

1 **Global warming will largely increase waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in Chinese Megacities:**  
2 **insight from the first city scale CH<sub>4</sub> concentration observation network in Hangzhou city,**  
3 **China**

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5 Cheng Hu<sup>1,2</sup>, Junqing Zhang<sup>1</sup>, Bing Qi<sup>3,4\*</sup>, Rongguang Du<sup>3\*</sup>, Xiaofei Xu<sup>4</sup>, Haoyu Xiong<sup>5</sup>, Huili  
6 Liu<sup>1</sup>, Xinyue Ai<sup>1</sup>, Yiyi Peng<sup>1</sup>, Wei Xiao<sup>2</sup>

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

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

11 <sup>3</sup> Hangzhou meteorological bureau, Hangzhou 310051, China

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

14 <sup>5</sup> College of Environment, Zhejiang University of Technology, Hangzhou 311300, China

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22 \*Corresponding authors: Bing Qi (bill\_129@sina.com), Rongguang Du (drg1998@163.com).

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33 **Abstract:**

34 Atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> is the second largest anthropogenic contributor to global warming. However, its emissions,  
35 components, spatial-temporal variations and projected changes still remain large uncertain from city to national  
36 scales. CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from waste treatment (including solid waste landfills, solid waste incineration and sewage)  
37 account for >50% of total anthropogenic CH<sub>4</sub> emissions at city scale, and considering the high temperature  
38 sensitivity of CH<sub>4</sub> emission factors (EFs) for the biological processes-based sources such as waste treatment, large  
39 bias will be caused when estimating future CH<sub>4</sub> emissions under different global warming scenarios. Furthermore,  
40 the relationships between temperature and waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions have only been conducted in a few  
41 site-specific studies and lack the representativity for whole city, which contains various biophysical conditions and  
42 shows heterogeneous distribution. These above factors cause uncertainty in the evaluation of city scale CH<sub>4</sub>  
43 emissions (especially from waste treatments) and projected changes still remain unexplored. Here we conduct the  
44 first tower-based CH<sub>4</sub> observation network with three sites in Hangzhou city, which is located in developed  
45 Yangtze River Delta (YRD) area and ranks as one of the largest megacities in China. We found the *a priori* total  
46 annual anthropogenic CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and those from waste treatment were overestimated by 36.0% and 47.1% in  
47 Hangzhou city, respectively. In contrast, the total emissions in the larger region, such as Zhejiang province or the  
48 YRD area, were slightly underestimated by 7.0%. Emissions from waste treatment showed obvious seasonal  
49 patterns following air temperature. By using the linear relationship constructed between monthly waste treatment  
50 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and air temperature, we find the waste treatment EFs increase by 38%~50% with temperature  
51 increases of 10°C. Together with projected temperature changes from four climate change scenarios, the global  
52 warming induced EFs in Hangzhou city will increase at the rates of 2.2%, 1.2%, 0.7% and 0.5% per decade for  
53 IPCC AR5 (International Peace Cooperation Center, the fifth assessment report) RCP (Representative  
54 Concentration Pathway)8.5, RCP6.0, RCP4.5 and RCP2.6 scenarios, respectively. And the EFs will finally  
55 increase by 17.6%, 9.6%, 5.6%, and 4.0% at the end of this century. Additionally, the derived relative changes in  
56 China also show high heterogeneity and indicate large uncertainty in projecting future national total CH<sub>4</sub> emissions.  
57 Hence, we strongly suggest the temperature-dependent EFs and the positive feedback between global warming and  
58 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions should be considered in future CH<sub>4</sub> emission projections and climate change models.

59 **Keyword:** CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, waste treatment, observation network, global warming

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61

62 **1. Introduction**

63 As the second largest anthropogenic greenhouse gas, the reduction of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions is considered  
64 an effective way to mitigate future climate change on short timescales (Henne et al., 2016; Lin et  
65 al., 2021). Accurate estimation of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from its main sources is 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). CH<sub>4</sub> 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 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions of 371 (±26) Tg a<sup>-1</sup> (Lu et al., 2021).  
72 It also ranked as the fourth largest anthropogenic source in China, the biggest anthropogenic CH<sub>4</sub>  
73 emitting country, and accounted for ~14% of national total anthropogenic emissions of 65 (±22)  
74 Tg a<sup>-1</sup> (Saunio 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; Maasakkers et al., 2022). A large number of Chinese landfills were  
78 constructed in suburbs more than 5-10 years ago and most landfills have no gas collection systems,  
79 with the urban area expanding in recent decades, the locations of many landfills are now within  
80 the urban scope (Zhejiang Statistical Yearbook 2018-2019). In addition, the decreasing area of the  
81 agricultural sector (rice paddies and husbandry) in megacities also makes their emissions  
82 negligible when compared with waste treatment. Therefore, accurate quantification of CH<sub>4</sub>  
83 emissions from waste treatment in urban area becomes increasingly important.

84  
85 Although some progress has been made in measuring site scale CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from waste  
86 treatment, the estimated emissions still show large discrepancies due to many factors such as the  
87 amount of waste and its composition, relative proportions of landfills and incineration, degradable  
88 organic carbon ratio, CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation efficiency, and landfill gas collection, and meteorological  
89 conditions including temperature, water content, atmospheric pressure (Masuda et al., 2018; Cai et  
90 al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2019; Hua et al., 2022; Bian et al., 2022; Maasakkers et al., 2022; Kissas et

91 al., 2022).

92

93 Furthermore, CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from sewage and landfills result from microbial processes especially  
94 from methanogens, and their emission factors (EFs) are highly sensitive to temperature. These  
95 available studies were mainly conducted at some specific sites with measured EFs varying widely  
96 (Du et al., 2017; 2018; Cai et al., 2014; 2018; Zhao et al., 2019; NBSC, 2015; Wang et al., 2015;  
97 Florentino et al., 2010; Tolaymat et al., 2010; Hua et al., 2022). The lack and discrepancies of  
98 detailed information for all the above factors and their uncertainties have led to considerable  
99 difficulty in estimating CH<sub>4</sub> emissions for most-to-date inventories (Höglund-Isaksson, 2012;  
100 USEPA et al., 2013; Cai et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2021; Maasakkers et al., 2022).

101

102 China, the developing country with the largest anthropogenic CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, is expected to  
103 increase its emissions because of projected rapid economic development, urbanization and  
104 generated waste (Cai et al., 2018). The increase of waste treatment emissions in East China was  
105 also found as the second largest sector in driving national total anthropogenic CH<sub>4</sub> emissions since  
106 2000 (Lin et al., 2021). In addition, the mitigation potential of waste treatment in developing  
107 countries is thought to be four times that of developed countries (USEPA, 2013). Therefore,  
108 mitigating CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from waste treatment in China is a robust and cost-effective way to  
109 reduce total national anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions.

110

111 Many previous studies have estimated the waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions for China by both  
112 “bottom-up” and “top-down” approaches, with results varied by 2.5-fold from 4.3 to 10.4 Tg CH<sub>4</sub>  
113 yr<sup>-1</sup>, and accounted for 8.1%~24.2% of national total anthropogenic CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (USEPA 2013;  
114 Peng et al., 2016; Miller et al., 2019; Lin et al., 2021; Lu et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2022). For these  
115 “bottom-up” approaches, the high uncertainties were directly attributed to omission of many small  
116 point sources and discrepancies of observed site-specific EFs, which varied largely by climate and  
117 management technology such as the efficiency of gas collection systems (Zhao et al., 2019; Hua et  
118 al., 2022). Previous studies most commonly used the EDGAR (Emission Database for Global  
119 Atmospheric Research) inventory, using the IPCC recommended default EF values of 15.0%

120 (Höglund-Isaksson, 2012; Lin et al., 2021; Bian et al., 2022), but this value is around 5-7 times of  
121 EFs used in China by Zhang and Chen et al. (2014). A recent study comparing waste treatment  
122 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions among different inventories also reported that the EDGAR v5.0 and CEDS  
123 (Community Emissions Data System) inventories were 21~153% higher than other inventories,  
124 and EDGAR v5.0 tended to assign more emissions in urban areas especially for provincial capitals.  
125 In addition, emissions from wastewater were found to be overestimated by higher emission factors  
126 or chemical oxygen demand (Peng et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2021).

127

128 And for the “top-down” atmospheric inversion approaches, a few studies constrained  
129 anthropogenic sources including waste treatment, where the most widely used concentrations were  
130 from satellite observations (Miller et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2022). The satellite  
131 observations have the advantage of easy data access and global coverage. But as already noted, the  
132 emissions constraint results are highly dependent on availability of observed concentrations,  
133 which are largely influenced by weather conditions and cloud coverage. As was illustrated in a  
134 recently published study by Chen et al. (2022), although the numbers of grid cell ( $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.3125^{\circ}$ )  
135 based year-round satellite observations were more than 1000 in north China, the available  
136 numbers were less than 10 (even including grid cells without any observations) in most of central,  
137 west, east and south of China. Such sparse distribution of available data may not provide robust  
138 constrains on waste treatment emissions for some Chinese cities without enough observations,  
139 especially considering waste treatment is co-located with high population density megacities in the  
140 developed area of east and south of China. Furthermore, there should be large temperature induced  
141 monthly variations for waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Börjesson et al., 1997), but almost all  
142 satellite-based inversions were conducted at annual scale without seasonal variations. Besides,  
143 given the strong influence from atmospheric pressure on landfill CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Kissas et al.,  
144 2022), satellite observations are too sparse to be up-scaled to estimate annual total because  
145 satellite observations are mostly available only on clear-sky conditions and cannot represent  
146 atmospheric pressure and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions on cloudy or rainy days. There was only one recent study  
147 which focused on urban waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, it found annual CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from four  
148 cities were 1.4 to 2.6 times larger than inventories in India and Pakistan, where landfills

149 contributed to 6~50% of total emissions and indicated large bias of our understanding of waste  
150 treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Maasackers et al., 2022).

151

152 The tower-based atmospheric inversion approach, which is based on hourly atmospheric  
153 concentration observations within the planetary boundary layer, can be used independently to  
154 constrain CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and its main components. Besides, compared with “bottom-up”  
155 approaches, the “top-down” method can avoid using the factors that lead to large uncertainties in  
156 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions especially from waste treatment. And to our best knowledge, there are few  
157 tower-based observation inversion studies which focus on waste treatment emissions at city scale  
158 or much larger regional scales especially in China. Only one study in Los Angeles, U.S.A. used  
159 tower-based CH<sub>4</sub> concentration and found the influence of a landfill site closure on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions,  
160 which was not included in *a priori* inventory (Yadav et al., 2019). In addition, the influences of  
161 global warming on city scale (or higher regional scale) emissions are still unclear and have not  
162 been considered in future emission projections (USEPA 2013; Cai et al., 2018). In general,  
163 previous studies which predicted future waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions only used activity data  
164 changes, without considering climate change on the EFs. Considering the potential high sensitivity  
165 of waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions on the projected global warming, how these emissions will  
166 change with increasing temperature is still unknown, especially within megacities where more  
167 waste is generated and the urban heat island effect will lead to much stronger warming climate  
168 (Zhang et al., 2022).

169

170 Here, we established three tower-based CH<sub>4</sub> concentration observation sites in Hangzhou city, one  
171 of the largest megacities in China. To our best knowledge, it is the first city-scale tower-based CH<sub>4</sub>  
172 concentration observation network in China. We present our work on urban CH<sub>4</sub> emissions  
173 inversion and aim to (1) constrain CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from waste treatment alongside total  
174 anthropogenic emissions in Hangzhou city, (2) derive temperature sensitivity of waste treatment  
175 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions at city scale and quantify the projected emission changes in future climate change  
176 scenarios. One-year hourly CH<sub>4</sub> concentration observations from December 1st, 2020 to  
177 November 30th, 2021 were combined with atmospheric transport model and Bayesian inversion

178 approach to constrain monthly CH<sub>4</sub> emission inventories. The constructed relationship between  
179 monthly temperature and *posteriori* waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions will be used with future  
180 temperature projection to quantify how the EFs will change in different global warming scenarios.

181

## 182 **2. Materials and Method**

### 183 **2.1 Tower-based CH<sub>4</sub> observation network and supplementary materials**

184 The city of Hangzhou, which has a population of 12.2 million and area of  $1.7 \times 10^4$  km<sup>2</sup> (core  
185 urban area of  $8.3 \times 10^3$  km<sup>2</sup>), is the capital of Zhejiang province and located in the middle of East  
186 China (Figure 1a). As displayed in Figures S1-S2, the East China accounts for the majority of the  
187 national total population and waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Hangzhou city ranked in the top 10  
188 megacities in China, with annual solid waste of around 5 million tons in 2021. The tower-based  
189 CH<sub>4</sub> concentration observation network includes three observation sites (Figure 1a-d), as (1)  
190 Hangzhou site (120.17° E, 30.23° N, 43.2 m a.s.l.), which is located in the core urban region; (2)  
191 Linan site (119.72° E, 30.30° N, 138.6 m a.s.l.), regional background site with no obvious  
192 emission sources within 10 km radius; (3) Damingshan site (119.00° E, 30.03° N, 1485.0 m a.s.l.),  
193 which is built on the top of a 1500 m mountain and represents background from much more  
194 diluted regional emission signals. The distance is around 50 km between Hangzhou site and Linan  
195 site, and around 150 km between Hangzhou site and Damingshan site. These three sites represent  
196 obvious gradients from east of densely populated area (Figure 1c-d) and anthropogenic emissions  
197 to west of much weaker anthropogenic influence and background conditions. Based on the wind  
198 direction for the three sites, there is not any obvious difference of seasonal wind direction patterns  
199 among them. The prevailing wind direction from October to February was from the north, which  
200 changed to east from February to May and then changed to south during the monsoon in summer.

201

202 The air inlet heights are 25 m above ground for the Hangzhou site, 53 m at Linan and 10 m at  
203 Damingshan, respectively. Atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations at all three sites were continuously  
204 measured by cavity ring-down spectroscopy analyzer (model G2301 for Hangzhou site and G2401  
205 for Linan site and Damingshan site; Picarro Inc., Sunnyvale, CA). To obtain high precision  
206 observations, two different standard gases were measured every 6 hours and a linear two-point fit

207 was used to calibrate observations, with the precision and accuracy of 2 ppb and 1 ppb. More  
208 details of the observation and calibration systems were described in Fang et al., (2014; 2022).  
209 Note that because of instrument issues at Damingshan site, there is a data gap in  
210 September-October, 2021. In general, 99.4%, 99.0%, 79.3% of hourly CH<sub>4</sub> observations were  
211 available in the whole year observation period for Hangzhou site, Linan site and Damingshan site,  
212 respectively. Meteorological observations at Hangzhou meteorological station were used to  
213 evaluate simulated meteorological fields, including air temperature at 2 m (T<sub>2m</sub>), relative humidity  
214 (RH), downward solar radiation (S↓), wind speed (WS) at 10 m height, and planetary boundary  
215 layer height (PBLH).

216

217 Note some previous studies of city scale greenhouse gas concentration observation networks chose  
218 sites at the edge of urban borders as background in emission inversion system (i.e. Indianapolis,  
219 U.S.A., Miles et al., (2017); Los Angeles, U.S.A., Verhulst et al., (2017); Washington,  
220 DC-Baltimore, U.S.A., Lopez-Coto et al., (2020); Paris, France, Lian et al., (2021) ), but we chose  
221 to use five NOAA CH<sub>4</sub> background sites as the potential background, including UUM, TAP, YRO,  
222 YON and WLG site (Figure 1a), which were much further than the observations at Damingshan  
223 site. This strategy is based on following three reasons: (1) our footprint domain is much larger  
224 than Hangzhou city and these five sites are also located close to the edge of the model domain; (2)  
225 CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations within Hangzhou city will be influenced by seasonally varying monsoon and  
226 the monthly varying wind directions will lead to obvious changes of CH<sub>4</sub> background than only at  
227 Damingshan site; (3) our model setups can partition CH<sub>4</sub> enhancements from within Hangzhou  
228 city and other regions.

229

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

236



## 237 **2.2 WRF-STILT model setup**

238 The WRF-STILT (WRF: Weather Research and Forecasting, version 4.2.2, and STILT: Stochastic  
239 Time-Inverted Lagrangian Transport) model was used to simulate hourly footprint and CH<sub>4</sub>  
240 enhancement, see more details in Hu et al. (2019; 2021). Domain setups are displayed in Figure 1a,  
241 with the outer nested domain (Domain-1, 27 km×27 km grid resolution) covering eastern and  
242 central China, and the inner domain (Domain-2, 9 km×9 km grid resolution) covering the YRD  
243 area. The physical schemes used in the WRF model are the same as in our previous studies for the  
244 YRD domain (Hu et al., 2019; 2021). The simulated CH<sub>4</sub> concentration is the sum of background  
245 and enhancement, where the enhancement is calculated by multiplying all CH<sub>4</sub> flux with hourly  
246 footprint that represents the sensitivity of the concentration changes to its regional sources/sinks  
247 with spatial resolution of 0.1°×0.1°. To better quantify CH<sub>4</sub> components at each site, CH<sub>4</sub>  
248 enhancements from different regions and sources are also tracked and separately simulated.  
249 Besides, we should note the CH<sub>4</sub> background is important in simulating CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations and  
250 atmospheric inversion. We will choose CH<sub>4</sub> background from the five background sites based on  
251 monthly footprint as discussed in Section 3.1.

252

253 The most recent inventory of Emission Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR v6.0),  
254 which has 20 categories, and WetCHARTs ensemble mean were used as the *a priori*  
255 anthropogenic and natural CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. We should note there are many CH<sub>4</sub> inventories for  
256 some developed regions and countries (i.e. France, U.S.A., Germany) with high spatial resolutions.  
257 The reasons to choose EDGAR as *a priori* anthropogenic emissions are: (1) for all available CH<sub>4</sub>  
258 inventories that covered China, the spatial resolution of EDGAR (0.1°×0.1°) is the highest, and it  
259 provides the most up-to date results; (2) most previous studies that constrain emissions by  
260 atmospheric inversion studies also chose EDGAR, and our results can be directly compared with  
261 previous studies; (3) the preliminary simulation of CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations showed generally good  
262 performance with observations, indicating its spatial distributions in Hangzhou city has relatively  
263 small bias even with a potentially large bias for magnitude, which will be constrained by our  
264 atmospheric inversion method.

265

266 The main sources of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in Hangzhou city include SWD\_LDF (solid waste landfills),

267 WWT (waste water handling), SWD\_INC (solid waste incineration), PRO (all processes related to  
 268 fuel exploitation from coal, oil, and natural gas, including extraction, transportation, refining,  
 269 distribution as list in IPCC database ([https://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/EFDB/find\\_ef.php](https://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/EFDB/find_ef.php)), RCO  
 270 (energy for buildings, mainly containing nature gas escaping from household use) and AGS  
 271 (agricultural soils). We found emissions from SWD\_LDF, WWT and SWD\_INC were simply  
 272 assigned in the same locations in EDGAR inventory, and hence combined them as waste treatment.  
 273 For the CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from wetland, we used WetCHARTs ensemble mean with spatial resolution  
 274 of 0.5° at monthly average (Bloom et al., 2017). Considering WetCHARTs treats rice paddies  
 275 (main source as AGS) as one wetland type, AGS in EDGAR was excluded and we assume  
 276 WetCHARTs represent all wetland CH<sub>4</sub> emissions as natural wetland and rice paddies.

277

### 278 2.3 Bayesian inversion framework

279 The Scale Factor Bayesian inversion (SFBI) approach was applied to interpret the atmospheric  
 280 CH<sub>4</sub> concentration (or enhancement) variations in terms of quantitative constraint on all CH<sub>4</sub>  
 281 sources. The relationship between observed and simulated CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations (or enhancement)  
 282 can be expressed as follows in Equation 1:

$$283 \quad y = \mathbf{K}\Gamma + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

284 Where  $y$  is the observed CH<sub>4</sub> concentration (or enhancement),  $\mathbf{K}$  corresponds to simulated  
 285 enhancements from all categories,  $\Gamma$  is the state vector to be optimized and consists of *posteriori*  
 286 SFs for corresponding categories in  $\mathbf{K}$ , and  $\varepsilon$  is the observing system error.

287

288 The optimal solution to derive *posteriori* SFs is to minimize a cost function  $J(\Gamma)$ , which represents  
 289 the mismatch between CH<sub>4</sub> observations and simulations and the mismatch between *posteriori* and  
 290 *a priori* SFs (Miller et al., 2008; Griffis et al., 2017). The cost function  $J(\Gamma)$  can be expressed as:

$$291 \quad J(\Gamma) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ (y - \mathbf{K}\Gamma)^T S_e^{-1} (y - \mathbf{K}\Gamma) + (\Gamma - \Gamma_a)^T S_a^{-1} (\Gamma - \Gamma_a) \right] \quad (2)$$

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

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

297 In the Bayesian inversion framework, we first need to give an estimate of the error covariance  
 298 matrices and the state vector for the *a priori* and observational data. And following our previous  
 299 studies conducted in East China (Hu et al., 2019; 2022). Uncertainties of 10%, 13% and 20% were  
 300 assigned to the measurement errors ( $S_{\text{obs}}$ ), the finite number of particles (500) released in the  
 301 STILT model ( $S_{\text{particles}}$ ) and uncertainty in meteorological fields ( $S_{\text{met}}$ ), respectively.

302

303 A previous study derived uncertainties of CH<sub>4</sub> from waste treatment and other categories, which  
 304 varied between 30% and 50%, these uncertainties were calculated mainly from activity data and  
 305 EFs at the country scale on annual averages (Solazzo et al. 2021). We should also note CH<sub>4</sub>  
 306 emissions uncertainty will largely increase as the study region size decreases, and, as stated above,  
 307 the relative difference among different inventories can reach 150%. Considering the  
 308 disaggregation of spatial distributions and temporal variations, CH<sub>4</sub> emission uncertainties can be  
 309 much larger at urban and monthly scales. To provide robust constraints on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in our  
 310 study, we used three cases of *a priori* uncertainty combinations for different emissions in Bayesian  
 311 inversion:

312 (1) the first case use three elements as wetland, waste treatment and all other anthropogenic  
 313 sources, considering the larger seasonality of waste treatment, the uncertainties of 300% was used  
 314 for waste treatment and 200% for other categories, (2) the second case have more detailed  
 315 categories as wetland, waste treatment, fuel exploitation, energy for building, and the other  
 316 anthropogenic sources, where the *a priori* uncertainty of 200% was used for each category, (3) the  
 317 third case has the same categories as case 1 but uses a different *a priori* uncertainty for waste  
 318 treatment of 200%. The averages of all three cases are used as final *posteriori* SFs and the largest  
 319 difference between each of three cases is used as the final uncertainty.

320

### 321 **3. Results**

#### 322 **3.1 Atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> observations**

323 We first display the hourly CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations from our three tower-based sites and smoothed  
 324 background at five sites by CCGCRV fitting method (Thoning et al., 1989) in Figure 2a. The

325 hourly observations at three towers show similar temporal variations but with different amplitudes.  
326 Observations at Hangzhou site vary between 2000 ppb and 2800 ppb, and were much larger than  
327 both Linan site and Damingshan site. Their monthly averages are also compared in Figure 2b, and  
328 results show the monthly CH<sub>4</sub> vary between lowest 2106.3 ppb in July and highest 2225.0 ppb in  
329 September (annual mean of 2159.9 ppb) at Hangzhou site, lowest 2023.3 ppb in July and highest  
330 2132.0 ppb in September (annual mean of 2086.7 ppb) at Linan site, the lowest 1955.5 ppb in July  
331 and without observations in September at Damingshan site (annual mean of 2013.4±(3) ppb,  
332 where the uncertainty was calculated based on the assumption that monthly CH<sub>4</sub> concentration in  
333 September and October varies between August and November), respectively. The similar trends  
334 among the three sites can be explained by all three sites being dominated by similar atmospheric  
335 transport processes, such as synoptic process (i.e. monsoon) and seasonally changing wind  
336 directions as summarized above. But their surrounding emission sources are highly different,  
337 implying the emissions of Hangzhou site should be much larger than Linan and Damingshan sites.

338

339 Because the CH<sub>4</sub> background is important in concentration simulation and emission inversion, we  
340 also compare CH<sub>4</sub> background between five sites, where the annual averages at TAP, YON, RYO,  
341 WLG and UUM were 1989.8 ppb, 1850.1 ppb, 1982.7 ppb, 1973.4 ppb and 1984.2 ppb,  
342 respectively. We found the differences were generally within 20 ppb among TAP, RYO, WLG and  
343 UUM sites (Figure 2), but there was large difference between YON site and other four sites from  
344 May to August, which can reach to around 100 ppb. Note YON site is located in the south of East  
345 China Sea (Figure 1a), it can be influenced by monsoon with clean air flows from the South China  
346 Sea, which has many fewer CH<sub>4</sub> sources compared to air flows from East Asia. The CH<sub>4</sub>  
347 background at TAP site appeared slightly higher than other four sites because TAP site is located  
348 in the coast of South Korea and can be more easily polluted by anthropogenic emissions.  
349 Considering the large spatial difference between the CH<sub>4</sub> background sites, monthly air flows and  
350 source footprint will be used to identify backgrounds for our observation network, with details  
351 discussed in Supplementary Material (Section S1, Figure S3 and Table S1).

352

353

### 354 **3.2 Concentration footprint and the *a priori* emissions**

355 To illustrate the potential source regions of the three sites, annual averages of simulated footprints  
356 for each site are displayed in Figure 3a-c. The results show their footprint distributions were quite  
357 similar because of close distance, but we also notice there were obvious differences in the  
358 footprint strengths (i.e. the area covered by red color) with Hangzhou site > Linan site >  
359 Damingshan site. The reason why the footprint at the Damingshan site is the lowest can be  
360 explained that the observations were collected at 1500 m height, and it was not easy to receive  
361 emissions signals within boundary layer at that height. Besides, the Hangzhou site is located in the  
362 core urban area of Hangzhou city, and it will show significant diurnal variation in PBLH,  
363 especially since it has higher nighttime PBLH caused by anthropogenic heat and high buildings  
364 than grassland/farmland, which dominate Linan site and Damingshan site. Hence more air  
365 particles can remain within PBLH and generate stronger footprint.

366

367 The *a priori* EDGAR CH<sub>4</sub> emissions for total anthropogenic categories, waste treatment and its  
368 proportions are given in Figure 3d-f. Significant gradients are observed from higher emissions in  
369 the east to lower emissions in the west, which is consistent with our three tower-based sets of  
370 observations. And the CH<sub>4</sub> emissions for waste treatment indicated similar spatial distributions  
371 with urban land use and population density (Figure 1c-d). Moreover, waste treatment seems to  
372 emit CH<sub>4</sub> as area sources instead of point sources from waste treatment super plants. Although a  
373 few previous studies found limitations of EDGAR inventory to capture CH<sub>4</sub> emission patterns in  
374 some urban areas (Pak et al., 2021), here considering the fact that locations of landfills (Figure  
375 1b-d), which is the largest anthropogenic CH<sub>4</sub> emitter in Hangzhou city, are very close to the core  
376 urban area and in high consistency with EDGAR, hence we believe the spatial patterns of EDGAR  
377 in study region to be reliable. We should note the Chinese government constructed waste  
378 separation stations in each city with density of one station for per 150~200 households (around  
379 450~800 people), usually these waste separation stations are full with waste because domestic  
380 garbage can be generated every day, they do not have gas collection systems and can emit large  
381 quantity of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions caused by daily biomass waste as area sources (Tian et al., 2022).  
382 Besides, there is only one landfill that has gas collection systems, the reported gas collection

383 efficiency was less than 80%, which also indicates large quantity of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions will be directly  
384 emitted into the atmosphere and the emissions will be influenced by climate change. These above  
385 analyses also imply Hangzhou site can observe higher emissions from both waste treatment and  
386 total anthropogenic emissions, which will be discussed and quantified later.

387

### 388 **3.3 Simulation of CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations and its components for three sites**

389 Comparisons between observed and simulated daily CH<sub>4</sub> concentration averages are displayed in  
390 Figure 4a-c and hourly concentrations in Figure S4 for three sites. First, the hourly simulations in  
391 Figure S4 show high consistency when only comparing the temporal patterns with observations,  
392 indicating good performance of model transport simulations as confirmed in Figure S5 for  
393 evaluating meteorological fields. But the relative variations display obvious differences among the  
394 three sites for daily averages in Figure 4a-c. The mean bias (MB), root mean squared error  
395 (RMSE), and correlation coefficient (R) between daily observations and *a priori* simulations were  
396 64.1 ppb, 129.2 ppb and 0.44, respectively, for Hangzhou site; and were -6.0 ppb, 57.1 ppb, 0.50  
397 for Linan site, 36.2 ppb, 55.6 ppb, 0.54 for Damingshan site. As for the Hangzhou site, simulated  
398 CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations show obvious overestimation from October to April, and the overestimation is  
399 also found at Damingshan site. We found the simulations at the Linan site showed overall good  
400 agreement with observation, but still with slight overestimation from January to April and  
401 underestimation from May to September. Considering the source area contributions for the three  
402 sites are different, these differences among the three sites indicated the bias in CH<sub>4</sub> emission  
403 largely varied from Hangzhou city to larger regional scale.

404

405 To further quantify detailed contributions from different regions and categories to each tower site,  
406 CH<sub>4</sub> enhancements from different categories and source areas were also simulated separately for  
407 the three sites. As displayed in Figure 4d-e, the simulated *a priori* total enhancements at Hangzhou  
408 site, Linan site, and Damingshan site were 244.3 ppb, 100.8, and 69.0 ppb, respectively. We also  
409 found contributions by waste treatments dominated the total enhancements but with obvious  
410 differences among the three sites, which varied from the highest 64.2% at Hangzhou site to the  
411 lowest 41.4% at Damingshan site. We further calculated anthropogenic contributions from

412 Hangzhou city (excluding wetlands because of coarser spatial resolution for Hangzhou city) and  
413 other provinces, which were 158.4 ppb at Hangzhou site, 30.7 ppb at Linan site, and 10.1 ppb at  
414 Damingshan site, respectively. And they accounted for 69.3%, 34.0%, and 16.9% of total  
415 anthropogenic enhancements at corresponding sites. These results indicate the CH<sub>4</sub> observations at  
416 Hangzhou site, which is located at the core urban region, are more influenced by local emissions  
417 (mainly for waste treatment which will be discussed later) and contain much higher enhancements  
418 than the other two sites. The relative contributions from Hangzhou city to observations at the  
419 Hangzhou site, Linan site and Damingshan site were 158.4 ppb (69.3% to total CH<sub>4</sub> enhancement),  
420 30.7 ppb (34.0% to total CH<sub>4</sub> enhancement), and 10.1 ppb (16.9% total CH<sub>4</sub> enhancement),  
421 respectively. The relative contributions from Zhejiang province to observations at the Hangzhou  
422 site, Linan site and Damingshan site were 181.7 ppb (79.5% to total CH<sub>4</sub> enhancement), 44.3 ppb  
423 (49.0% to total CH<sub>4</sub> enhancement), and 17.9 ppb (29.9% total CH<sub>4</sub> enhancement), respectively.  
424 These different values also imply that the observations at Linan and Damingshan sites can  
425 represent CH<sub>4</sub> emissions of much larger region as Zhejiang province or YRD area than Hangzhou  
426 city (Figure 4e), and Damingshan site.

427

428 The seasonally averaged diurnal variations for both observations and simulations are also  
429 displayed in Figure 5 for the three sites. Although many previous studies only used daytime  
430 observations and simulations to evaluate *a priori* emissions bias and constrain emissions (Sargent  
431 et al., 2018; Hu et al., 2022), these studies were based on the assumption that the diurnal scaling  
432 factors used for the *a priori* emissions are right (i.e. for anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub>), or the emissions do  
433 not have obvious diurnal variations (i.e. emissions from industries or manufacturing). As  
434 concluded above, the main CH<sub>4</sub> component in Hangzhou city was waste treatment (Figure 3f),  
435 which should be highly sensitive to temperature and indicates obvious diurnal and seasonal  
436 patterns (Mønster et al., 2019; Kumar et al., 2022). And total CH<sub>4</sub> emissions will be overestimated  
437 when using daytime emissions to represent all-day averages. Further, we found strong similarities  
438 of the diurnal variations between observations and simulations for the three sites, but there are still  
439 some discrepancies especially that the observations at Linan site were generally higher than  
440 simulations from spring to autumn for both all-day and midday averages.

441 Hence, our preliminary conclusions were that the *a priori* CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were generally  
442 overestimated for Hangzhou city but underestimated in the larger region of Zhejiang or YRD area.  
443 We also found simulations were higher than observations for all seasons at Damingshan site, and it  
444 can be explained by the complex topography around the Damingshan site, where elevations  
445 changed from 0 m to 1600 m within the site's grid cell of 9 km (~ 0.1°) as displayed in Figure 1b,  
446 and the mountain-valley wind patterns, PBLH changes can only be resolved with much higher  
447 spatial resolutions of < 1km. Hence the use of coarse resolutions (i.e. 9 km in this study) at the  
448 mountainous regions introduces large bias in simulating concentration and emission inversion, as  
449 also recently found in China for CO<sub>2</sub> as “aggregation error” (Agustí-Panareda et al., 2019; Wang et  
450 al., 2022), so observations at Damingshan site will not be used in emissions inversions in this  
451 study.

452

### 453 **3.4 Constraints on anthropogenic CH<sub>4</sub> emissions**

454 As displayed in Figures 3f, 5a and concluded in Section 3.3, simulations using *a priori* CH<sub>4</sub>  
455 emissions show obvious overestimation especially from October to April at Hangzhou site, and  
456 emissions were also overestimated in winter and underestimated from spring to autumn at Linan  
457 site. Note this bias can be attributed to *a priori* emissions or meteorological simulations. Our  
458 previous studies in YRD have evaluated the meteorological simulations by using the same  
459 physical parameterization schemes, which showed high consistency with observations (Hu et al.,  
460 2019; 2021; 2022; Huang et al., 2021). We also evaluated the meteorological simulations with  
461 observations and confirmed with good model performance (Figure S5). Note PBLH simulations  
462 are important in evaluating model performance, we only have four months of PBLH observations  
463 (one month in each season), these hourly PBLH observations were used to evaluate the general  
464 performance of WRF model. As displayed in Figure S6, it shows overall good performance for  
465 both daytime and nighttime PBLH variations. Furthermore, we found there no monthly variations  
466 in EDGAR v6.0 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions for waste treatment, which contributed 64.2% to annual CH<sub>4</sub>  
467 enhancement average and much higher in winter (Figure S7-S8). The CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from waste  
468 treatment are produced by the microbial process, which should be affected by meteorological  
469 conditions especially by seasonal temperature changes. Hence our assumption is that the bias in



470 both its seasonality and annual average lead to large overestimation/underestimation in the  
471 simulated CH<sub>4</sub> concentration. Besides, bias in other anthropogenic emissions and wetlands can  
472 also partly contribute to the bias of the simulated CH<sub>4</sub> concentration.

473

474 To quantify the bias sources and constrain corresponding *a priori* emissions for Hangzhou city, we  
475 applied the scaling factor Bayesian inversion approach with three different cases as introduced in  
476 the Method section. Instead of only using daytime CH<sub>4</sub> observations to constrain *a priori*  
477 emissions, we choose to use all-day hourly data at Hangzhou site to constrain emissions for  
478 Hangzhou city, for the following three reasons: (1) the enhancements contributed by Hangzhou  
479 city at the Hangzhou site was 69.3%, and much larger than 34.0%, and 16.9% for Linan site and  
480 Damingshan site, respectively; (2) the waste treatment dominated anthropogenic CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in  
481 Hangzhou city, which is caused by biological process and should be temperature dependent. Since  
482 the observed temperature varied diurnally by 20 °C, the use of only daytime observations without  
483 considering diurnal CH<sub>4</sub> emissions will bring significant bias when using derived daytime  
484 emissions to represent all-day averages. The annual averages of daytime and all-day average  
485 concentrations were 2112.4 and 2156.0 ppb at Hangzhou site, respectively, the reason why higher  
486 emissions in daytime correspond to lower concentration than in all-day and nighttime is that lower  
487 PBLH in nighttime will leads to higher concentration, and more comparisons between daytime  
488 and all-day average concentrations are displayed in Figure 5 for three sites; (3) previous studies  
489 using daytime observations were mainly conducted for regions dominated by industry or energy  
490 production, which have much smaller diurnal variations than waste treatment as stated above  
491 (Mønster et al., 2019; Kumar et al., 2022).

492

493 The derived monthly *posteriori* SFs for each emission source are displayed in Table 1 for  
494 Hangzhou city. The results show that the *posteriori* SFs for waste treatment are much smaller in  
495 winter and higher in summer, indicating obvious seasonality and the overestimation in winter was  
496 mainly contributed by waste treatment. The annual mean *posteriori* SFs for waste treatment vary  
497 between 0.50 and 0.56 in all three cases, illustrating overestimation at annual average for the *a*  
498 *priori* waste treatment emissions. Besides, the annual mean *posteriori* SFs vary between 0.87 and

499 0.94 for the rest of the total anthropogenic categories (excluding agricultural soil), and are 0.97 for  
500 PRO (fuel exploitation) and 0.91 for RCO (energy for building), respectively; the annual mean  
501 *posteriori* SF is 1.05 for wetland (including agricultural soil and natural wetland). These *posteriori*  
502 SFs for the rest anthropogenic categories and wetland indicate much smaller bias than waste  
503 treatment. The monthly *posteriori* SFs for PRO and RCO also illustrate obvious seasonal  
504 variations, but are still smaller than the *a priori* seasonality in the inventory (Figure S9). Although  
505 the evaluations of hourly PBLH simulations have illustrated good performance in both daytime  
506 and nighttime (Figure S6), we also conducted inversions by only using daytime observations to  
507 constrain CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Considering results from Case 2 varied between Case 1 and Case 3, here  
508 we only display the results from Case 1 and Case 3 (Table S2), it shows similar seasonal variations  
509 as using all all-day observations. We notice the values are larger than later, which is reasonable  
510 because CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in daytime should be larger than all-day and nighttime emissions. In  
511 general, *posteriori* SFs by using all-day concentration observations will be used to represent total  
512 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from monthly to annual scales.

513

514 To evaluate whether the *posteriori* SFs have significantly improved CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, we used these  
515 SFs to derive the *posteriori* emissions and re-simulated hourly concentrations in Figure 6 (and  
516 daily averages in Figure S9). Results show the hourly overestimation by using *a priori* emissions  
517 is largely reduced by using *posteriori* emissions when compared with observations in Figure 6a-b,  
518 and the regression slopes between daily averaged observations and simulations decrease from  
519 1.51(±0.15) for *a priori* simulations to 0.85(±0.07) for *posteriori* simulations in Figure 6c. The  
520 mean bias (MB), root mean squared errors (RMSE), correlation coefficient (R) between daily  
521 observations and *a priori* simulations are 64.1 ppb, 129.2 ppb and 0.44, respectively, and these  
522 statistics change to -22.2 ppb, 72.3 ppb and 0.58 for *posteriori* simulations. These results indicate  
523 the *posteriori* SFs obviously decrease the bias in *a priori* emissions and are closer to observations,  
524 when considering there are no system biases in simulated monthly PBLH.

525

526 The comparisons of monthly CH<sub>4</sub> emissions between *a priori* and *posteriori* waste treatment and  
527 other anthropogenic sources (excluding agricultural soil) in Hangzhou city are displayed in

528 Figures 7a and S7. For the *a priori* inventory, there is not seasonal variations for waste treatment  
529 with constant monthly emissions of  $8.67 \times 10^3$ t, and other anthropogenic sources show  
530 seasonality with much higher in winter (i.e.  $5.22 \times 10^3$ t in January) than in summer (i.e.  $3.06 \times$   
531  $10^3$ t in August). The seasonality in *a priori* EDGAR inventory is mainly dominated by RCO  
532 (Energy for buildings), with proportions to total anthropogenic emissions changing from the  
533 highest 22% in winter to lowest 8% in summer. Such information indicates the *a priori* inventory  
534 assigned more leaks from natural gas distribution infrastructure in winter than in summer. As  
535 discussed above, constant emissions from waste treatment should be wrong because of its large  
536 temperature sensitivity, and the observed monthly temperature difference between summer and  
537 winter was larger than 25°C in Hangzhou city in study period. After including the constraints from  
538 the observed concentrations, the *posteriori* emissions for waste treatment show obvious  
539 seasonality with highest emission in July ( $7.66 \pm 0.09 \times 10^3$  t) and lowest emission in February  
540 ( $2.20 \pm 0.87 \times 10^3$  t). And emissions from other anthropogenic categories show much smaller  
541 seasonality (highest emission in January of  $4.18 \pm 0.69 \times 10^3$  t and lowest emission in August of  
542  $2.88 \pm 0.15 \times 10^3$  t) than *a priori* emissions. In general, the annual emissions from waste treatment  
543 were  $10.4 \times 10^4$  t in the *a priori* EDGAR inventory and decreased to  $5.5 (\pm 0.6) \times 10^4$  t for the  
544 *posteriori* emissions, a decrease of 47.1%. The *a priori* emissions from other anthropogenic  
545 sources were  $4.5 \times 10^4$  t and only slightly decreases to  $4.1 (\pm 0.3) \times 10^4$  t for the *posteriori*  
546 emissions, an 8.9% decrease. The proportion of waste treatment to total anthropogenic emissions  
547 decreases from *a priori* 69.3% to *posteriori* 57.3%. To summarize, the annual total anthropogenic  
548 CH<sub>4</sub> emission (excluding agricultural soil) decreases from  $15.0 \times 10^4$  t to  $9.6 (\pm 0.9) \times 10^4$  t,  
549 indicating overestimation of 36.0% in Hangzhou city for the *a priori* emissions.

550

551 However, as concluded above the observations and simulations at Linan site, which represents the  
552 much larger region of Zhejiang province or YRD area, data from that site indicated slightly  
553 different results that CH<sub>4</sub> simulations were underestimated from spring to autumn and  
554 overestimated in winter (Figure 4b and Figure 5e-h). Here we used the multiplicative scaling  
555 factor (MSF) method and observations at Linan site to derive SFs at seasonal scale (Sargent et al.,  
556 2018; He et al., 2020), where we used 10 ppb as the potential CH<sub>4</sub> background uncertainty in

557 winter, spring and autumn, and 20 ppb in summer, see details in the Supplementary Material  
558 (Section S2). The derived *posteriori* SFs were 0.87 ( $\pm 0.08$ ), 1.07 ( $\pm 0.11$ ), 1.19 ( $\pm 0.24$ ), and 1.16  
559 ( $\pm 0.11$ ) for winter, spring, summer, and autumn, respectively. The results for the Linan site  
560 showed similar seasonal variations as found for Hangzhou city and was 1.07 ( $\pm 0.14$ ) of *a priori*  
561 anthropogenic emissions for the annual average. Our observations at Hangzhou site and Linan site  
562 together indicate the *a priori* emissions were largely biased on both seasonal and annual scales,  
563 and the annual anthropogenic CH<sub>4</sub> emission was largely overestimated by 36.0% in Hangzhou city,  
564 but was underestimated by 7.0% in the larger region of Zhejiang province or YRD area.

565

### 566 **3.5 Temperature sensitivity of waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> EFs and projected changes**

567 Although the derived *posteriori* monthly SFs on waste treatment reflected changes on emissions,  
568 considering the monthly activity data does not have obvious monthly changes, these SFs can  
569 mainly reflect relative variations of monthly EFs and contain meteorological dominated changes  
570 especially for temperature. To evaluate the temperature sensitivity of its EFs, we first calculated  
571 the normalized monthly SFs by dividing monthly SFs by annual averages (Tables 1 and S3), and  
572 quantified the relationship between observed T<sub>2m</sub> and normalized SFs. Note decomposition of  
573 organic waste by methanogens mostly takes at depth within the landfills and temperature can be  
574 higher than at the surface, hence the temperature within landfills should be much more related to  
575 methanogens activities and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions than T<sub>2m</sub>. However, considering (1) we do not have  
576 direct temperature observations under landfills, (2) T<sub>2m</sub> can be used as indicator of methanogens  
577 activities, and (3) T<sub>2m</sub> is commonly used meteorological data that can be provided for future RCP  
578 scenarios, hence the relationship between waste CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and T<sub>2m</sub> is constructed and used to  
579 predict how will CH<sub>4</sub> EFs change in different climate scenarios. The normalized SFs illustrate  
580 significant linear relationship with monthly T<sub>2m</sub> (Figure 7b), where the slopes imply that  
581 normalized SFs (and EFs) will increase by 38%~50% with temperature increase by 10°C at city  
582 scale. We also analyzed the temperature sensitivity by only using daytime CH<sub>4</sub> observations and  
583 simulations in Figure S10, it still shows strong linear relationship between normalized SFs and  
584 T<sub>2m</sub>, with the slopes of 0.046 and 0.060. These results are in high consistency with using all-day  
585 observations of 0.038 and 0.050, indicating similar results of using 24 hours observations and only

586 using daytime observations, and less influence of simulated nighttime PBLH bias on  
587 corresponding temperature sensitivity.

588

589 We should note the precipitation, soil water content and atmospheric pressure can also have  
590 obvious influence on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, and considering the fact that we have not conducted field  
591 measurement in landfills and landfills are usually covered by metal or plastic in China to avoid the  
592 spread of odors, hence reanalysis data cannot represent real soil water contents in these site scale  
593 landfills. Precipitation and atmospheric pressure show obvious linear relationship with  
594 temperature as displayed in Figure S11. They display positive linear relationship between  
595 precipitation (affect water content) and T<sub>2m</sub>, and negative linear relationship between monthly  
596 averaged atmospheric pressure and T<sub>2m</sub>. We also found negative relationship between atmospheric  
597 pressure and normalized SFs, and positive relationship between T<sub>2m</sub> and normalized SFs (Figures  
598 7b and S11). Considering air temperature always displays negative relationship with atmospheric  
599 pressure as warmer air temperature coincides with lighter air mass and lower atmospheric pressure  
600 in summer as displayed in Figure 11b, and colder air temperature coincides with heavier air mass  
601 and higher atmospheric pressure in winter. Hence, the temperature can be used to represent  
602 co-influence of both temperature and atmospheric pressure, and we only focus on the influence of  
603 temperature on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and will add more supporting data in following studies.

604

605 Our findings for the high sensitivity of waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions to temperature also suggest  
606 a dramatic increase with the projection of future global warming trends. We further derived the  
607 T<sub>2m</sub> trends for four different RCP scenarios as RCP8.0, RCP6.0, RCP4.5 and RCP2.6 (Figure 8a).  
608 The results show T<sub>2m</sub> will increase by 0.50°C, 0.28°C, 0.16°C, 0.10°C per decade for Hangzhou  
609 city, respectively. These different warming trends also indicate distinct temperature-dominated  
610 influence on future CH<sub>4</sub> EFs and emissions from waste treatment. We then used the slopes from  
611 Figure 7b and annual temperature from 2021 to 2100 to derive relative changes of EFs in future 80  
612 years, where observations for year 2021 were treated as the baseline year. As displayed in Figure  
613 8b, the EFs in RCP8.5, RCP6.0, RCP4.5 and RCP2.6 scenarios will increase with the rates of  
614 2.2%, 1.2%, 0.7% and 0.5% per decade, respectively. And CH<sub>4</sub> EFs for waste treatment will be

615 higher by 17.6%, 9.6%, 5.6%, and 4.0% at the end of this century.

616

617 The spatial distribution of  $T_{2m}$  trends for all of China is also displayed in Figure S12, which shows  
618 heterogeneous distribution across China for four global warming scenarios. Because East China  
619 has high population density, with the majority of the national population (Figure S1), and is  
620 responsible for the largest domestic garbage induced  $CH_4$  emissions (Figure S2), these combined  
621 factors indicate considerable  $CH_4$  emissions changes from waste treatment in such a  
622 temperature-sensitivity area. Considering that the temperature sensitivity of waste treatment  $CH_4$   
623 EFs is caused by microbial process at regional scales, the sensitivity can represent general  
624 conditions of different cities or landfills. And if we assume the derived temperature sensitivity  
625 (increase by 44% with temperature increases of  $10^\circ C$  on average) is applicable for China as a  
626 whole, especially for East China, the relative changes of waste treatment  $CH_4$  EFs can be  
627 calculated by multiplying this value by air temperature trends. The spatial distribution of global  
628 warming induced EF changes at the end of this century is displayed Figure 9. For RCP2.6 scenario,  
629 EFs for waste treatment will slightly increase by 4.0-6.5% in the north eastern China and increase  
630 by 3.0-4.0% in south eastern China. The RCP6.0 also displayed heterogeneous changes in East  
631 China, with EFs in the north eastern China increasing by 10.5-13.0% and in south eastern China  
632 increasing by 9.0-10.5%. Relative changes in RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 are more homogeneous for East  
633 China, which indicates EFs will significantly increase by 5.0-7.5% and 17.5-19.5%, respectively.  
634 The largest changes will occur in West China for RCP8.5, with EFs increasing by  $>20.0\%$ , but this  
635 area has low population density and  $CH_4$  emissions, and therefore these effects of global warming  
636 can be ignored (Figure S12). Finally, we should note these derived relative changes are only  
637 caused by global warming, and the influence of activity data, management technology and other  
638 factors is not considered and out of the scope of this study.

639

#### 640 **4 Discussions and implications**

641 Many previous studies have compared total  $CH_4$  emissions and its components for different  
642 inventories and bottom-up methods, which illustrated large uncertainty and bias at city scale and  
643 these biases were much larger for waste treatment (Peng et al., 2016; Sauniois et al., 2020; Lin et

644 al., 2021; Bian et al., 2022). A recent bottom-up research compared wastewater CH<sub>4</sub> EFs in China,  
645 which largely varied by four-fold in different provinces and the uncertainty in the same province  
646 were even two-fold larger than its average, implying considerable uncertainty in recent  
647 understanding of waste treatment EFs at regional scale (Hua et al., 2022). And for the national  
648 total emissions, waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions varied between 5 and 15 Tg a<sup>-1</sup> (Peng et al., 2016;  
649 EDGAR v6). There are also other atmospheric inversion studies in estimating China's CH<sub>4</sub>  
650 emissions (Hopkins et al., 2016; Hu et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2021; Miller et al., 2019; Lu et al.,  
651 2021; Chen et al., 2022). These studies found large variations of national emissions for almost all  
652 inventories, which were mainly caused by fossil fuel exploitation, agricultural sector (livestock  
653 and rice paddies) and waste treatment. For the comparisons of waste treatment emissions, these  
654 satellite-based inversions also largely varied between 6 and 9 Tg a<sup>-1</sup> by 1.5-fold (Miller et al.,  
655 2019; Lu et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2022).

656

657 The reported discrepancies between “bottom-up” and “top-down” approaches indicate large  
658 uncertainty in understanding China's national CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from waste treatment. And it is well  
659 known the uncertainties will increase from national scale to regional and city scales, also implying  
660 considerable uncertainties in city-scale emissions for inventories. But the atmospheric inversion  
661 approach for city scale waste treatment, which can act as an independent evaluation, is still rare  
662 not only for China but also globally. To our best knowledge, there is only one recent atmospheric  
663 inversion research focused on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from city-scale waste treatment, which used  
664 satellite-based observation to constrain emissions from four cities in India and Pakistan, that  
665 concluded underestimation of landfills CH<sub>4</sub> emissions by 1.4 to 2.6 times for EDGAR inventory  
666 (Maasakkers et al., 2022). In our study, we found annual waste CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were overestimated  
667 by 47.1% for Hangzhou city, our findings are different from results in India and Pakistan. These  
668 differences indicate bias of waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions considerably varied in different  
669 countries and climate divisions. Our results highlight there is a large knowledge gap in  
670 understanding waste treatment emissions mechanisms and estimating urban waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub>  
671 emissions especially in China.

672

673 Different from fossil-type sources that have much smaller monthly variations, CH<sub>4</sub> emission from  
674 waste treatment is biological processes-based source and its EFs are highly sensitive to  
675 meteorological conditions especially for temperature. These factors lead to obvious bias in waste  
676 treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions not only for annual average but also for its seasonality. Besides, although  
677 there were a few studies that aimed to predict future CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from waste treatment, these  
678 studies were mainly based on activity data changes without considering the EFs variations caused  
679 by future global warming trends or only based on site-specific observations (USEPA 2013; Cai et  
680 al., 2018; Spokas et al., 2021). Of these three cited studies, USEPA (2013) and Cai et al. (2018)  
681 only predicted emissions changes due to changes in activity data and management technology.  
682 And the CH<sub>4</sub> emissions for year 2030 by Cai et al. (2018) was 23.5% lower than the USEPA  
683 (2013) estimation, which was caused by the consideration of new policies and low-carbon policy  
684 scenarios. Spokas et al. (2021) modeled the CH<sub>4</sub> emission changes with increasing air  
685 temperature, where CH<sub>4</sub> emissions did not show obvious changes even with temperature  
686 increasing by ~5°C by the end of year 2100. To our best knowledge, there are no inventories that  
687 considered the temperature-induced changes on both seasonal variations and annual trends of CH<sub>4</sub>  
688 emissions. Hence, it is still unclear in all inventories how EFs will change with different global  
689 warming scenarios at city scale.

690

691 A few observation-based measurements were conducted for waste treatment but only at some  
692 specific sites with large discrepancies of EFs (Du et al., 2017; 2018; Cai et al., 2018; Zhao et al.,  
693 2019; NBSC, 2015; Wang et al., 2015; Florentino et al., 2010; Tolaymat et al., 2010; Cai et al.,  
694 2014; 2018). And only one of our previous studies used year-round atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> observations  
695 to constrain regional scale CH<sub>4</sub> emissions at Nanjing city in YRD area (Huang et al., 2021), where  
696 it found much higher emissions of the landfilling waste in summer than in winter: CH<sub>4</sub> emissions  
697 in July were around four times those in February. But there is no study that has quantified the  
698 temperature sensitivity of waste CH<sub>4</sub> emissions at city scale or much larger regional scales. These  
699 two studies in different cities confirmed temperature as the dominant factor that drives seasonal  
700 variations of waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Hence our study appears as the first one that  
701 estimated city scale waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, its temperature sensitivity and projected



702 changes in different global warming scenarios. Our findings for the large sensitivity to  
703 temperature indicate the monthly scaling factors should be considered to better represent CH<sub>4</sub>  
704 emissions and simulate atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations.

705

706 We also note that the predictions of future climate changes are mainly based on different emitting  
707 intensity of greenhouse gas, and CH<sub>4</sub> contributed around 20% of direct anthropogenic radiative  
708 forcing (Seto et al., 2014). The CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in different global warming scenarios were mainly  
709 calculated by predicting energy use data without considering the changes of EFs. In this study, we  
710 found there should be large positive feedback between global warming and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions,  
711 especially in the RCP 8.0 scenario where global warming induced CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from waste  
712 treatment will increase by 17.6%. Hence the projected emissions from waste treatments and other  
713 biological process based sources, together with positive feedback between temperature and their  
714 emissions are strongly suggested in future climate change models. Besides, it is well known that  
715 CH<sub>4</sub> concentration simulations are essential for modeling air pollutions (e.g. O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, and CO)  
716 especially in the stratosphere (Isaksen et al., 2011; Kaiho et al., 2013). Considering that waste  
717 treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions accounted for ~25% of total anthropogenic emissions (EDGAR v6.0) in  
718 East China where severe air pollution frequently occurred, we also believe the coupling of  
719 temperature-dependent CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and the monthly scaling factors on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions can  
720 improve air pollution modeling in East China.

721

722 We should note that new technology and other meteorological variables can also influence waste  
723 treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. The main reason to only use temperature in this study is that we only  
724 constrained the emissions at monthly scale in one year, and derived twelve datasets of *posteriori*  
725 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Besides, temperature is considered to be the main factor in controlling monthly  
726 and annual variations of waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, and can be used to represent the  
727 co-influence of other meteorological parameters such as atmospheric pressure. We will use  
728 multiple years' CH<sub>4</sub> concentration to quantify the influence of new technology and other  
729 meteorological variables on waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in our following study, and we suggest  
730 that other tracers (e.g. ethane, <sup>14</sup>CH<sub>4</sub>) are also important to separate CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from biological

731 and fossil CH<sub>4</sub> emissions.

732

### 733 **5 Summary and Conclusions**

734 To better evaluate bias for city scale anthropogenic CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and understand the sensitivity  
735 of temperature on waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, we used a three tower-based atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub>  
736 observation network in Hangzhou city, which is located in the developed YRD region and one of  
737 the top 10 megacities in China. One-year hourly atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> observations were presented  
738 from December 2020 to November 2021. We then applied a scaling factor Bayesian inversion  
739 method to constrain monthly anthropogenic CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and its components (especially for  
740 waste treatments) in Hangzhou city, and also used multiplicative scaling factor method for broader  
741 Zhejiang province and YRD area at seasonal scale.

742

743 To the best of our knowledge, our study is the first tower-based CH<sub>4</sub> observation network in China.  
744 We found obvious seasonal bias of simulated CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations at the core urban area of  
745 Hangzhou city, which was mainly caused by bias of waste treatment at both annual and monthly  
746 scales. The derived *posteriori* CH<sub>4</sub> emissions display obvious seasonal variations with peak in  
747 summer and trough in winter, which was mainly contributed by waste treatment; the *a priori*  
748 annual waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emission in Hangzhou city was  $10.4 \times 10^4$  t and decreased to  $5.5$   
749  $(\pm 0.6) \times 10^4$  t for the *posteriori* emissions, a decrease of 47.1%. Besides, the total anthropogenic  
750 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (excluding agricultural soil) decreased from  $15.0 \times 10^4$  t to  $9.6(\pm 0.9) \times 10^4$  t,  
751 indicating overestimation of 36.0% for the whole year of 2021. Observations at Linan site imply  
752 that the annual CH<sub>4</sub> emissions was slightly underestimated by 7.0% for the larger region of  
753 Zhejiang province or YRD area, which was different from the case of Hangzhou city. Additionally,  
754 the *posteriori* monthly CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from waste treatment illustrate significant linear  
755 relationship with air temperature, with regression slopes indicating an increase of 38%~50% when  
756 temperature increases by 10°C. Finally, we found the waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> EFs for Hangzhou city  
757 will increase by 17.6%, 9.6%, 5.6%, and 4.0% by the end of this century for RCP8.0, RCP6.0,  
758 RCP4.5 and RCP2.6 scenarios, respectively. The derived relative changes for whole China also  
759 showed high heterogeneity and indicate large uncertainty in projecting future national total CH<sub>4</sub>

760 emissions. This study is also the first one that mainly focuses on city scale temperature sensitivity  
761 of waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from the perspective of atmospheric inversion approach. And  
762 based on above results, we strongly suggest the temperature-dependent EFs should be coupled in  
763 both recent CH<sub>4</sub> inventories and future CH<sub>4</sub> emission projections.

764

765 **Data availability:** The atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> observations data can be requested from Cheng Hu and  
766 Bing Qi. STILT model is downloaded from <http://www.stilt-model.org/>, the EDGAR inventory is  
767 from <https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/>, and the projected climate data were downloaded from World  
768 Data Center for Climate (WDCC, <https://www.wdc-climate.de/ui/>).

769

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777

778 **Author contribution:** Cheng Hu and Bing Qi designed the study. Cheng Hu performed the model  
779 simulation, data analysis and wrote and revised the paper; Bing Qi and Rongguang Du conducted CH<sub>4</sub>  
780 concentration observation and meteorological data collection, and all co-authors contributed to the  
781 data/figures preparation and analysis.

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

783

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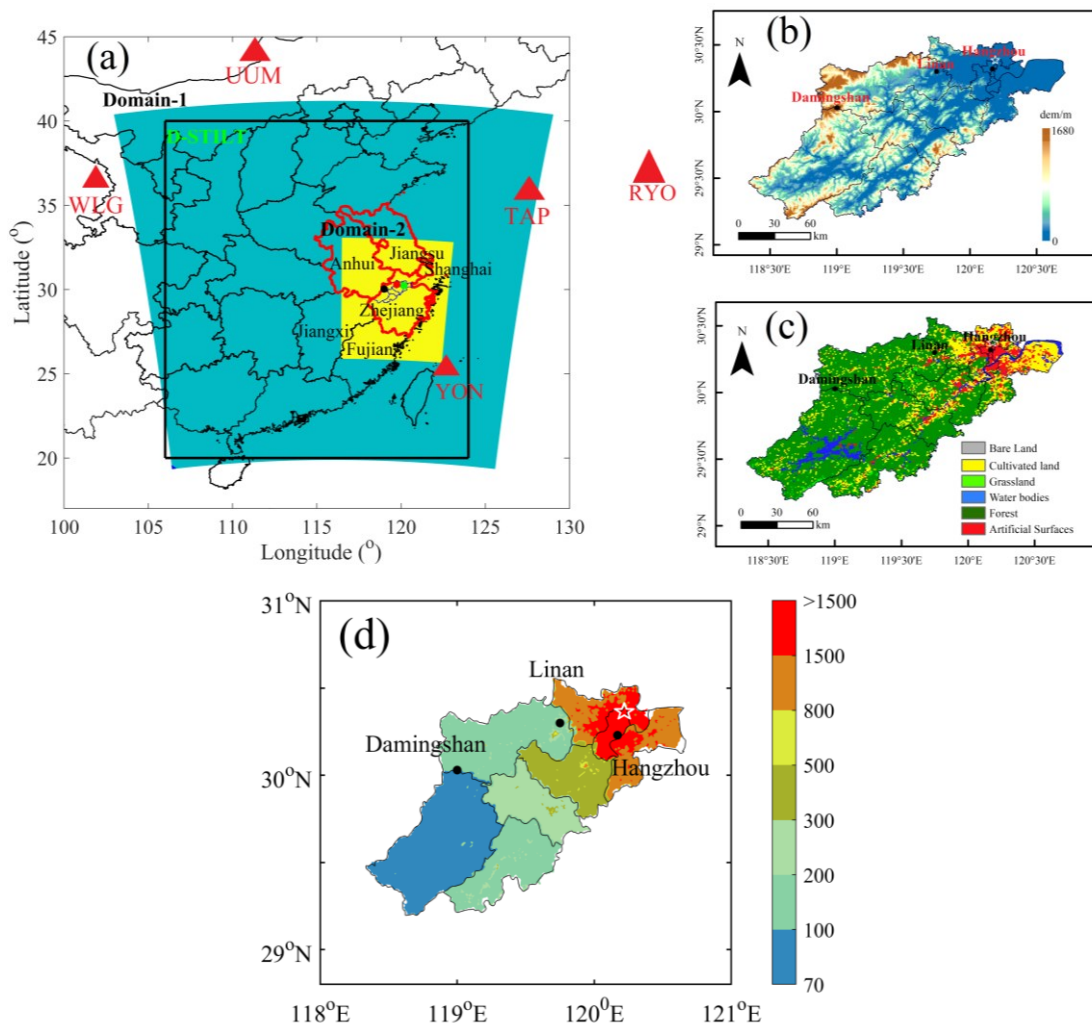
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1008 Figure 1. (a) WRF-STILT model domain setups, three CH<sub>4</sub> concentration observation sites in  
 1009 Hangzhou city, and five CH<sub>4</sub> background sites, note the green, red and black dots represent  
 1010 locations for Hangzhou site, Linan site and Damingshan site, respectively, Yangtze River Delta  
 1011 regions is displayed in red boundary, back rectangle represents domain in STILT model, (b)  
 1012 geophysical height within Hangzhou city, (c) land surface categories in Hangzhou city, and (d)  
 1013 population density in Hangzhou city for year 2019, units: person per km<sup>2</sup>, the location of landfills  
 1014 in Hangzhou city is displayed with white star.

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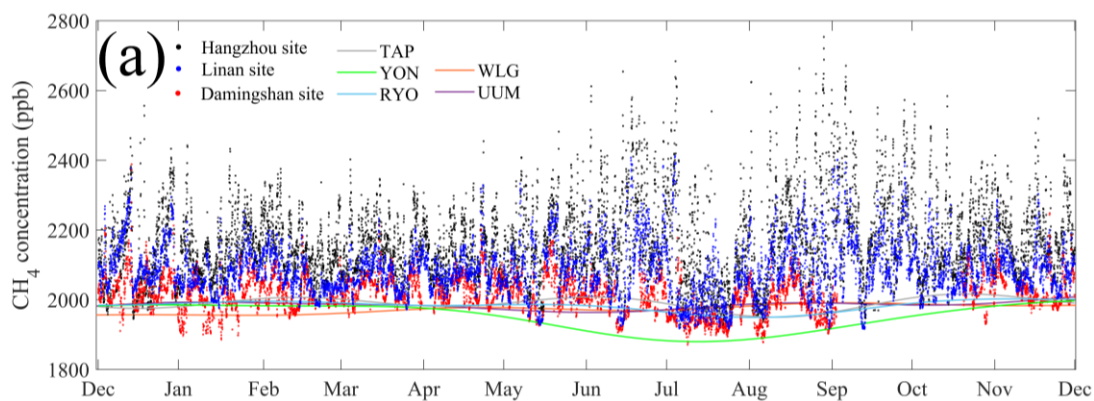
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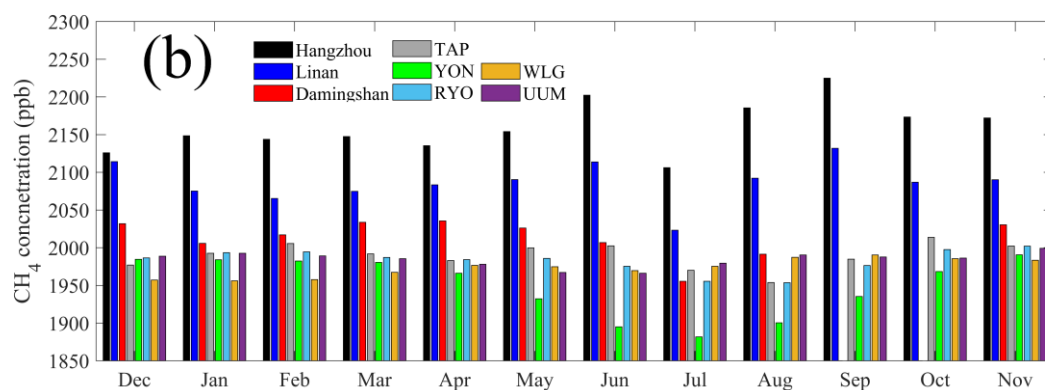
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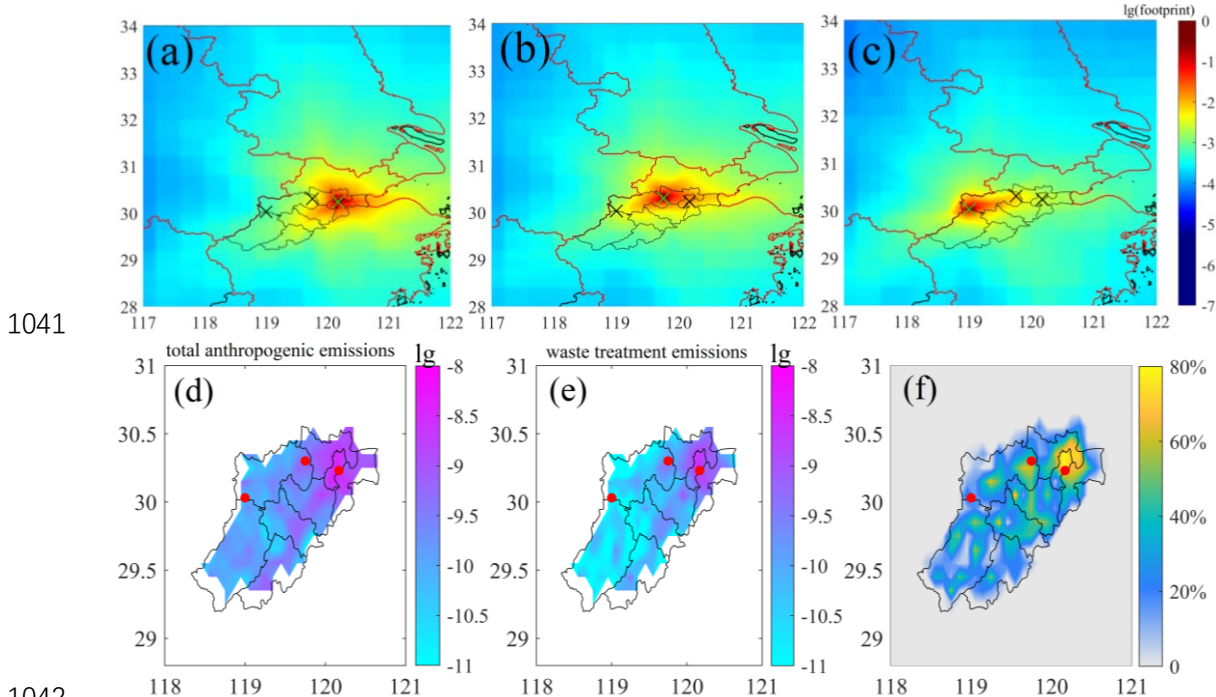
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Figure 2. (a) Hourly CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations at three sites within Hangzhou city as Hangzhou site, Linan site, and Damingshan site, and fitting CH<sub>4</sub> background based on CCGCRV regression method at five background sites as TAP, YON, RYO, WLG and UUM, (b) monthly mean of CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations for above eight sites. Note the CH<sub>4</sub> background is smoothed by using CCGCRV fitting method on weekly or hourly observations, which can filter large fluctuations caused by sudden and unidentified sources



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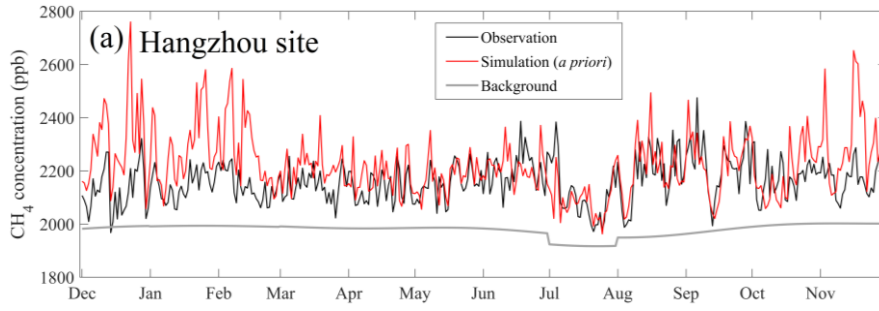
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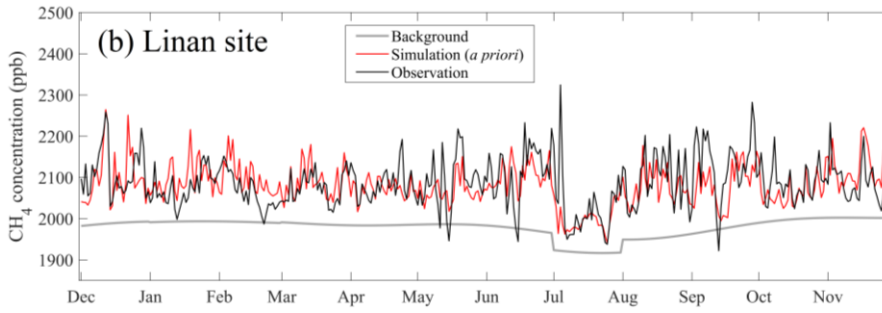
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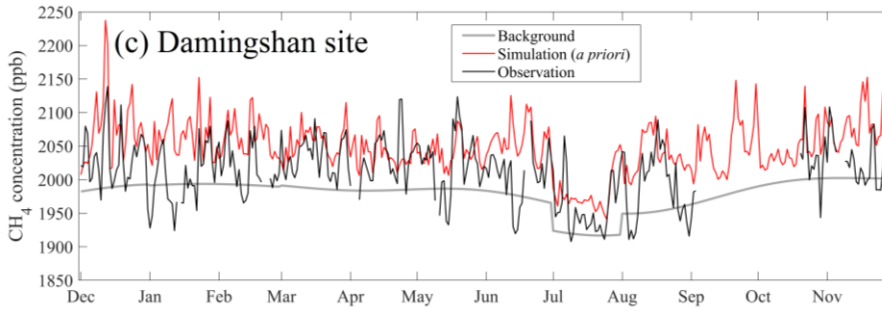
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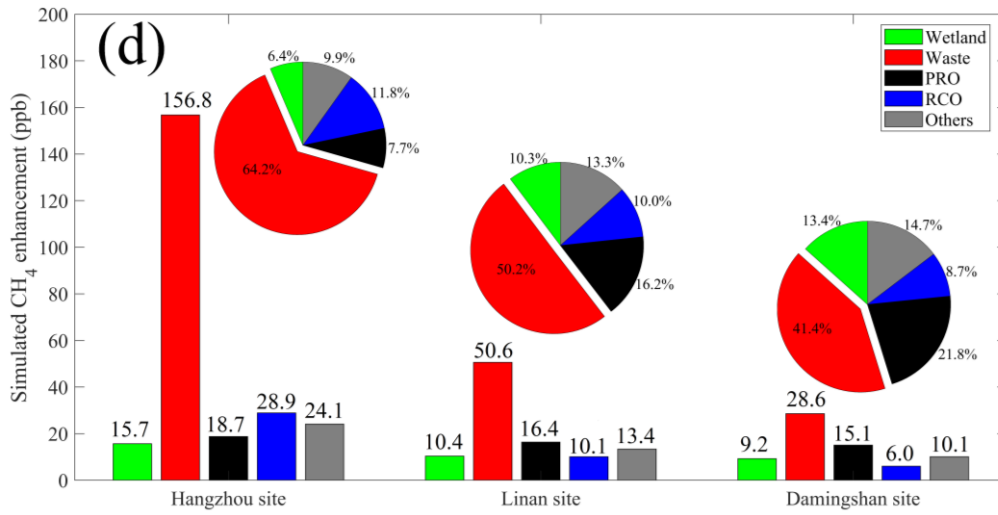
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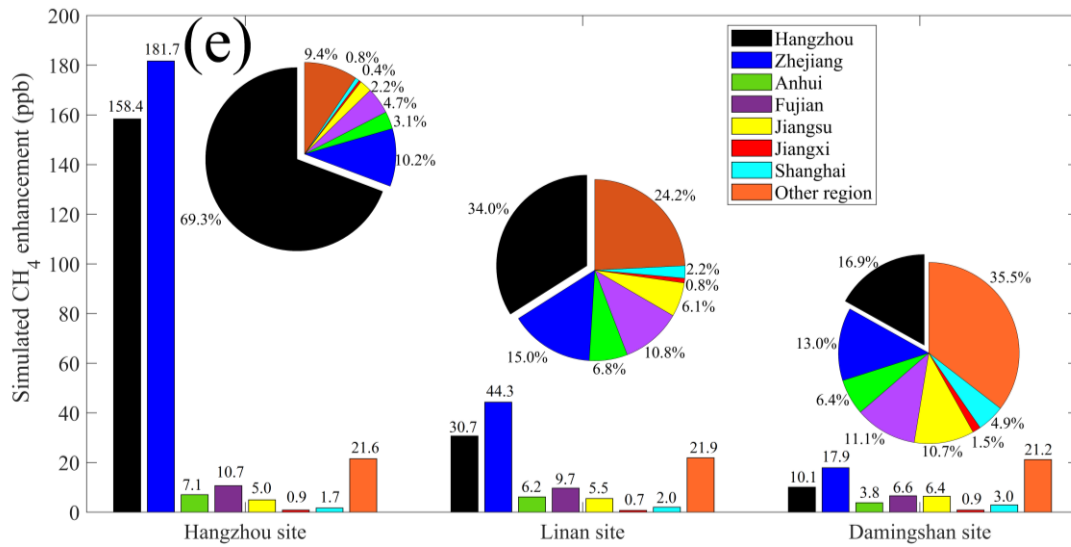
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1070 Figure 4. Comparisons between daily CH<sub>4</sub> observations and simulations for (a) Hangzhou site, (b)  
 1071 Linan site, (c) Damingshan site, (d) simulated CH<sub>4</sub> enhancements from main emission categories  
 1072 (e) simulated anthropogenic CH<sub>4</sub> enhancement from different regions and its proportions. Note the  
 1073 blue color for the bar charts include all contributions from “Zhejiang”, including “Hangzhou”; and the  
 1074 blue regions in the pie charts represent rest regions of “Zhejiang minus Hangzhou”.

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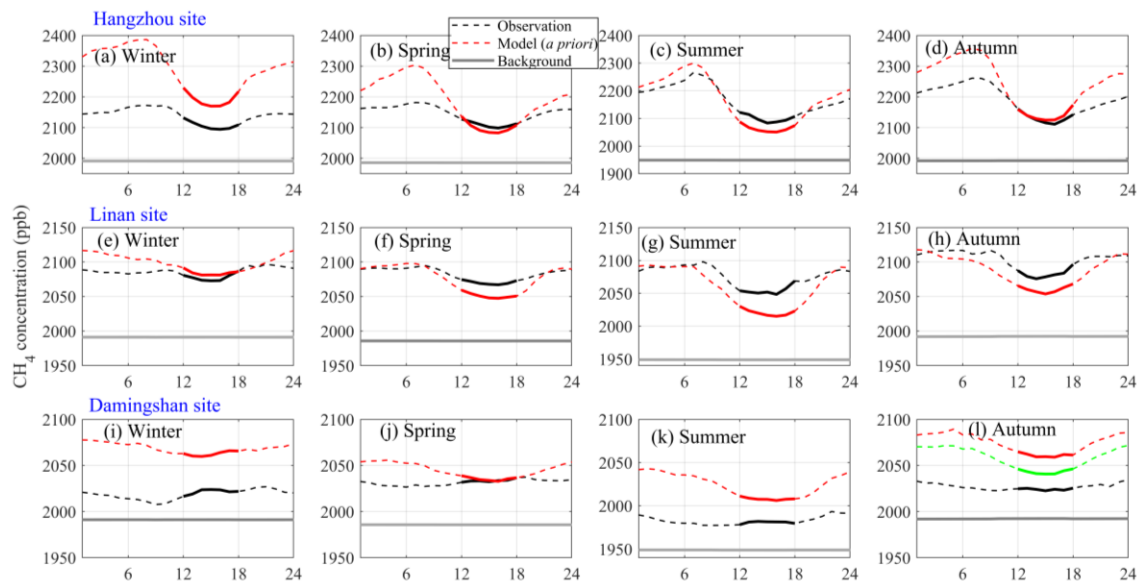
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1098 Figure 5. Seasonal averaged diurnal variations for Hangzhou site in (a) winter, (b) spring, (c)  
 1099 summer, (d) autumn, and Linan site in (e) winter, (f) spring, (g) summer, (h) autumn, and  
 1100 Damingshan site in (i) winter, (j) spring, (k) summer, (l) autumn; Note because of two months of  
 1101 data gap in Autumn for Damingshan site, the green line is for all September-November  
 1102 simulations, red line only represent simulation of corresponding period for available observation  
 1103 data, and bold lines represents data between 12:00 and 18:00.

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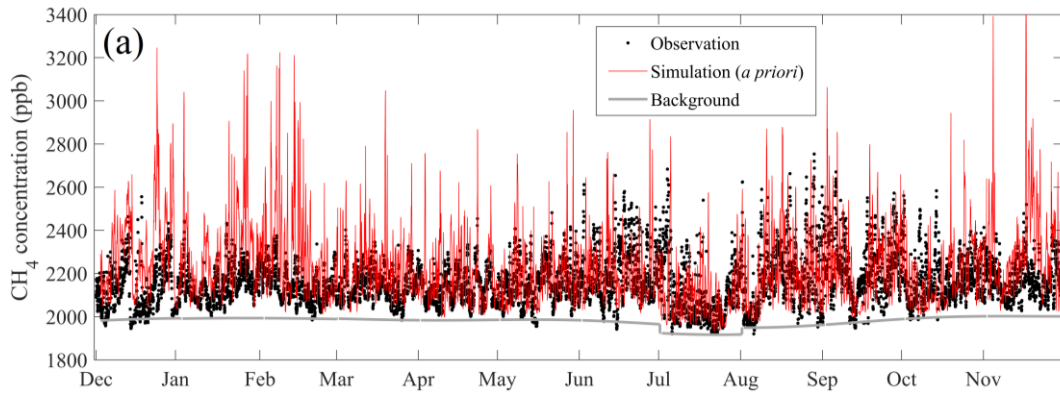
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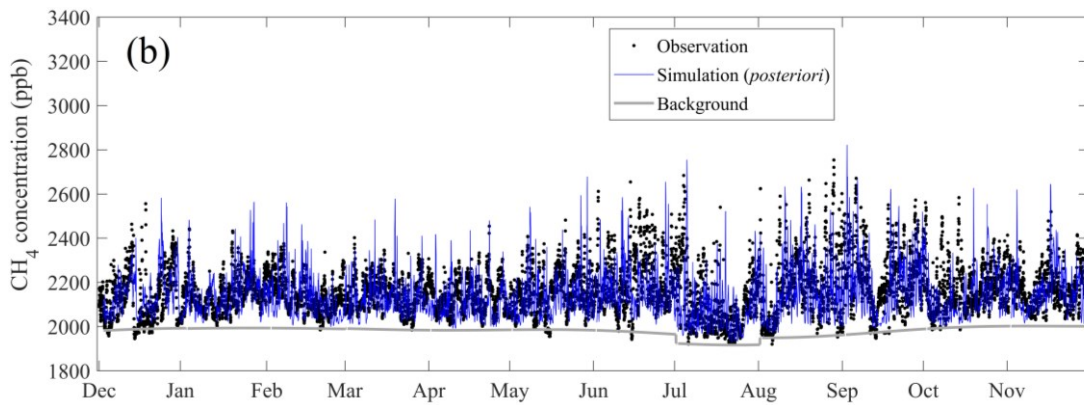
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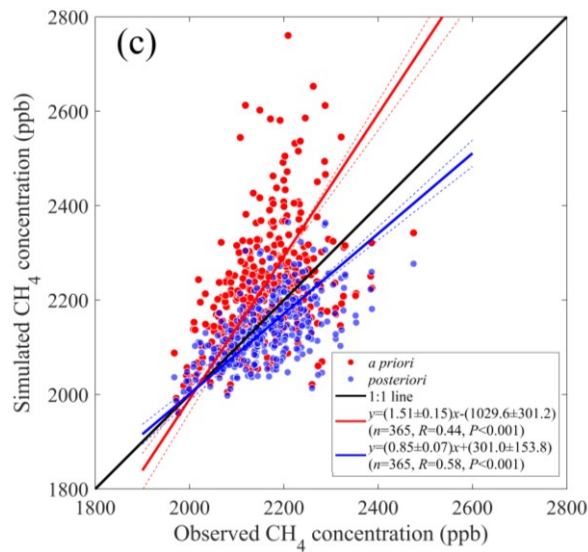
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1121 Figure 6. Comparisons of hourly CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations at Hangzhou site between observations and  
 1122 simulations by using (a) *a priori* and (b) *posteriori* emissions, (c) scatter plots of daily CH<sub>4</sub>  
 1123 averages by using *a priori* and *posteriori* emissions.

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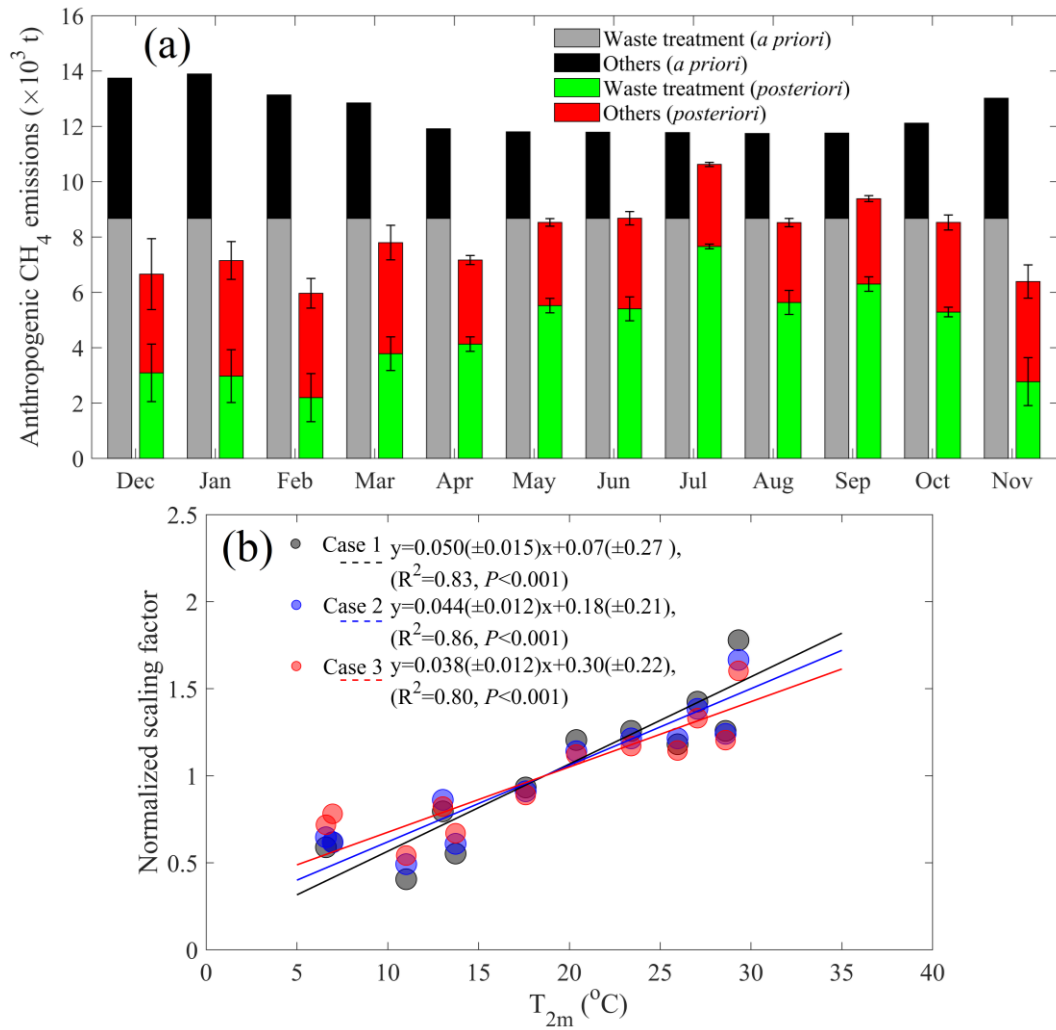
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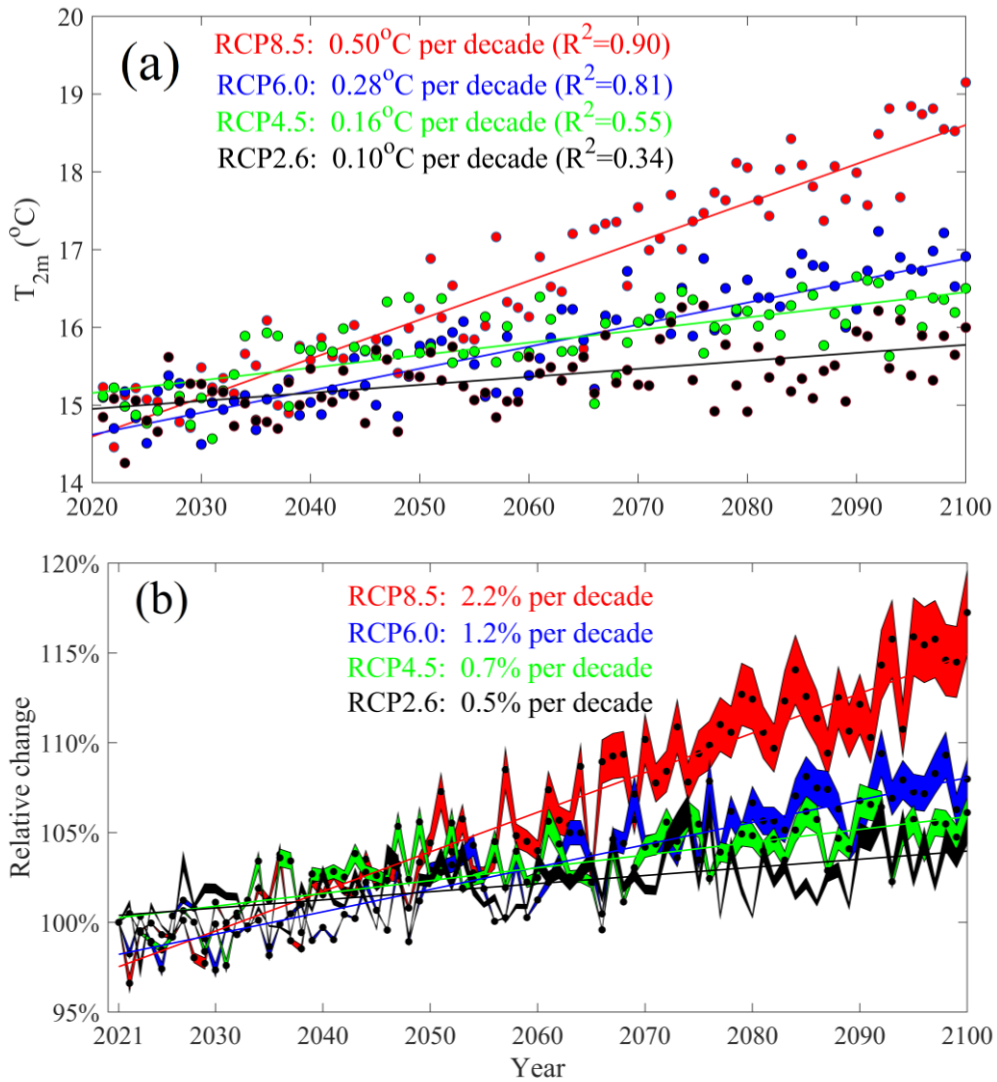
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Figure 7. (a) Monthly anthropogenic (excluding agricultural soil) CH<sub>4</sub> emissions for *a priori* and *posteriori* emissions for Hangzhou city, (b) relationship between the monthly *posteriori* CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and temperature for the three cases discussed in section 2.3 of this text.





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1149 Figure 8. (a) Annual air temperature from year 2021 to 2100 for four different global warming  
 1150 scenarios for Hangzhou city, (b) the projected relative change of waste treatment  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions  
 1151 (or EFs) for Hangzhou city, note the shading indicates extent of three cases.

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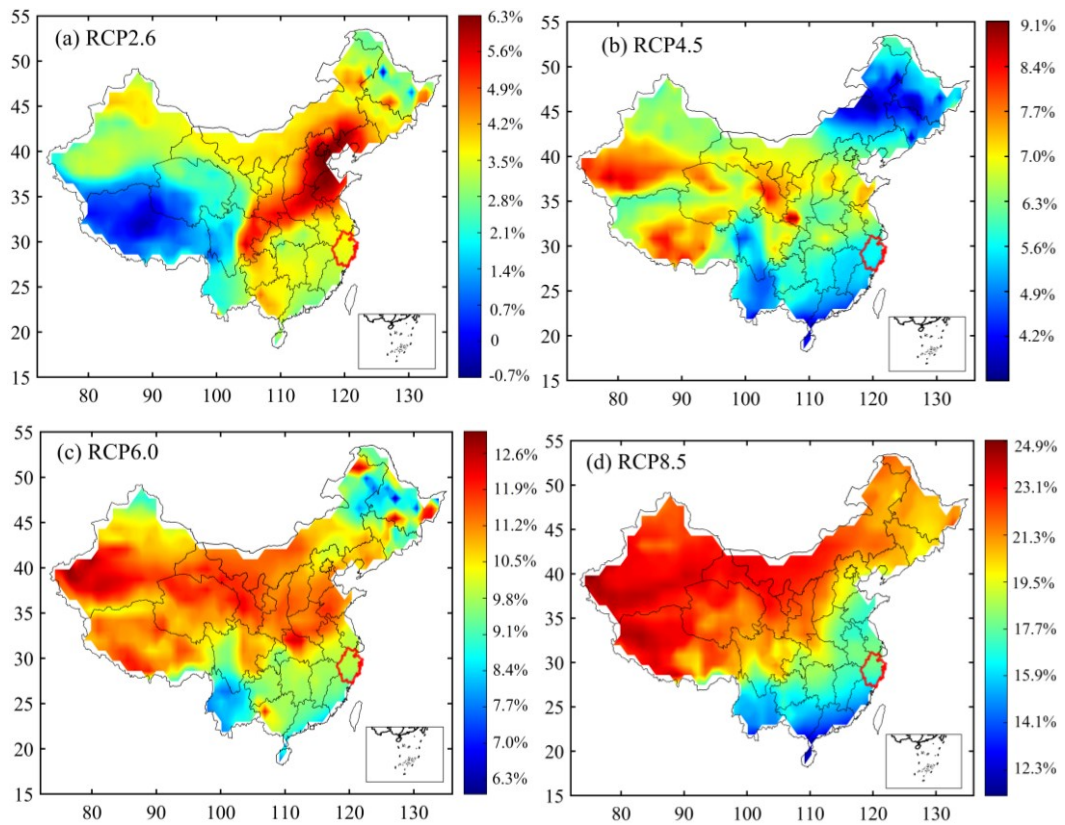
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Figure 9. Global warming induced relative changes of waste treatment CH<sub>4</sub> EFs by year of 2100 for (a) RCP2.6, (b) RCP4.5, (c) RCP6.0, and (d) RCP8.5 scenarios. Note the red boundary is Zhejiang province.

1192 Table 1. The *posteriori* SFs for different categories in three cases for Hangzhou city, where  
 1193 wetland: natural and agricultural wetland, Waste: waste treatment, PRO: fuel exploitation, RCO:  
 1194 energy for building, Others: the rest anthropogenic emissions. Note Case 1: 3 categories, and 300%  
 1195 uncertainty for waste treatment; Case 2: 5 categories; Case 3: 3 categories, and 200% uncertainty  
 1196 for waste treatment.

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

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