel), the impact trajectories of affected countries are noisier. The United States (Figure 3a, right panel) exhibits sustained prolonged negative impacts, perhaps due to the fact that decentralized pandemic responses varied widely across US states (38). Malaysia had not yet recovered back to their projected counterfactual NTL trend by the end of 2023 (Figure 3b, left panel). Compared to the USA, the Malaysian government responded as a centralised authority with the declaration of a Movement Control Order (MOC) (39). This lockdown approach was successful at “flattening the curve” but this was also a time of political instability. The government and prime minister changed

Table 1. Definitions used to categorize countries into No Response, Recovered, or Not Yet Recovered. The entire time series spans 3 years, or 12 quarters

Category	Definition
No Response	No impacts (immediate impact ≥ 0 and first-year impact ≥ 0)
Affected	Negative impacts (immediate impact < 0 or first-year impact < 0)
Affected	
Not yet recovered	Fitted values $<$ projected counterfactual values for the entire time series
Recovered	At least one fitted value \geq projected counterfactual value
Recovered	
Back on track	Overall impact < 0
Built back better	Overall impact ≥ 0

three times in less than 2 years during a time when the government had “unprecedented economic power” (40). The prime minister who led Malaysia during the peak of the

pandemic has subsequently been charged with bribery and money laundering through the government’s COVID fund (41). Both Argentina and Egypt appear to recover and get back on track, possibly due to an early and decisive response. Argentina’s approach included a concerted effort between federal and local governments to administer lockdown policies and public information campaigns (42). Egypt’s economy is one of the few that reported positive economic growth in 2020, possibly due to its extreme but comparatively brief lockdown policy and robust economic interventions (43). India had a slight darkening in 2020 but managed to build back better surpassing its projected counterfactual trend for much of the time series. This is consistent with the “miraculous” containment of the virus early on in the pandemic (44). India was hit especially hard during a second-wave in 2021 but managed to roll-out a massive vaccination drive to bolster recovery (44).

Most of the countries Affected and Recovered groups experienced a significant brightening in the early quarters of 2021 supporting the idea that pent-up economic demand started to offset the initial negative economic impacts of 2020 (45). Many of the countries in the Affected group also seemed to experience another darkening between 2021 and 2022, possibly due to additional waves of infections following viral mutations. While most of the countries that recovered are categorized as Built Back Better, roughly one-third of all countries are Back on Track but have not fully offset the impact of the pandemic. A full list of countries and their adaptation pathway category are provided in Table S1.

Policy responses and impact measures. We used country level variation in our three measures of impact and recovery (i.e., *Immediate*, *First-year*, and *Overall* impact) to explore the relationships between adaptation responses and outcomes across geographical regions and levels of economic development. Our baseline estimates were derived by regressing the three impact measures on categorical variables for income level and geographic region, separately. We then sequentially added controls for types of policy response (i.e., lockdown *vs.* health-related) to investigate how accounting for policy response might affect the baseline estimates. We used the lockdown Stringency Index and of the Containment and Health Index by Oxford COVID-19 Government Response Tracker (46) to summarize the intensity of lockdown and national health policies, which are

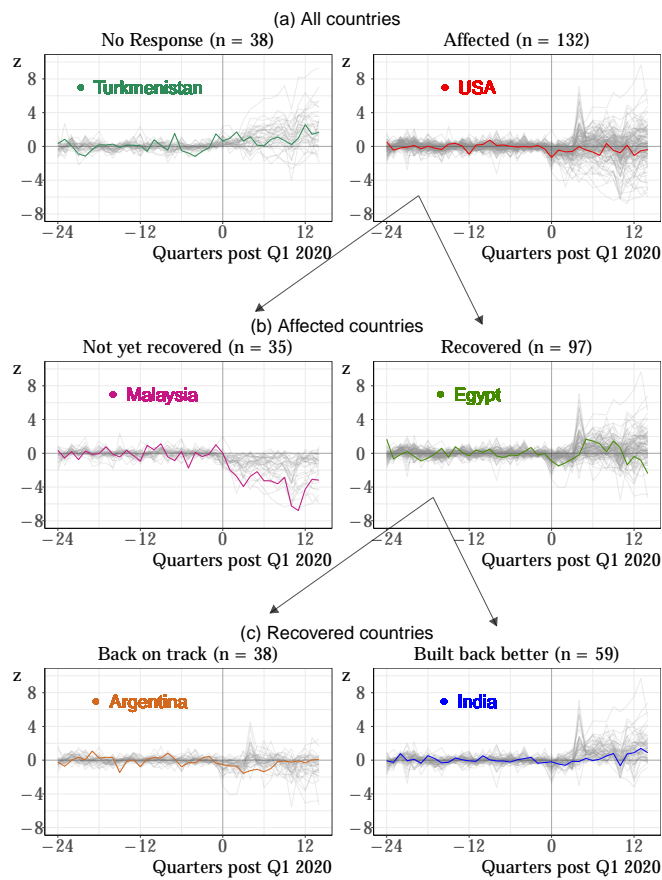


Fig. 3. Quarterly residuals (i.e., the error bars in figure 2 (b)) on the y-axis and time on the x-axis. In the pre-pandemic period (left of the vertical line at $t = 0$), a value of zero on the y-axis means that the observed value is equal to the fitted value for that quarter. In the post-pandemic period (right of the vertical line at $t = 0$), a value of zero on the y-axis means that the observed value is equal to the projected counterfactual value. A country was considered impacted by the pandemic if its NTLs dropped below the projected counterfactual at the onset of the pandemic (right panel a). Impacted countries might have not recovered back to the projected counterfactual by the end of the pandemic (left panel b). Those that recovered (right panel b), either went back in line with pre-pandemic projections (left panel c), or even exceed them (right panel c).

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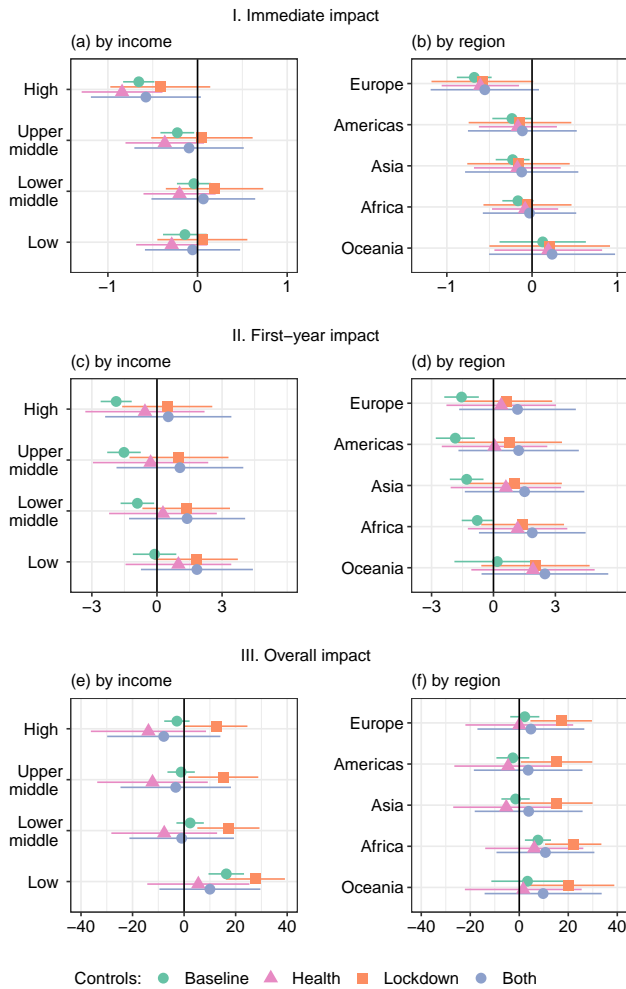


Fig. 4. Coefficients estimated using Equation 1. The outcome variables (immediate, first-year, overall) are our estimated country-level impacts. Baseline estimates control for World Bank income group in panel (a), geographical region in panel (b), and do not include any additional controls. Adaptation controls (health and lockdown) control for intensity of each policy type and are derived from indices sourced from OxGRT (46). Policies are averages of daily values for the relevant policy period. For immediate impact, this period is Q1 2020. For first-year impact, the period is Q1 2020 - Q4 2020. For overall impact, the period is Q1 2021 - Q2 2021.

available as daily values. We calculated averages of these daily values over the appropriate time periods for each of the three impact measures (Figure 4).

We found that high and upper-middle income countries exhibited the largest immediate NTL drop (see Baseline coefficients), equivalent to 0.5 standard deviations from the pre-pandemic mean NTL level (4a). In other words, NTLs in high income countries were immediately impacted by the pandemic more than lower income countries. The negative impact in the high income group was mostly driven by European countries (4b). Therefore, high-income, mostly European countries exhibited the largest decreases in luminosity at the beginning of the pandemic.

When controlling for the stringency of lockdown policies in the first Quarter of 2020, the immediate impact for high-income countries was not statistically significant from zero at the 95% confidence level (Figure 4 Panel (a)). This suggests that the large NTL response observed in high-

income countries during this quarter was associated with more stringent lockdown policies. The same pattern holds for Upper middle income countries, also suggesting that the observed reduction in nighttime lights is explained by the stringency of lockdown policies in Quarter 1 of 2020. As an alternative to Figure 4, Table S2 presents regression results where we control for income level (or region), lockdown, and health-related policies. We observe weak evidence that lockdowns are correlated with a reduction in NTL whereas health policies are correlated with an increase in NTL (during the first quarter of 2020).

First-year impacts ((c) and (d)) seem to be more widespread than immediate impacts (note the change in scale on the horizontal axis, measured as cumulative net standard deviations from pre-pandemic means). The baseline estimates for the income group regressions show that countries in high, upper-middle, and lower-middle income groups all exhibited significant negative impacts during the first year of the pandemic. Thus, for the majority of countries, the COVID-19 pandemic is associated with large-scale changes in human behavior that are observable from space. Again, high-income countries had the largest reductions with quarterly luminosity being roughly 1.6 standard deviations lower than the projected counterfactual, on average. Regional estimates show that countries in the Americas have slightly larger negative impacts than other regions. However, controlling for the intensity of response turns all first-year impact estimates positive across income groups and geographical regions. This is additional evidence that much of the drop in NTLs during 2020 was driven by lockdown policies. This negative correlation between lockdown stringency and NTL impacts in the first year of the pandemic is further supported by results from fixed effects regressions presented in Table S3.

Overall impacts (up to Quarter 3 of 2023) highlight different effects for different adaptation responses. Baseline estimates suggest that low-income countries had non-negative overall impacts, mostly driven by countries in Africa. In other words, NTL luminosity in these countries was unaffected by the pandemic. When we control for the stringency of lockdown policy, overall impacts turn positive in all regressions. However, when we control for the intensity of health-related policy (i.e., contact tracing, testing, and vaccination), overall impacts become slightly more negative. This suggests that countries with more stringent lockdowns during 2021 are associated with larger NTL reductions (less economic activity) and countries with more health-focused policy responses during 2021 are associated with minimal reductions in NTL (sustained economic activity).

This finding is echoed in Figure 5. This figure shows average overall impacts for countries falling above and below average levels of policy intensity. We see that countries with above average lockdown intensity tend to have larger reductions in NTL. In general, countries with more muted policy responses seem to have maintained or increased luminosity during the pandemic. The exception is countries that had (i) health policies above average intensity and (ii) lockdowns below average intensity. These countries exhibit the largest NTL growth over this period, suggesting that their economies continued to grow as would have been expected (or exceeded expectations). Overall, these results suggest

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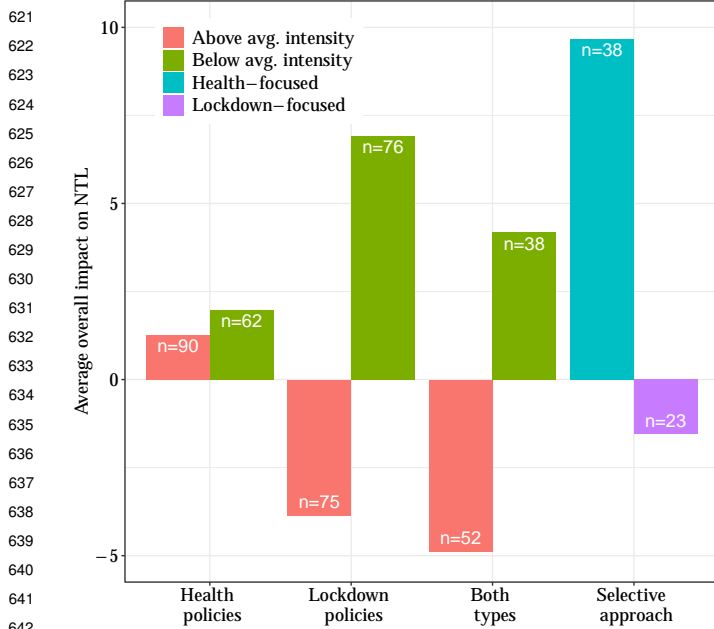


Fig. 5. Overall impacts for countries falling above or below the average policy intensity for a certain type or mix of adaptation responses. The x-axis shows the specific policy type or combination. *Both* considers the average overall impact of countries with both policies above or below the average intensity for that policy. *Selective* shows the average overall impact when one policy type was above the average intensity and the other policy type was below the average intensity, e.g. Health-focused means above average health policy intensity combined with below average lockdown policy intensity.

that countries that prioritized health-related policies over lockdown adapted to the pandemic better than countries that prioritized lockdown over health-related policies. These interpretations are supported by results from fixed effects regressions presented in Table S3. Additional results that also explore the use of economic support policies and official reports of infection rates are shown in Figure S2. There are no obvious patterns across income groups or geographical regions.

Comparison to GDP-based Categories. How do our results compare to those that would be obtained using national GDP statistics? Here we highlight countries that were “unaffected” by the pandemic if we use our methodology and nationally-reported GDP statistics but “affected” if we use NTLs: Belarus, Benin, Brunei, Burundi, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Republic of Congo, and Sierra Leone. Note that these are countries classified as authoritarian or “Not Free” by Freedom House. In Figure 6, we show three examples of how these countries appear to have been negatively impacted in terms of NTL.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study shows that 77% of countries experienced a significant darkening during the first year of the COVID-19 pandemic. Of those countries that exhibit a NTL response, 73% recovered to their counterfactual trend by Quarter 3 of 2023. Out of the countries that recovered, 60% fully recovered all the luminosity “lost” during the pandemic. The variation in lockdown policies explains much of the

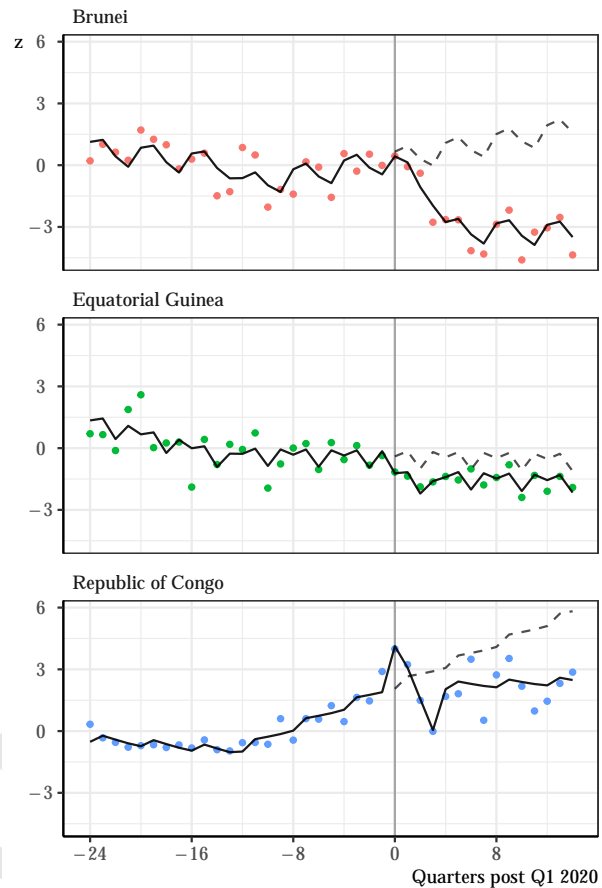


Fig. 6. Quarterly nighttime lights for three different countries: Brunei, Equatorial Guinea, Republic of Congo (actual NTL data shown as points with fitted trend line in black, projected counterfactual trend post Q1 2020 is shown as a dashed line). According to national GDP statistics, all three countries reported positive economic growth from 2020-2023.

reduction in luminosity experienced across income groups and geographic regions. These findings are consistent with a separate study exploring the effect of lockdown policies on luminosity in large cities (34). That study focuses on the four weeks before and after a lockdown and we show that this effect persists when we expand the spatial scale and time horizon. Increased focus on health-related policies (i.e., contact tracing and testing) as an adaptation response seems to have a converse relationship with nighttime lights, allowing the lights to “stay on” with lower overall impacts.

There are, of course, caveats and limitations in using nighttime lights to infer responses to and recovery from any event, including the COVID-19 pandemic. The use of artificial light at night is not a perfect indicator of on-the-ground economic activity: businesses might close down but keep their lights on, conversely, less activity at night might be offset by increased economic activity during the day. In spite of these limitations, our study shows that large-scale changes in human behavior occurred during the COVID-19 pandemic were detectable from space by tracking NTLs. Our findings also suggest that both existing adaptive capacity and real-time decision-making mattered. High income countries had more capacity to implement large-scale responses like country-wide lockdown. But, even within lower-income nations, policy

745 responses appeared to mitigate the economic impacts of the
 746 pandemic. Across income groups, strict health measures
 747 combined with less stringent mobility controls appeared to
 748 minimize the economic impacts of the pandemic. Therefore,
 749 a lack of adaptive capacity can be offset by well-informed
 750 policy-making.

752 Materials and Methods

754 **Nighttime lights.** Nighttime lights data come from the monthly
 755 cloud-free composites collected by the NASA/NOAA Suomi
 756 National Polar-orbiting Partnership (SNPP) Visible Infrared
 757 Imaging Radiometer Suite (VIIRS) day-night band (DNB) and
 758 processed by the Earth Observation Group (EOG), based at the
 759 Colorado School of Mines in the USA. The monthly composites
 760 are averaged nightly pixel values that are free of sunlight, moonlight,
 761 and clouds (47). The EOG also provides annual masks which zero
 762 out noisy background pixels and pixels with low luminosity values
 763 (47). We apply the 2021 EOG V.2 mask to all months from 2021
 764 to 2023 because the EOG does not yet provide V.2 masks after
 765 2021. Furthermore, the data we use has undergone a correction
 766 for stray-light which allows for more data coverage toward the
 767 poles by extrapolating the pixels most affected by stray-light (48).
 768 After this initial processing, we sum the monthly values across all
 769 pixels within each country to calculate country-level total monthly
 770 luminosity. Then, we average the monthly values for each quarter
 771 to obtain quarterly NTL values.

772 **Counterfactual trend, impacts, and recovery.** We fit a linear
 773 regression to quarterly NTL while accounting for satellite sensor
 774 calibrations in Q1 2017 (36), seasonality in NTL levels, and
 775 potential pandemic impacts. Our goal was to quantify the
 776 immediate, first-year, and overall impacts on NTL luminosity
 777 during the pandemic. Equation 1 shows our main regression model.
 778 All regressions included quarter-of-year fixed effects to account for
 779 seasonality (coefficient λ_q) and weights for the average number
 780 of cloud-free days in each quarter. Therefore, we put less weight
 781 on quarters with more cloudy days. We used a dummy variable
 782 $pre2017$, set to 1 for all quarters before the year 2017 (the year of
 783 the sensor recalibration). We included the interaction between this
 784 dummy variable and time trend t to control for sensor calibrations
 785 in Q1 2017 (α_{2i}) and allow for this calibration to change the
 786 underlying linear time trend (α_{3i}). The dummy variable $covid$
 787 was set to 1 for all quarters in 2020 and allowed us to estimate
 788 the pandemic's initial shock (β_{1i}). We included the interaction
 789 between this dummy variable with the time trend t to estimate
 790 the change in the linear time trend during the first year of the
 791 pandemic (β_{2i}). The dummy variable $vaccine$ was set to 1 for
 792 all quarters after the introduction of vaccines (2021 and onward).
 793 We used this dummy to estimate immediate (γ_{1i}) and changes in
 794 the linear (γ_{2i}) time trend after the development of the vaccine
 795 starting in Q1 2021.

796 The counterfactual values \hat{y}_{ti}^c were estimated by removing the
 797 pandemic effects $\hat{\beta}_{1i}$, $\hat{\beta}_{2i}$, $\hat{\gamma}_{1i}$, and $\hat{\gamma}_{2i}$ estimated by equation 1.
 798 This left only the long-term linear time trend $\hat{\alpha}_{1i}$, and seasonal
 799 effects $\hat{\lambda}_q$, while controlling for sensor calibration effects beginning
 800 in 2017 ($\hat{\alpha}_{2i}$ and $\hat{\alpha}_{3i}$). Equation 2 shows how we estimated the
 801 counterfactual values using the parameters $\hat{\alpha}_{1i}$, $\hat{\alpha}_{2i}$, $\hat{\alpha}_{3i}$, and $\hat{\lambda}_q$
 802 from Equation 1.

803 Impacts were then calculated as follows. *Immediate impact*
 804 for country i was estimated by the coefficient β_{1i} in equation 1,
 805 in other words, the change in intercept due to the onset of the
 806 pandemic. *First-year impact* was the sum of the impacts ($\hat{y}_{ti}^c - y_{ti}$)
 for the four quarters of 2020. *Overall impact* was the sum of the
 impacts ($\hat{y}_{ti}^c - y_{ti}$) from Q1 2020 to Q3 2023. See Figure 2 for a
 more visual explanation of these calculations.

807 **Policy responses and impact measures.** We investigated how
 808 country-level policy responses correlate with variation in impacts
 809 across geographical regions and income groups. First, we estimate
 810 Equation 3 for World Bank income groups and Equation 4 for
 811 geographical regions. The outcome variable Y_i is one of three

$$751 \quad y_{ti} = \alpha_{1i}t + \alpha_{2i} \text{recalibration}_t + \alpha_{3i}(\text{recalibration}_t \times t) + \beta_{1i} \text{covid}_t + \beta_{2i}(\text{covid}_t \times t) + \gamma_{1i} \text{vaccine}_t + \gamma_{2i}(\text{vaccine}_t \times t) + \lambda_q + \epsilon_{ti} \quad [1]$$

$$752 \quad \hat{y}_{ti}^c = \hat{\alpha}_{1i}t + \hat{\alpha}_{2i} \text{pre2017}_t + \hat{\alpha}_{3i}(\text{pre2017}_t \times t) + \hat{\lambda}_q \quad [2]$$

country-level impact measures defined in the previous section
 that capture income and recovery of NTLs (*immediate*, *first-*
year, and *overall*). The estimated coefficients give us the average
 country-level impact on NTLs within each income group and
 geographical location. These serve as our baseline estimates.
 Then, we sequentially add controls for policy responses (*health*
 and *lockdown*) to see how they change the baseline estimates.
 All policy response indices are the average daily value during
 the relevant "policy" time period. For *immediate impact*, the
 relevant policy period is the first quarter of 2020. For *first-year*
impact, the relevant policy period is the entire year of 2020. For
overall impact, the policy period is 2021 since many countries had
 returned to normalcy by 2022. Our policy variables come from
 the Oxford COVID-19 Government Response Tracker (OxGRT)
 which provides information on pandemic response measures (46).
 They use this information to construct indices with larger values
 indicating larger responses. Lockdown stringency is provided
 directly by OxGRT which they refer to as the stringency index.
 The health policy index is constructed using OxGRT methods and
 data(46).

$$812 \quad Y_i = \delta_1 \text{high}_i + \delta_2 \text{upper-middle}_i + \delta_3 \text{lower-middle}_i + \delta_4 \text{low}_i + \mu_i \quad [3]$$

$$813 \quad Y_i = \theta_1 \text{Europe}_i + \theta_2 \text{Americas}_i + \theta_3 \text{Asia}_i + \theta_4 \text{Africa}_i + \theta_4 \text{Oceania}_i + v_i \quad [4]$$

814 **GDP Comparisons.** We measured impacts on annual GDP using
 815 the same technique we used for quarterly NTL. Because there is
 816 a lag in the release of national GDP statistics, we restrict the
 817 sample period to run from 2014 to 2021. Note that when we
 818 compare results obtained using annual GDP to those obtained
 819 using quarterly NTL we also restrict the quarterly NTL dataset
 820 to the time period 2014-2021.

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