Quantifying daily NO*^x* **and CO² emissions from Wuhan using satellite observations from TROPOMI and OCO-2**

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Abstract. Quantification and control of NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions are important across the world to limit adverse climate change and improve air quality. We present a new top-down method, an improved superposition column model to estimate day-today NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions from the large city of Wuhan, China, located in a polluted background. The lastestd released

- 20 version 2.3.1 TROPOMI NO² columns and the version 10r of the OCO-2 observed CO² mixing ratio are employed. We predictedquantified daily NO*^x* and CO² emissions from Wuhan between September 2019 to October 2020 with uncertainty of 31 % and 43 %, comparing to the 39% and 49% with the earlier v1.3 TROPOMI data, respectively. Our estimated estimated NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions from Wuhan are verified against bottom-up inventories with small deviations ($<$ 3 % for 2019 mean, ranging from -20 % to 48 % on daily basis). Based on the estimated CO_2 emissions, we also predicted daily CO_2 column
- 25 mixing ratio enhancements, which match well with OCO-2 observations (< 5 % bias, within ±0.3 ppm). We capture the dayto-day variation of NO_x and CO₂ emissions from Wuhan in 2019–2020, which does not reveal a substantial 'weekend reduction' but does show a clear 'holiday reduction' in the NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions. Our method also quantifies the abrupt decrease and slow rebound of NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions due to the Wuhan lockdown in early 2020. This work demonstrates the improved superposition model to be a promising new tool for the quantification of city NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions, allowing policy makers
- 30 to gain real-time information into spatial-temporal emission patterns and the effectiveness of carbon and nitrogen regulation in urban environments.

1 Introduction

Fossil fuel combustion by power plants, industrial activities, transportation, and residential energy use sectors leads to emission of nitrogen oxides ($NO_x = NO + NO₂$) as well as carbon dioxide ($CO₂$). Traditional bottom-up NO_x and $CO₂$ emission estimates have a lag in time of several years, becauseyears because it takes time to access and compile accurate information on energy 40 consumption and the emission factors (Lamsal et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2020a).

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For decades satellites have been continuously providing information of $NO₂$ distributions and trends with good quality, and satellite data is widely used to quantify NO*^x* emissions and changes (Lamsal et al., 2010; Visser et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021). Based on satellite retrieved $NO₂$ data, previous studies quantified long-term mean (monthly, yearly or multi-yearly) NO_x emissions on global and regional scales (Lamsal et al., 2011; Visser et al., 2019). Beirle et al. (2011) 45 analyzed downwind plumes of satellite $NO₂$ columns downwind of strong sources averaged foron each wind direction, and then inferred NO*^x* emissions from isolated large point sources and megacities. Inspired by this idea, Lorente et al. (2019) analyzed the increase of $NO₂$ along with the wind over the extensive pollution source of Paris. The build-up of $NO₂$ over the city observed from space, in combination with information on wind speed and direction allows to obtain day-by-day (sub-)urban NO*^x* emission estimates and lifetimes as long as the city is under a clear sky and winds are relatively constant in 50 time. This approach does not need burdensome inverse modelling computations and opens possibilities for rapid and direct monitoring of NO_x emissions from space.

In contrast to NO_x, it is challenging to infer accurate localized anthropogenic CO_2 emissions from satellite CO_2 retrievals. One reason is that the background $CO₂$ concentration is orders of magnitude higher than the enhancement caused by anthropogenic emissions, reflecting the long atmospheric lifetime of $CO₂$ (Reuter et al., 2014; 2019). Another reason is that 55 the spatial and temporal coverage of current $CO₂$ sensors is too sparse to allow substantial averaging of noisy signals by revisiting of scenes, precluding detailed CO₂ emission estimation (Zheng et al., 2020a; Liu et al., 2020a). Using satellite NO₂ measurements to estimate anthropogenic NO_x emissions as the basis to infer anthropogenic $CO₂$ emission has been proposed

- in several studies (Reuter et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2020a; Berezin et al., 2013; Zheng et al., 2020a). However, to our knowledge there is no method that estimates day-to-day top-down CO₂ emission estimation on (sub-)city scale.
- 60 Here we revisit the method of Lorente et al. (2019) to improve our understanding of its potential and limitations and extend it to estimate city-scale daily NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions. We present an improved superposition model that considers the buildup of pollution over a source area as in Lorente et al. (2019), as well as the decay of $NO₂$ downwind of the source, but now also accounts for changes in the background $NO₂$ pollution along wind direction. The background $NO₂$ pollution was considered to remain constant in Lorente et al. (2019) for Paris, which is not surrounded by significant surface sources of NO*^x*
- 65 pollution. Here we apply our improved method on a highly polluted urban area, the megacity of Wuhan in Hubei Province of

China, which, other than the relatively isolated city of Paris, is located in a polluted background with many surrounding surface pollution sources that potentially interfere with the build-up and decay of the NO² plume from Wuhan. Using this improved superposition model, together with the bottom-up information on the $CO₂$ -to-NO_x emission ratio, we infer NO_x and predict CO₂ emissions on a day-by-day basis over a full year, from September 2019 to August 2020, and analyze the variation in

70 emissions and NO*^x* chemical lifetime from day to day. Of particular interest are the reductions and subsequent rebound of NO*^x* and $CO₂$ emissions associated with the COVID-19 lockdown measures in Wuhan, which have been reported in other studies. and serve here as a useful check on the robustness of our method.

2 Data and Material

2.1 Satellite data

75 In this study, we use the newly released level-2, version 2.3.1 of the S-5P TROPOMI data (TROPOMI-v2.3.1) between September 2019 to August 2020. The S-5P (Sentinel-5 Precursor) satellite was launched in October 2017, and the TROPOMI (TROPOspheric Monitoring Instrument) on board provides tropospheric NO² columns with a unprecedented horizontal resolution up to 5.5 km × 3.5 km (as of 6 August 2019) and high signal-to-noise ratio (Griffin et al., 2019; Van Geffen et al., 2020). The v2.3.1 dataset is provided by S5P-PAL (S5P Science and Technology Product Algorithm Laboratory) (Eskes et al., 80 2021), and is dedicated to support the research on the impact of the COVID lockdown on air quality. Improved (residual) cloud pressures correct the low bias of v1.x data compared to OMI and ground-based measurements over east China (Wang et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2020b). In addition, an improved treatment for the surface albedo increases the columns for cloud-free scenes (Van Geffen et al., 2022). Compared to the earlier version, this dataset has $10-40\%$ higher tropospheric NO₂ columns over polluted scenes due to the improved cloud retrieval and other algorithm updates (Van Geffen et al., 2022; Riess et al., 2022). 85 Over Wuhan we find an average increase (compared to the v1.3 data, hereinafter referred to as TROPOMI-v1.3) in tropospheric NO² column density of about 25 %, but there are also differences between the two versions in terms of spatial and temporal distribution but the difference between the two versions changes spatially and temporally (Fig. S2). According to Fig. S2, According to Fig. S2, the increase in v2.3.1 is much stronger over a polluted area (city center) and polluted period the increase in TROPOMI-v2.3.1 is much higher over polluted area (city center) and polluted period (9 September and 3 October 2019). 90 Since that the v1.x TROPOMI data is widely used in previous studies (e.g. Bauwens et al., 2020; Ding et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021), we also compared- the estimated NO_x lifetime and emissions from the TROPOMI-v2.3.1 data and the TROPOMIv1.3 data, which will be discussed in Sec. 3.1. Improved (residual) cloud pressures correct the low bias of v1.x data compared to OMI and ground-based measurements over east China (Wang et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2020b). In addition, an improved treatment for the surface albedo increases the columns for cloud-free scenes (Van Geffen et al., 2022). For comparison (and 95 to assess the impact of retrieval improvements on NO*^x* emission estimates), we also use version 1.3 data (TROPOMI-v1.3) for 2019 to derive NO*^x* emissions from Wuhan.For the record, when estimating the NO*^x* emissions and lifetime over Wuhan, we scaled up the TROPOMI-v1.3 $NO₂$ columns by a factor of 1.6 to correct for thise known -40 % bias in TROPOMI NO₂ data

as reported by Liu et al. (2020b). Since previous studies have pointed out a low bias in the v1.x TROPOMI retrieval, especially over China (Griffin et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2020b), we scaled up the v1.3 NO² columns by a factor of 1.6 to 100 correct for this known -40 % bias in TROPOMI NO² data as reported by Liu et al. (2020b).

We sampled the TROPOMI NO₂ columns into 0.05° lat $\times 0.05^{\circ}$ lon grid cells ($\sim 6 \times 6$ km²). To assure good data quality, we filtered out the data with cloud radiance fractions greater than 0.5 (qa_value > 0.75), and obtain 81 clear-sky days with full TROPOMI NO₂ coverage over the Wuhan region in one full year.

The column-averaged dry air mole fraction of CO_2 (XCO₂) data provided by the Orbiting Carbon Observatory-2 (OCO-2) 105 are also employed to verify the derived $CO₂$ emission inventory for Wuhan. We use the version 10r of the bias-corrected $XCO₂$ product (Gunson M and Eldering, 2020). The v10r OCO-2 XCO₂ product has high accuracy with single sounding precision of ~0.8 ppm over land and ~0.5 ppm over water, and RMS biases of 0.5–0.7 ppm over both land and water (Odell et al., 2021).

2.2 Bottom-up emission information

Bottom-up NO_x and $CO₂$ emission inventories are used to provide the first-guessfirst guess of NO_x emission spatial pattern 110 (for NO*x*, in the Supplement Material, Text S1 and Fig. S1) and to verify the top-down emissions. We use the Air Benefit and Attainment and Cost Assessment System Emission Inventory (ABACAS) (Zhao et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2018; Zheng et al., 2019) , which provides NO*^x* and CO² emissions for the year 2019. The Multi-resolution Emission Inventory (MEIC) (Li et al., 2017) NO*^x* emissions for 2017 are also used.

2.3 Other input data

- 115 Besides the satellite data and bottom-up emission inventories, a set of other parameters are used to input into our improved superposition model. They include the hydroxyl radical (OH) concentration, the loss rate (k) of NO_x in the atmosphere, the $[NO_x]$ $\frac{1}{2}$ ratio, and the wind field. We use the version 12.1 of GEOS-Chem model with a horizontal resolution of 0.25° \times 0.3125° ($\sim 30 \times 37.5$ km²) to provide the a priori guesses for chemical parameters relevant to daytime NO_{*x*}. The first three are from the GEOS-Chem chemical transport model, and tThe wind field is from ERA5 (ECMWF Reanalysis v5), the fifth 120 generation ECMWF (European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts) atmospheric reanalysis of the global climate (Hersbach et al., 2020). Detailed information on these data can be found in Text S2 (Supplementary Material)Detailed information of these data is seen in the supplement, Text S2. Considering that the wind field has a strong influence on the
- distribution of $NO₂$ column patterns, and thus on the NO_x emission estimation, we filter the TROPOMI $NO₂$ data based on the wind fields. After excluding the days with fluctuating wind direction (if wind direction changes more than 45 degrees in the
- 125 hours before TROPOMI overpass) within the study domain, we finally obtain 50 days out of the ensemble of 81 valid satellite days between 1 September 2019 to 31 August 2020 to estimate NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions from Wuhan. The fraction of useful days is comparable to what Lorente et al. (2019) obtained for Paris, which is 27 days in 5 months.

2.4 NO² pattern fits: estimation of lifetime and emission

To ensure that the whole area of Wuhan is included, we determine our study domain as a circular region centered at 114°E,

- 130 30.7° N, with a diameter of ~186 km. It includes the whole area of Wuhan and the small city of Ezhou to the east of Wuhan, the southwest part of Huanggang and east part of Xiaogan (Fig. S3S4, the red circle). We also do a sensitivity test to narrow the study area down to within the Third Ring Road of Wuhan to check the robustness of our model to the area size of study domain (Fig. $\frac{1}{3}$, the blue circle). For each day, we converted the two-dimensional NO₂ column map over the domain to a one-dimensional line density along the wind direction (Text S3) (Beirle, 2011; Lorente et al., 2019). NO*^x* emissions and 135 lifetimes can be estimated through the fitting of the $NO₂$ line density over the domain.
	- Lorente et al. (2019) presented a superposition column model based on a simple column model (Jacob, 1999) to simulate NO² line density over Paris. They considered the build-up of NO² caused by spatially varying NO*^x* emissions from each cell and used the NO² line density value at the upwind end of the city to represent the background value, which they assumed to be constant over the city. This appears plausible if the background value would mostly represent free tropospheric $NO₂$ which
- 140 has a longer lifetime than NO² in the oxidizing polluted boundary layer and varies smoothly according to models. Our method to simulate the NO² line density over the city is also based on the column model (Jacob, 1999), but differs from that of Lorente et al. (2019) in considering the background $NO₂$ value. Each cell along the wind direction is treated separately as a column model. Since that the satellite overpasses at around 13:30 local time, when NO_x is removed in the atmosphere dominantly through a onethe first- order reaction with OH. NO*^x* emissions from the current cell contribute to the total line density through
- 145 the build-up of NO₂ density within the cell and exponential decay of NO₂ downwind of the cell (Eq. (1)). It doesn't contribute to the upwind cells (Eq. (2)).

$$
N_i(x) = \frac{E_i}{k} \left(1 - e^{-kL/u} \right) \times e^{-k(x - x_i)/u} \times \frac{[N0_2]}{[N0_x]} \quad \text{for } x > x_i \quad , \tag{1}
$$

$$
N_i(x) = 0 \t\t for \t x \le x_i , \t\t(2)
$$

where N_i represents the NO₂ line density (molec $\text{\textit{fcm}}^{-1}$) contributed from E_i in cell *i*, *L* is the length of each cell, i.e. 600000 cm; *k* is the loss rate (s⁻¹) of NO_{*x*} at 13:00 local time ($k = \frac{k'[0H]}{[NO_2]^{7}}$ 150 cm; *k* is the loss rate (s⁻¹) of NO_x at 13:00 local time ($k = \frac{k [on]}{[No_x]}$); and *u* denotes the NO₂-density-weighted mean wind speed in unit of cm/s within planet boundary. We add up the contributions from each cell and the background value to model the overall $NO₂$ line density:

$$
N(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} N_i(x) + b + \alpha x \tag{3}
$$

here, *b* represents the starting background value, equivalent to the mean $NO₂$ line density within the -5 (for summer, spring 155 and autumn) or 10 (for winter) cells e folding distance(Liu et al., 2016) upwind of *x*=0. *α* denotes the linear change of background value with distance along wind, and represents the chemical decay of background $NO₂$ flowing into the polluted boundary layer over the city.

We fit the terms that drive $N(x)$ (i.e. E_i , k and α) with the fixed L , u and $\frac{[N O_x]}{[N O_2]}$ from external data, via a leastsquares minimization to the TROPOMI observed line density $N_{TROPOM}(x)$. For each day, we run the model 20 times randomly 160 choosing OH concentration within the ±20% interval of GEOS-Chem simulated OH concentration. The mean value from the 5 sets of parameters E_i , k and α that best explain the observations over the city is the answer we are seeking for. The parameter that describes the decay of upwind NO₂ over the city, the α value, is determined by the difference of NO₂ line density between the end and start point of the study domain, $\alpha = \frac{(N_{31} - N_1)}{201}$ $\frac{30L}{30L}$, and we allow it to change between $\pm \alpha$ in the fitting procedure. For the 50 days on average, the α value is $(-0.006 \pm 0.008) \times 10^{-22}$ molec \neq cm⁻². The α value being negative reflects the 165 decay of upwind $NO₂$ pollution along the wind.

The assumption of a linearly decreasing $NO₂$ background is relevant under conditions when the city is in a polluted background. It accounts for decay of upwind $NO₂$ pollution arriving at the city when transported over and downwind of the city. In reality, upwind $NO₂$ pollution mixes in with the freshly emitted NO_x and is then subject to chemical decay (with nonlinearities due to turbulent mixing and spatial heterogeneity in emissions). We acknowledge that our linear decrease of 170 background NO² pollution is a severe simplification, but as shown in Fig. 1, compared to fitting results with a constant background value, we obtain a better correlation (up to 25%) and lower bias (nearly 50% lower) between fitted and observed NO² line densities when fitting with a linearly changing background value.

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Figure 1: Tropospheric NO² columns over Wuhan on 29 September 2019, 30 January 2020 and 2 May 2020 (left, from top to bottom), the red circle inside each map defines the study domain. The corresponding NO² line densities along wind within the study domain are given in the right panel. For each day, the correlation coefficient (R) between the observed (black line) and fitted (grey and red lines) NO₂ **line density are given. The fitted mean bias (MB), NO**_{*x*} **emissions (E)** and NO_{*x*} **lifetime (τ)** are also displayed.

180 **2.5 CO² emission estimation**

City-scale $CO₂$ emissions are estimated through Eq. (4):

$$
E_{CO_2} = E_{NO_X} \times Ratio_{CO_2-to-NO_X}, \qquad (4)
$$

The anthropogenic CO_2 -to-NO_x emission ratio is provided by the ABACAS inventory, and amounts to ~591 gCO₂/gNO_x emitted from our study domain for the year 2019. In 2020, emissions from the transport sector have substantially decreased 185 due to the lockdown measurements (Huang et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2020c). The stronger decrease in transport NO*^x* emissions relative to decreases from other sectors are predicted to have led to an increase in the CO2-to-NO*^x* emission ratio, for this ratio is lowest in the transport sector (Zheng et al., 2020c). The monthly CO2-to-NO*^x* emission ratio for Wuhan were calculated based on recent reports on sectoral NO*^x* emission in 2020 from Hubei Province (Zheng et al., 2021a). We then further calculated daily CO₂-to-NO_{*x*} emission ratio based on the monthly, daily and diurnal variation of CO₂ and NO_{*x*} emissions (Fig. S5S5). The

190 final daily CO_2 -to-NO_x emission ratio for the study period displayed in Table S1 indeed shows increases in the CO_2 -to-NO_x emission ratio of up to 20 % during the lockdown period in 2020 due to the reducing contribution from the transportation sector.

2.6 Uuncertainty in NO*^x* **and CO² emission estimation**

Uncertainties in quantifying NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions contain the systematic error in the TROPOMI $NO₂$ retrieval, bias in the 195 assumed a priori OH concentration, NO*x*/NO² ratio, CO2-to-NO*^x* emission ratio, uncertainties in wind fields and the area of study domain. The v2.3.1 NO₂ column dataset $S5P-PAL$ corrected the low bias in TROPOMI (v1.x) tropospheric NO₂ column over Eastern China by 15–100 % (Van Geffen et al., 2022), but there still remains an uncertainty of $\sim \pm 20$ %. The CTMs have difficulty in simulating accurate OH concentration, but for > 90 % of the days, our fitted OH concentrations fall in ± 20 % range around GEOS-Chem simulation, so the uncertainty in OH concentration is likely on the order of ± 20 %. The difference 200 between model simulated and observed $NO_x/NO₂$ ratio is less than 10 %, so we give an uncertainty in $NO_x/NO₂$ ratio of ± 10 %. Uncertainty in CO_2 -to-NO_x emission ratio comes from the errors in sectoral NO_x and CO₂ emissions, and we calculated that the uncertainty in CO_2 -to-NO_x emission ratio is ± 30 %. We use the NO₂-column-weighted mean instead of the arithmetic mean value to get the boundary layer mean wind speed to minimize the error in wind field, but there may remain ± 20 % uncertainty in the ERA5 reanalysis data. We ran a test by randomly choosing parameter values within their uncertainty ranges for 20 times 205 to predict an ensemble of NO_x and $CO₂$ emission outcomes. Then the ratio of the standard deviation to the mean value of the

- 20 emission outcomes is regarded as the uncertainty on NO_x and $CO₂$ emission caused by uncertainties in the corresponding parameters For each of these factors, we run a test by randomly choosing the data within its uncertainty range for 20 times to estimate NO*^x* and CO² emissions. Then the ratio of the standard deviation to the mean value of the 20 predicted emissions is seen as the uncertainty on NO*^x* and CO² emission caused by corresponding factors, which are displayed in Table S2. The
- 210 uncertainty caused by the domain size is determined by We have narrowinged down our study domain to the Wuhan city center to check the sensitivity of our method to the area of study domain (see Fig. S4S7). The results demonstrate that when the study domain is narrowed down to 84 km diameter, and, as expected, the result turns out to be structurally different from that with the 186 km diameter domain, for the mean OH concentration is lower in the city center, leading to longer fitted NO*^x* lifetime. However, the change in fitted NO_x lifetime and NO_x emission is less than $\pm 15\%$. So we give an 15% uncertainty in NO_x
- 215 emission estimation caused by the size in the areas of the study domain. the change in fitted NO*^x* lifetime and NO*^x* emission is less than $\pm 15\%$. Finally, We use the NO₂-column-weighted mean instead of the arithmetic mean value to get the boundary layer mean wind speed to minimize the error in wind field, but there may remain ±20 % uncertainty in the ERA5 reanalysis data. Cconsidering that all these parameters are independent from each other, we use the root mean square sum of the

contributions to represent the overall uncertainty estimation, which we quantify for NO_x lifetime and emission on a single day 220 at \sim 37-31 %, and for CO₂ emission at \sim 48-43 %.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 NO*^x* **Lifetimes and emissions**

We display the calculated estimated NO_x lifetime and NO_x emissions for each clear-sky day during the study period in Table S1S21. Fitted Estimated planetary boundary layer mean OH concentration over the region for each day is presented in Fig. 2. 225 For 90 % of the days, our model $fitted-calculated$ OH concentrations which fall into the intervals of $0.8~1.2\times$ the GEOS-Chem model values. There are only 5 days on which we had to impose a change in OH concentrations of more than 30 % relative to the GEOS-Chem simulation to obtain realistic fitting results.

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Figure 2: Daily Boundary boundary layer mean OH concentration over our study domain. The OH concentration estimated from our improved superposition column model is given with the red line. The gray grey shade represents 0.8–1.2 times GEOS-Chem simulated OH concentration and the grey line represents CMAQ model simulation results.

235 We estimate that the seasonal mean noontime NO*^x* lifetime over Wuhan and adjacent region is 4.8±0.8 h for winter, 2.8±1.3 h for spring, 1.4 ± 0.3 h for summer and 1.9 ± 0.5 h for autumn. The results are lower than those calculated from GEOS-Chem simulation by Shah et al. (2020), with \sim 6 h in summer and $>$ 20 h in winter. This is because they calculated the 24-hour mean NO_x lifetime and the loss rate of NO_x is much higher around noon. NO_x lifetime for Wuhan is also shorter than for Paris (Lorente et al., 2019), especially during winter, reflecting the higher radiation levels and temperature in Wuhan than in Paris.

- 240 It should be noted that Liu et al. (2016) fitted a NO*^x* lifetime of 2.6 h for Wuhan in warm season (May to September) for 2005– 2013 mean, and our result for 2019–-2020 is 1.7±0.4 h. One reason is that they calculated NO*^x* lifetimes based on a long-term mean $NO₂$ distribution, and the coarser resolution of OMI data, both of which lead to spatial smoothing of $NO₂$ gradients and thus longer apparent NO*^x* lifetimes (Qu, 2020). Another explanation is the increasing ozone concentrations in China in recent years (Li et al., 2020) which promote OH formation and thereby NO*^x* loss reactions which shorten NO*^x* lifetimes (Zara et al.,
- 245 2021).

The estimated NO_x lifetime and emissions from the two TROPOMI datasets for the whole study period are presented in Fig. S6. On average, the TROPOMI-v1.3 data results ingenerates 13 2.8% lower NO*^x* emissions from Wuhan than the TROPOMIv2.3.1 data. NO*^x* lifetime estimated from TROPOMI-v1.3 data is 5 4.9% shorter than that from TROPOMI-v2.3.1, which may be attributed to the fact that the TROPOMI-v2.3.1 data has a higher ratio between city center to the background. Uncertainties 250 in NO_x emissions and lifetime estimation (39 %) are also higher in the TROPOMI-v1.3 data (33 %) for the higher uncertainty in the $NO₂$ column data (here we use 30 %).

255 **Figure 3: Daily noontime (a) NO***^x* **and (b) CO² emissions in Wuhan estimated from TROPOMI (red and blue bars, the error bars represent the standard deviation of the five best estimates for each dayuncertainty in the emission estimations) and the bottom-up emission inventories ABACAS (black bars) for the year 2019 and MEIC (silver bars) for the year 2017. The dark and light grey shades represents weekends and holidays, respectively. Mean levels of each dataset are given as dashed lines with corresponding colors.**

²⁶⁰ We then further verify the estimated NO*^x* emissions from the two TROPOMI datasets in 2019 with the bottom-up emission inventories. We obtained The calculated noontime (13:00 local time) NO*^x* emissions from Wuhan for 14 days (including 9 weekdays, 3 weekends and 2 holidays) between September and November 2019 for the top-down NO*^x* emission estimation, and are comparedcompared them with those from the ABACAS (2019) and MEIC (2017) inventories. Overall, as presented in Fig. 3a, cthe rescaled TROPOMI-v1.3 estimated noontime NO*^x* emissions are 13.6% lower than those from TROPOMI-

- 265 $\sqrt{2.3.1}$. Compared to the bottom-up emission inventories, TROPOMI-v1.3-2019 NO_x emissions are $1.5.120.91$ % and 17.523.13 % lower than ABACAS-2019 and MEIC-2017, respectively. On the other hand, TROPOMI-v2.3.1-2019 NO*^x* emissions are comparable to those from ABACAS-2019 (\leq 34.72 % difference), and ~5 % lower than MEIC-2017. That NO_x emissions estimated from TROPOMI-v2.3.1 in 2019 are lower than MEIC-2017 likely reflects the fact that NO*^x* emissions have decreased in 2019 relative to 2017 in response to Chinese emission controls. According to Wuhan Bureau of Statistics, 270 NO*^x* emissions have decreased 6.2 % between 2017 and 2019 (Statistics, 2019; Bauwens et al., 2020), close to the difference
- between TROPOMI-v2.3.1-2019 and MEIC-2017. Through the comparison with the bottom-up emissions, we find that the TROPOMI-v2.3.1 NO₂ data generates more reliable NO_x emissions from Wuhan in 2019 than the v1.3 data, even when the low bias in TROPOMI-v1.3 data is corrected by latter is scaled up by a factor of 1.6.
- 275 Different to the bottom-up inventories, our daily TROPOMI NO*^x* emissions do not indicate the existence of a so-called 'weekend reduction effect'_r but do point out a distinct 'holiday reduction effect' in Wuhan NO_x emissions. The bottom-up inventories suggest that weekend NO*^x* emissions are 30 % reduced relative to weekdays. The TROPOMI-v2.3.1 estimation shows reductions in weekend NO_x emission of < 3 %, while on the two days (1 and 3 October) of the National Holiday, NO_x emissions are 8% lower than the workday mean. Surface NO_2 and O_3 observations from Beijing do not show a weekend effect 280 (Zhao et al., 2019; Hua et al., 2021) either. Our TROPOMI top-down NO*^x* emissions show a similar spatial pattern as in the ABACAS and MEIC (Fig. S1), with the highest emissions located in the city center of Wuhan. However, the TROPOMI NO*^x* emission pattern appears fitted a more smeared-out NO*^x* emission pattern than ABACAS, due to the strong dependence of the bottom-up spatial distribution on population density, the difference in spatial resolution, and the decrease in NO_x emissions between 2017 and 2020 mainly occurring in the high-emission region.

285 **3.2 CO² emissions and XCO² enhancements**

- We estimate noontime top-down (technically representing a it should be a combinationmerger of top-down and bottom-up information, but we define it as top-down for simplicity) $CO₂$ emissions from Wuhan between September and November 2019 to be 6.32±0.602.74 s⁻¹ (the errors represent the uncertainty of the emission estimation), comparable to ABACAS-2019, of $6.40\pm0.702.78$ t s⁻¹ (Fig. 3b). Based on the estimated daily CO₂ emissions, we further use the superposition column model to 290 simulateestimate daily XCO₂ enhancements, andenhancements and validate-evaluate them by with OCO-2 observations. We successfully obtained two days between May 2018 (start time of TROPOMI-v2.3.1 NO₂ product) and December 2021 with simultaneous (both overpass at around 13:00 local time), co-located TROPOMI $NO₂$ and OCO-2 CO₂ observations over Wuhan: 15 September 2018 and 13 April 2020. We inferred total top-down CO₂ emissions from Wuhan based on our
- 295 13 April 2020 to be $7.92 \pm 0.933.44$ t s⁻¹ and $4.44 \pm 0.501.93$ t s⁻¹ (the errors represent the standard deviation of the 5 best estimations for each day), respectively. We then scaled down the ABACAS 1×1 km² gridded CO₂ emissions to match 7.92 t s^{-1} and 4.44 t s^{-1} , and then predict the XCO₂ enhancements using the top-downtop-down CO₂ emissions in combination with

TROPOMI-based inferred NO*^x* emissions and the ABACAS-predicted CO2-to-NO*^x* emission ratios on 15 September 2018 and

the superposition column model. It should be noted that to compare with the sparse distributed OCO-2 observations, we apply the superposition model on the CO₂ line density with 1km wide, while it is 186 km wide for NO₂. Since that tThe column

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300 model doesn't take the dispersion of $NO₂$ or $CO₂$ into account, but it can be assumed that all dispersion will then beis encapsulated within the domain for when a line density estes covering a cross-section as wide as 186 km. However, when the for line density is only 1 km wide, the dispersion will move some $CO₂$ out of this line, and this will influence the $CO₂$ enhancement prediction. wWe will discuss its this influence $-\Theta_2$ enhancement estimation prediction in the further below.

Neglecting chemical production and loss of $CO₂$ in the atmosphere, the superposition column model of $CO₂$ (Eq. 5) is 305 simpler than that of NO*x*:

$$
N_{CO_2} = \frac{E_{CO_2}}{uL},\tag{5}
$$

Here N_{CO_2} is CO₂ density in unit of g m⁻², E_{CO_2} denotes our top-downestimated CO₂ emission (g s⁻¹), and u and L are the wind speed (m/s) and length of grid cell (6000 m). Then N_{CO_2} (g m⁻²) is converted to the <u>dry air</u> column mixing ratio XCO₂ (ppm) to compare with the OCO-2 observation (Zheng et al., 2020a):

$$
310 \quad XCO_2 = N_{CO_2} \times \frac{M_{air}}{M_{CO_2}} \times \frac{g}{p - wg} \times 10^3 \tag{6}
$$

in which M_{air} and M_{CO_2} are air and CO₂ molar mass of air and CO₂ (g mol⁻¹), g is the gravitational acceleration (9.8 m/s²), p (Pa) and w (kg m⁻²) are surface pressure and total column water vapor, respectively.

- 315 **Figure 4: Simultaneous, co-located TROPOMI NO² and OCO-2 CO² observations over Wuhan (left panel) on 15 September 2018 (top) and 13 April 2020 (bottom), wind speed and direction on each day are shown. The dry air mole fraction of CO² (XCO2) enhancements along the OCO-2 orbit are given for corresponding day (right panel). The greay xs and black lines represent the OCO-2 observation. The blue lines denote XCO² enhancement estimated predicted with bottom-up emissions, and the red lines (shading represents the uncertainty interval) with top-down CO² emission predicted estimated in this study.**
- 320 We calculate the XCO_2 enhancement due our top-downto the top-down CO_2 emissions on 15 September 2018 and 13 April 2020 and compare these with the enhancements observed by OCO-2. As shown in the right panels of Fig. 4, the superposition model captures the spatial pattern of observed XCO₂ along the OCO-2 orbit on both days. The predicted amplitudes of the $XCO₂$ enhancements are also comparable to those in the OCO-2 observation with small bias (less than 5 % for both days). As For comparison, we also use the 2019 bottom-up CO_2 emissions to predict the XCO_2 enhancement on the two days (blue lines 325 in Fig. 4 right panel). XCO_2 enhancements predicted by bottom-up CO_2 emissions deviate more from the OCO-2 observed
- enhancements than those predicted by ω_{HF} top-down top-down CO₂ emissions. On 13 April 2020 in particular, the bottom-

up enhancement differs by $+41\%$ while the top-down differs by only within $\pm 5\%$ compared to the observed XCO₂ enhancement. At the beginning of Wuhan's reopening, $CO₂$ emission from the city (our top-down estimation) is expected to be far lower than the pre-lockdown level (bottom-up estimation).

- 330 We see that the estimated predicted XCO₂ enhancement on 13 April 2020, both from the bottom-up and top-down emissions, are much 'narrower' compared to the OCO-2 observation. On this day, the OCO-2 orbit passes over the city center and the dispersion plays an important role, which is neglected in the column model. In contrast, on 15 September 2018, the OCO-2 orbit passes downwind of the city center, and the width of the estimated-predicted and observed $XCO₂$ enhancements are more comparable. For comparison, we also conducted ran a Gaussian plume model to estimate simulate the $XCO₂$ enhancement
- 335 (Text S4 and Fig. S6S8). On 13 April 2020, the result from Gaussian model agrees better with the OCO-2 observation, and on

15 September 2018, results from the two models (Gaussian model and the superposition column model) are close to each other and match well with the observation.

We also display XCO_2 enhancement line densities along wind direction with uncertainty on both days (Fig. 5). The line density shows a substantial increase of $XCO₂$ along the wind direction over the region with strong $CO₂$ emissions (Fig.5a, b,

- 340 the inset maps). Where lines cross the OCO-2 orbit, the observed $XCO₂$ (as boxplots in Fig. 5a, b) are shown and their values agree with the predicted $XCO₂$ lines within ± 0.3 ppm. It is remarkable that the $XCO₂$ enhancement is lower on 15 September 2018 than on 13 April 2020, despite CO² emissions on 15 September 2018 being nearly 65 % higher than those on 13 April 2020. The main reason for this is the lower wind speed on 13 April 2020, which accumulates pollutants over the city, and the fact that OCO-2 ground-track passed over the city center of Wuhan on this day. On 15 September, higher wind speeds and the
- 345 OCO-2 track being situated over the outskirts of the city imply that a lower enhancement of CO_2 is observed.

Figure 5: Two presentative predicted XCO² enhancement lines (red and blue) with uncertainty (grey shades) on (a) 15 September 2018 and (b) 13 April 2020. When the XCO² enhancement line pass through the OCO-2 orbit, the observed XCO² enhancements are shown with boxplots, the mean values are shown as green triangles, the outliers beyond the 5–95 % interval are shown as circles. 350 **The predicted XCO² enhancement line density maps overlayedoverlaid with OCO-2 observed XCO² enhancement on each day are shown inside, with the position of the presentative lines and the wind direction.**

We use an 'indirect' method to estimate daily city anthropogenic CO_2 emissions and then predict XCO_2 enhancements, which may introduce uncertainties from the NO_x emission estimation, the assumption of $CO₂$ -to-NO_x emission ratio, and the model to estimate predict XCO₂ enhancements. Despite all these uncertainties, we still generate daily Wuhan CO₂ emissions 355 and XCO² enhancements that agree well with bottom-up inventory and OCO-2 observation, respectively.

3.3 Variation of NO*^x* **and CO² emissions in Wuhan from September 2019 to August 2020**

Figure 6 displays the day-to-day variation of NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions in Wuhan between September 2019 and August 2020. Before the pandemic of COVID-19, NO_x emissions stay at a stable level of 11.53 ± 1.08 kg s⁻¹, and CO₂ at 6.32 ± 0.66 t s⁻¹ (the

errors denote the standard deviation), as indicated by the dashed red lines. From January 2020 onwards, strict lockdown 360 measurements were implemented to combat the COVID-19 pandemic, which led to lower industry production and less traffic on the road, and a sharp drop in NO*^x* and CO² emissions (Ding et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020; Zheng et al., 2021b; Zhang et al., 2021; Feng et al., 2020). Our method closely captures the timing and magnitude of these well-known sharp reductions in

the emissions.

Figure 6: 50 days (a) NO*^x* **and (b) CO² emissions in Wuhan estimated from TROPOMI from between 1 September 1 2019 to 31 August 31 2020. The error bars denote the standard deviation of the five best estimates for each dayuncertainty in emission estimations, and the weekends, holidays and lockdown period are shaded with dark grey, light grey and greenred colors, respectively.** 370 **The mean pre-lockdown emission levels are given as red dashed lines.**

Wuhan NO_x emissions on 30 January 2020 are $3.65 \pm 0.361 \cdot 59$ kg s⁻¹, nearly 70 % lower than pre-lockdown levels, and decreased further and came to the lowest level in early February 2020, in accordance with Feng et al. (2020) who estimated similar reductions based on surface $NO₂$ observations. 5 February is the day with our lowest NO_x emission from Wuhan of

 $2.55\pm0.311.11$ kg s⁻¹, only ~22 % of the normal level. CO₂ emissions have a similar temporal pattern as NO_x emissions, but 375 the reduction relative to pre-lockdown level is smaller. The lowest $CO₂$ emission is at \approx 27 % of the pre-lockdown level (also on 5 February 2020), and the mean emission rate during the lockdown period (23 January to 8 April 2020) is 60 % lower than pre-lockdown level, while it is 67 % for NO_x . That CO_2 emission reductions are more modest than NO_x reductions, reflectings the fact that the transportation sector had the strongest reductions during the lockdown, but since this sector also has the lowest $CO₂$ -to-NO_x ratios, the relative reduction in CO₂ remains somewhat smaller than in NO_x emissions. This finding is similar to 380 that from Zheng et al. (2020b), who estimated the NO_x and $CO₂$ emission variations for whole China.

From early February 2020 onwards, emissions increased slowly throughout the lockdown period. Wuhan NO*^x* emission intensity in February 2020 was no more than 4.20 kg s^{-1} , some 60 % below the pre-lockdown level. Feng et al. (2020) estimated 61 % lower NO*^x* emission from Wuhan in February 2020 than January based on surface NO*^x* observations. Zheng et al. (2021a) reported a ~50 % lower NO*^x* emission from Hubei in February 2020 than the annual mean level estimated from a bottom-up 385 approach.

Although Wuhan reopened on 9 April, the NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions didn't see significant increases up until mid-May 2020. A perceptible increase in NO_x emission is seen during late May, climbing to > 7.50 kg s⁻¹ (NO_x) and > 4.5 t s⁻¹ (CO₂), and levelling off thereafter. In August 2020, Wuhan NO*^x* emissions were still some 25 % lower than the pre-lockdown level. Although bottom-up estimation by Zheng et al. (2021a) suggested that NO*^x* emissions from the Hubei province were similar

- 390 in May–August 2020 as in 2019, surface and satellite observations over Wuhan show a $15-20\%$ lower NO₂ concentrations in May–August 2020 compared to 2019 (Fig. S7 S9 and S8S10), consistent with our estimation of NO*^x* emission. Liu et al. (2020c) reported 4.8 % higher CO_2 emissions for the whole China in August 2020 compared to August 2019. For the city of Wuhan, however, we calculate here some 20 % lower $CO₂$ emissions in August 2020 compared to the pre-lockdown level. Wuhan experienced a much more strict and longer period lockdown than other regions of China, and therefore a slower rebound of 395 NO_x and CO₂ emissions should be expected over Wuhan.
	- As we have stated above, to assure the performance of the model, we must filter out the days when cloud fraction is greater than 0.2 and the days when the wind direction shows substantial spatial or temporal variation within the study domain. Finally, we obtain 50 out of the 365 days with reliable NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions estimation. However, these 50 days covers at least 2 days for each month (except for December 2019). For 2019, it includes 9 workdays, 3 weekend days and 2 holiday days, which
- 400 are enough to investigate the 'weekend effectreduction effect' and 'holiday reduction effecteffect' in NO*^x* emissions. It also covers 12 days across the lockdown period and 24 days after that, allowing us to monitor the large reduction and recover of NO_x and CO₂ from Wuhan due to the COVID lockdown. Therefore, these 50 days provide useful information to investigate the temporal emission patterns of NO_x and $CO₂$ from Wuhan and help to monitor the effectiveness of emission reductions in large urban centers.

405 **4 Conclusion**

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In this study, we introduced an improved superposition column model to estimate daily NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions from a Chinese megacity of Wuhan based on the latest released version 2.3.1 of TROPOMI $NO₂$ column data and $OCO-2$ $XCO₂$ observation. Our estimated daily NO_x and CO₂ emissions agree well with bottom-up emissions with small bias of < 3 %. Predicted XCO₂ enhancements based on our CO_2 emissions estimates prove to be in good agreement (within ± 5 %) with OCO-2 observations

- 410 over Wuhan. Compared to previous studies, our work shows that satellite measurements can provide detailed information on sub-city -scale NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions at unprecedented spatial and temporal resolutions on daily basis. We achieved the dayto-day variation of NO_x and CO₂ emissions from Wuhan between September 2019 and August 2020. We pointed out that the 'weekend reduction effect' is small, but that a 'holiday reduction effect' in Wuhan NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions can be clearly detected. We also captured the abrupt decrease in NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions as the lockdown for COVID began on 23 January
- 415 2020, and the slow rebound as Wuhan reopened on 9 April 2020. Daily updates of city-scale NO*^x* and CO² emissions provides policy makers with emission and policy control data on NO_x and CO₂ emission control in urban environments. In the future, following the launch of the Carbon Dioxide Monitoring mission (CO2M) (Sierk et al., 2021), our improved superposition column method may be explored further to constrain city scale CO_2 and NO_x emissions to assess the effectiveness

of emission control measures. CO2M provides simultaneous and co-located $CO₂$ and $NO₂$ observations with a wider swath 420 than OCO-2, providing better opportunities to verify and improve CO_2 and NO_x emissions from space.

Data availability. The S-5P TROPOMI v2.3.1 NO2 column data is available from<https://data-portal.s5p-pal.com/cat-doc> (last access: 3, November 2022); the ERA5 data can be found at [https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-](https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-pressure-levels?tab=overview)

425 [era5-pressure-levels?tab=overview](https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-pressure-levels?tab=overview) (last access: 3, November 2022); the OCO-2 v10r XCO₂ data can be downloaded from (last access: 3, November 2022); The GEOS-Chem model simulated data is available on request [\(zhangqq@cma.gov.cn\)](mailto:zhangqq@cma.gov.cn).

Author contributions. Q.Z. and K.F.B designed the research; Q.Z. performed the data analysis, model development and result validation. B.Z. and H.Z. provide the ABACAS-EI NO_x and CO₂ emission inventories. H.E. provides the 2.3.1 version of 430 TROPOMI tropospheric NO² product. C.C. provides MEIC NO*^x* emissions and perform the CMAQ simulations. X. Z. provided

helpful discussions. Q.Z. and K.F.B. wrote the paper.

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SUPPLEMENTARY FOR

Quantifying daily NO*^x* **and CO² emissions from Wuhan using satellite observations from TROPOMI and OCO-2**

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1. Emission spatial patterns

In the process of fitting the NO*^x* emissions from Wuhan, we give a first guess of spatial pattern of NO*^x* emission, i.e. the spatial pattern from the MEIC-2017 and ABACAS-2017 bottom-up inventories (-blue and black lines in Fig. S1). To be mentioned, the top-down NO_x emission pattern is smoother compared to the bottom-up emissions. This is caused by two reasons. First, the spatial resolution of the bottom-up emission inventories are 1 km \times 1 km, while it is 5 km \times 5 km for each particular day,the top-down emissions. Second, the spatial pattern of the bottom-up emission inventories is used as a first guess for the predicted emissions, but we let it shift along with the wind directionduring the fitting, and finally obtain the fittedfinal predicted NO*^x* emission spatial pattern (red line in Fig. S1).is determined by the mean of all the valid days.

Figure S1: Spatial pattern of NO*^x* emissions in Wuhan from ABACAS-EI, MEIC and our fitted results.

Figure S2: the difference in tropospheric NO₂ column densities between the version 2.3.1 and version 1.3 of TROPOMI data. From top to bottom: the 50 valid days mean in the study period, 09, 21 September and 03 October 2019.

2. Data input into the model besides satellite data and bottom-up emissions

We use the 12.1 version of GEOS-Chem model, with a horizontal resolution $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.3125^{\circ}$ (~ 30 \times 37.5 km²) to provide the a priori guesses for chemical parameters relevant to daytime NO_x. The satellite overpasses at around 13:30 local time, when NO₂ is mainly subject to first-order loss with reaction to the hydroxyl radical (OH). The loss rate for NO_x is expressed as $k = \frac{k' \times [OH]}{[NO_2]^{2}}$ $\frac{k \times [0H]}{[NO_X]}$, where k' is the first-order reaction rate constant $(2.8 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3/\text{molecule/s}$ according to the GEOS-Chem model), $\frac{[NO_x]}{[NO_2]}$ is the mean ratio between NO*^x* and NO² within the boundary layer. We calculated from GEOS-Chem the boundary layer mean NO*x*/NO² ratio over Wuhan to be 1.26 from September 2019 to August 2020 over Wuhan, and use the annual mean value 1.26 in the fitting, and it is close to that used in Liu et al. (2016) (1.32).

The OH concentration is highly uncertain and in-situ observations are sparse. In this study, we use GEOS-Chem model simulated boundary layer mean OH concentration at 13:00 local time as our first guess and allow it to change by $\pm 20\%$ in the fitting procedure. In addition, OH simulations from the CMAQ model that has a higher spatial resolution are used as a reference. The fraction of boundary layer $NO₂$ columns of the tropospheric total is also from GEOS-Chem and places typically about 90% of tropospheric NO² columns within the boundary layer. Typically, in the daytime, NO*^x* are mainly subjected to photochemical reaction with the hydroxyl radical (OH) to produce nitric acid (HNO3), which is quickly converted to nitrate aerosols (NO₃⁻). In some rural regions with substantial VOCs emissions, NO_x may also react with VOCs: CH₃O₂ + NO₂ + M <-> PAN + M (e. g. Fischer et al., 2014). We have compared the GEOS-Chem model simulated HNO₃+NO₃⁻ and PAN concentrations over our study domain in daytime:

Figure S3: GEOS-chem model simulated monthly mean HNO3+NO3- (left) and PAN (right) concentration for July 2020.

The modeled HNO₃+NO₃ concentration is 5-10 times higher than PAN over Wuhan, indicating that NO*^x* loss via OH is the driving pathway of NO*^x* chemistry over our study domain in the daytime.

At night, NO_2 is oxidized to HNO₃ through the formation of N_2O_5 and NO_3 and heterogeneous reactions including water vapor and aerosols (Shah et al., 2020; Lamsal et al., 2010). The overpass time of the satellite is 13:00–13:30 local time when NO_x chemistry over the city is dominated by the photochemical process, so we consider the reaction between NO*^x* and OH in the superposition column model as the main loss pathway.

Boundary layer mean wind fields are from ERA5, the fifth generation ECMWF atmospheric reanalysis of the global climate (Hersbach et al., 2020). We use the 05:00 UTC time (13:00 Wuhan time) zonal and meridional winds, with a horizontal resolution of $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$. Mean wind speed within boundary layer is calculated using the average of the wind speeds at all vertical layers within the boundary layer weighted by the NO₂ columns within each vertical layer. Considering that the wind field has a strong influence on the distribution of NO² column patterns, and thus on the NO*^x* emission estimation, we filter the TROPOMI NO² data based on the wind fields. After excluding the days with fluctuating wind direction (if wind direction changes more than 45 degrees in the hours before TROPOMI overpass) within the study domain, we finally obtain 50 days out of the ensemble of 81 valid satellite days between 1 September 2019 to 31 August 2020 to estimate NO*^x* and CO² emissions from Wuhan. The fraction of useful days is comparable to what Lorente et al. (2019) obtained for Paris, which is 27 days in 5 months.

3. NO² line density

This part demonstrates the way to achieve the 1-D distribution of satellite observed NO₂ along wind direction. First, we define the study domain, the red circle in Fig. S3, including the whole area of Wuhan, as well as other small cities around Wuhan (Thethe blue circle is the Third Ring Road of Wuhan, ~50%) of NO_x emissions in the red circle are within the blue circle). First Then, we resample the TROPOMI NO₂ data at 6km×6km spatial resolution and rotating toward the wind direction, for our study domain, we get 31×31 grid cells. Second, we divide the 31×31 grid cells into 31 'line cells' along the wind direction, as shown with the pink grids in Fig. S3. Each cell is 186km wide (perpendicular to wind direction) and 6km long (along wind direction). Third, the NO₂ line density (molec/cm) within each line cell is calculated through accumulating $NO₂$ column density (molec/cm²) of all the 31 grid cells within the line cell, then we obtain the $NO₂$ line density along wind direction as shown in the right panel of Fig. S3.

Figure S3S4. Left panel: tropospheric NO₂ column on 18 May- 18^{th} 2020. The data is sampled with 0.05° (lon) × 0.05° (lat) grid size (~6×6km²) and rotated toward the wind direction. The red circle centered at 114.3°E, 30.7°N represents our study domain, with a diameter of ~186km (31 cells along wind and 31 cells perpendicular to wind), and the blue circle defines the area within the Third Ring Road of Wuhan. For each cell along wind, 31 cells perpendicular to wind are accumulated to make up the line density of $NO₂$ (right panel).

Figure S5. The (a) monthly, (b) weekly and (c) diurnal variation of NO_x and CO₂ emissions from Wuhan. The time

factor is provided by ABACAS-EI, MEIC and GEOS-Chem model.

4. Robustness with respect to the area of study domain

We choose a relatively large area as our study domain (a circular region centered at 114°E, 30.7°N, with a diameter of ~186km, Fig. S3 left panel, red circle.) to ensure the whole area of Wuhan are included. However, according to the bottom-up emission inventories (Fig. S1), more than 50% of the NO*^x* emissions in this area are concentrated within the Third Ring Road of Wuhan (84 km diameter, Fig. S3a the blue circle). The large study domain (186km wide of each cell along the NO₂ line density) may smear off the build-up of NO_2 in the high-emission area, and thus impact the estimated NO_x lifetime and emissions. To verify the robustness of our model to the area of the study domain, we randomly choose 3

days (θ 88 September 2019, 10 November 2019, and θ 77 March 2020), narrow down the study domain to the blue circle in Fig. S3S4. In Fig. S4 we compare NO*^x* lifetimes and emissions from the inside of the Third Ring Road of Wuhan between the two situations with different area size of study domain. Notably, the $NO₂$ column density within this smaller domain is higher than outside. The OH radial is the major oxidizing agent to convert primary pollutants to secondary ones in the atmosphere, so the concentration of OH radical concentration is lower inside (Tan et al., 2018). Consequently, lifetime of NO*^x* inside the smaller domain will be longer.

Figure S4S7. A comparison of NO*^x* emissions and lifetimes inside the Third Ring Road of Wuhan (blue circles in the left panel) using the superposition model under the two situations with large (red circles in left panel) and small (blue circles in left panel) study domains. NO*^x* emissions and lifetimes within the Third Ring Road of Wuhan are listed in right panel.

Figure S5. The (a) monthly, (b) weekly and (c) diurnal variation of NO*^x* and CO² emissions from Wuhan. The time

factor is provided by ABACAS-EI, MEIC and GEOS-Chem model.

5. The Gaussian plume model.

To compare with the results from our superposition column model, we further use a Gaussian plume model (Bovensmann et al., 2010; Zheng et al., 2020) to estimate the XCO₂ enhancement due to Wuhan CO₂ emissions. XCO₂ enhancement on each point of the satellite orbit is contributed from the sum of all $CO₂$ emissions on the upwind region of the orbit:

$$
C_{CO_2} = \sum \frac{E_{CO_2}}{\sqrt{2\pi} \times a \times u \times x^{0.894}} \times EXP\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{y}{a \times x^{0.894}}\right)^2\right]
$$
 (1)

$$
XCO_2 = C_{CO_2} \times \frac{M_{air}}{M_{CO_2}} \times \frac{g}{P_{surf} - w \times g} \times 10^3
$$
 (2)

In Eq. (1), E_{CO_2} denotes the top-down CO₂ emission (g/s) and C_{CO_2} is the CO₂ column concentration enhancement (g/m²) relative to the background. u is wind speed in m/s, $x (km)$ and $y (m)$ are the along wind and across wind distance from the location of the point emission source, respectively. a is the atmospheric stability parameter and the value is taken following Masters and Ela (2007). Eq. (2) is performed to convert C_{CO_2} to XCO_2 , in which M_{air} and M_{CO_2} are the molecular weight of air and CO₂, g is the gravitational acceleration 9.8m/s². P_{surf} is the surface pressure (Pa) and *w* is the total column water content (kg/m^2) , both of which can be accessed from the second Orbiting Carbon Observatory (OCO-2) satellite data file.

Figure S6S8. XCO₂ enhancement observations from OCO-2 (gray dots and black lines), and estimation with our top-down CO² emissions from the Gaussian plume model (blue lines) and the superposition model (red lines) on (a) 15 September 2018 and (b) 13 April 2020.

Figure S7S9. Daily noontime (13:00 and 14:00 mean) surface observed NO₂ concentration from 2017 to 2020. The annual mean concentration for each year is listed. The data is from the China National Environmental Monitoring Center (CNEMC) network, including 11 sites in Wuhan.

Figure S8S10. Difference in monthly mean NO₂ column between 2020 and 2019 (2020 minus 2019) over Hubei

Province.

Table S1. NO_x and CO₂ emissions over Wuhan inferred from TROPOMI and related information of 50 days from September 2019 to August 2020.

Table S2. Uncertainty of each factors and their influence on NO_x and $CO₂$ emission estimation..

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