



# A methodology to constrain carbon dioxide emissions from coal-fired

# power plants using satellite observations of co-emitted nitrogen

# 3 dioxide

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- 14 **Abstract.** We present a novel method to infer CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from individual power plants based on satellite observations of
- 15 co-emitted nitrogen dioxide (NO2) and demonstrate its utility on US power plants, where accurate stack emission estimates
- of both gases are available for comparison. In the first step of our methodology, we infer nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>) emissions
- 17 from isolated power plants using Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) NO<sub>2</sub> tropospheric vertical column densities (VCDs)
- 18 averaged over the ozone season (May-September) and a "top-down" approach that we previously developed. Second, we
- 19 determine the relationship between NO<sub>x</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions based on the direct stack emissions measurements reported by
- 20 continuous emissions monitoring system (CEMS) programs, accounting for coal type, boiler firing type, NO<sub>x</sub> emission
- 21 control device type, and changes in operating conditions. Third, we estimate CO<sub>2</sub> emissions of the ozone season for a plant
- 22 using the OMI-estimated NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and the CEMS NO<sub>x</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub> emission ratio. We find that the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions estimated
- 23 by our satellite-based method during 2005–2017 are in reasonable agreement with the CEMS measurements, with a relative
- 24 difference of 8% ±41% (mean ± standard deviation) for the selected US power plants in our analysis. Total uncertainty in
- 25 the inferred CO<sub>2</sub> estimates is partly associated with the uncertainty associated with the OMI NO<sub>2</sub> VCD data, so we expect
- 26 that it will decrease when our method is applied to OMI-like sensors with improved capabilities, such as TROPOspheric
- 27 Monitoring Instrument (TROPOMI) and geostationary Tropospheric Emissions: Monitoring Pollution (TEMPO). The
- 28 broader implication of our methodology is that it has the potential to provide an additional constraint on CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from
- 29 power plants in regions of the world without reliable emissions accounting. We explore the feasibility by applying our
- 30 methodology to a power plant in South Africa, where the satellite-based emission estimates show reasonable consistency
- 31 with other estimates.

#### 1 Introduction

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- 33 Thermal power plants, particularly coal-fired power plants, are among the largest anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emitters, contributing
- 34 ~40% of energy-related CO<sub>2</sub> emissions globally in 2010 (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2017). Coal-fired power plants are
- 35 expected to be one of the primary contributors of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in the coming decades because of abundant world coal
- 36 reserves (Shindell and Faluvegi, 2010). Therefore, it is important to accurately monitor global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from power
- 37 production in order to better predict climate change (Shindell and Faluvegi, 2010) and to support the development of
- 38 effective climate mitigation strategies.
- 39 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from power plants are typically quantified based on bottom-up approaches using fuel consumption and fuel
- 40 quality, though fuel properties are not always well known, resulting in uncertainties in the estimated CO<sub>2</sub> emissions for



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1 individual plants (Wheeler and Ummel, 2008). Even for US power plants that are considered to have the most accurate 2 information on fuel usage among world nations, the difference between emissions estimated based on fuel usage and those 3 reported as part of continuous emissions monitoring systems (CEMS) programs is typically about 20% (Ackermann and 4 Sundquist, 2008). Thus, emission estimates based on independent data sources such as satellite observations are a desirable 5 complement to validate and improve the current CO<sub>2</sub> emissions inventories, especially in countries without CEMS data, 6 which is the case in most of the world. 7 Anthropogenic CO2 emissions have been estimated from space-based CO2 observations, but the existing satellite CO2 8 sensors are designed to provide constraints on natural CO<sub>2</sub> sources and sinks (Basu et al., 2013; Houweling et al, 2015), and 9 thus their capability for monitoring anthropogenic point sources is limited (Nassar et al., 2017). Observations from sensors, 10 including the Scanning Imaging Absorption Spectrometer for Atmospheric Chartography (SCIAMACHY; Burrows et al., 11 1995), Greenhouse gases Observing SATellite (GOSAT; Yokota et al., 2009), and Orbiting Carbon Observatory-2 (OCO-2; 12 Crisp et al., 2015), show statistically significant enhancements over metropolitan regions (Kort et al., 2012; Schneising et al., 13 2013; Janardanan et al., 2016; Buchwitz et al., 2018; Reuter et al., 2019). However, very few studies have focused on 14 individual point sources. Bovensmann et al. (2010) and Velazco et al. (2011) presented a promising satellite remote sensing 15 concept to infer CO<sub>2</sub> emissions for power plants based on the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> column distribution. Nassar et al. (2017) and Reuter et al. (2019) presented the only quantification of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from individual power plants using OCO-2 16 17 observations. However, due to the narrow swath of the OCO-2 sensor, their method cannot be currently applied to generate a 18 global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions database. 19 In contrast to CO<sub>2</sub>, inferring NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from individual power plants using satellite NO<sub>2</sub> column retrievals has been done with a higher degree of confidence (e.g., Duncan et al., 2013; de Foy et al., 2015). The Dutch-Finnish Ozone 20 Monitoring Instrument (OMI) on NASA's Earth Observing System Aura spacecraft (Schoeberl et al., 2006) provides daily, 21 22 global NO<sub>2</sub> tropospheric vertical column densities (VCDs) at a spatial resolution of 13×24 km<sup>2</sup> (at nadir) (Levelt et al., 2006; 23 2018; Krotkov et al., 2017), which allows emission signals from individual power plants to be resolved. Beirle et al. (2011) 24 first analyzed isolated large sources (i.e., megacities and the US Four Corners power plant) by averaging OMI NO2 25 tropospheric VCDs separately for different wind directions, which allows to determine NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and lifetimes by 26 fitting an exponentially modified Gaussian function. Several follow-up studies (e.g., de Foy et al., 2015; Lu et al., 2015 and 27 Goldberg et al., 2019) further developed this approach and inferred NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from isolated power plants and cities. 28 More recently, we advanced this approach for sources located in polluted areas to infer NO<sub>x</sub> emissions for 17 power plants 29 and 53 cities across China and the US (Liu et al., 2016; 2017). 30 Since NO<sub>x</sub> is co-emitted with CO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub> emissions inferred from satellite data may be used to estimate CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from 31 thermal power plants. Previous analyses estimated regional CO<sub>2</sub> emissions based on satellite-derived NO<sub>8</sub> emissions and the 32 NO<sub>x</sub> to CO<sub>2</sub> emission ratios from bottom-up emission inventories (Berezin et al., 2013; Konovalov et al., 2016) or co-located 33 satellite retrievals of CO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> (Reuter et al., 2014). Hakkarainen et al. (2016) confirmed the spatial correlation between 34 CO2 spatial anomalies and OMI NO2 VCD enhancements at the regional scale using satellite observations at higher 35 resolution. More recently, the co-located regional enhancements of CO2 observed by OCO-2 and NO2 observed by

In this study, we present a novel method to estimate CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from individual power plants using OMI NO<sub>2</sub>

observations and auxiliary CEMS information on NO<sub>x</sub> to CO<sub>2</sub> emission ratios. We apply our approach to US power plants,

which have an exceptionally detailed CEMS database, in order to validate our method. We discuss the uncertainties and

limitations of our approach. Finally, we present the application of our method to power plants in South Africa. We discuss

other potential applications in conclusion, including to other NO<sub>2</sub> datasets from new and upcoming satellite instruments.

TROPOMI were analysed to monitor localized CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (Reuter et al., 2019).



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#### 2 Method 1

- In this section, we present a novel method to infer  $CO_2$  emissions ( $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$ ) from satellite-derived  $NO_x$  emissions ( $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$ ) for 2
- 3 individual coal-fired power plants using the following equation:

$$4 E_{CO_2,y}^{Sat} = \frac{E_{NO_{x,y}}^{Sat}}{ratio_{i,j}^{CEMS}}, (1)$$

- 5 where i represents coal type and y represents the target year. We demonstrate our method on US power plants since there are
- accurate CEMS stack measurements of  $NO_x$  and  $CO_2$  emissions with which to validate  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$ . In Section 2.1, we describe 6
- how to estimate  $E_{NO_X}^{Sat}$  from OMI NO<sub>2</sub> tropospheric VCD observations. In Section 2.2, we discuss how to estimate the ratio of 7
- $NO_x$  to  $CO_2$  emissions ( $ratio_y^{CEMS} = E_{NO_x,y}^{CEMS} / E_{CO_2,y}^{CEMS}$ ) from CEMS stack measurements in the US Emissions & Generation 8
- 9 Resource Integrated Database (eGRID; USEPA, 2018). Since post-combustion NO<sub>x</sub> control systems, including selective
- noncatalytic reduction (SNCR) and selective catalytic reduction (SCR), change the correlation between  $E_{OO_x}^{CEMS}$  and  $E_{CO_x}^{CEMS}$ 10
- we present separate methods to determine ratio<sup>CEMS</sup> for power plants without and with post-combustion NO<sub>x</sub> control 11
- 12 systems in Section 2.2.1 and Section 2.2.2, respectively. We discuss the validation of the estimated  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$  in Section 3.

#### 2.1 Estimating satellite-derived NO<sub>x</sub> emissions ( $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$ ) 13

From all US coal-fired power plants, we selected 21 power plants for estimating  $E_{NO_T}^{Sat}$ . We chose these plants based on 14

 $E_{NO_{\gamma}}^{CEMS}$  (i.e., > 10 Gg/yr in 2005) and relative isolation from other large sources and relative isolation from other large

16 sources to avoid contamination of a power plant's NO<sub>x</sub> plumes by NO<sub>x</sub> from other sources. Power plants located in urban

areas (i.e., within a radius of 100 km from city centers), or clustered in close proximity (i.e., 50 km) with other large 17

18 industrial plants are excluded by visual inspection satellite imagery from Google Earth. The top 200 largest US cities (rank

19 by 2018 population estimated by the United States Census Bureau, available

20 https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List\_of\_United\_States\_cities\_by\_population) are used to select power plants.As discussed

21 below, we are able to estimate  $E_{NO}^{Sat}$  for 8 of the 21 plants. The locations of the 8 plants are shown in Figure 5.

We follow the method of Liu et al. (2016; 2017) to estimate  $E_{NO_T}^{SOC}$  for 2005 to 2017. In our analysis, we use OMI NO<sub>2</sub> 22

23 tropospheric VCDs from the NASA OMI standard product, version 3.1 (Krotkov et al., 2017) together with meteorological

24 wind information from the Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for Research and Applications, version 2 (MERRA-2; Gelaro

et al., 2017). We only analyze the ozone season (May-September), in order to exclude winter data, which have larger

25 uncertainties and longer NO<sub>x</sub> lifetime. As in our previous study (Liu et al., 2017), we use the changes of VCDs under calm 26

wind conditions (wind speed < 2 m/s below 500 m) and windy conditions (wind speed > 2 m/s) to fit the effective  $NO_x$ 27

28 lifetime. We then estimate the average NO2 total mass integrated around a power plant on the basis of the 3-year mean

29 VCDs, in agreement with previous studies (Fioletov et al., 2011; Lu et al., 2015). The NO<sub>2</sub> total mass is scaled by a factor of

1.32 in order to derive total NO<sub>x</sub> mass following Beirle et al. (2011). The NO/NO<sub>2</sub> ratio might differ locally in plumes, but

the influence is not expected to be dramatic on the scales of the OMI footprint (at least 13 km×24 km), considering the

32 overpass time of OMI close to noon, the selection of cloud-free observations, and the focus on the ozone season and polluted

33 regions with generally high tropospheric ozone. The uncertainty associated with the NO/NO2 ratio has been discussed in

detail in Section 3 of the supplement in Liu et al. (2016). The 3-year average  $E_{NOx}^{Sat}$  is derived from the corresponding 3-year

average NO<sub>x</sub> mass divided by the average NO<sub>x</sub> lifetime of the entire study period (Liu et al., 2017). Fitting results of

insufficient quality (e.g., correlation coefficient of the fitted and observed NO2 distributions <0.9) are excluded from this

37 analysis, consistent with the criteria in Section 2.2 of Liu et al. (2016). This final filtering leaves 18 power plants, of which 8





- 1 have valid results for all consecutive 3-year periods between 2005 and 2017. More details of the approach are documented in
- 2 Liu et al. (2017).
- 3 We use the Rockport power plant (37.9 \, \text{N}, 87.0 \, \text{W}) in Indiana to demonstrate our approach. This power plant is particularly
- 4 well suited for estimating  $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$  because it is a large and isolated NO<sub>x</sub> point source. Figure 1 displays  $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$  based on 3-year
- 5 mean VCDs. For simplicity, the 3-year period is represented by the middle year with an asterisk (e.g., 2006\* denotes the
- 6 period from 2005 to 2007). For comparison to  $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$ ,  $E_{NO_x}^{CEMS}$  averaged over the period of May to September is derived from
- 7 Air Markets Program Data (available at https://ampd.epa.gov/ampd/). For this particular plant,  $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$  and  $E_{NO_x}^{CEMS}$  show
- 8 positive biases (of varying magnitude) during the entire period, except the last two years. The coefficient of determination
- 9 for the entire period is  $R^2$ =0.68. The relative differences for individual 3-year means (defined as  $(E_{NO_X}^{Sat} E_{NO_X}^{CEMS})/E_{NO_X}^{CEMS})$
- range from -20% to 41%, because of the uncertainties of  $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$  as discussed in Section 3.2. Both datasets present a declining
- trend from 2012\*. The total declines of 45% and 26% since 2012\* in  $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$  and  $E_{NO_x}^{CEMS}$  are attributed to the 25% decrease in
- net electricity generation for the plant. The average relative difference of  $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$  and  $E_{NO_x}^{CEMS}$  for the 8 plants in this study is 0%
- $\pm$  33%, ranging from -58% to 72% for individual 3-year periods (Figure 5).

# 2.2 Estimating NO<sub>x</sub> to CO<sub>2</sub> emission ratios using CEMS data (ratio<sup>CEMS</sup>)

- We determine the observed relationship between  $E_{NO_X}^{CEMS}$  and  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$  for coal-fired power plants using eGRID information
- about each plant's net electric generation, boiler firing types (e.g., tangential or wall-fired boiler), NO<sub>x</sub> control device type,
- 17 fossil fuel type (with categories of coal, oil, gas and other), and coal type (with categories of bituminous, lignite,
- 18 subbituminous, refined and waste coal). We only use data of power plants with more than 99% of the fuel burned being coal
- 19 as reported in eGRID. We analyze the relationship between  $E_{NO_X}^{CEMS}$  and  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$  by coal type, as emission characteristics vary
- widely by coal type.

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- 21 eGRID includes two sets of emission data for NO<sub>x</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>: 1) calculated from fuel consumption data and 2) observed by
- stack monitoring (i.e.,  $E_{NO_x}^{CEMS}$  and  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$ ). Here we focus on eGRID CEMS data as  $E_{NO_x}^{CEMS}$  are reported to be highly accurate
- 23 with an error of less than 5% (e.g., Glenn et al., 2003).  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$  may have larger uncertainties than fuel-based emissions
- estimates due to uncertainties in the calculation of flue gas flow (Majanne et al., 2015). Nevertheless, we use  $E_{CO}^{CEMS}$  to relate
- NO<sub>x</sub> emissions to CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, since the primary uncertainty of  $E_{NO_x}^{CEMS}$  and  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$  arises from the calculation of the flue
- 26 gas flow, which will cancel in *ratio*<sup>CEMS</sup>.

## 2.2.1 Coal-fired power plants without post-combustion NO<sub>x</sub> control systems

- We first limited our analysis to  $E_{NO_x}^{CEMS}$  and  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$  from coal-fired power plants without post-combustion NO<sub>x</sub> control systems
- 29 in operation in a given year (Table 1). We find that  $E_{NO_x}^{CEMS}$  and  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$  have a strong linear relationship (Figure 2). In Figure
- 2a, we compare  $E_{NO_x}^{CEMS}$  and  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$  from power plants (using bituminous coal) by boiler firing type in 2005. We use
- 31 bituminous coal-fired plants for illustration, as bituminous coal is the most widely used coal in US power plants. We analyze
- 32 power plants that use cyclone or cell burner boilers separately and exclude them in Figure 2 because they typically produce
- 33 higher NO<sub>x</sub> emissions than other boiler types (USEPA, 2009; available a
- 34 https://www3.epa.gov/ttn/chief/ap42/ch01/index.html). A strong linear relationship between  $E_{NO_x}^{CEMS}$  and  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$  is evident with
- 35 excellent correlation ( $R^2 = 0.93$ , N = 278), regardless of boiler firing types. Similar linear relationships exist for other years
- 36 (e.g., year 2016 in Figure 2b) and other types of coal (Table 1). The slope of the regression of  $E_{NO_x}^{CEMS}$  and  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$
- 37 ratio\_regressed, is assumed by setting the intercept to zero. Table 1 shows ratio\_regressed,i,y by coal type and year.





- 1  $ratio_{regressed,i,y}^{CEMS}$  will be applied to approximate  $ratio_{i,y}^{CEMS}$  when estimating  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$  from  $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$  for the 8 plants in Section 2.1
- 2 for years before post-combustion control systems were in operation.
- 3 ratio CEMS for power plants using bituminous coal decreased from 2005 (Figure 2a) to 2016 (Figure 2b) by 31% on
- 4 average because of reductions in NO<sub>x</sub> emission factors associated with improvements in boiler operations, such as by
- 5 optimizing furnace design and operating conditions. The NO<sub>x</sub> emissions factors, defined as NO<sub>x</sub> emission rates per net
- 6 electricity generation (Gg/TW h) declined by 33% from 2005 to 2016 (Figure 2c). We interpolate ratio CEMS to get year-
- 7 specific ratios by coal type for the entire study period, as eGRID data are only available for some years (i.e., 2005, 2007,
- 8 2009, 2010, 2012, 2014 and 2016).
- 9 In addition,  $ratio_{regressed}^{CEMS}$  shows significant variation by coal type and year (Figure 3).  $ratio_{regressed}^{CEMS}$  is 1.7, 1.3 and 0.91 Gg
- 10 NO<sub>x</sub>/Tg CO<sub>2</sub> for bituminous, subbituminous and lignite coal in 2005, respectively. A reduction over time in ratio<sub>rearressed</sub> is
- observed for all coal types (Figure 3). *ratio* displays a large decrease of 31%, 36% and 20% from 2005 to 2016 for
- 12 bituminous, subbituminous, and lignite coal, respectively.

#### 13 2.2.2 Coal-fired power plants with post-combustion NO<sub>x</sub> control systems

- 14 Here, we describe how we create continuous and consistent records of ratio CEMS for the entire study period for plants that
- 15 had post-combustion NO<sub>x</sub> control systems installed at some time during our study period, 2005–2017. The estimation is
- based on ratio CEMS derived in Section 2.2.1 for plants without post-combustion control systems in operation. We
- introduce a  $NO_x$  removal efficiency parameter, f, to adjust  $ratio_{regressed}^{CEMS}$  for years after the installation of post-combustion
- 18 control systems, ratio CEMS-Estimated:

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$$ratio_{i,y}^{CEMS-Estimated} = ratio_{regressed,i,y}^{CEMS} \times (1 - f_y)$$
, (2)

- 20 f is commonly measured for individual power plants to describe the performance of their post-combustion NO<sub>x</sub> control
- 21 systems. It is directly reported by some power plant databases, such as the China coal-fired Power plant Emissions Database
- 22 (CPED; Liu et al., 2015). For databases that do not report f, like eGRID used in this study, one can estimate it for an
- 23 individual power plant by first estimating the unabated emissions per electricity generation,  $e_{unabated}$ , which is the emission
- 24 factor before the flue gas enters the post-combustion control system:

$$f_y = \frac{e_{unabated,y} - e_{CEMS,y}}{e_{unabated,y}},\tag{3}$$

- where  $e_{CEMS}$  denotes the actual emission factor in terms of CEMS NO<sub>x</sub> emissions per net electricity generation (Gg/TW h).
- 27  $e_{umabated}$  for a given year,  $e_{umabated,y}$  is estimated based on the emission per electricity generation for years prior to, p, the
- installation of the post-combustion control system,  $e_{unabated,p}$ :

$$e_{unabated,y} = k_y \times e_{unabated,p} , \qquad (4)$$

- 30 where the scaling factor,  $k_y$ , is used to account for the change over time in  $e_{unabated}$  associated with improvements in boiler
- operations discussed in Section 2.2.1.  $k_y$  is calculated as the ratio of the averaged  $e_{unabated}$  (i.e., the slope of the regression of
- NO<sub>x</sub> emissions on electricity generation) in year, t, to that in year, p.
- 33 To assess the reliability of ratio<sup>CEMS-Estimated</sup>, we select all power plants which had post-combustion devices installed
- between 2005 and 2016. Figure 4 shows a scatterplot of  $ratio^{CEMS}$  (i.e., the ratio of  $E_{NO_x}^{CEMS}$  to  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$  for individual plant) and
- 35  $ratio^{CEMS-Estimated}$  for these power plants. We use the NO<sub>x</sub> emissions factor in 2005,  $e_{unabated,2005}$ , to predict the unabated
- 36 emission factor in 2016, e<sub>unabated,2016</sub>, following Equations (3) and (4) in order to quantify the removal efficiencies for 2016,
- 37  $f_{2016}$ .  $ratio_{2016}^{CEMS-Estimated}$  is based on the estimated  $f_{2016}$  and  $ratio_{regressed,2016}^{CEMS}$  from Section 2.2.1.  $ratio_{regressed,2016}^{CEMS}$  and





- 1  $ratio^{CEMS-Estimated}$  show good correlation ( $R^2 = 0.64$ ), which increases our confidence that the estimated removal
- 2 efficiencies approximate the actual efficiencies well. The slight underestimation suggested by the slope of 0.85 arises from
- 3 the uncertainties in estimating unabated NO<sub>x</sub> emission factors using Equation (4) and thus removal efficiencies, which is a
- 4 major source of error (see details in Section 3.2) contributing to the overall uncertainties of  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$ .

## 5 3 Results and Discussion

- 6 In Section 3.1, we present  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$  for our selected power plants and, in Section 3.2, discuss the uncertainties associated with
- 7  $E_{CO}^{Sat}$ . We apply the approach to power plants in South Africa in Section 3.3.

# 8 3.1 Satellite-derived $CO_2$ emissions ( $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$ )

- Figure 6a is a scatterplot of  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$  and  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$  for the 8 power plants (Figure 5), 7 of which did not have post-combustion  $NO_x$
- 10 control systems installed during the study period, 2005–2017. The comparison shows a good correlation,  $R^2$ , of 0.66.  $E_{CO}^{Sat}$
- and  $E_{CO}^{CEMS}$  for individual power plants are tabulated in Table 2 and their relative difference with CEMS measurements are
- listed in Table 3. The average  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$  for all power plants is 2.0 Gg/h and the average  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$  is 1.8 Gg/h. The relative difference
- for individual 3-year means (defined as  $(E_{CO_2}^{Sat} E_{CO_2}^{CEMS})/E_{CO_2}^{CEMS})$  is 8%  $\pm$  41% (mean  $\pm$  standard deviation). For example,
- Figure 1 shows  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$  for the Rockport power plant, which typically has a positive bias as compared to  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$  because of a
- positive bias in  $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$ .
- 16 The time series between  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$  and  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$  are generally consistent, with their annual averages for the 8 power plants exhibiting
- 17 a declining trend of 5%/yr and 3%/yr from 2006\* to 2016\* for  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$  and  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$ , respectively. The reduction in net electricity
- 18 generation is the driving force underlying the emission changes, which has decreased by 37% for the 8 power plants from
- 19 2005 to 2016, as power producers shut down coal-fired units in favor of cheaper and more flexible natural gas as well as
- solar and wind (USEIA, 2018). It is interesting to note that the temporal variations in  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$  are not as "smooth" as those in
- 21  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$ , which results from fluctuations in  $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$ . Such fluctuations are caused by uncertainties associated with  $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$
- 22 discussed in Section 3.2. For example, changes in VCDs do not necessarily relate linearly with NO<sub>x</sub> emissions (e.g., Figure 2
- 23 in Duncan et al., 2013) due to temporal variations in meteorology, and nonlinear NO<sub>x</sub> chemistry (Valin et al., 2013) and
- 24 transport. Averaging VCDs for a long-term period (3 years in this study) helps reduce those influences, but small
- 25 fluctuations may still exist.

### 26 3.2 Uncertainties

- We estimate the uncertainty of  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$  based on the fit performance of  $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$  and comparison with  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$ . The major sources of
- uncertainty include (a) the fitted NO<sub>x</sub> lifetimes and  $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$  (Liu et al., 2016); (b)  $ratio_{regressed}^{CEMS}$ ; and (c) f. We assume that their
- 29 contributions to the total uncertainty are independent and define the total uncertainty as their root mean square.
- 30 (a) The uncertainty of the fitted NO<sub>x</sub> lifetimes and  $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$  are quantified following the method described in Liu et al. (2017),
- accounting for errors arising from both the fit procedure and OMI NO<sub>2</sub> VCD observations (Liu et al., 2016). Particularly, the
- 32 tropospheric air mass factors (AMF) used in NO<sub>2</sub> retrievals are based on relatively coarsely resolved surface albedo data and
- 33 a priori NO<sub>2</sub> vertical profile shapes, likely causing low-biased VCDs over strong emission sources (e.g., Russell et al., 2011;
- 34 McLinden et al., 2014; Griffin et al., 2019). The average AMF uncertainty of ~30% (see Table 2 in Boersma et al., 2007)
- 35 likely contributes to the underestimation of emissions from some power plants in this study. Both random and systematic
- 36 (bias) uncertainties in VCDs directly propagates into the uncertainty of  $E_{NOx}^{Sat}$  (see details in the supplement of Liu et al.





- 1 (2016) and Section 3.4 of Liu et al. (2017)). The overall uncertainties of  $E_{NO_T}^{Sat}$  range from 60% to 95% for all power plants in
- our analysis, which is comparable with the level of differences between  $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$  and  $E_{NO_x}^{CEMS}$ .
- 3 (b) For power plants without post-combustion devices,  $ratio_{regressed}^{CEMS}$  derived from the regression (Figure 2a & b) and the
- 4 plant-specific CEMS measurements are found to be within 15%, which is assumed as the uncertainty of the ratio to be
- 5 applied to all power plants.
- 6 (c) For power plants with post-combustion devices, an additional uncertainty of 20% is applied to reflect the difference
- 7 between the predicted and the true removal efficiency as suggested by Figure 4.
- 8 The overall uncertainties of  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$  range from 62%–96% for the power plants in our analysis. However, it is worth noting that
- 9 this uncertainty estimate is rather conservative. For power plants, relative differences between  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$  and  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$  are 8%  $\pm 41\%$

We apply the approach proposed in this study to estimate CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from a power plant in South Africa, aiming to

10 (mean ± standard deviation) (Figure 6a).

#### 3.3 Application

11

12

13 assess the capability of the approach to provide constraint on CO2 emissions for regions outside the US. We chose South 14 Africa, a country without reliable emissions accounting, as the area of interest, because we found available information on 15 coal type and NO<sub>x</sub> control status for its power plants. The power plant of Matimba (including the nearby Medupi which has 16 operated since 2015) in South Africa are particularly suitable for application of our method, because it is a strong isolated  $NO_x$  point source (Figure 7). We estimate  $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$  for Matimba from 2005 to 2017 based on OMI  $NO_2$  observations following 17 18 the approach in Section 2.1. Matimba use subbituminous coal with the calorific value of ~ 20 MJ/kg (Makgato and Chirwa, 19 2017). We assume the NO<sub>x</sub> to CO<sub>2</sub> emission ratio of Matimba is on the upper end of the US values, considering that it is not 20 equipped with any NO<sub>x</sub> control devices, even low-NO<sub>x</sub> burners which are widely installed in US power plants (Pretorius et al., 2015). We thus use the ratio ranging from 2005  $ratio_{regressed}^{CEMS}$  to 2005  $ratio_{regressed}^{CEMS}$  + standard deviation for 21 subbituminous coal listed in Table 1 to infer  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$  based on  $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$ . The derived  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$  is shown in Figure 8 and fluctuates over 22 time. Note that the range of  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$  in Figure 8 represents the emissions based on a range of NO<sub>x</sub>-to-CO<sub>2</sub> ratios, not the 23 24 uncertainty. The overall uncertainty of  $E_{CO}^{Sat}$  is ~70% for the Matimba power plant. The growth after 2008\* is most likely 25 caused by the increased unit operating hours driven by the desire to meet fully the demand for electricity in South Africa after a period of rolling blackouts (2007-2008) (Duncan et al., 2016). The decline afterwards may be associated with the 26 27 tripping of generating units at the Matimba due to overload and the shortage of coal supply. The newly-built power plant of 28 Medupi contributes to the increase from 2015\*. 29 Figure 8 compares  $E_{Ga}^{Sat}$  derived in this study with other publicly available estimates and shows reasonable agreement.  $E_{Ga}^{Sat}$ falls between the estimates based on OCO-2 CO2 observations (Nassar et al., 2017) and two bottom-up estimates including 30 31 Wheeler and Ummel (2008) and Tong et al. (2018). We make a further comparison of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions esttimates to Tong et 32 al. (2018), the only database that reports both CO2 and NOx emissions, in order to shed light on the reason for the difference. 33 The differences between  $E_{NOx}^{Sat}$  and bottom-up estimates contribute significantly to the differences of CO<sub>2</sub> estimates.  $E_{NOx}^{Sat}$  for Matimba is 3.8 Mg/h for 2010\*, which is 65% smaller than the estimate by Tong et al. (2018) for 2010. It is not surprising to 34 35 see such differences considering the uncertainties of satellite-derived NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and bottom-up estimates without 36 reliable CEMS measurements. On one hand,  $E_{NOL}^{NOL}$  is potentially underestimated, due to the bias in the OMI NO<sub>2</sub> standard 37 product (version 3.1) associated with a low-resolution static climatology of surface Lambert-Equivalent Reflectivity (OMLER) (Kleipool et al., 2008). We perform a sensitivity analysis by using the preliminary new version OMI NO2 product, 38 39 which uses new geometry dependent MODIS-based surface reflectivity. The inferred  $E_{NO}^{Sat}$  based on the new product 40 increases by over 10%. On the other hand, the bottom-up estimates for Matimba are subject to significant uncertainties. For





- 1 example, national total fuel consumption of the power sector for South Africa as reported by the International Energy
- 2 Agency is used to estimate fuel consumption at the plant level as detailed fuel consumption for each plant is not currently
- 3 available. Additionally, due to the absence of country-specific measurement data, default NO<sub>x</sub> emission factors obtained
- 4 from literature are applied (Tong et al., 2018).

#### 5 4 Conclusions

- 6 We present a method to estimate CO<sub>2</sub> emissions of ozone season from individual power plants from satellite observations of
- 7 co-emitted NO2 and demonstrate its utility for US power plants, which have accurate CEMS with which to evaluate our
- 8 method. While the uncertainty associated with our method is relatively high when applied to OMI data, we expect that the
- 9 uncertainty will be less for the recently launched European Union Copernicus Sentinel 5 precursor (TROPOMI, launch
- October 2017), and the upcoming NASA geostationary Earth Venture one (TEMPO, launch expected in the early 2020s),
- 11 both of which have superior capabilities. For example, higher spatiotemporal resolutions will likely improve the estimation
- 12 of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions as well as allow for the separation of more power plant plumes from nearby sources, thus increasing the
- 13 number of power plants available for analysis. Therefore, future work will be to apply our method to these new datasets,
- 14 especially after several years of vetted TROPOMI data become available.
- 15 We explore the feasibility of estimating CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from power plants in regions of the world without reliable emissions
- 16 accounting by applying our method to a South African plant. The emissions estimates for the power plant of Matimba show
- 17 reasonable agreement with existing estimates. The ratios derived in this study have the potential to be applied to power
- 18 plants located in other regions by carefully investigating their coal type and NO<sub>x</sub> control devices, in order to provide an
- 19 additional constraint on CO2 emissions. Future work will include applying our method to other regions of the world with
- 20 reliable CEMS information, such as Europe, Canada and, more recently, China, to develop a more reliable and complete
- 21 database with region-specific ratios. This method will also serve as an independent approach to check CO2 emissions based
- 22 on satellite retrievals of CO<sub>2</sub> average mixing ratio from future CO<sub>2</sub> sensors with improved accuracy and extended the spatial
- 23 coverage (Bovensmann et al., 2010).

# 24 Author contribution

- 25 Fei Liu, Bryan N. Duncan, and Nickolay A. Krotkov designed the framework. Fei Liu, Steffen Beirle, Lok N. Lamsal,
- 26 Debora Griffin, Chris A. McLinden, and Daniel L. Goldberg developed the NO<sub>x</sub> emission fitting algorithm and Fei Liu
- 27 carried it out. Fei Liu and Zifeng Lu analysed the NO<sub>x</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub> emission ratio. Fei Liu and Bryan N. Duncan prepared the
- 28 manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

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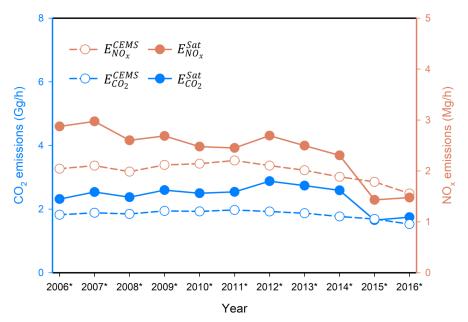


Figure 1  $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$  (Mg/h; orange solid lines – right axis) and  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$  (Gg/h; blue solid line – left axis) for the Rockport power plant (Indiana) during 2005 to 2017.  $E_{NO_x}^{CEMS}$  and  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$  (dashed lines) are also shown. The 3-year periods are represented by the middle year with an asterisk (e.g., 2006\* denotes the period from 2005 to 2007).

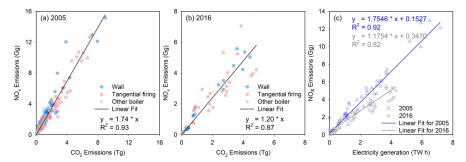


Figure 2 Scatter plots of  $E_{NO_x}^{CEMS}$  versus  $E_{CO_x}^{CEMS}$  for bituminous coal-fired electric generating units for (a) 2005 and (b) 2016. Values are color coded by firing type. (c) Scatter plot of  $E_{NO_x}^{CEMS}$  versus electricity generation of the same units for years 2005 (triangle) and 2016 (square). Only plants without post-combustion NO<sub>x</sub> control devices within a given year are used. The electricity generation data are also from eGRID. The lines in all three panels represent the computed linear regressions.



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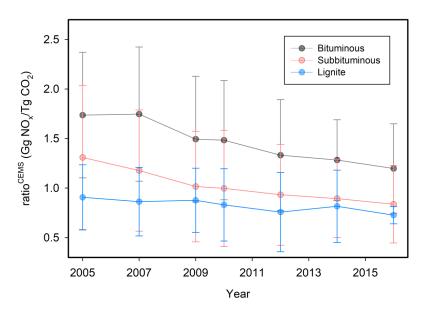


Figure 3 Interannual trends of  $ratio_{regressed}^{CEMS}$  for power plants using bituminous, subbituminous and lignite coal types and without post-combustion NO<sub>x</sub> control devices in a given year. Error bars show the standard deviations for ratios of  $E_{NO_x}^{CEMS}$  to  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$  for individual power plants.

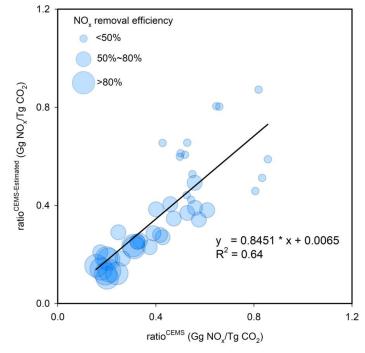


Figure 4 Scatterplot of the ratio of  $ratio^{CEMS-Estimated}$  as compared to  $ratio^{CEMS}$  for 2016. All coal-fired power plants that operated post-combustion techniques after 2005 and before 2016 are used in the plot. The sizes of the circles denote the magnitude of the  $NO_x$  reduction efficiency of post-combustion control devices estimated in this study. The line represents the linear regression of  $ratio^{CEMS}$  to  $ratio^{CEMS-Estimated}$ .





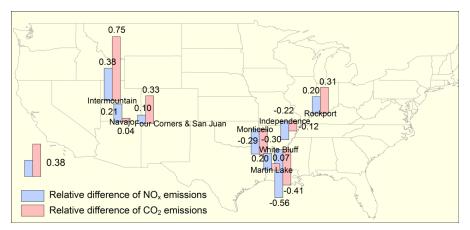


Figure 5 Locations of the investigated power plants in this study. The bar charts denote the relative differences, defined as  $(E^{Sat}-E^{CEMS})/E^{CEMS}$ , averaged over 2005–2017, for  $NO_x$  (blue) and  $CO_2$  (red) emissions. The upward and downward bars represent positive and negative differences, respectively. The Monticello power plant installed SNCR to control  $NO_x$  emissions in 2008. Other power plants are not equipped with post-combustion  $NO_x$  control devices.

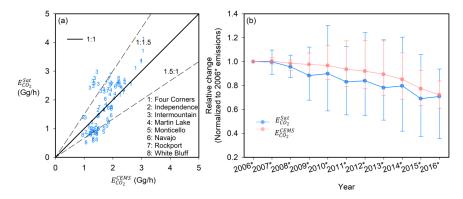


Figure 6 (a) Scatterplot of  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$  for 8 power plants as compared to  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$  from 2006\* to 2016\*. The straight solid and dash lines represent the ratio of 1:1 and 1:1.5, respectively. (b) Interannual trends of the averaged  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$  (blue lines) and  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$  (pink lines) is for all power plants analyzed in this study from 2006\*–2016\*, normalized to the 2006\* value. The whiskers denote the maximum and minimum values.





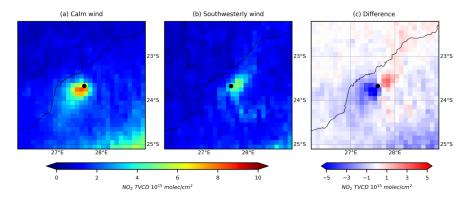


Figure 7 Mean OMI  $NO_2$  TVCDs around the Matimba power plant (Lephalale, South Africa) for (a) calm, (b) southwesterly wind conditions and (c) their difference (southwesterly – calm) for the period of 2005 – 2017. The location of Matimba is labelled by a black dot.

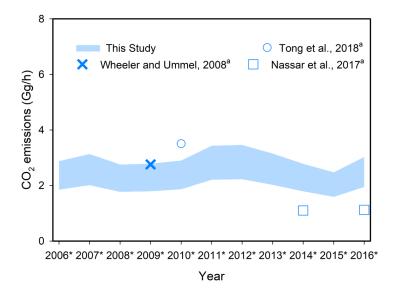


Figure 8 Comparison of  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$  (Gg/h) derived in this study with existing estimates for the Matimba power plant during 2005 to 2017.  $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$  is inferred based on the  $NO_x$  to  $CO_2$  emissions ratio ranging from  $ratio_{regressed}^{CEMS}$  to  $ratio_{regressed}^{CEMS}$  + standard deviation of ratio.

Emissions are estimated for 2009 by Wheeler and Ummel (2008); for 2010 by Tong et al. (2018); and for 2014 and 2016 by Nassar at al. (2017).





**Table 1** The slope  $(ratio_{regressed}^{CEMS})$ , coefficient of determination, standard deviation and sample number of the linear regression of  $E_{NO_x}^{CEMS}$  and  $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$  by year for all US power plants without post-combustion NO<sub>x</sub> control devices from 2005 to 2016.

Coal type	Year	ratio <sup>CEMS</sup>	$\mathbb{R}^2$	Standard	Sample
				deviation	number <sup>a</sup>
	2005	1.74	0.93	0.63	278
	2007	1.75	0.91	0.68	286
	2009	1.49	0.88	0.64	241
Bituminous	2010	1.48	0.86	0.60	235
	2012	1.33	0.87	0.56	190
	2014	1.28	0.87	0.41	136
	2016	1.20	0.87	0.45	66
	2005	1.31	0.65	0.73	226
	2007	1.18	0.61	0.61	221
	2009	1.02	0.66	0.56	230
Subbituminous	2010	1.00	0.67	0.59	216
	2012	0.93	0.74	0.51	200
	2014	0.89	0.74	0.39	165
	2016	0.84	0.70	0.39	111
	2005	0.91	0.74	0.33	20
	2007	0.86	0.82	0.35	22
Lignite	2009	0.88	0.91	0.32	16
	2010	0.83	0.94	0.37	18
	2012	0.76	0.91	0.40	15
	2014	0.82	0.92	0.37	12
	2016	0.73	0.78	0.09	9

 $<sup>^{</sup>a}$ The sample number generally decreases from 2005 to 2016 as power plants installed post-combustion  $NO_{x}$  control devices over time.





**Table 2** Summary of effective NO<sub>x</sub> lifetimes, satellite-derived NO<sub>x</sub> emissions ( $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$ ), CO<sub>2</sub> emissions ( $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$ ) and bottom-up NO<sub>x</sub> emissions ( $E_{NO_x}^{CEMS}$ ), CO<sub>2</sub> emissions ( $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$ ) for 8 US power plants during May to September from 2005 to 2017. The 3-year periods are represented by the middle year with an asterisk.

Category	Year	Four Corners & San Juan	Independence	Intermountain	Martin Lake	Monticello	Navajo	Rockport	White Bluff
NO <sub>x</sub> lifetime	2005-2017	2.7	2.5	2.2	2.3	3.2	2.3	2.4	4.3
	2006*	10.5	2.0	4.0	2.4	1.1	4.6	2.9	1.0
	2007*	10.0	1.7	4.1	2.3	1.1	4.4	3.0	0.9
	2008*	9.4	1.6	3.7	2.0	0.8	4.5	2.6	0.9
	2009*	7.2	1.2	3.9	2.1	0.7	3.9	2.7	0.7
$E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$	2010*	6.8	1.0	4.4	2.1	0.6	3.6	2.5	0.9
(Mg/h)	2011*	6.5	0.9	3.6	1.8	0.7	2.5	2.5	0.8
	2012*	6.3	0.9	3.4	1.6	0.6	2.3	2.7	0.8
	2013*	5.6	0.8	3.5	1.8	0.5	1.9	2.5	0.6
	2014*	4.4	0.7	3.5	1.7	0.8	2.2	2.3	0.5
	2015*	3.8	0.8	3.0	1.4	0.7	2.1	1.4	0.4
	2016*	3.5	1.2	1.7	1.2	0.6	2.5	1.5	0.7
	2006*	7.4	1.8	3.0	1.8	1.5	3.8	2.0	1.7
	2007*	7.3	1.8	3.1	1.8	1.4	3.9	2.1	1.6
	2008*	6.8	1.8	2.9	1.8	1.3	3.8	2.0	1.6
	2009*	6.5	1.6	2.9	1.8	1.2	3.4	2.1	1.8
$E_{NO_X}^{CEMS}$	2010*	6.2	1.6	2.8	1.7	1.1	2.8	2.1	1.8
(Mg/h)	2011*	6.2	1.4	2.5	1.5	1.0	2.2	2.2	1.9
	2012*	6.1	1.3	2.4	1.4	0.9	1.9	2.1	1.9
	2013*	5.6	1.3	2.4	1.3	0.9	1.9	2.0	2.0
	2014*	5.2	1.2	2.5	1.3	0.8	1.9	1.9	1.9
	2015*	4.3	1.2	2.0	1.3	0.8	1.7	1.8	1.5
	2016*	3.9	1.1	1.5	1.2	0.8	1.6	1.6	1.2
$(E_{NO_x}^{Sat} -$									
$E_{NO_X}^{CEMS}) / E_{NO_X}^{CEMS}$	2005-2017	10%	-22%	38%	20%	-29%	21%	20%	-56%
	2006*	6.1	1.6	2.3	2.7	1.2	2.6	2.3	0.8
	2007*	5.9	1.5	2.4	2.6	1.3	2.6	2.5	0.8
	2008*	5.6	1.4	2.3	2.3	1.1	2.8	2.4	0.8
	2009*	4.1	1.1	2.6	2.4	1.0	2.5	2.6	0.6
$E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$	2010*	3.7	1.0	3.0	2.5	0.9	2.5	2.5	0.9
(Gg/h)	2011*	3.4	1.0	2.6	2.2	1.0	1.7	2.5	0.8
	2012*	3.3	1.0	2.5	2.1	1.0	1.7	2.9	0.9
	2013*	3.1	0.9	2.6	2.3	0.8	1.5	2.7	0.6
	2014*	2.5	0.8	2.8	2.2	1.2	1.8	2.6	0.6
	2015*	2.3	0.9	2.4	1.8	1.1	1.7	1.7	0.5
	2016*	2.2	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.0	2.0	1.7	0.8
	2006*	3.1	1.5	1.7	2.4	1.9	2.2	1.8	1.2
	2007*	3.1	1.5	1.7	2.4	1.8	2.2	1.9	1.2
	2008*	3.0	1.5	1.6	2.4	1.8	2.2	1.8	1.2
	2009*	3.1	1.4	1.5	2.3	1.7	2.1	1.9	1.3
$E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$	2010*	3.0	1.4	1.4	2.2	1.7	2.1	1.9	1.4





	2012*	3.0	1.3	1.3	2.0	1.5	1.9	1.9	1.4
	2013*	2.8	1.3	1.3	1.9	1.3	1.9	1.9	1.4
	2014*	2.6	1.1	1.4	1.9	1.3	2.0	1.8	1.3
	2015*	2.4	1.1	1.2	1.8	1.2	1.8	1.7	1.1
	2016*	2.2	1.0	1.0	1.7	1.2	1.7	1.5	0.9
$(E_{CO_2}^{Sat}-$									
$E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}) / E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$	2005-2017	33%	-12%	75%	7%	-30%	4%	31%	-41%





**Table 3** Summary of relative difference between satellite-derived NO<sub>x</sub> emissions ( $E_{NO_x}^{Sat}$ ) and bottom-up NO<sub>x</sub> emissions ( $E_{NO_x}^{CEMS}$ ), satellite-derived CO<sub>2</sub> emissions ( $E_{CO_2}^{Sat}$ ) and bottom-up CO<sub>2</sub> emissions ( $E_{CO_2}^{CEMS}$ ) for 8 US power plants during May to September from 2005 to 2017. The 3-year periods are represented by the middle year with an asterisk.

Year M		$NO_x$	$CO_2$			
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation		
2006*	15%	29%	17%	39%		
2007*	10%	29%	16%	38%		
2008*	5%	30%	14%	39%		
2009*	-3%	34%	6%	39%		
2010*	-1%	38%	9%	46%		
2011*	-5%	31%	3%	40%		
2012*	-3%	31%	5%	41%		
2013*	-4%	38%	4%	49%		
2014*	-3%	36%	7%	46%		
2015*	-8%	35%	2%	41%		
2016*	-2%	29%	8%	22%		