

1 **Global warming will largely increase waste treatment CH₄ emissions in Chinese Megacities:**
2 **insight from the first city scale CH₄ concentration observation network in Hangzhou city,**
3 **China**

4
5 Cheng Hu^{1,2}, Junqing Zhang¹, Bing Qi^{3,4*}, Rongguang Du^{3*}, Xiaofei Xu⁴, Haoyu Xiong⁵, Huili
6 Liu¹, Xinyue Ai¹, Yiyi Peng¹, Wei Xiao²

7 ¹ College of Biology and the Environment, Joint Center for sustainable Forestry in Southern China,
8 Nanjing Forestry University, Nanjing 210037, China

9 ² Collaborative Innovation Center on Forecast and Evaluation of Meteorological Disasters
10 (CIC-FEMD), Nanjing University of Information Science & Technology, Nanjing, China

11 ³ Hangzhou meteorological bureau, Hangzhou 310051, China

12 ⁴ Zhejiang Lin'an Atmospheric Background National Observation and Research Station, Hangzhou
13 311300, China

14 ⁵ College of Environment, Zhejiang University of Technology, Hangzhou 311300, China

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22 *Corresponding authors: Bing Qi (bill_129@sina.com), Rongguang Du (drg1998@163.com).

23

24

25

26

27

28

29 To be submitted to: *ACP*

30

31

32

33 **Abstract:**

34 Atmospheric CH₄ is the second largest anthropogenic contributor to global warming, however its emissions,
35 components, spatial-temporal variations and projected changes still remain large uncertainty from city to national
36 scales. CH₄ emissions from waste treatment (including solid waste landfills, solid waste incineration and sewage)
37 account for even >50% of total anthropogenic CH₄ emissions at city scale, and considering the high sensitivity of
38 CH₄ emission factors (EFs) to temperature for the biological processes-based sources as waste treatment, large bias
39 will be caused in estimating future CH₄ emissions under different global warming scenarios. Furthermore, the
40 relationships between temperature and waste treatment CH₄ emissions were only conducted in a few site-specific
41 studies and lack the representativity for whole city, which contains various biophysical conditions and shows
42 heterogeneous distribution. These above factors cause the evaluation of city scale CH₄ emissions (especially from
43 waste treatments) and projected changes still remain unexplored. Here we conduct the first tower-based CH₄
44 observation network with three sites in Hangzhou city, which is located in developed Yangtze River Delta (YRD)
45 area and ranks as one of the largest megacities in China. We found the *a priori* total annual anthropogenic CH₄
46 emissions and emission from waste treatment were overestimated by 36.0% and 47.1% in Hangzhou city,
47 respectively. But total emission in larger region as Zhejiang province or YRD area was only slightly
48 underestimated by 7.0%. Emissions from waste treatment showed obvious seasonal patterns following air
49 temperature. By using the constructed linear relationship between monthly waste treatment CH₄ emissions and air
50 temperature, we find the waste treatment EFs will increase by 38%~50% with temperature increases by 10°C.
51 Together with projected temperature changes from four climate change scenarios, the global warming induced EFs
52 in Hangzhou city will increase at the rates of 2.2%, 1.2%, 0.7% and 0.5% per decade for RCP8.5, RCP6.0, RCP4.5
53 and RCP2.6 scenarios, respectively. And the EFs will finally increase by 17.6%, 9.6%, 5.6%, and 4.0% at the end
54 of this century. Additionally, the derived relative changes in China also showed high heterogeneity and indicates
55 large uncertainty in projecting future national total CH₄ emissions. Hence, we strongly suggest the
56 temperature-dependent EFs and the positive feedback between global warming and CH₄ emissions should be
57 considered in future CH₄ emission projections and climate change models.

58 **Keyword:** CH₄ emissions, waste treatment, observation network, global warming

59

60

61

62 1. Introduction

63 As the second largest anthropogenic greenhouse gas, the reduction of CH₄ emission is considered
64 as an effective way to mitigate future climate change at short timescales (Henne et al., 2016; Lin et
65 al., 2021). Accurate estimation of CH₄ emissions from its main sources are the basis of policy
66 making. However, recent studies find there still remain large uncertainties for its total emissions,
67 components, spatial-temporal variations and projected changes at city scale especially for
68 megacities in China (USPA 2013; Cai et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2021). CH₄ emission from waste
69 treatment (mainly including sewage and solid waste by landfills and incineration) ranked as the
70 world's third largest anthropogenic source after fuel exploitation and livestock, and was
71 responsible for ~13% of global anthropogenic CH₄ emissions of 371 (±26) Tg a⁻¹ (Lu et al., 2021).
72 It also ranked as the fourth largest anthropogenic source in China, the biggest anthropogenic CH₄
73 emitting country, and accounted for ~14% of national total anthropogenic emissions of 65 (±22)
74 Tg a⁻¹ (Saunois et al., 2020; Lu et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2022). Furthermore, its contribution is
75 even larger than 50% at city scale especially for megacities, where both active and closed
76 household waste (including landfills and waste water systems) are located and found as super
77 emitters (Williams et al., 2022; Maasackers et al., 2022). A large number of Chinese landfills were
78 mainly constructed at the suburban more than 5-10 years ago, and with the urban area expanding
79 in recent decades, the locations of many landfills are now in urban scope (Zhejiang Statistical
80 Yearbook 2018-2019). Besides, the decreasing area of agricultural sector (rice paddies and
81 husbandry) in megacities also makes their emissions ignorable when compared with waste
82 treatment. Therefore, accurate quantification of CH₄ emissions from waste treatment in urban area
83 becomes increasing important.

84

85 Although some progress has been made in measuring site scale CH₄ emissions from waste
86 treatment, the estimated emissions still show large discrepancies due to many factors as the
87 amount of waste and its composition, meteorological conditions as temperature, water content,
88 atmospheric pressure and proportion between landfills and incineration, degradable organic carbon
89 ratio, CH₄ oxidation efficiency, landfill gas collection (Masuda et al., 2018; Cai et al., 2018; Zhao
90 et al., 2019; Hua et al., 2022; Bian et al., 2022; Maasackers et al., 2022; Kissas et al., 2022).

91 Furthermore, CH₄ emissions from sewage and landfills are a microbial process especially from
92 methanogens, its EFs are highly sensitive to temperature. These available studies were mainly
93 conducted at some specific sites with measured EFs largely varied (Du et al., 2017; 2018; Cai et
94 al., 2014; 2018; Zhao et al., 2019; NBSC, 2015; Wang et al., 2015; Florentino et al., 2010;
95 Tolaymat et al., 2010; Hua et al., 2022). The lack and discrepancies of detailed information for all
96 the above factors and their uncertainties have led to considerable bias in estimating CH₄ emissions
97 for most-to-date inventories (Höglund-Isaksson, 2012; USEPA et al., 2013; Cai et al., 2018; Lin et
98 al., 2021; Maasackers et al., 2022).

99

100 China, the largest anthropogenic CH₄ emission and developing country, is supposed to increase its
101 emissions because of projected rapid economic development, urbanization and generated waste
102 (Cai et al., 2018). The increase of waste treatment emissions in east China was also found as the
103 second largest sector in driving national total anthropogenic CH₄ emissions since 2000 (Lin et al.,
104 2021). Besides, the mitigation potential of waste treatment in developing countries is thought four
105 times of developed countries (USEPA, 2013). Therefore, mitigating CH₄ emissions from waste
106 treatment in China is a robust and cost-effective way to reducing national total anthropogenic
107 greenhouse gas emissions.

108

109 Many previous studies have estimated the waste treatment CH₄ emissions for China by both
110 “bottom-up” and “top-down” approaches, with results varied by 2.5-fold from 4.3 to 10.4 Tg CH₄
111 yr⁻¹, and accounted for 8.1%~24.2% of national total anthropogenic CH₄ emissions (USEPA 2013;
112 Peng et al., 2016; Miller et al., 2019; Lin et al., 2021; Lu et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2022). For these
113 “bottom-up” approach, the high uncertainties were directly attributed to omission of many small
114 point sources and discrepancies of observed site-specific EFs, which varied largely by climate and
115 management technology (Zhao et al., 2019; Hua et al., 2022). As were found in previous studies
116 that the most commonly used EDGAR (The Emission Database for Global Atmospheric Research)
117 inventory always used IPCC recommended default EF values as 15.0% (Höglund-Isaksson, 2012;
118 Lin et al., 2021; Bian et al., 2022), but this value was around 5-7 times of EFs used in China by
119 Zhang and Chen et al. (2014). A recent study by comparing waste treatment CH₄ emissions among

120 different inventories also reported that the EDGAR v5.0 and CEDS (Community Emissions Data
121 System) inventories were 21~153% higher than other inventories, and EDGAR v5.0 tended to
122 assign more emissions in urban area especially for provincial capitals. In addition, emission from
123 wastewater was found overestimated by higher emission factor or chemical oxygen demand (Peng
124 et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2021).

125

126 And for the “top-down” atmospheric inversion approach, a few studies constrained anthropogenic
127 sources including waste treatment, where the most widely used concentrations were satellite
128 observations (Miller et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2022). The satellite retrieval owns
129 advantage of easy data access and global coverage. But as already noted, the emission constraint
130 results are highly dependent on availability of observed concentrations, which are largely
131 influenced by weather conditions and cloud coverage. As was illustrated in a nearly published
132 study by Chen et al. (2022), although the numbers of grid cell ($0.25^\circ \times 0.3125^\circ$) based year-round
133 satellite observations were more than 1000 in north China, the available numbers were less than
134 10 (and even without any observations) in most part of central, west, east and south China. Such
135 sparse distribution of available data may not provide robust constraint on waste treatment
136 emissions for some Chinese cities without enough observations, especially considering waste
137 treatment is co-located with high population density megacities of developed area as east and
138 south China. Furthermore, there should be large temperature induced monthly variations for waste
139 treatment CH_4 emissions, but almost all satellite-based inversions were conducted at annual scale
140 without seasonal variations. Besides, given the strong influence from atmospheric pressure on
141 landfill CH_4 emissions, satellite observations are too sparse to be up-scaled to estimate annual
142 total because satellite observations are almost conducted in clear-sky conditions and cannot
143 represent atmospheric pressure and CH_4 emissions in cloudy or rainy days. There was only one
144 recent study by using satellite observations and focused on urban waste treatment CH_4 emissions,
145 it found annual CH_4 emissions from four cities were 1.4 to 2.6 times larger than inventories in
146 India and Pakistan, where landfills contributed to 6~50% of total emissions and indicated large
147 bias of our understanding of waste treatment CH_4 emissions (Maasackers et al., 2022).

148

149 The tower-based atmospheric inversion approach, which is based on hourly atmospheric
150 concentration observations within planetary boundary layer, can be used independently to
151 constrain CH₄ emissions and its main components. Besides, compared with “bottom-up” approach,
152 this method can avoid using the factors that lead to large uncertainties of CH₄ emissions especially
153 from waste treatment. And to our best knowledge, there is few tower-based observation inversion
154 studies which focuses on waste treatment emissions at city scale or much larger regional scales
155 especially in China. Only one study in Los Angeles, U.S.A. used tower-based CH₄ concentration
156 and found the influence of landfill site closure on CH₄ emissions, which was not included in *a*
157 *priori* inventory (Yadav et al., 2019). Besides, the influences of global warming on city scale (or
158 higher regional scale) emissions were still unclear and have not been considered in future emission
159 projections (USEPA 2013; Cai et al., 2018). In general, previous studies which predicted future
160 waste treatment CH₄ emissions only used activity data changes, without considering climate
161 change on its EFs. Considering the potential high sensitivity of waste treatment CH₄ emissions on
162 the projected global warming, how will its emission change with increasing temperature is still
163 unknown, especially within megacities where more waste was generated and urban heat island
164 effect will lead to much stronger warming climate (Zhang et al., 2022).

165

166 Here, we established three tower-based CH₄ concentration observation sites in Hangzhou city, one
167 of the largest megacities in China. To our best knowledge, it’s the first city scale tower-based CH₄
168 concentration observation network in China. We present our work on urban CH₄ emissions
169 inversion and aim to (1) constrain CH₄ emissions from waste treatment alongside total
170 anthropogenic emissions in Hangzhou city, (2) derive temperature sensitivity of waste treatment
171 CH₄ emissions at city scale and quantify the projected emission changes in future climate change
172 scenarios. One-year hourly CH₄ concentration observations from December 1st, 2020 to
173 November 30th, 2021 were combined with atmospheric transport model and Bayesian inversion
174 approach to constrain monthly CH₄ emission inventories. The constructed relationship between
175 monthly temperature and *posteriori* waste treatment CH₄ emissions will be used with future
176 temperature projection to quantify how will its EFs change in different global warming scenarios.

177

178 **2. Materials and Method**

179 **2.1 Tower-based CH₄ observation network and supplementary materials**

180 The Hangzhou city, which has a population of 12.2 million and area of 1.7×10^4 km² (core urban
181 area of 8.3×10^3 km²), is the capital of Zhejiang province and located in middle of east China
182 (Figure 1a). As displayed in Figures S1-S2, the east China accounted for majority of national total
183 population and waste treatment CH₄ emissions, and Hangzhou city ranked as the top 10
184 megacities in China with annual solid waste of around 5 million tons in 2021. The tower-based
185 CH₄ concentration observation network includes three observation sites (Figure 1a-d), as (1)
186 Hangzhou site (120.17° E, 30.23° N, 43.2 m a.s.l.), which is located in the core urban regions; (2)
187 Linan site (119.72° E, 30.30° N, 138.6 m a.s.l.), regional background site with none obvious
188 emission sources within 10 km radius; (3) Damingshan site (119.00° E, 30.03° N, 1485.0 m a.s.l.),
189 which is built on the top of a 1500 m mountain and represents background from much more
190 diluted regional emission signals. The distance is around 50 km between Hangzhou site and Linan
191 site, and around 150 km between Hangzhou site and Damingshan site. These three sites represent
192 obvious gradients from east of densely populated area (Figure 1c-d) and anthropogenic emissions
193 to west of much weaker anthropogenic influence and background conditions. Based on the wind
194 direction for three sites, there are not obvious difference of seasonal wind direction patterns
195 among them. The prevailing wind direction from October to February was from the north, which
196 changed to east from February to May and then changed to south during the monsoon in summer.

197

198 The air inlet heights are 25 m above ground for Hangzhou site, 53 m at Linan site and 10 m at
199 Damingshan site, respectively. Atmospheric CH₄ concentrations at all three sites were
200 continuously measured by cavity ring-down spectroscopy analyzer (model G2301 for Hangzhou
201 site and G2401 for Linan site and Damingshan site; Picarro Inc., Sunnyvale, CA). To obtain high
202 precision observations, two different standard gas was measured every 6 hours and a linear
203 two-point fit was used to calibrate observations, with the precision and accuracy of 2 ppb and 1
204 ppb. More details of the observation and calibration systems were described in Fang et al., (2014;
205 2022). Note because of instrument issues at Damingshan site, there is some data gap in September
206 and October, 2021. In general, 99.4%, 99.0%, 79.3% of hourly CH₄ observations were available in

207 the whole year observation period for Hangzhou site, Linan site and Damingshan site, respectively.
208 Meteorological observations at Hangzhou meteorological station were used to evaluate simulated
209 meteorological fields, including air temperature at 2 m (T_{2m}), relative humidity (RH), downward
210 solar radiation (S_{\downarrow}), and wind speed (WS) at 10 m height.

211

212 Note some previous studies of city scale greenhouse gas concentration observation networks chose
213 sites at the edge of urban borders as background in emission inversion system (i.e. Indianapolis,
214 U.S.A., Miles et al., (2017); Los Angeles, U.S.A., Verhulst et al., (2017); Washington,
215 DC-Baltimore, U.S.A., Lopez-Coto et al., (2020); Paris, France, Lian et al., (2021)), but we chose
216 to use five CH_4 background sites as the potential background to be selected including UUM, TAP,
217 YRO, YON and WLG site (Figure 1a), which were much further than the observations at
218 Damingshan site. This strategy is based on following three reasons: (1) our footprint domain is
219 much larger than Hangzhou city and these five sites are also located close to the edge of model
220 domain; (2) CH_4 concentrations within Hangzhou city will be influenced by seasonal varied
221 monsoon and the monthly varied wind directions will lead to obvious changes of CH_4 background
222 than only at Damingshan site; (3) our model setups can partition CH_4 enhancements from within
223 Hangzhou city and other regions.

224

225 The projected climate data from four RCP (Representative Concentration Pathway) scenarios
226 (RCP8.5, RCP6.0, RCP4.5 and RCP2.6) by MRI-CGCM3 model were downloaded from World
227 Data Center for Climate (WDCC, <https://www.wdc-climate.de/ui/>), where annual air temperature
228 at 2m was used from years 2021 to 2100. The most recent population density data for Hangzhou
229 city is for the year of 2019 and was downloaded from Chinese national resource and
230 environmental science and data center
231 (<http://www.resdc.cn/DOI>),2017.DOI:10.12078/2017121101).

232

233 **2.2 WRF-STILT model setup**

234 The WRF-STILT (WRF: Weather Research and Forecasting, version 4.2.2, and STILT: Stochastic
235 Time-Inverted Lagrangian Transport) model will be used to simulate hourly footprint and CH_4
236 enhancement, see more details in Hu et al. (2019; 2021). Domain setups are displayed in Figure 1a,

237 with the outer nested domain (Domian-1, 27 km×27 km grid resolution) covers eastern and
238 central China, and the inner domain (Domain-2, 9 km×9 km grid resolution) covers YRD area.
239 The physical schemes used in the WRF model are the same as in our previous studies for YRD
240 domain (Hu et al., 2019; 2021). The simulated CH₄ concentration is the sum of background and
241 enhancement, where the enhancement is calculated by multiplying all CH₄ flux with hourly
242 footprint that represents the sensitivity of the concentration changes to its regional sources/sinks
243 with spatial resolution of 0.1°×0.1°. To better quantify CH₄ components at each site, CH₄
244 enhancements from different regions and sources are also tracked and separately simulated.
245 Besides, we should note the CH₄ background is important in simulating CH₄ concentrations and
246 atmospheric inversion. We will choose CH₄ background from the five background sites based on
247 monthly footprint as discussed in Section 3.1.

248

249 The most recent inventory of Emission Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR v6.0),
250 which has 20 categories, and WetCHARTs ensemble mean were used as the *a priori*
251 anthropogenic and natural CH₄ emissions. We should note there are many CH₄ inventories for
252 some developed regions and countries (i.e. France, U.S.A., Germany) with high spatial resolutions,
253 the reasons to choose EDGAR as *a priori* anthropogenic emissions are: (1) for all available CH₄
254 inventories that covered China, the spatial resolution of EDGAR (0.1°×0.1°) is the highest, and it
255 provide most up-to date results; (2) most of previous studies that constrain emissions by
256 atmospheric inversion studies also chosed EDGAR, and our results can be directly compared with
257 previous studies; (3) the preliminary simulation of CH₄ concentrations showed generally good
258 performance with observations, indicating its spatial distributions in Hangzhou city has relatively
259 small bias even with potential large bias for magnitude, which will be constrained by our
260 atmospheric inversion method.

261

262 The main sources in Hangzhou city include SWD_LDF (solid waste landfills), WWT (waste water
263 handling), SWD_INC (solid waste incineration), PRO (all processes related to fuel exploitation
264 from coal, oil, and natural gas), RCO (energy for buildings, mainly containing nature gas escape
265 from household use) and AGS (agricultural soils). We found emissions from SWD_LDF, WWT

266 and SWD_INC were simply assigned in the same locations in EDGAR inventory, and hence
 267 combined them as waste treatment. For the CH₄ emissions from wetland, we used WetCHARTs
 268 ensemble mean with spatial resolution of 0.5° at monthly average (Bloom et al., 2017).
 269 Considering WetCHARTs treat rice paddies (main source as AGS) as one wetland type, AGS in
 270 EDGAR was excluded and we assume WetCHARTs represent all wetland CH₄ emissions as
 271 natural wetland and rice paddies.

272

273 2.3 Bayesian inversion framework

274 The Scale Factor Bayesian inversion (SFBI) approach was applied to interpret the atmospheric
 275 CH₄ concentration (or enhancement) variations in terms of quantitative constraint on all CH₄
 276 sources. The relationship between observed and simulated CH₄ concentrations (or enhancement)
 277 can be expressed as follows in Equation 1:

$$278 \quad y = \mathbf{K}\Gamma + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

279 Where y is the observed CH₄ concentration (or enhancement), \mathbf{K} corresponds to simulated
 280 enhancements from all categories, Γ is the state vector to be optimized and consists of *posteriori*
 281 SFs for corresponding categories in \mathbf{K} , and ε is the observing system error.

282

283 The optimal solution to derive *posteriori* SFs is to minimize a cost function $J(\Gamma)$, which represents
 284 the mismatch between CH₄ observations and simulations and the mismatch between *posteriori* and
 285 *a priori* SFs (Miller et al., 2008; Griffis et al., 2017). The cost function $J(\Gamma)$ can be expressed as:

$$286 \quad J(\Gamma) = \frac{1}{2} \left[(y - \mathbf{K}\Gamma)^T S_e^{-1} (y - \mathbf{K}\Gamma) + (\Gamma - \Gamma_a)^T S_a^{-1} (\Gamma - \Gamma_a) \right] \quad (2)$$

287 where S_e and S_a are the constructed error covariance matrices for observations and the *a priori*
 288 values, and S_e consists of measurement and model errors. Here each element in *a priori* SFs Γ_a
 289 is treated as 1. Therefore, the solution for obtaining the *posteriori* SFs is to solve $\nabla_{\Gamma} J(\Gamma) = 0$,
 290 and is given by,

$$291 \quad \Gamma_{\text{post}} = (\mathbf{K}^T S_e^{-1} \mathbf{K} + S_a^{-1})^{-1} (\mathbf{K}^T S_e^{-1} y + S_a^{-1} \Gamma_a) \quad (3)$$

292 In the Bayesian inversion framework, we first need to give an estimate of the error covariance
 293 matrices and the state vector for the *a priori* and observational data. And following our previous
 294 studies conducted in East China (Hu et al., 2019; 2022). The uncertainty of 10%, 13% and 20%

295 were assigned to the measurement errors (S_{obs}), the finite number of particles (500) released in the
296 STILT model ($S_{\text{particles}}$) and uncertainty in meteorological fields (S_{met}), respectively.

297

298 Although previous study derived uncertainty of CH_4 from waste treatment and other categories,
299 which varied between 30% and 50%, these uncertainties were calculated mainly from activity data
300 and EFs at the country scale on annual average (Solazzo et al. 2021). We should also note CH_4
301 emission uncertainty will largely increase with study region decreasing, as stated above the
302 relative difference among different inventories can reach to 150%. Considering the disaggregation
303 of spatial distributions and temporal variations, CH_4 emission uncertainties can be much larger at
304 urban and monthly scales. To provide robust constraint on CH_4 emissions in our study, we used
305 three cases of *a priori* uncertainties combinations for different emissions in Bayesian inversion as:
306 (1) the first case use three elements as wetland, waste treatment and the rest anthropogenic sources,
307 considering the larger seasonality of waste treatment, the uncertainties of 300% was used for
308 waste treatment and 200% for other categories, (2) the second case have more detailed categories
309 as wetland, waste treatment, fuel exploitation, energy for building, and the rest anthropogenic
310 sources, where the *a priori* uncertainty of 200% was used for each categories, (3) the third case
311 has the same categories as case 1 but use a different *a priori* uncertainty for waste treatment of
312 200%. The averages of all three cases are used as final *posteriori* SFs and the largest difference
313 between each of three cases are used as uncertainty.

314

315 **3. Results**

316 **3.1 Atmospheric CH_4 observations**

317 We first displayed the hourly CH_4 concentrations from our three tower-based sites and smoothed
318 background at five sites by CCGCRV fitting method (Thoning et al., 1989) in Figure 2a. It's
319 obvious the hourly observations at three towers showed similar temporal variations but with
320 different amplitude. Observations at Hangzhou site displayed variations between 2000 ppb and
321 2800 ppb, and were much larger than both Linan site and Damingshan site. Their monthly
322 averages were also compared in Figure 2b, and results showed the monthly CH_4 varied between
323 lowest 2106.3 ppb in July and highest 2225.0 ppb in September (annual mean of 2159.9 ppb) at
324 Hangzhou site, lowest 2023.3 ppb in July and highest 2132.0 ppb in September (annual mean of

325 2086.7 ppb) at Linan site, the lowest 1955.5 ppb in July and without observations in September at
326 Damingshan site (annual mean of $2013.4 \pm (3)$ ppb, where the uncertainty is calculated when
327 assuming the missing data in September and October varied between August and November),
328 respectively. The similar trends among three sites can be explained that they were dominated by
329 similar atmospheric transport processes, such as synoptic process (i.e. monsoon) and seasonal
330 changing wind direction as summarized above. But their surrounding emission sources are highly
331 different, implying the emissions of Hangzhou site should be much larger than Linan and
332 Damingshan sites.

333

334 Because the CH₄ background is important in concentration simulation and emission inversion, we
335 also compared CH₄ background between five sites, where the annual averages at TAP, YON, RYO,
336 WLG and UUM were 1989.8 ppb, 1850.1 ppb, 1982.7 ppb, 1973.4 ppb and 1984.2 ppb,
337 respectively. We found the difference were generally within 20 ppb among TAP, RYO, WLG and
338 UUM sites (Figure 2), but there is large difference between YON site and other four sites from
339 May to August, which can reach to around 100 ppb. Note YON site is located in the south of East
340 China Sea (Figure 1a), it can be influenced by monsoon with clean air flows from the South China
341 Sea, which have much less CH₄ sources compared to air flows from Asian land area. The CH₄
342 background at TAP site appeared slightly higher than other four sites because TAP site is located
343 in coast of South Korea and can be more easily polluted by anthropogenic emissions. Considering
344 above large spatial difference between CH₄ background sites, monthly air flows and source
345 footprint will be used to identify backgrounds for our observation network, with details discussed
346 in Supplementary Material (Section S2, Figure S3 and Table S1).

347

348 **3.2 Concentration footprint and *a priori* emissions**

349 To illustrate the potential source regions of three sites, the annual averages of simulated footprints
350 for each site are displayed in Figure 3a-c. Results show their footprint distributions were quite
351 similar because of close distance, but we also notice there were obvious difference for footprint
352 strength (i.e. the area covered by red color) with Hangzhou site > Linan site > Damingshan site.
353 The reason why footprint at Damingshan site is the lowest is that observations was conducted at

354 1500 m height, which was not easy to receive emission signals within boundary layer heights.
355 Besides, the Hangzhou site is located in the core urban area of Hangzhou city, and it will show
356 significant diurnal variation in PBLH, especially have higher nighttime PBLH caused by
357 anthropogenic heat and high buildings than grassland/farmland dominated Linan site and
358 Damingshan site. Hence more air particles can retain within PBLH and generated stronger
359 footprint.

360

361 The *a priori* EDGAR CH₄ emissions for total anthropogenic categories, waste treatment and its
362 proportions are further illustrated in Figure 3d-f. It shown significant gradients from higher
363 emissions in east to lower emissions in the west, which is consistent with our three tower-based
364 observations. And the CH₄ emissions for waste treatment displayed similar spatial distributions
365 with urban land use and population density (Figure 1c-d), besides, waste treatment seems emitted
366 CH₄ by area sources instead of point sources as waste treatment super plants. Although a few
367 previous studies found limitations of EDGAR inventory to capture CH₄ emission patterns in some
368 urban areas (Pak et al., 2021), here considering the fact that locations of landfills, which is the
369 largest anthropogenic CH₄ emitter in Hangzhou city, are very close to the core urban area and in
370 high consistence with EDGAR, hence we believe the spatial patterns of EDGAR in study region
371 can be reliable. We should note the Chinese government constructed waste separation station in
372 each city with density of one station for per 150~200 households (around 450~800 people), which
373 can emit lots of methane caused by daily biomass waste as area sources (Tian et al., 2022). These
374 above analyses also imply Hangzhou site can observe higher emissions from both waste treatment
375 and total anthropogenic emissions, which will be discussed and quantified later.

376

377 **3.3 Simulation of CH₄ concentrations and its components for three sites**

378 Comparisons between observed and simulated daily CH₄ concentration averages are displayed in
379 Figure 4a-c and hourly concentrations in Figure S4 for three sites. First, the hourly simulations in
380 Figure S4 showed high consistence when only comparing the temporal patterns with observations,
381 indicating good performance of model transport simulations as confirmed in Figure S5 for
382 evaluating meteorological fields. But the relative variations display obvious difference among

383 three sites for daily averages in Figure 4a-c. The mean bias (MB), root mean squared error
384 (RMSE), and correlation coefficient (R) between daily observations and *a priori* simulations were
385 64.1 ppb, 129.2 ppb and 0.44, respectively, for Hangzhou site; and were -6.0 ppb, 57.1 ppb, 0.50
386 for Linan site, 36.2 ppb, 55.6 ppb, 0.54 for Damingshan site. As for Hangzhou site, simulated CH₄
387 concentrations show obvious overestimation from October to April, and the overestimation was
388 also found at Damingshan site. We found the simulations at Linan site shows overall good
389 agreement with observation, but still with slight overestimation from January to April and
390 underestimation from May to September. Considering the source area contributions for three sites
391 are different, these difference among three sites indicated the bias in CH₄ emission largely varied
392 from Hangzhou city to larger regional scale.

393

394 To further quantify detailed contributions from different regions and categories to each tower site,
395 CH₄ enhancements from different categories and source area were also simulated separately for
396 three sites. As displayed in Figure 4d-e, the simulated *a priori* total enhancements at Hangzhou
397 site, Linan site, and Damingshan site were 244.3 ppb, 100.8, and 69.0 ppb, respectively. We also
398 found contributions by waste treatments dominated the total enhancements but with obvious
399 difference among three sites, which varied from the highest 64.2% at Hangzhou site to the lowest
400 41.4% at Damingshan site. We further calculated anthropogenic contributions from Hangzhou city
401 (excluding wetland because of coarser spatial resolution for Hangzhou city) and other provinces,
402 which were 158.4 ppb at Hangzhou site, 30.7 ppb at Linan site, and 10.1 ppb at Damingshan site,
403 respectively. And they accounted for 69.3%, 34.0%, and 16.9% of total anthropogenic
404 enhancements at corresponding sites. These results indicate the CH₄ observations at Hangzhou site,
405 which is located at the core urban region, was more influenced by local emissions (mainly for
406 waste treatment and will be discussed later) and contain much higher enhancements than other two
407 sites. The relative contributions from different regions also imply that the observations at Linan
408 and Damingshan sites can present CH₄ emissions of much larger region as Zhejiang province or
409 YRD area than Hangzhou city (Figure 4e).

410

411 The seasonal-averaged diurnal variations for both observations and simulations are also displayed

412 in Figure 5 for three sites. Although many previous studies only used daytime observations and
413 simulations to evaluate *a priori* emissions bias and constrain emissions (Sargent et al., 2018; Hu et
414 al., 2022), these studies were based on the assumption that the used diurnal scaling factors on *a*
415 *priori* emissions are right (i.e. for anthropogenic CO₂), or the emissions do not have obvious
416 diurnal variations (i.e. emissions from industries or manufacturing). Here as concluded above that
417 the main CH₄ component in Hangzhou city was waste treatment (Figure 3f), which should be
418 highly sensitive to temperature and indicates obvious diurnal and seasonal patterns (Mønster et al.,
419 2019; Kumar et al., 2022). And its emissions will be overestimated if only use daytime emissions
420 to represent daily averages. Further, we found high similarities of the diurnal variations between
421 observations and simulations for three sites, but there are still some discrepancies especially that
422 the observations at Linan site were generally higher than simulations from spring to autumn for
423 both all-day and midday averages.

424

425 Hence, our preliminary conclusions were that the *a priori* CH₄ emissions were generally
426 overestimated for Hangzhou city but underestimated in larger region as Zhejiang or YRD area. We
427 also found simulations were higher than observations for all seasons at Damingshan site, and it
428 can be explained by the high heterogeneity around Damingshan site, where elevations changed
429 from 0 m to 1600 m within the site located grid cell of 9 km (~ 0.1°) as displayed in Figure 1b, and
430 the mountain-valley wind, PBLH changes can only be resolved with much higher spatial
431 resolutions as < 1km. Hence the use of coarse resolutions (i.e. 9 km in this study) at the
432 mountainous regions will bring large bias in simulating concentration and emission inversion, as
433 also recently found in China for CO₂ as “aggregation error” (Agusti-Panareda et al., 2019; Wang et
434 al., 2022), so observations at Damingshan site will not be used in emission inversions in this study.

435

436 **3.4 Constraint on anthropogenic CH₄ emissions**

437 As were displayed in Figures 3f, 5a and concluded in Section 3.3, simulations by using *a priori*
438 CH₄ emissions show obvious overestimations especially from October to April at Hangzhou site,
439 and was also overestimated in winter and underestimated from spring to autumn at Linan site.
440 Note this bias can be attributed to *a priori* emissions or meteorological simulations. Our previous

441 studies in YRD have evaluated the meteorological simulations by using the same physical
442 parameterization schemes, which showed high consistence with observations (Hu et al., 2019;
443 2021; 2022; Huang et al., 2021). We also evaluated the meteorological simulations with
444 observations and confirmed with good model performance (Figure S5). Note PBLH simulations
445 are important in evaluating model performance, we did not have direct PBLH observations to
446 evaluate model performance during the study period, but our previous study used the same
447 physical and PBLH schemes as this study, which was conducted in Nanjing city in the same
448 Domain 2 and vary close to Hangzhou city. This previous study found high consistence between
449 observed and simulated PBLH in winter (Huang et al., 2021). Furthermore, we found there was
450 not monthly variations in EDGAR v6.0 CH₄ emissions for waste treatment, which contributed
451 64.2% to annual CH₄ enhancement average and much higher in winter (Figure S6). The CH₄
452 emissions from waste treatment was a microbial process which should be affected by
453 meteorological conditions especially by seasonal temperature changes. Hence our assumption was
454 that bias in both its seasonality and annual average lead to large overestimation/underestimation in
455 the simulated CH₄ concentration. Besides, bias in other anthropogenic emissions and wetland can
456 also partly contributed to the bias of simulated CH₄ concentration.

457

458 To quantify the bias sources and constrain corresponding *a priori* emissions for Hangzhou city, we
459 applied the scaling factor Bayesian inversion approach with three different cases as introduced in
460 Method section. Instead of only using daytime CH₄ observations to constrain *a priori* emissions,
461 we choose to use all-day hourly data at Hangzhou site to constrain emissions for Hangzhou city,
462 which is based on following three reasons: (1) the enhancements contributed by Hangzhou city at
463 Hangzhou site was 69.3%, and much larger than 34.0%, and 16.9% for Linan site and
464 Damingshan site, respectively; (2) the waste treatment dominated anthropogenic CH₄ emissions in
465 Hangzhou city, which is caused by biological process and should be temperature dependent. The
466 observed temperature displays obvious diurnal variations by 20 °C, the use of only daytime
467 observations without considering diurnal CH₄ emissions will bring significant bias when using
468 derived daytime emissions to represent all-day averages. The annual averages of daytime and
469 all-day average concentrations were 2112.4 and 2156.0 ppb at Hangzhou site, respectively, and

470 more comparisons between daytime and all-day average concentrations are displayed in Figure 5
471 for three sites; (3) previous study by using daytime observations were mainly conducted at regions
472 dominated by industry or energy production, which have much smaller diurnal variations than
473 waste treatment as stated above (Mønster et al., 2019; Kumar et al., 2022).

474

475 The derived monthly *posteriori* SFs for each emission source were displayed in Table 1 for
476 Hangzhou city. Results showed the *posteriori* SFs for waste treatment were much smaller in
477 winter and higher in summer, indicating obvious seasonality and the overestimation in winter was
478 mainly contributed by waste treatment. The annual mean *posteriori* SFs for waste treatment varied
479 between 0.50 and 0.56 in all three cases, illustrating overestimation at annual average for the *a*
480 *priori* waste treatment emissions. Besides, the annual mean *posteriori* SFs varied between 0.87
481 and 0.94 for rest total anthropogenic categories (excluding agricultural soil), and were 0.97 for
482 PRO (fuel exploitation) and 0.91 for RCO (energy for building), respectively; the annual mean
483 *posteriori* SFs and were 1.05 and 1.05 for wetland (including agricultural soil and natural wetland).
484 These *posteriori* SFs for the rest anthropogenic categories and wetland indicated much smaller
485 bias than waste treatment. The monthly *posteriori* SFs for PRO and RCO also illustrated obvious
486 seasonal variations, but were still smaller than the *a priori* seasonality in inventory (Figure S7).

487

488 To evaluate whether the *posteriori* SFs have significantly improved CH₄ emissions, we used these
489 SFs to derive the *posteriori* emissions and re-simulated hourly concentrations in Figure 6 (and
490 daily averages in Figure S8). Results showed the hourly overestimation by using *a priori*
491 emissions was largely reduced by using *posteriori* emissions when compared with observations in
492 Figure 6a-b, and the regression slope between daily averaged observations and simulations
493 decreased from 1.51(±0.15) for *a priori* simulations to 0.85(±0.07) for *posteriori* simulations in
494 Figure 6c. The mean bias (MB), root mean squared errors (RMSE), correlation coefficient (R)
495 between daily observations and *a priori* simulations were 64.1 ppb, 129.2 ppb and 0.44,
496 respectively, and these statistics changed to -22.2 ppb, 72.3 ppb and 0.58 for *posteriori*
497 simulations. These results indicate the *posteriori* SFs obviously decreased the bias in *a priori*
498 emissions and were much close to observations.

499 The comparisons of monthly CH₄ emissions between *a priori* and *posteriori* waste treatment and
500 other anthropogenic sources (excluding agricultural soil) in Hangzhou city were displayed in
501 Figures 7a and S7. For the *a priori* inventory, there is not seasonal variations for waste treatment
502 with constant monthly emissions of 8.67×10^3 t, and other anthropogenic sources showed
503 seasonality with much higher in winter (i.e. 5.22×10^3 t in January) than in summer (i.e. $3.06 \times$
504 10^3 t in August). The seasonality in *a priori* EDGAR inventory was mainly dominated by RCO
505 (Energy for buildings), with proportions to total anthropogenic emissions changed from the
506 highest 22% in winter to lowest ~8% in summer. Such information indicates the *a priori* inventory
507 assigned more leaks from natural gas distribution infrastructure in winter than in summer. As
508 discussed above that the constant emissions from waste treatment should be wrong because of its
509 large temperature sensitivity, and the observed monthly temperature difference between summer
510 and winter was larger than 25°C in Hangzhou city. Here after the constraint by using observed
511 concentration, the *posteriori* emissions for waste treatment showed obvious seasonality with
512 highest value in July ($7.66 \pm 0.09 \times 10^3$ t) and lowest in February ($2.20 \pm 0.87 \times 10^3$ t). And the
513 other anthropogenic emissions showed much smaller seasonality (highest in January of $4.18 \pm$
514 0.69×10^3 t and lowest in August of $2.88 \pm 0.15 \times 10^3$ t) than *a priori* emissions. In general, the
515 annual emission from waste treatment was 10.4×10^4 t in *a priori* EDGAR inventory and
516 decreased to $5.5 (\pm 0.6) \times 10^4$ t for the *posteriori* emissions by 47.1%. The *a priori* emissions from
517 other anthropogenic sources was 4.5×10^4 t and only slightly decreased to $4.1 (\pm 0.3) \times 10^4$ t for the
518 *posteriori* emissions by 8.9%. The proportion of waste treatment to total anthropogenic emissions
519 decreased from *a priori* 69.3% to *posteriori* 57.3%. To sum it up, the annual total anthropogenic
520 CH₄ emissions (excluding agricultural soil) decreased from 15.0×10^4 t to $9.6 (\pm 0.9) \times 10^4$ t,
521 indicating overestimation of 36.0% in Hangzhou city for the *a priori* emissions.

522

523 However, as concluded above that the observations and simulations at Linan site, which represents
524 much larger region as Zhejiang province or YRD area, illustrated slightly different results that
525 CH₄ simulations were underestimated from spring to autumn and overestimated in winter (Figure
526 4b and Figure 5e-h). Here we used multiplicative scaling factor (MSF) method and observations at
527 Linan site to derive SFs at seasonal scale (Sargent et al., 2018; He et al., 2020), where we used 10

528 ppb as the potential CH₄ background uncertainty in winter, spring and autumn, and 20 ppb in
529 summer, see details in the Supplementary Material (Section S2). The derived *posteriori* SFs were
530 0.87 (± 0.08), 1.07 (± 0.11), 1.19 (± 0.24), and 1.16 (± 0.11) for winter, spring, summer, and autumn,
531 respectively. It showed similar seasonal variations as found for Hangzhou city and was 1.07
532 (± 0.14) of *a priori* anthropogenic emissions for the annual average. Our observations at Hangzhou
533 site and Linan site together indicate the *a priori* emissions largely biased at both seasonal and
534 annual scale, and the annual anthropogenic CH₄ emission was largely overestimated by 36.0% in
535 Hangzhou city, but was underestimated by 7.0% in larger region as Zhejiang province or YRD
536 area.

537

538 **3.5 Temperature sensitivity of waste treatment CH₄ EFs and projected changes**

539 Although the derived *posteriori* monthly SFs on waste treatment reflected changes on emissions,
540 considering the monthly activity data does not have obvious monthly changes, these SFs can
541 mainly reflect relative variations of monthly EFs and contain meteorological dominated changes
542 especially for temperature. To evaluate the temperature sensitivity of its EFs, we first calculated
543 the normalized monthly SFs by dividing monthly SFs by annual averages (Table S2), and
544 quantified the relationship between observed T_{2m} and normalized SFs. The normalized SFs
545 illustrated significant linear relationship with monthly T_{2m} (Figure 7b), where the slopes imply that
546 normalized SFs (and EFs) will increase by 38%~50% with temperature increase by 10°C at city
547 scale.

548

549 We should note the precipitation, soil water content and atmospheric pressure can also have
550 obvious influence on CH₄ emissions, and considering the fact that we have not conducted field
551 measurement in landfills and landfills are usually covered by metal or plastic in China to avoid the
552 spread of odor smell, hence reanalysis data cannot represent real soil water contents in these site
553 scale landfills. Precipitation and atmospheric pressure showed obvious linear relationship with
554 temperature as displayed in Figure S8. They displayed positive linear relationship between
555 precipitation (affect water content) and T_{2m}, and negative linear relationship between monthly
556 averaged atmospheric pressure and T_{2m}. We also found negative relationship between atmospheric

557 pressure and normalized SFs (Figure S8a). Considering air temperature always displays negative
558 relationship with atmospheric pressure as warmer air temperature coincides with lighter air mass
559 and lower atmospheric pressure in summer, and colder air temperature coincides with heavier air mass and
560 higher atmospheric pressure in winter. Hence, the temperature can be used to represent
561 co-influence of both temperature and atmospheric pressure, and we only focus on the influence of
562 temperature on CH₄ emissions and will add more supporting data in following studies.

563

564 Our findings for the high sensitivity of waste treatment CH₄ emissions to temperature also
565 indicated dramatic increase with the projection of future global warming trends. We further
566 derived the T_{2m} trends for four different RCP scenarios as RCP8.0, RCP6.0, RCP4.5 and RCP2.6
567 (Figure 8a), results showed T_{2m} will increase by 0.50°C, 0.28°C, 0.16°C, 0.10°C per decade for
568 Hangzhou city, respectively. These different warming trends also indicate distinct
569 temperature-dominated influence on future CH₄ EFs and emissions from waste treatment. We then
570 used the slopes in Figure 7b and annual temperature from 2021 to 2100 to derive relative changes
571 of EF in future 80 years, where observation year of 2021 was treated as the baseline year. As
572 displayed in Figure 8b, the EFs in RCP8.5, RCP6.0, RCP4.5 and RCP2.6 scenarios will increase
573 with the rates of 2.2%, 1.2%, 0.7% and 0.5% per decade, respectively. And CH₄ EFs for waste
574 treatment will finally increase by 17.6%, 9.6%, 5.6%, and 4.0% at the end of this century.

575

576 The spatial distribution of T_{2m} trends for whole China were also displayed in Figure S10, which
577 showed heterogeneous distributions across China for four global warming scenarios. Because east
578 China is with high population density and the majority of national population (Figure S1), and
579 owns the largest domestic garbage induced CH₄ emissions (Figure S2), these combined factors
580 indicate considerable CH₄ emissions changes from waste treatment in such a
581 temperature-sensitivity area. Considering the temperature sensitivity of waste treatment CH₄ EFs
582 are caused by microbial process at the regional scales, it can represent general conditions of
583 different cities or landfills. And if we assume the derived temperature sensitivity (increase by 44%
584 with temperature increases by 10°C on average) is applicable for whole China especially for east
585 China, the relative changes of waste treatment CH₄ EFs can be calculated by multiplying this

586 value with air temperature trends. And the spatial distributions of global warming induced EFs
587 changes at the end of this century are displayed Figure 9. For RCP2.6 scenario, EFs for waste
588 treatment will slightly increase by 4.0-6.5% in the north of east China and increase by 3.0-4.0% in
589 south of east China. The RCP6.0 also displayed heterogeneous changes in east China, with the
590 north of east China increase by 10.5-13.0% and south of east China increase by 9.0-10.5%.
591 Relative changes in RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 are more homogeneous for east China, which indicates
592 EFs will significantly increase by 5.0-7.5% and 17.5-19.5%, respectively. The largest changes will
593 occur in west China for RCP8.5 by >20.0%, but this area is with low population density and CH₄
594 emissions, and indicates ignorable effects of global warming (Figure S8). Finally, we should note
595 these derived relative changes are only caused by global warming, and the influence of activity
596 data, management technology and other factors is not considered and out of the scope of this
597 study.

598

599 **4 Discussions and implications**

600 Many previous studies have compared total CH₄ emissions and its components for different
601 inventories and bottom-up methods, which illustrated large uncertainty and bias at city scale and
602 these biases are much larger for waste treatment (Peng et al., 2016; Saunois et al., 2020; Lin et al.,
603 2021; Bian et al., 2022). A recent bottom-up research compared wastewater CH₄ EFs in China,
604 which largely varied by four-fold in different provinces and the uncertainty in the same province
605 were even two-fold larger than its average, implying considerable bias in recent understanding of
606 waste treatment EFs at regional scale (Hua et al., 2022). And for the national total emissions, it
607 varied between 5 and 15 Tg a⁻¹ (Peng et al., 2016; EDGAR v6). There are also other atmospheric
608 inversion studies in estimating China's CH₄ emissions (Hopkins et al., 2016; Hu et al., 2019;
609 Huang et al., 2021; Miller et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2022). These studies found large
610 bias of national-wide emissions for almost all inventories, which were mainly caused by fossil fuel
611 exploitation, agricultural sector (livestock and rice paddies) and waste treatment. For the
612 comparisons of waste treatment emissions, these satellite-based inversions also largely varied
613 between 6 and 9 Tg a⁻¹ by 1.5-fold (Miller et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2022; Zhang et
614 al., 2022).

615 The above discrepancies between “bottom-up” and “top-down” approaches indicate large
616 uncertainty in understanding China’s national CH₄ emissions from waste treatment. And it is well
617 known the uncertainties increase from national scale to regional and cities, and also implying
618 considerable bias in city-scale emissions for inventories. But the atmospheric inversion approach
619 for city scale waste treatment, which can act as independent evaluation, is still rare not only for
620 China but also globally. To our best knowledge, there is only one recent atmospheric inverting
621 research focused on CH₄ emissions from city-scale waste treatment, which used satellite-based
622 observation to constrain emissions from four cities in India and Pakistan, that concluded
623 underestimation of landfills CH₄ emissions by 1.4 to 2.6 times for EDGAR inventory (Maasackers
624 et al., 2022). In our study, we found annual waste CH₄ emissions were overestimated by 47.1% for
625 Hangzhou city, our findings are different with results in India and Pakistan. These differences
626 indicate bias of waste treatment CH₄ emissions considerably varied in different countries and
627 climate divisions. Our results highlight there is large knowledge gap in understanding its emission
628 mechanism and estimating urban waste treatment CH₄ emissions especially in China.

629

630 Different from other fossil-type sources that have much smaller monthly variations, waste
631 treatment is microbial process based and its EFs is highly sensitive to meteorological conditions
632 especially for temperature. These factors lead to obvious bias in waste treatment CH₄ emissions
633 not only for annual average but also for its seasonality. Besides, although there are a few studies
634 that aim to predict future CH₄ emissions from waste treatment, these studies were mainly based on
635 activity data changes without considering the EFs variations caused by future global warming
636 trends or only based on site-specific observations (USEPA 2013; Cai et al., 2018; Spokas et al.,
637 2021). For the mentioned three cited studies, USEPA (2013) and Cai et al. (2018) only predicted
638 emission change due to changes in activity data and management technology. And the CH₄
639 emissions for year of 2030 by Cai et al. (2018) was 23.5% lower than USEPA (2013) estimation,
640 which was caused by the consideration of new policies and low-carbon policy scenarios. And
641 Spokas et al. (2021) modeled the CH₄ emission changes with increasing air temperature, where
642 CH₄ emissions did not show obvious changes even with temperature increasing by ~5°C at the end
643 of year 2100. To our best knowledge, there is not inventories that considered the temperature

644 induced changes on both its seasonal variations and annual trends. Hence, it's still unclear in all
645 inventories how will EFs change with different global warming scenarios at city scale.

646

647 A few observation-based measurements were conducted for waste treatment but only at some
648 specific sites with large discrepancies of EFs (Du et al., 2017; 2018; Cai et al., 2018; Zhao et al.,
649 2019; NBSC, 2015; Wang et al., 2015; Florentino et al., 2010; Tolaymat et al., 2010; Cai et al.,
650 2014; 2018). And only one of our previous study used year-round atmospheric CH₄ observations
651 to constrain regional scale CH₄ emissions at Nanjing city in YRD area (Huang et al., 2021), it
652 found much higher emissions of the landfilling waste in summer than in winter, and emissions in
653 July was around four times in February. But there is not study that has quantified the temperature
654 sensitivity of waste CH₄ emissions at city scale or much larger regional scales. These two studies
655 in different cities confirmed temperature is the dominant factors that drive seasonal variations of
656 waste treatment CH₄ emissions. Hence our study appears as the first one that estimated city scale
657 waste treatment CH₄ emissions, its temperature sensitivity and projected changes in different
658 global warming scenarios. Our findings for the large sensitivity on temperature indicate the
659 monthly scaling factors should be considered to better simulate atmospheric CH₄ concentrations.

660

661 We also note that the predictions of future climate changes were mainly based on different
662 emitting intensity of greenhouse gas, and CH₄ contributed around 20% of direct anthropogenic
663 radiative forcing (Seto et al., 2014). The CH₄ emissions in different global warming scenarios
664 were mainly calculated by predicting energy use data without consideration the changes of EFs. In
665 this study, we found there should be large positive feedback between global warming and CH₄
666 emissions, especially in the RCP 8.0 scenario where global warming induced emissions will
667 increase by 17.6%. Hence the projected emissions from waste treatments and other biological
668 processes-based sources, together with positive feedback between temperature and their emissions
669 are strongly suggested in future climate change models. Besides, it's well known the CH₄
670 concentration simulations are essential for modeling many air pollutions (i.e. O₃, NO_x, and CO)
671 especially in stratosphere (Isaksen et al., 2011; Kaiho et al., 2013), and considering the waste
672 treatment CH₄ emissions accounted for ~25% of total anthropogenic emissions (EDGAR v6.0) in

673 east China where severe air pollution frequently occurred, we also believe the coupling of
674 temperature-dependent CH₄ emissions and the monthly scaling factors on CH₄ emissions can
675 improve air pollution modeling in east China.

676

677 We should note that new technology and other meteorological variables can also influence waste
678 treatment CH₄ emissions. The main reason to only use temperature in this study is that we only
679 constrained the emissions at monthly scale in one year, and derived twelve datasets of *posteriori*
680 CH₄ emissions. Besides, temperature is considered as the main factor in controlling monthly and
681 annual variations of waste treatment CH₄ emissions, and can be used to represent co-influence of
682 other meteorological parameters as atmospheric pressure. We will use multiple years' CH₄
683 concentration to quantify the influence of new technology and other meteorological variables on
684 waste treatment CH₄ emissions in our following study, and we suggest other tracers (i.e. ethane,
685 ¹⁴CH₄) are also important to separate CH₄ emissions from biological and fossil CH₄ emissions.

686

687 **5 Conclusions**

688 To better evaluate bias for city scale anthropogenic CH₄ emissions and understand the sensitivity
689 of temperature on waste treatment CH₄ emissions, we conducted three tower-based atmospheric
690 CH₄ observation network in Hangzhou city, which is located in developed YRD region and one of
691 top 10 megacities in China. One-year hourly atmospheric CH₄ observations were presented from
692 December 2020 to November 2021. We then applied a scaling factor Bayesian inversion method
693 to constrain monthly anthropogenic CH₄ emissions and its components (especially for waste
694 treatments) in Hangzhou city, and also used multiplicative scaling factor method for broader
695 Zhejiang province and YRD area at seasonal scale.

696

697 To the best of our knowledge, our study is the first tower-based CH₄ observation network in China.
698 We found obvious seasonal bias of simulated CH₄ concentrations at the core urban area of
699 Hangzhou city, which was mainly caused by bias of waste treatment at both annual and monthly
700 scales. The derived *posteriori* CH₄ emissions displayed significant seasonal variations with peak
701 in summer and trough in winter which was mainly caused by waste treatment; the *a priori* annual

702 waste treatment CH₄ emission in Hangzhou city was 10.4×10^4 t and decreased to $5.5 (\pm 0.6) \times 10^4$ t
703 for the *posteriori* emissions by 47.1%. Besides, the total anthropogenic CH₄ emissions (excluding
704 agricultural soil) decreased from 15.0×10^4 t to $9.6 (\pm 0.9) \times 10^4$ t, indicating overestimation of 36.0%
705 for the whole year of 2021. Observations at Linan site imply that the annual CH₄ emissions was
706 slightly underestimated by 7.0% in larger region as Zhejiang province or YRD area, which was
707 different with Hangzhou city. Additionally, the *posteriori* monthly CH₄ emissions from waste
708 treatment illustrated significant linear relationship with air temperature, with regression slopes
709 indicating an increase of 38%~50% when temperature increases by 10°C. Finally, we found the
710 waste treatment CH₄ EFs for Hangzhou city will increase by 17.6%, 9.6%, 5.6%, and 4.0% at the
711 end of this century for RCP8.0, RCP6.0, RCP4.5 and RCP2.6 scenarios, respectively. The derived
712 relative changes for whole China also showed high heterogeneity and indicates large uncertainty
713 in projecting future national total CH₄ emissions. This study is also the first one that mainly
714 focuses on city scale temperature sensitivity of waste treatment CH₄ emissions from the
715 perspective of atmospheric inversion approach. And based on above results, we strongly suggest
716 the temperature-dependent EFs should be coupled in both recent CH₄ inventories and future CH₄
717 emission projections.

718

719 **Data availability:** The atmospheric CH₄ observations data can be requested from Cheng Hu and
720 Bing Qi. STILT model is downloaded from <http://www.stilt-model.org/>, the EDGAR inventory is
721 from <https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/>, and the projected climate data were downloaded from World
722 Data Center for Climate (WDCC, <https://www.wdc-climate.de/ui/>).

723 **Acknowledgement:** Cheng Hu is supported by the National Natural Science foundation of China
724 (grant no. 42105117) and Natural Science Foundation of Jiangsu Province (grant no. BK20200802).
725 Wei Xiao is supported by the National Key R&D Program of China (grants 2020YFA0607501 &
726 2019YFA0607202). This work is also supported by Zhejiang Provincial Basic Public Welfare Research
727 Project (LGF22D050004).

728 **Author contribution:** Cheng Hu and Bing Qi designed the study. Cheng Hu performed the model
729 simulation, data analysis and wrote the paper; Bing Qi and Rongguang Du conducted CH₄
730 concentration observation and meteorological data collection, and all co-authors contributed to the
731 data/figures preparation and analysis.

732 **Declaration of competing interests:** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

733

734

735 **References:**

736 Agustí-Panareda, A., Diamantakis, M., Massart, S., Chevallier, F., Muñoz-Sabater, J., Barré, J., Curcoll, R.,
737 Engelen, R., Langerock, B., Law, R. M., Loh, Z., Morguí, J. A., Parrington, M., Peuch, V.-H., Ramonet, M., Roehl,
738 C., Vermeulen, A. T., Warneke, T., and Wunch, D.: Modelling CO₂ weather – why horizontal resolution matters,
739 *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 19, 7347–7376, <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-19-7347-2019>, 2019.

740

741 Bian R., Zhang T., Zhao F., et al. Greenhouse gas emissions from waste sectors in China during 2006–2019:
742 Implications for carbon mitigation. *Process. Saf. Environ.*, 161:488-497, 2022.

743 Bloom, A. A., Bowman, K. W., Lee, M., Turner, A. J., Schroeder, R., Worden, J. R., Weidner, R., McDonald, K. C.,
744 and Jacob, D. J.: A global wetland methane emissions and uncertainty dataset for atmospheric chemical transport
745 models (WetCHARTs version 1.0), *Geosci. Model Dev.*, 10, 2141–2156,
746 <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-10-2141-2017>, 2017.

747

748 Cai, B., J. Liu, X. Zeng, D. Cao, L. Liu, Y. Zhou, Z. Zhang, Estimation of CH₄ emission from landfill in China
749 based on point emission sources. *Adv. Clim. Change Res.* 5, 81–91, 2014.

750

751 Cai, B., Lou, Z., Wang, J., Geng, Y., Sarkis, J., Liu, J., and Gao, Q.: CH₄ mitigation potentials from China landfills
752 and related environmental co-benefits, *Sci. Adv.*, 4, eaar8400, <https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.aar8400>, 2018.

753

754 Chen, Z., Jacob, D. J., Nesser, H., Sulprizio, M. P., Lorente, A., Varon, D. J., Lu, X., Shen, L., Qu, Z., Penn, E., and
755 Yu, X.: Methane emissions from China: a high-resolution inversion of TROPOMI satellite observations, *Atmos.*
756 *Chem. Phys.*, 22, 10809–10826, <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-22-10809-2022>, 2022.

757

758 Du, M., Peng, C., Wang, X., Chen, H., Wang, M., and Zhu, Q.: Quantification of methane emissions from
759 municipal solid waste landfills in China during the past decade, *Renew. Sust. Energ. Rev.*, 78, 272–279, 2017.

760

761 Du, M., Zhu, Q., Wang, X., Li, P., Yang, B., Chen, H., Wang, M., Zhou, X., and Peng, C.: Estimates and
762 predictions of methane emissions from wastewater in China from 2000 to 2020, *Earths Future*, 6, 252–263, 2018.

763

764 Fang S.X., R.G. Du, B. Qi. et al., Variation of carbon dioxide mole fraction at a typical urban area in the Yangtze
765 River Delta, China. *Atmos. Res*, 265, 105884, 2022.

766

767 Florentino, Cruz., B. De La , and M. A. Barlaz ., Estimation of waste component-specific landfill decay rates using
768 laboratory-scale decomposition data. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 44, 4722–4728, 2010.

769

770 Griffis, T. J., Chen, Z., Baker, J. M., Wood, J. D., Millet, D. B., Lee, X., et al., Nitrous oxide emissions are
771 enhanced in a warmer and wetter world. *P. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, 114(45), 12081–12085.
772 <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1704552114>, 2017.

773 He, J., Naik, V., Horowitz, L. W., Dlugokencky, E., and Thoning, K.: Investigation of the global methane budget
774 over 1980–2017 using GFDL-AM4.1, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 2020, 20, 805–827,
775 <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-20-805-2020>.

776

777 Henne, S., Brunner, D., Oney, B., Leuenberger, M., Eugster, W., Bamberger, I., Meinhardt, F., Steinbacher, M., and

778 Emmenegger, L.: Validation of the Swiss methane emission inventory by atmospheric observations and inverse
779 modelling, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 16, 3683–3710, <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-16-3683-2016>, 2016.

780

781 Hopkins, F. M., Kort, E. A., Bush, S. E., Ehleringer, J. R., Lai, C.-T., Blake, D. R., & Randerson, J. T. Spatial
782 patterns and source attribution of urban methane in the Los Angeles Basin. *J. Geophys. Res-Atmos.*, 121, 2490–
783 2507, 2016.

784

785 Höglund-Isaksson, L.: Global anthropogenic methane emissions 2005–2030: technical mitigation potentials and
786 costs, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 12, 9079–9096, <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-12-9079-2012>, 2012.

787

788 Hua, H., Jiang, S., Yuan, Z., Liu, X., Zhang, Y., & Cai, Z. Advancing greenhouse gas emission factors for
789 municipal wastewater treatment plants in China. *Environ. Pollut.*, 295, 118648.
790 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2021.118648>, 2022.

791

792 Hu C, Griffis, T. J., Liu, S., Xiao, W., Hu, N., Huang, W., Yang, D., Lee, X., Anthropogenic methane emission and
793 its partitioning for the Yangtze River Delta region of China. *J. Geophys. Res-Biogeophys.*, 124(5): 1148-1170, 2019.

794

795 Hu, C., Xu, J., Liu, C., Chen, Y., Yang, D., Huang, W., Deng, L., Liu, S., Griffis, T. J., and Lee, X.: Anthropogenic
796 and natural controls on atmospheric $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -CO₂ variations in the Yangtze River delta: insights from a carbon
797 isotope modeling framework, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 21, 10015–10037, <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-21-10015-2021>,
798 2021.

799

800 Hu, C., Griffis, T.J., Xia, L., Xiao, W., Liu, C., Xiao, Q., Huang, X., Yang, Y., Zhang, L., Hou, B., Anthropogenic
801 CO₂ emission reduction during the COVID-19 pandemic in Nanchang City, China, *Environ. Pollut.*, 309, 119767,
802 doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2022.119767>, 2022.

803 Huang, W. J., T. J. Griffis, C. Hu, W. Xiao, and X. H. Lee. Seasonal variations of CH₄ emissions in the
804 Yangtze River Delta region of China are driven by agricultural activities. *Adv. Atmos. Sci.*, 38(9), 1537–1551,
805 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00376-021-0383-9>, 2021.

806

807 Isaksen I S, Gauss M, Myhre G, Anthony W, Katey M and Ruppel C 2011 Strong atmospheric chemistry feedback
808 to climate warming from Arctic methane emissions. *Global Biogeochem. Cy.* 25 GB2002, 2011.

809

810 Kumar, P.; Broquet, G.; Caldw, C.; et al. Near-field atmospheric inversions for the localization and quantification
811 Of controlled methane releases using stationary and mobile measurements. *Q. J. R. Meteorol. Soc.* 2022, 148,
812 1886–1912

813

814 Kissas K , Ibrom A , Kjeldsen P , et al. Methane emission dynamics from a Danish landfill: The effect of changes
815 in barometric pressure. *Waste Management*, 2022, 138:234-242.

816

817 Lian, J., Bréon, F.-M., Broquet, G., Lauvaux, T., Zheng, B., Ramonet, M., Xueref-Remy, I., Kotthaus, S.,
818 Haefelin, M., and Ciais, P.: Sensitivity to the sources of uncertainties in the modeling of atmospheric CO₂
819 concentration within and in the vicinity of Paris, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 21, 10707–10726,
820 <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-21-10707-2021>, 2021.

821

822 Lin, X., Zhang, W., Crippa, M., Peng, S., Han, P., Zeng, N., Yu, L., and Wang, G.: A comparative study of
823 anthropogenic CH₄ emissions over China based on the ensembles of bottom-up inventories, *Earth Syst. Sci. Data*,
824 13, 1073–1088, <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-13-1073-2021>, 2021.

825

826 Lopez-Coto, I., Ren, X., Salmon, O. E., Karion, A., Shepson, P. B., Dickerson, R. R., Stein, A., Prasad, K., and
827 Whetstone, J. R.: Wintertime CO₂, CH₄, and CO Emissions Estimation for the Washington, DC-Baltimore
828 Metropolitan Area Using an Inverse Modeling Technique, *Environmental Science and Technology*, 54, 2606–2614,
829 <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.9b06619>, 2020.

830

831 Lou, Z., Cai, B.F., Zhu, N., Zhao, Y., Geng, Y., Yu, B., Chen, W., Greenhouse gas emission inventories from waste
832 sector in China during 1949–2013 and its mitigation potential. *J. Clean. Prod.* 157, 118–124.
833 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.04.135>, 2017.

834

835 Lu, X., Jacob, D. J., Zhang, Y., Maasackers, J. D., Sulprizio, M. P., Shen, L., Qu, Z., Scarpelli, T. R., Nesser, H.,
836 Yantosca, R. M., Sheng, J., Andrews, A., Parker, R. J., Boesch, H., Bloom, A. A., and Ma, S.: Global methane
837 budget and trend, 2010–2017: complementarity of inverse analyses using in situ (GLOBALVIEW-
838 ObsPack) and satellite (GOSAT) observations, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 21, 4637–4657, [https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-21-4637-2021)
839 [21-4637-2021](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-21-4637-2021), 2021.

840

841 Kaiho K., Koga S. Impacts of a massive release of methane and hydrogen sulfide on oxygen and ozone during the
842 late Permian mass extinction. *Global Planetary Change*, 107:91-101,
843 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloplacha.2013.04.004>, 2013.

844

845 Maasackers, J. D., Varon, D. J., Elfarisdóttir, A., McKeever, J., Jarvis, D., Mahapatra, G., Pandey, S., Lorente, A.,
846 Borsdorff, T., Foorhuis, L. R., Schuit, B. J., Tol, P., van Kempen, T. A., van Hees, R., & Aben, I. Using satellites to
847 uncover large methane emissions from landfills. *Sci. Adv.* 8, eabn9683, 10.
848 <https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.abn9683>, 2022.

849

850 Masuda, S., Sano, I., Hojo, T., Li, Y., Nishimura, O., The comparison of greenhouse gas emissions in sewage
851 treatment plants with different treatment processes. *Chemosphere* 193, 581–590, 2018.

852

853 Miles, N. L., Richardson, S. J., Lauvaux, T., Davis, K. J., Balashov, N. V., Deng, A., Turnbull, J. C., Sweeney, C.,
854 Gurney, K. R., Patarasuk, R., Razlivanov, I., Cambaliza, M. O. L. and Shepson, P. B.: Quantification of urban
855 atmospheric boundary layer greenhouse gas dry mole fraction enhancements in the dormant season: Results from
856 the Indianapolis Flux Experiment (INFLUX), *Elem Sci Anth*, 5, 27, doi:10.1525/elementa.127, 2017.

857

858 Miller, S. M., Matross, D. M., Andrews, A. E., Millet, D. B., Longo, M., Gottlieb, E. W., Hirsch, A. I., Gerbig, C.,
859 Lin, J. C., Daube, B. C., Hudman, R. C., Dias, P. L. S., Chow, V. Y., and Wofsy, S. C.: Sources of carbon monoxide
860 and formaldehyde in North America determined from high-resolution atmospheric data, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 8,
861 7673–7696, <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-8-7673-2008>, 2008.

862

863 Miller, S. M., Michalak, A. M., Detmers, R. G., Hasekamp, O. P., Bruhwiler, L. M. P., & Schwietzke, S. China's
864 coal mine methane regulations have not curbed growing emissions. *Nature Communications*, 10(1), 303–308.
865 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-018-07891-7>, 2019.

866 Mønster, J., Kjeldsen, P. and Scheutz, C. (2019) Methodologies for measuring fugitive methane emissions from
867 landfills – a review. In *Waste Management.*, 87, 835– 859. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2018.12.047>.

868 National Bureau of Statistics of China (NBSC), *China Statistical Yearbook* (China Statistics Press, 2015) (in
869 Chinese).

870

871 Pak N M , Heerah S , Zhang J , et al. The Facility Level and Area Methane Emissions inventory for the Greater
872 Toronto Area (FLAME-GTA)[J]. *Atmospheric Environment*, 2021, 252(9):118319.

873

874 Peng, S., Piao, S., Bousquet, P., Ciais, P., Li, B., Lin, X., Tao, S., Wang, Z., Zhang, Y., and Zhou, F.: Inventory of
875 anthropogenic methane emissions in mainland China from 1980 to 2010, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 16, 14545–14562,
876 <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-16-14545-2016>, 2016.

877

878 Sargent, M., Barrera, Y., Nehrkorn, T., Hutyra, L. R., Gately, C. K., Mckain, K., Sweeney, C., Hegarty, J.,
879 Hardiman, B., Steven C. Wofsy, S. C.: Anthropogenic and biogenic CO₂ fluxes in the Boston urban region, *P. Natl.*
880 *Acad. Sci. USA.*, 115(40), <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1803715115>, 2018.

881

882 Saunio, M., Stavert, A. R., Poulter, B., et al., The Global Methane Budget 2000–2017, *Earth Syst. Sci. Data*, 12,
883 1561– 1623, <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-12-1561-2020>, 2020.

884

885 Seto, K. C. hakal, S. Bigio, A. Blanco, H. elgado, G. C. ewar., Huang, L. Inaba, A. Kansal, A. Lwasa, S. cahon, J.
886 ller., B. urakami, J. Nagendra, H. amaswami, A. Humansettlements, infrastructure and spatial planning. *Climate*
887 *Change 2014:Mitigation of Climate Change. IPCC Working Group III Contribution toAR5; Cambridge University*
888 *Press, 2014; Chapter 12.*

889

890 Solazzo, E., Crippa, M., Guizzardi, D., Muntean, M., Choulga, M., and Janssens-Maenhout, G.: Uncertainties in
891 the Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR) emission inventory of greenhouse gases,
892 *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 21, 5655–5683, <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-21-5655-2021>, 2021.

893

894 Spokas, K.A., et al. 2021. Modeling landfill CH₄ emissions: CALMIM international fieldvalidation, using
895 CALMIM to simulate management strategies, current and futureclimate scenarios. *Elem Sci Anth*, 9: 1.
896 <https://doi.org/10.1525/elementa.2020.00050Do>, 2020.

897

898 Tolaymat, T., M., R. B. Green, G. R. Hater, M. A. Barlaz, P. Black, D. Bronson, J. Powell, Evaluation of landfill
899 gas decay constant for municipal solid waste landfills operated as bioreactors. *J. Air Waste Manage. Assoc.* 60, 91–
900 97, 2010.

901

902 Thoning, K. W., Tans, P. P., and Komhyr, W. D.: Atmospheric carbon dioxide at Mauna Loa observatory 2.
903 Analysis of the NOAA/GMCC data, 1974–1985, *J. Geophys. Res.-Atmos.*, 94, 8549–
904 8565, <https://doi.org/10.1029/JD094iD06p08549>, 1989.

905

906 Tian, J., Gong, Y., Li, Y., Chen, X., Zhang, L., & Sun, Y. (2022). Can policy implementation increase public waste
907 sorting behavior? The comparison between regions with and without waste sorting policy implementation in China.
908 *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 132401.

909 United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA), Global Mitigation of Non-CO₂ Greenhouse Gases
910 2010-2030 (United States Environmental Protection Agency Office of Atmospheric Programs (6207J),
911 EPA-430-R-13-011, 2013);
912 www.epa.gov/sites/production/files/2016-07/documents/mac_report_2014-exec_summ.compressed.pdf

913 Verhulst, K. R., Karion, A., Kim, J., Salameh, P. K., Keeling, R. F., Newman, S., Miller, J., Sloop, C., Pongetti, T.,
914 Rao, P., Wong, C., Hopkins, F. M., Yadav, V., Weiss, R. F., Duren, R. M. and Miller, C. E.: Carbon dioxide and
915 methane measurements from the Los Angeles Megacity Carbon Project – Part 1: calibration, urban enhancements,
916 and uncertainty 10 estimates, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 17(13), 8313–8341, doi:10.5194/acp-17-8313-2017, 2017

917 Wang, X., A. S. Nagpure, J. F. DeCarolis, M. A. Barlaz, Characterization of uncertainty in estimation of methane
918 collection from select U.S. landfills. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 49, 1545–1551, 2015.
919

920 Wang, Y., Wang, X., Wang, K. *et al.* The size of the land carbon sink in China. *Nature*, E7–E9.
921 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-021-04255-y>, 2022.
922

923 Williams, J. P., Ars, S., Vogel, F., Regehr, A., & Kang, M. (2022). Differentiating and Mitigating Methane
924 Emissions from Fugitive Leaks from Natural Gas Distribution, Historic Landfills, and Manholes in Montréal,
925 Canada. *Environmental Science & Technology*. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.2c06254>
926

927 Yadav, V., Duren, R., Mueller, K., Verhulst, K. R., Nehrkorn, T., and Kim, J., Spatio-temporally resolved
928 methane fluxes from the Los Angeles megacity *J. Geophys. Res. Atmos.* 124, 5131–5148 (2019).
929

930 Zhao, X., Jin, X., Guo, W., Zhang, C., Shan, Y., Du, M., Tillotson, M., Yang, H., Liao, X., and Li, Y.: China's
931 urban methane emissions from municipal wastewater treatment plant, *Earths Future*, 7, 480–490, 2019.
932

933 Zhao, Z., Bian, R., Zhao, F., Chai, X., Implications of municipal solid waste disposal methods in China on
934 greenhouse gas emissions. *Renew. Sust. Energ. Rev.* 39 (3). <https://doi.org/10.1002/ep.13372>, 2019.
935

936 Zhang, B. and Chen, G.: China's CH₄ and CO₂ emissions: Bottomup estimation and comparative analysis, *Ecol.*
937 *Indic.*, 47, 112–122, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolind.2014.01.022>, 2014.
938

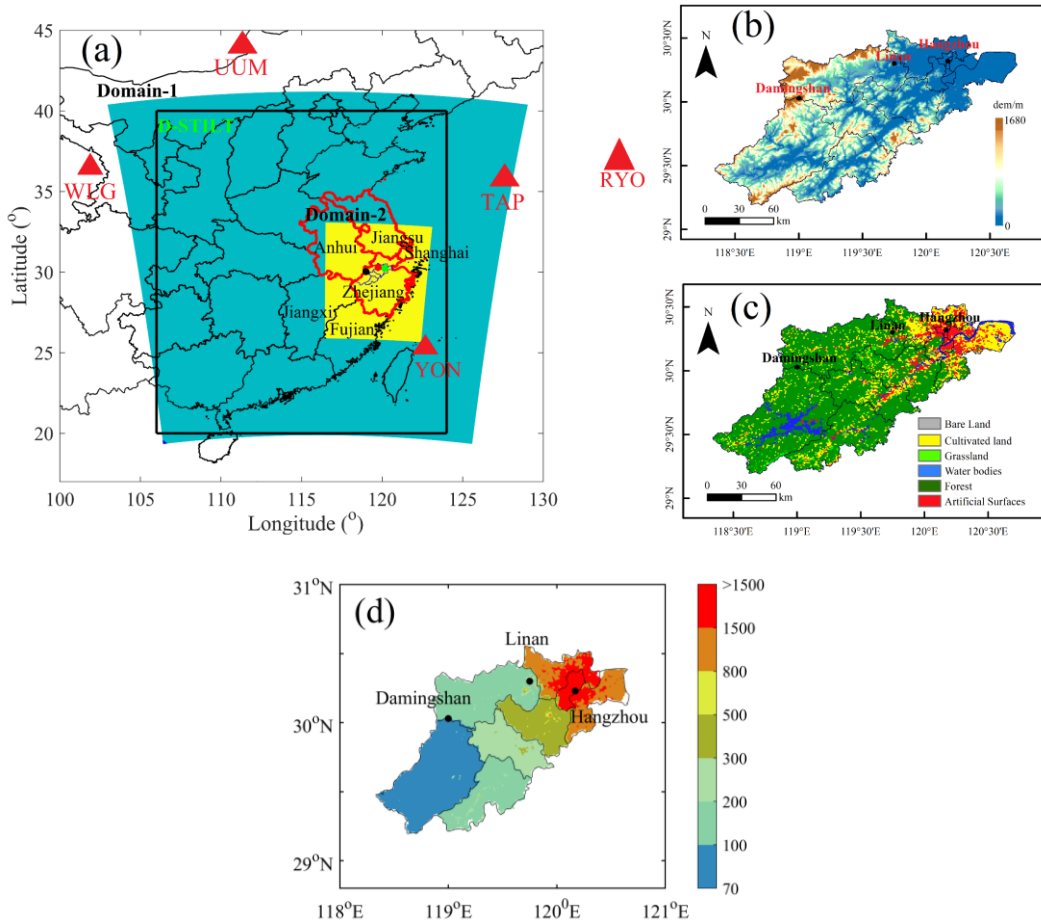
939 Zhang, K., Lee, X., Schultz, N. M., Huang, Q., Liu, Z., Chu, H., Zhao, L., & He, C. A global dataset on subgrid
940 land surface climate (2015-2100) from the Community Earth System Model. *Geosci. Data J.*, 1–12.
941 <https://doi.org/10.1002/gdj3.153>, 2022.

942 Zhang Y., Fang S., Chen J., Lin Y., Chen Y., Liang R., Jiang K., Parker R., Boesch H., Steinbacher M., Sheng J.,
943 Lu X., Shaojie Song, Shushi Peng: Observed Changes in China's Methane Emissions Linked to Policy Drivers,
944 *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 119, e2202742119, 2022.

945 Zhejiang Provincial Bureau of Statistics, Survey Office of the National Bureau of Statistics in Zhejiang, Zhejiang
946 Statistical Yearbook 2018-2019 (China Statistics Press, Beijing, China, 2019)

947

948



949

950

951 Figure 1. (a) WRF-STILT model domain setups, three CH₄ concentration observation sites in
 952 Hangzhou city, and five CH₄ background sites, note the green, red and black dots represent
 953 locations for Hangzhou site, Linan site and Damingshan site, respectively, Yangtze River Delta
 954 regions is displayed in red boundary, back rectangle represents domain in STILT model, (b)
 955 geophysical height within Hangzhou city, (c) land surface categories in Hangzhou city, and (d)
 956 population density in Hangzhou city for year 2019, units: person per km².

957

958

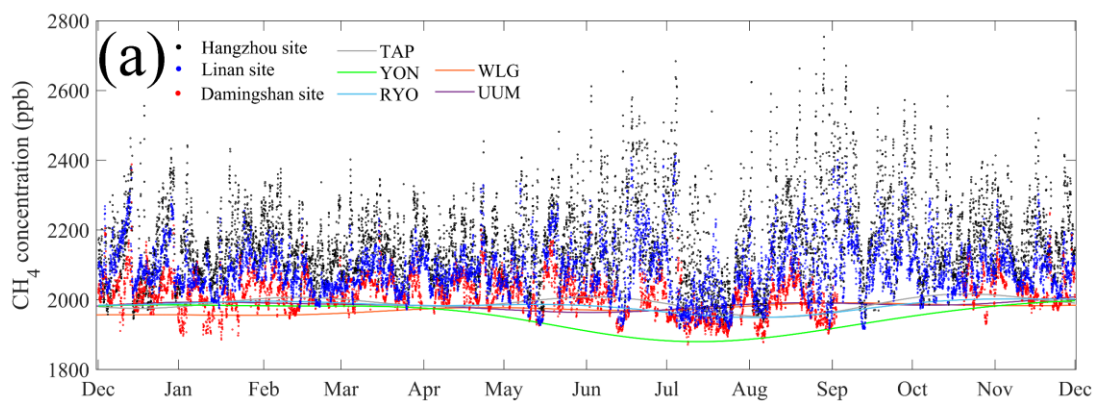
959

960

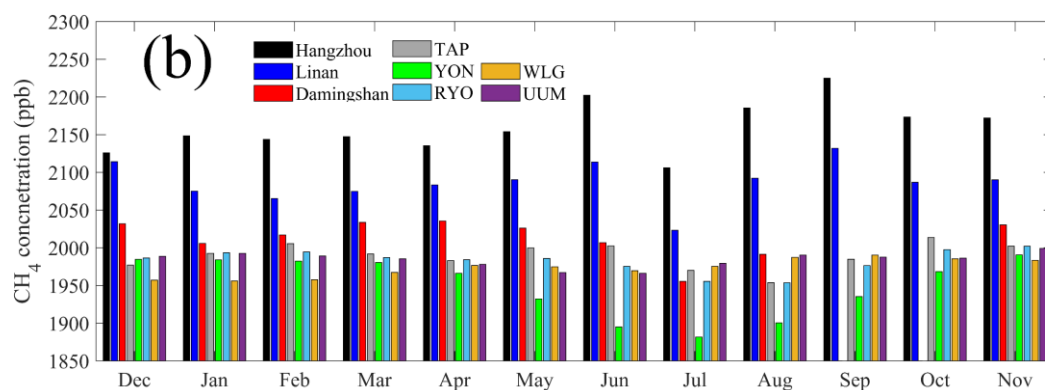
961

962

963



964



965

966 Figure 2. (a) Hourly CH₄ concentrations at three sites within Hangzhou city as Hangzhou site,
 967 Linan site, and Damingshan site, and fitting CH₄ background based on CCGCRV regression
 968 method at five background sites as TAP, YON, RYO, WLG and UUM, (b) monthly mean of CH₄
 969 concentrations for above eight sites. Note the CH₄ background is smoothed by using CCGCRV
 970 fitting method on weekly or hourly observations, which can filter large fluctuations caused by
 971 sudden and unidentified sources

972

973

974

975

976

977

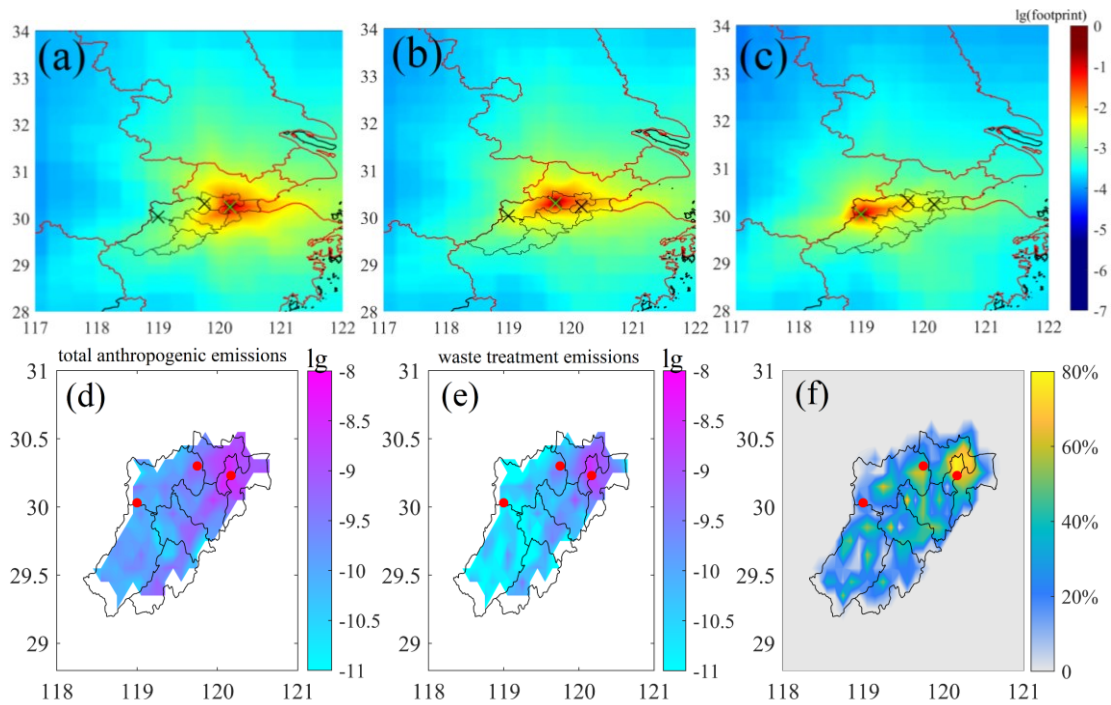
978

979

980

981

982



983

984

985 Figure 3. Annual averages of simulated footprint for (a) Hangzhou site, (b) Linan site, and (c)
 986 Damingshan site, where the green symbol “×” indicates receptor location in each pannel, (d)
 987 total anthropogenic CH₄ emissions in EDGAR v6.0 inventory, (e) waste treatment CH₄ emissions in
 988 EDGAR v6.0 inventory, and (f) proportions of waste treatment to total anthropogenic CH₄
 989 emissions, red dot represents three sites, units for footprint: ppm m² s mol⁻¹, units for emissions:
 990 kg m⁻² s⁻¹. The divisions in Hangzhou city are different districts.

991

992

993

994

995

996

997

998

999

1000

1001

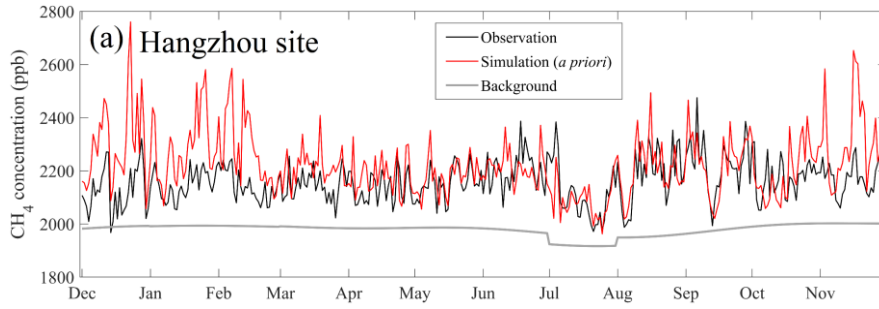
1002

1003

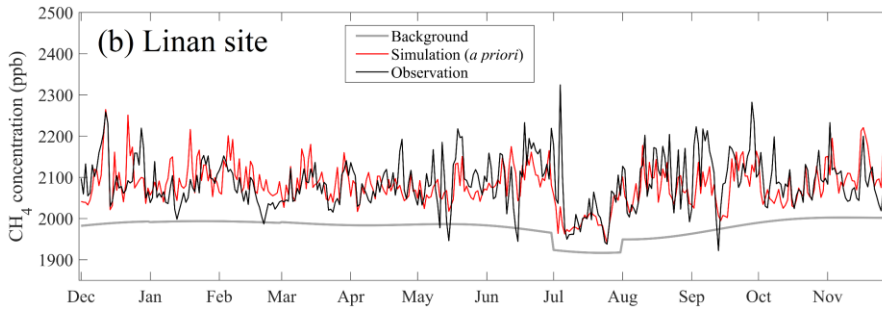
1004

1005

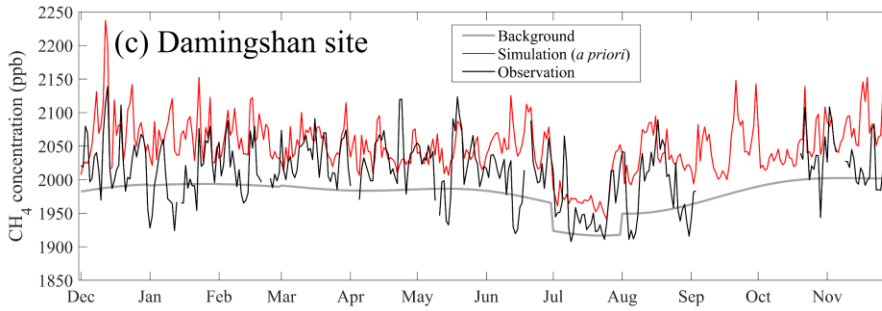
1006



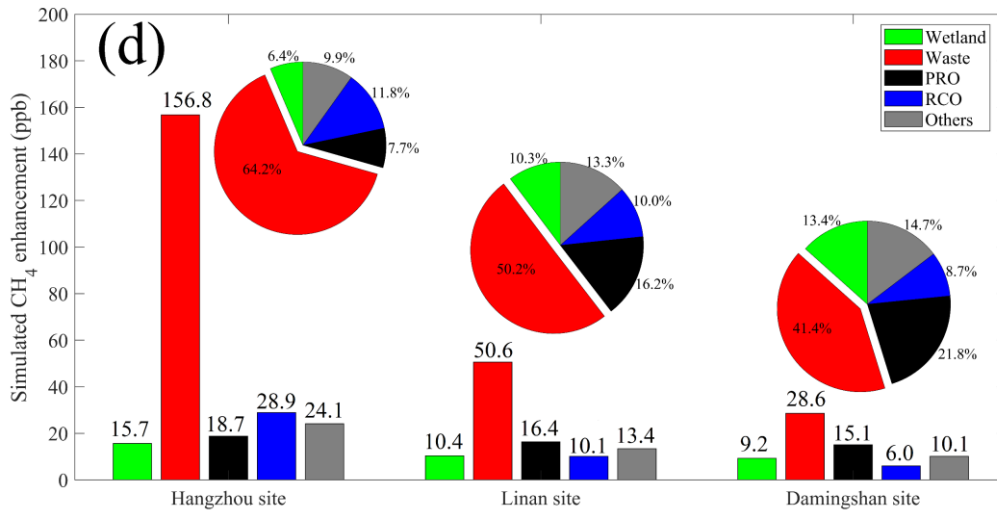
1007



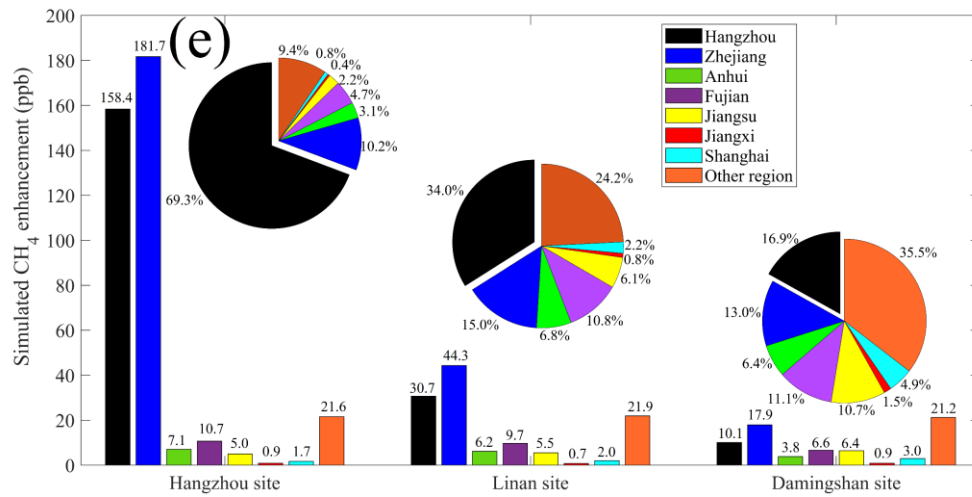
1008



1009

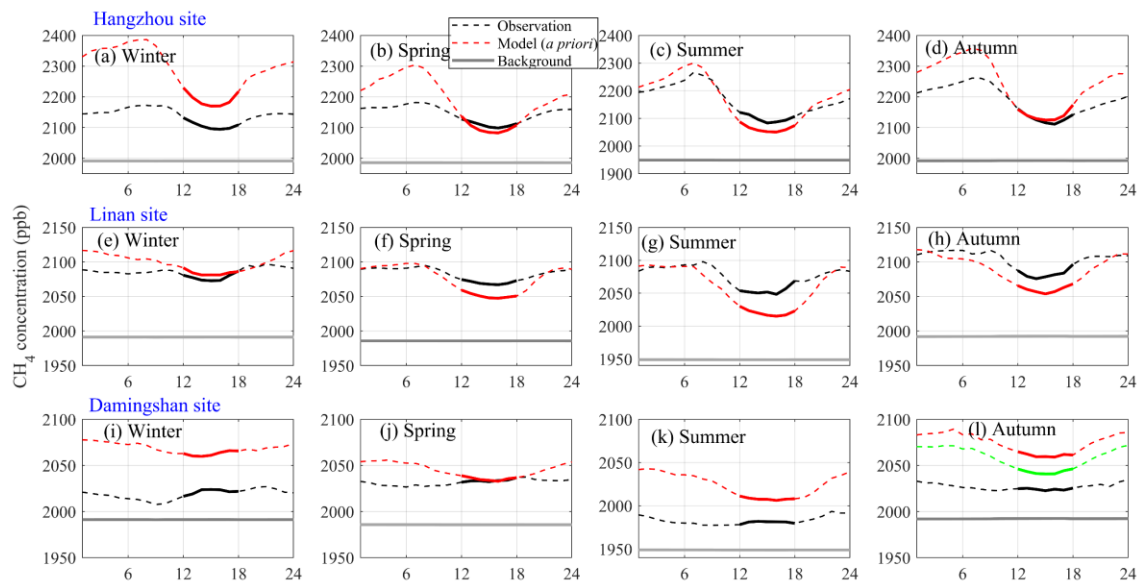


1010



1011
 1012
 1013
 1014
 1015
 1016
 1017
 1018
 1019
 1020
 1021
 1022
 1023
 1024
 1025
 1026
 1027
 1028
 1029
 1030
 1031
 1032
 1033
 1034
 1035
 1036
 1037
 1038

Figure 4. Comparisons between daily CH₄ observations and simulations for (a) Hangzhou site, (b) Linan site, (c) Damingshan site, (d) simulated CH₄ enhancements from main emission categories (e) simulated anthropogenic CH₄ enhancement from different regions and its proportions. Note the blue color for the bar charts include all contributions from “Zhejiang”, including “Hangzhou”; and the blue regions in the pie charts represent rest regions of “Zhejiang minus Hangzhou”.



1039

1040

1041

1042

1043

1044

1045

1046

1047

1048

1049

1050

1051

1052

1053

1054

1055

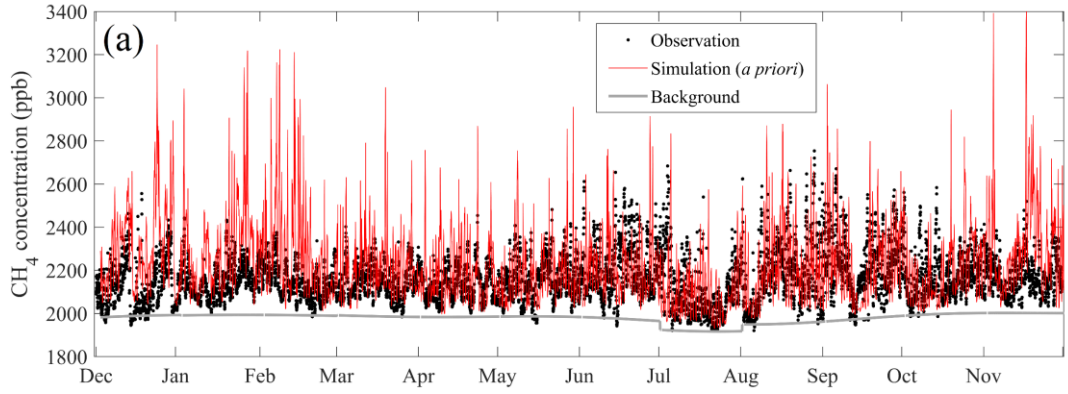
1056

1057

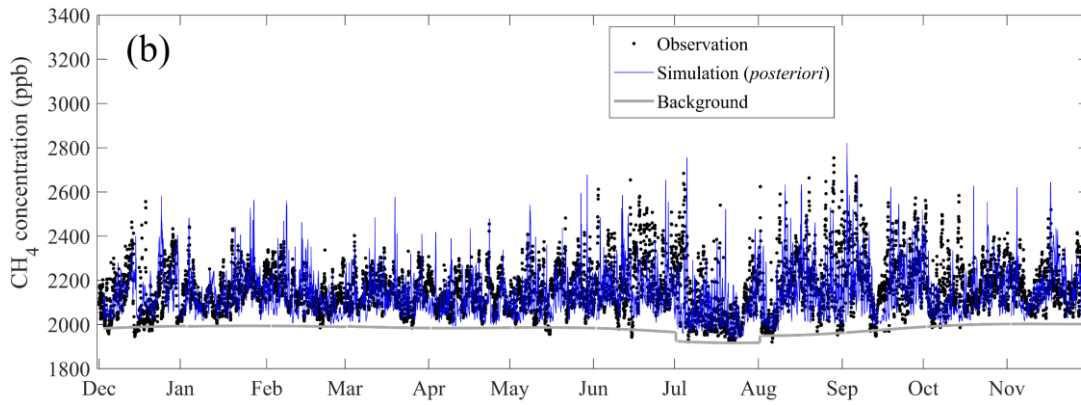
1058

1059

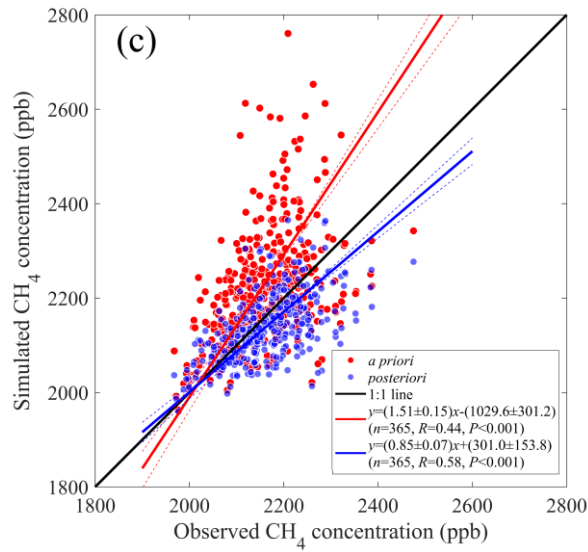
Figure 5. Seasonal averaged diurnal variations for Hangzhou site in (a) winter, (b) spring, (c) summer, (d) autumn, and Linan site in (e) winter, (f) spring, (g) summer, (h) autumn, and Damingshan site in (i) winter, (j) spring, (k) summer, (l) autumn; Note because of two months of data gap in Autumn for Damingshan site, the green line is for all September-November simulations, red line only represent simulation of corresponding period for available observation data, and bold lines represents data between 12:00 and 18:00.



1060



1061



1062

1063 Figure 6. Comparisons of hourly CH₄ concentrations at Hangzhou site between observations and
 1064 simulations by using (a) *a priori* and (b) *posteriori* emissions, (c) scatter plots of daily CH₄
 1065 averages by using *a priori* and *posteriori* emissions.

1066

1067

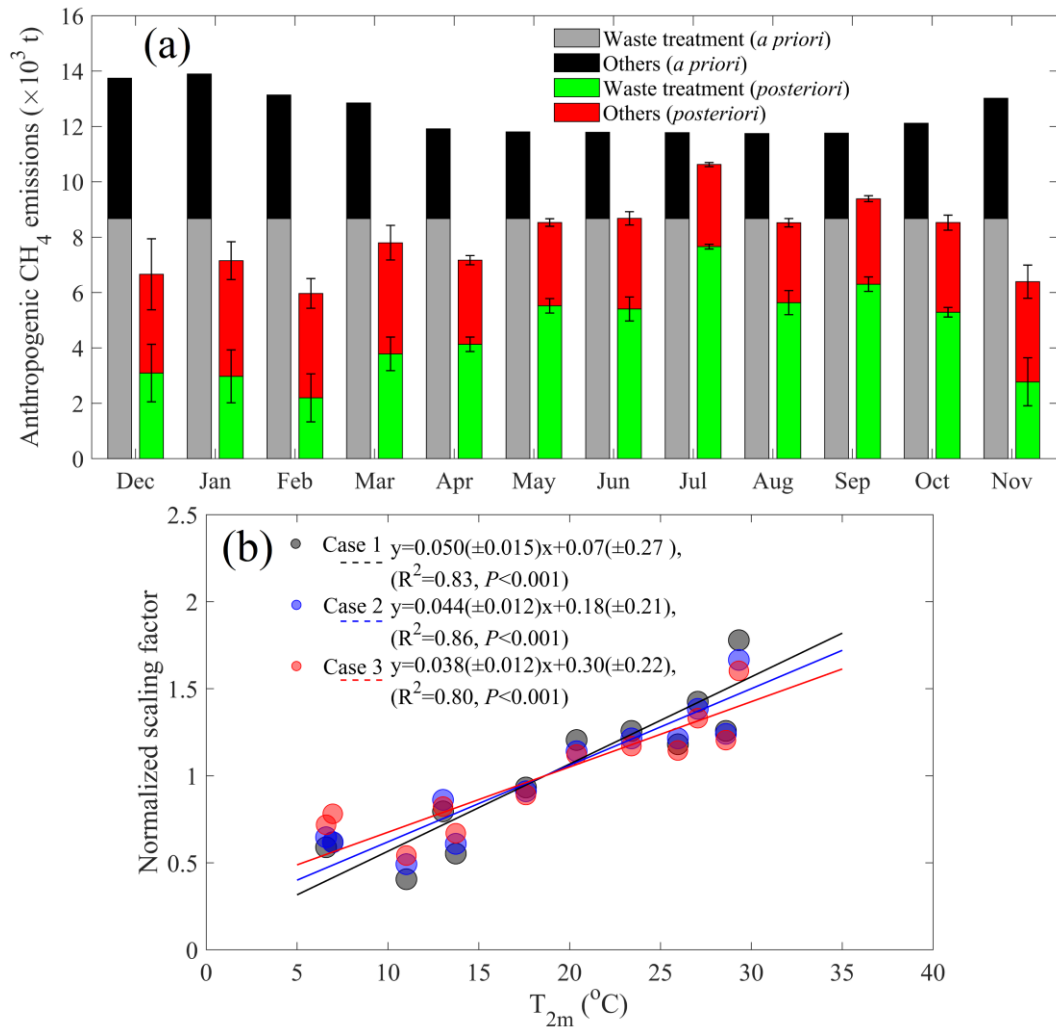
1068

1069

1070

1071

1072



1073

1074

1075

1076

1077

1078

1079

1080

1081

1082

1083

1084

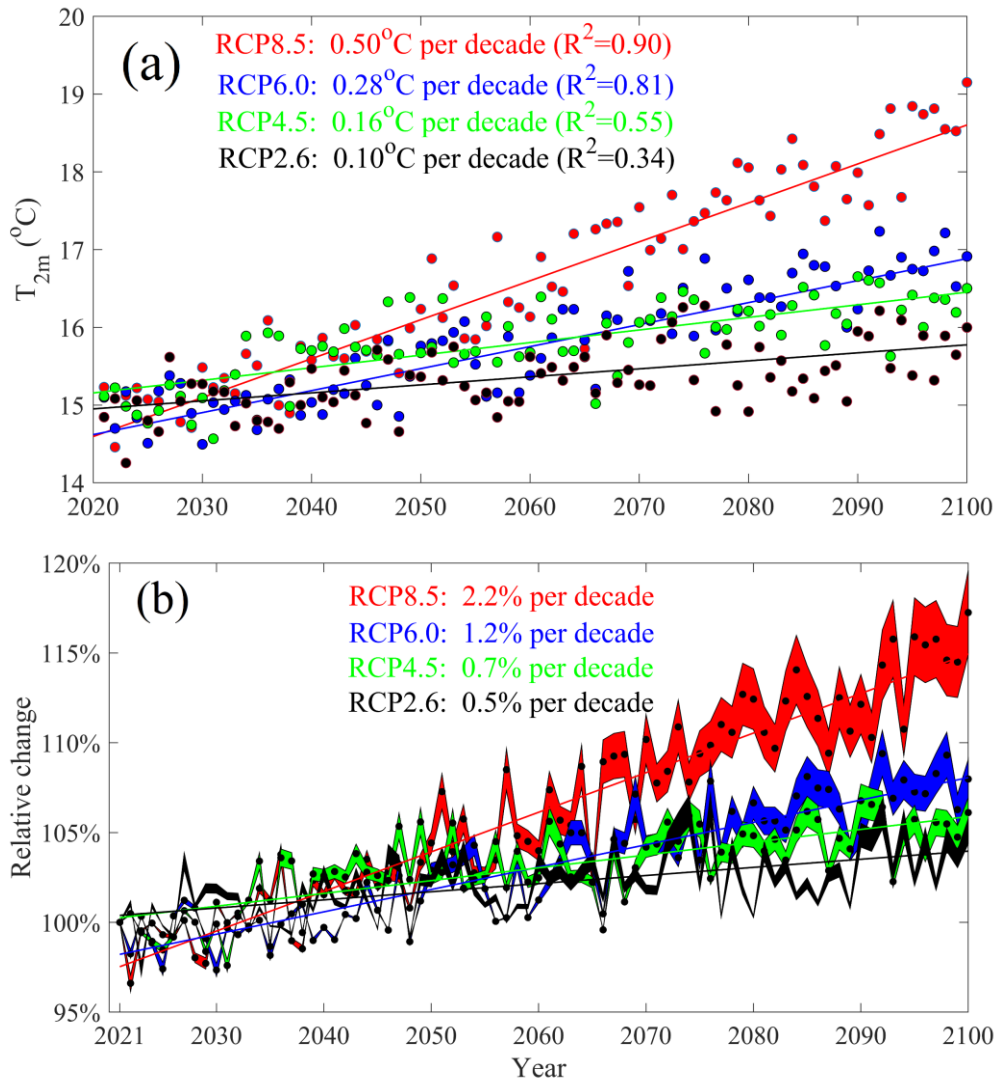
1085

1086

1087

1088

Figure 7. (a) Monthly anthropogenic (excluding agricultural soil) CH₄ emissions for *a priori* and *posteriori* emissions for Hangzhou city, (b) relationship between the monthly *posteriori* CH₄ emissions and temperature in three cases.



1089

1090

1091 Figure 8. (a) Annual air temperature from year 2021 to 2100 for four different global warming
 1092 scenarios for Hangzhou city, (b) the projected relative change of waste treatment CH_4 emissions
 1093 (or EFs) for Hangzhou city, note the shading indicates extent of three cases.

1094

1095

1096

1097

1098

1099

1100

1101

1102

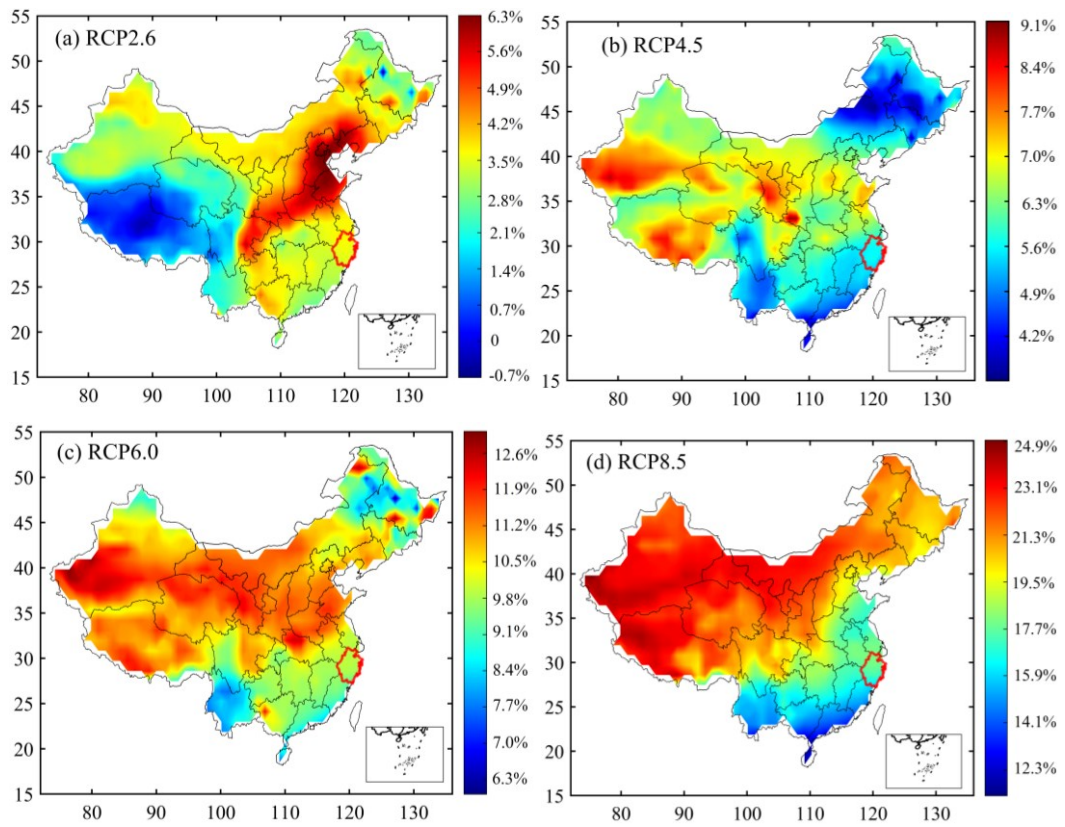
1103

1104

1105

1106

1107



1108

1109

1110

1111

1112

1113

1114

1115

1116

1117

1118

1119

1120

1121

1122

1123

1124

1125

1126

1127

1128

1129

1130

1131

1132

1133

Figure 9. Global warming induced relative changes of waste treatment CH₄ EFs by year of 2100 for (a) RCP2.6, (b) RCP4.5, (c) RCP6.0, and (d) RCP8.5 scenarios. Note the red boundary is Zhejiang province.

1134 Table 1. The *posteriori* SFs for different categories in three cases, where wetland: natural and
 1135 agricultural wetland, Waste: waste treatment, PRO: fuel exploitation, RCO: energy for building,
 1136 Others: the rest anthropogenic emissions.

Mont h	Case 1			Case 2					Case 3		
	Wetland	Waste	Others	Wetland	Waste	PRO	RCO	Others	Wetland	Waste	Others
1	1.00	0.29	0.83	1.00	0.34	0.90	0.80	0.93	1.00	0.40	0.72
2	1.00	0.20	0.89	1.00	0.26	0.97	0.83	0.93	1.00	0.30	0.77
3	1.03	0.39	1.04	1.02	0.46	1.07	0.80	0.97	1.02	0.46	0.95
4	1.10	0.46	0.96	1.08	0.48	1.01	0.95	0.93	1.08	0.49	0.91
5	1.12	0.62	0.99	1.10	0.64	1.06	0.97	0.92	1.11	0.65	0.95
6	1.22	0.59	1.09	1.18	0.64	1.05	0.97	1.03	1.18	0.64	1.05
7	1.10	0.88	0.96	1.09	0.88	1.00	1.00	0.94	1.09	0.89	0.94
8	1.05	0.62	0.95	1.01	0.66	0.99	0.97	0.95	1.01	0.67	0.91
9	1.04	0.71	1.01	1.02	0.73	0.96	0.98	1.04	1.02	0.74	0.98
10	1.06	0.60	0.94	1.06	0.61	0.92	0.96	1.00	1.06	0.62	0.90
11	1.01	0.27	0.86	1.00	0.32	0.91	0.85	0.93	1.00	0.37	0.75
12	1.00	0.31	0.70	1.00	0.33	0.75	0.79	0.91	1.00	0.43	0.58

1137

1138

1139

1140

1141

1142

1143

1144

1145

1146

1147

1148

1149

1150

1151

1152

1153