

¹ **Air pollution satellite-based CO² emission inversion: system** ² **evaluation, sensitivity analysis, and future perspective**

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10 **Abstract.** Simultaneous monitoring of greenhouse gases and air pollutant emissions is crucial for combating 11 global warming and air pollution to prevent irreversible damage. We previously established an air pollution 12 satellite-based carbon dioxide (CO₂) emission inversion system, successfully capturing CO₂ and nitrogen 13 oxides (NOx) emission fluctuations amid socioeconomic changes. However, the system's robustness and 14 weaknesses have not yet been fully evaluated. Here, we conduct a comprehensive sensitivity analysis with 15 31 tests on various factors including prior, model resolution, satellite constraint, and inversion system 16 configuration to assess the vulnerability of emission estimates across temporal, sectoral, and spatial 17 dimensions. The Relative Change (*RC*) between these tests and Base inversion reflects the different 18 configurations' impact on inferred emissions, with one standard deviation (1*σ*) of *RC* indicating consistency. 19 Although estimates show increased sensitivity to tested factors at finer scales, the system demonstrates 20 notable robustness, especially for annual national total NO_x and CO_2 emissions across most tests ($RC < 4.0\%$). 21 Spatiotemporally diverse changes in parameters tend to yield inconsistent impacts ($1\sigma \ge 4\%$) on estimates, 22 and vice versa ($1\sigma < 4\%$). The model resolution, satellite constraint, and NO_x emission factors emerge as the 23 major influential factors, underscoring their priority for further optimization. Taking daily national total CO₂ 24 emissions as an example, $\overline{RC} \pm 1\sigma$ they incur can reach -1.2 $\pm 6.0\%$, 1.3 $\pm 3.9\%$, and 10.7 $\pm 0.7\%$, respectively. 25 This study reveals the robustness and areas for improvement in our air pollution satellite-based $CO₂$ emission 26 inversion system, offering opportunities to enhance the reliability of CO₂ emission monitoring in the future.

27 **1 Introduction**

 The knowledge of emissions, i.e., how much and where pollutants are released into the atmosphere, lays the foundation for understanding the changes in atmospheric compositions and managing emissions toward climate and air quality targets (Meinshausen et al., 2022; Li et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2019). Anthropogenic emissions are strongly modulated by socioeconomic events (e.g., holidays, economic recession, and recovery), therefore, it is essential to monitor emissions timely to interpret atmospheric species concentrations (Shan et al., 2021; Le Quéré et al., 2021; Guevara et al., 2023). Currently, numerous nations,

 particularly those within the Global South (i.e., China), grapple with the dual imperatives of mitigating air pollution and addressing climate change challenges. To effectively navigate these intertwined challenges in a harmonized and resource-efficient manner, the development of a system capable of disentangling variations in emissions and their driving factors for greenhouse gases and air pollutants is indispensable (Ke et al., 2023). 38 Recently, a discernible trend is emerging towards inferring anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions from well-observed and co-emitted air pollutants (i.e., nitrogen dioxide, NO2) given their co-emission characteristics in time and space (Wren et al., 2023; Yang et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2020a; Reuter et al., 2019). 41 The introduction of NO_2 in the CO_2 emission estimation presents several distinct advantages. NO_2 has a short lifetime of several hours, rendering its source-contributing plumes readily detectable via remote sensing techniques, thus facilitating their inversion into emission estimates (Goldberg et al., 2019). In contrast, the longevity of CO2, spanning hundreds of years, combined with its elevated background concentration reaching hundreds of parts per million (ppm), obscures the detection of local source-triggered concentration enhancements (i.e., several ppm) (Nassar et al., 2017; Reuter et al., 2019). Moreover, the advancement of remote sensing technologies for NO² has surpassed the progress in CO² satellite observations, as evidenced by the increased frequency of satellite revisits, enhanced pixel spatial resolution, broader coverage, and improved signal-to-noise ratio in column concentration observation (Macdonald et al., 2023; Cooper et al., 50 2022). The synergistic quantification of CO_2 and nitrogen oxides (NO_x) emissions has gained substantial attention, not to mention that it could provide valuable guidance for a joint effort to monitor and mitigate air pollutants and carbon emissions concurrently (Miyazaki and Bowman, 2023). 53 We have developed an air pollution satellite sensor-based $CO₂$ emission inversion system, which is capable

54 of concurrently estimating ten-day moving average sector-specific anthropogenic NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions by integrating top-down and bottom-up methods. This integrated methodology has proven effective in capturing emission fluctuations, particularly during the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic (Zheng et al., 2020; Li et al., 2023). While previous sensitivity tests have suggested a certain level of accuracy, the system has not yet undergone a comprehensive evaluation to thoroughly assess its robustness and weaknesses, and thereby clearly imply its future developmental trajectory. To bridge this gap, we here undertake an extensive 60 sensitivity analysis with 31 tests using the 2022 anthropogenic NO_x and $CO₂$ emission estimation as a case study. Our analytical endeavor delves into how emission outcomes respond to a variety of sensitivity assessments across temporal, sectoral, and spatial dimensions. This study aims to diagnose and rank the uncertainty sources, providing insights to prioritize improvements of this inversion system in the future.

2 Materials and methods

Our air pollution satellite sensor-based CO² emission inversion system has been elucidated in our previous

studies (Zheng et al., 2020; Li et al., 2023). In essence, this system integrates top-down and bottom-up data

67 streams to infer the ten-day moving average anthropogenic NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions by sector in China based

on the mass-balance approach (Cooper et al., 2017). Comprising three key components, the system involves

69 the bottom-up inference of prior emissions for NO_x and $CO₂$ with sectoral profile, the top-down estimation 70 of total NO_x emissions constrained by satellite observation, and the integration of both sources to derive 71 satellite-constrained NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions by sector (Fig. S1). Each of these processes could introduce 72 uncertainties in the final emission estimates. To assess the potential uncertainties, we establish a baseline 73 (Base) for emissions computed using our conventional settings (Li et al., 2023; Zheng et al., 2020) and further 74 investigate sensitivity tests to characterize the impacts of the different configurations on final estimates.

75 **2.1 Base inversion**

76 In the Base inversion, we adhered to the same parameters and configurations outlined in previous studies for 77 estimating the ten-day moving average anthropogenic NQ_x and CO_2 emissions by sector in 2022 (Table 1) 78 (Li et al., 2023; Zheng et al., 2020). Succinctly, we first updated sectoral NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions through 79 the bottom-up process. This involved utilizing indicators including industrial production, thermal power 80 generation, freight turnover, and population-weighted heating degree days as proxies for changes in industry, 81 power, transport, and residential activity levels. Secondly, we inferred the total anthropogenic NO_x emissions 82 constrained by TROPOspheric Monitoring Instrument (TROPOMI) NO₂ retrievals (v2.4) (Van Geffen et al., 83 2022). A critical step in this process was establishing a relationship between NO₂ tropospheric vertical 84 column densities (TVCDs) and anthropogenic NO_x emissions (Eq. 1) through GEOS-Chem simulation 85 (v12.3.0, https://geoschem.github.io/) at a horizontal resolution of 0.5°×0.625°. Our analysis focused on the 86 grids where anthropogenic emissions prevail (Liu et al., 2020b), characterized by ten-day moving average 87 NO₂ TVCDs exceeding 1×10^{15} molecules cm⁻². Thirdly, we integrated the bottom-up and top-down data 88 flows to yield TROPOMI-constrained sectoral NO_x emissions. Assuming that each grid's emission variability 89 was primarily driven by its dominant source sectors (contributing over 50%), we utilized the discrepancy 90 between the bottom-up and top-down estimates in grid cells dominated by a particular sector to derive sector-91 specific scaling factors, which were subsequently applied to correct the bottom-up sectoral NO_x emissions. 92 Following this adjustment, we rescaled the corrected bottom-up emissions to ensure alignment with the 93 TROPOMI-constrained total emissions. Finally, we converted the sectoral NO_x emissions to corresponding 94 CO₂ emissions with the CO₂-to-NO_x emission ratios derived from the bottom-up process (Eq. 4).

95
$$
E_{t,i,TROPOMI,y} = (1 + \beta_{t,i} (\frac{\Delta\Omega}{\Omega})_{t,i,amh,y}) \times E_{t,i,bottom-up,2019}
$$
 (1)

$$
\beta_{t,i} = \frac{\Delta E_{t,i,bottom-up,2019}}{E_{t,i,bottom-up,2019}} \div \frac{\Omega_{t,i,40\%emi,2019} - \Omega_{t,i,base,2019}}{\Omega_{t,i,base,2019}}
$$
(2)

$$
\left(\frac{\Delta\Omega}{\Omega}\right)_{t,i,anti, y} = \frac{\Omega_{t,i, state, y}}{\Omega_{t,i, state, 2019}} - \frac{\Omega_{t,i, simu_fixemis, y}}{\Omega_{t,i, simu, 2019}}
$$
(3)

98
$$
C_{s,t,i,TROPOM,y} = E_{s,t,i,TROPOM,y} \times \frac{EF_{CO_2 s,i,bottom-up, 2019}}{EF_{NO_x s,i,bottom-up, 2019} \times (1 - rNO_{xs,i,y})}
$$
(4)

99 Where *t*, *i*, and *y* represent the ten-day window, model grid cell (i.e., $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.625^{\circ}$), and target year 2022,

100 respectively. $E_{\text{t,i,TROPOMI},y}$ is the anthropogenic total NO_x emissions constrained by TROPOMI NO₂ TVCDs.

115 We approximate the annual NO_x and CO_2 emissions as the sum of the ten-day moving average NO_x and CO_2 emissions in 2022 with a vacancy in the first and last five days. This approximation, however, does not impact our analysis, as our primary objective is to identify potential sources of uncertainty within the system and

thereby highlight areas for future improvement.

Table 1. Configurations of Base inversion.

2.2 Sensitivity inversion tests

 The sensitivity inversion experiments consist of 31 tests concerning factors encompassing prior, model resolution, satellite constraint, and inversion system parameters to achieve a comprehensive evaluation of the system (Fig. 1 and Table 2). Each test is conducted as a controlled experiment, where only one parameter is altered while the rest remain the same as their Base inversion setting.

Table 2. Settings of 31 sensitivity inversion tests.

 Figure 1. **Overview of the sensitivity inversion tests in this study.** Details of the processes and settings are presented in Fig. S1 and Table 2.

2.2.1 Prior emission inventory

 The prior provides the sectoral profile for subsequent emission attribution. We conducted a comprehensive 133 examination of associated parameters, including NO_x EFs influencing the conversion of NO_x to $CO₂$ emissions by sector, threshold value defining the dominant sector for each grid, and sector classification. For 135 NO_x EFs settings, we devised a ten-level gradient ranging from -10% to -1% (referred to as ef $[-10\%, -1\%]$). Regarding the threshold value, we varied it from 50% to 40% and 60% (referred to as thre_40% and 137 thre 60%), respectively. For sector classification, the original prior NO_x and CO_2 emissions were updated based on eight sectors in the bottom-up process: power, industry, cement, iron, residential, residential-bio, on-road, and off-road. This detailed sectoral structure facilitates relatively detailed bottom-up estimations with specific sectoral activity levels. These eight sectors were then aggregated into four categories: power, industry (sum of original industry, cement, and iron), residential (sum of original residential and residential-142 bio), and transport (sum of original on-road and off-road) when allocating TROPOMI-constrained total NO_x emissions into sectors. Here, this sector consolidation, specifically implemented before the bottom-up estimation (4_sectors), was designed to evaluate the influence of sector classification on the inversion results.

2.2.2 GEOS-Chem model resolution

 The model resolution of the GEOS-Chem simulation inherently shapes the localized relationship between NO² TVCDs and NO^x emissions established in the top-down process. Finer resolution is advantageous for establishing localized connections between air pollutant emissions and atmospheric concentrations, and the attribution of sectoral emissions. However, excessively fine resolution is not applicable due to the inter-grid transport when employing the mass-balance method (Turner et al., 2012). To explore the impact of resolution

on emission estimates, we performed an inversion experiment with simulations at a coarser resolution of

152 $2^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$ (Res 2×2.5).

2.2.3 Satellite constraint

- 154 The TROPOMI NO₂ retrievals serve as a constraint in the top-down NO_x emission estimation. We conducted experiments on the TROPOMI NO² retrievals through three distinct approaches. Firstly, we used Extreme Gradient Boosting (XGBoost) to fill the invalid satellite retrievals in v2.4 TROPOMI (Trop_fill) by establishing relationships between TROPOMI NO² TVCDs and meteorological variables, as well as GEOS-158 Chem simulated NO_2 TVCDs (modeled NO_2 in Eq. 5) (Wei et al., 2022). The meteorological variables were derived from European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) ERA5 dataset (Hersbach et al., 2020), including boundary layer height (BLH), surface pressure (SP), temperature (TEM), dewpoint temperature (DT), 10m u-component (WU), 10m v-component of winds (WV), total precipitation (TP), evaporation (EP), downward uv radiation at the surface (surUV), and mean surface downward uv radiation flux (downUV). In the XGBoost process, we trained the relationship for daily NO² TVCDs throughout the year grid-by-grid, with 80% of the data used as the training set and 20% as the test set. downUV). In the XGBoost process, we trained the relationship for daily NO₂ TVCDs throughout the grid-by-grid, with 80% of the data used as the training set and 20% as the test set.
TROPOMI_NO₂ ~ $f_{XGBoost}$ (modeled_NO
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 The comparison of NO² TVCDs before and after data filling revealed minimal impact from the original missing data (Fig. S2). This is attributed to our system's utilization of a ten-day moving average of NO² TVCDs, which effectively mitigates the influence of missing data at the grid scale.

169 Secondly, we evaluated the impact of different versions of TROPOMI NO₂ retrievals by substituting the v2.4 170 TROPOMI data with the older v2.3 TROPOMI NO₂ columns (Trop_v2.3). Updates in TROPOMI data products generally help address the low bias of NO² concentrations, particularly in heavily polluted regions (Lange et al., 2023; Van Geffen et al., 2022). Thirdly, we adjusted the satellite data screening policies to investigate the uncertainties associated with satellite observations on emission estimates, which involved varying the cloud fraction (CF) limit to 0.3 (Trop_cf03) or 0.5 (Trop_cf05) and modifying the quality flag (QA) limit to 0.6 (Trop_qa06) or 0.7 (Trop_qa07), respectively. CF and QA serve as crucial parameters in 176 screening applicable NO₂ TVCDs, representing primary sources of uncertainty in satellite observations (Van Geffen et al., 2022; Lange et al., 2023).

2.2.4 Inversion system parameters

 In previous studies, the reference year for updating emissions for target years was 2019. Here, we modified the reference year to 2021 (2021_base) to assess its impact. The parameter *β* represents the localized 181 relationship between changes in $NO₂ TVCDs$ and changes in anthropogenic NO_x emissions (Eq. 2), 182 determining the transition from observed changes in $NO₂ TVCDs$ to changes in anthropogenic NO_x emissions in the top-down process (Eq. 1). To explore potential nonlinear responses in the estimated results to this 184 parameter, we devised a ten-level gradient for *β*, ranging from -20% to 20% (refer to as β [-20%, 20%]).

185 **2.3 Evaluation of different configurations' impact**

Dimension	Equations	Parameters					
Temporal	$RC_{_l} = \frac{E_{_{l,\rm{sense}}} - E_{_{l,\rm{base}}}}{E_{_{l,\rm{base}}}}$ $\sigma_{_l} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i}^{n}(RC_{_l} - \overline{RC_{_l}})^2}{n}}$	\cdot t represents timescale, denoting year, month, or ten-day window. $E_{t,\text{sensi}}$ and $E_{t,\text{base}}$ denote the national total emissions under a specific sensitivity test and Base on corresponding temporal scale t. \cdot RC _t and σ _t indicate the RC and its 1 σ of national total emissions across temporal scales. The σ_t equals 0.0% when t is the yearly scale.					
Sectoral	$RC_{t,s} = \frac{E_{t,s,\text{ssens}} - E_{t,s,\text{base}}}{E_{t,s,\text{base}}}$ $\sigma_s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i}^{n} (RC_s - \overline{RC_s})^2}{n}}$ (Daily)	· s represents sector source. $E_{t,s,\text{sensi}}$ and $E_{t,s,\text{base}}$ refer to national sectoral emissions under sensitivity test and Base on temporal scale t (annual and daily). $\cdot RC_{t,s}$ indicates the RC of national sectoral emissions on a temporal scale t. σ_s indicates 1σ of RC of national sectoral emissions on a daily scale.					
Spatial	$RC_{i,p/r} = \frac{E_{i,p/r,\text{sens}} - E_{i,p/r,\text{base}}}{E_{i,p/r,\text{base}}}$ $\sigma_p = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{p}^{m} (RC_p - \overline{RC_p})^2}{m}}$ (Annual) $\sigma_r = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_i^n (RC_r - \overline{RC_r})^2}{n}}$ (Daily)	\cdot p and r represent province and region (i.e., provincial clusters), respectively. and $E_{t,p/r,\text{base}}$ \cdot $E_{t,p/r,\mathrm{sensi}}$ refer to provincial/regional total emissions under sensitivity test and Base on temporal scale t (annual and daily). $R_{\ell,p/r}$ indicates the RC of provincial/regional total emissions on a temporal scale t . \cdot σ_p indicates 1 σ of RC of annual total emissions on the provincial scale. \cdot σ_r indicates 1 σ of RC of regional total emissions on a daily scale.					

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¹⁹⁴ In this context, a condition where 1*σ* is below 4.0% is deemed as a consistent impact on emission outcomes 195 within certain dimensions (the determination of 4.0% seen in Fig. S3). Conversely, when 1*σ* exceeds or equals 196 4.0%, it is indicative of an inconsistent impact. For instance, a daily scale σ_t value of 6.2% in the Res 2×2.5 197 test (Fig. S4) suggests that the model resolution exerts a temporally inconsistent influence on daily emission 198 estimates, whereas a daily scale $\sigma_t = 0.0\%$ under ef_-10% indicates temporal consistency in its influence. 199 These principles extend to other dimensions (i.e., sectoral and spatial). Factors whose sensitivity tests yield 200 large and inconsistent *RC* across finer time, sector, or region scales tend to introduce high uncertainty and

- 201 become a priority for future optimization. Conversely, small and consistent *RC* suggests sources with low
- 202 uncertainty and a higher level of robustness in the system to those particular factors.

203 **3 Results**

204 **3.1 Overview of the emission responses to sensitivity tests**

- 205 For a comprehensive understanding of emission sensitivity across various dimensions, we compute the sum 206 of absolute average *RC* and 1σ (i.e., $|\overline{RC}|+1\sigma$) to delineate potential most likely uncertainties associated with 207 tested factors across spatial, temporal, and sectoral scales (Fig. 2). The impact of these tests on emissions are 208 comparable between NO_x and CO_2 , except for the NO_x EFs tests (first column in Fig. 2), which distinctly 209 influence NO_x and CO₂ emissions. CO₂ emissions display high sensitivity to NO_x EFs across all dimensions 210 compared to NO_x emissions, except in the residential sector where NO_x emissions are more responsive while 211 CO₂ emissions are not. For instance, ef -10% (maximum reduction in NO_x EFs tests) incurs a $|\overline{RC}|$ +1 σ of 212 10.7% in annual national CO_2 emissions, with no corresponding impact on NO_x emissions. The relationship 213 between annual national CO_2 emissions and NO_x EFs exhibits linearity (Fig. S5), remaining within a 4.0% 214 range if NO_x EFs reductions are kept below 4.0% (i.e., ef $[-4\%, -1\%]$). In contrast, daily residential emissions 215 show a \overline{RC} of only 1.0% in CO₂ but up to 9.1% in NO_x emissions under the ef_-10% test. 216 The remaining sensitivity tests, excluding the $NO_x EFs$, demonstrate comparable influences on both NO_x and 217 CO² emissions (all columns except the first one). Among all dimensions examined, the annual national total 218 NO_x and CO₂ emissions emerge as robust results, with a \overline{RC} +1 σ of no more than 4.0% across tests. At a 219 finer temporal scale (i.e., daily basis), the impacts of model resolution, reference year, and satellite constraint 220 on estimated emissions are amplified, with their \overline{RC} +1 σ tripling compared to the annual scale. This 221 amplification primarily arises from the increased 1*σ* on the daily scale (Fig. S4), indicating the substantial 222 impact of these factors on daily emission estimates. At a finer spatial scale, provincial emissions are
- 223 vulnerable to changes in model resolution, reference year, and satellite constraint due to their impacts' 224 inconsistency in space (Fig. S4). Concerning sectoral emissions, industry and power sector emissions exhibit 225 robustness, whereas transport and residential emissions present vulnerabilities to model resolution and 226 dominant sector threshold value, respectively. In the following sections, we elaborate on the impacts of all 227 sensitivity tests on NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions from temporal, sectoral, and spatial perspectives. To clarify the 228 *RC* across different dimensions, we adopt *RCt*, *RCs*, and *RCp/r* to signify *RC* in temporal, sectoral, and spatial
- 229 contexts, respectively.

230

NO _v emission (a)									$CO2$ emission (b)							
Temporal $\overline{RC_t}$ +1 σ_t	Daily	0.0	0.0	0.0	9.0	7.3	9.1	6.2	11.5	2.1	1.0	7.2	6.2	7.5	5.6	
	Monthly	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.7	6.0	7.2	5.1	11.4	1.3	0.7	5.2	4.2	4.8	4.4	
	Annual	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.1	1.1	0.2	2.6	10.7	0.6	0.2	1.3	0.9	1.0	2.3	
Sectoral (Daily) $\overline{RC_s}$ Spatial (Annual)	Residential	9.1	7.4	6.1	2.3	1.0	6.0	1.9	1.0	7.4	6.1	2.5	1.5	6.7	1.7	
	Transport	0.8	1.4	1.4	8.3	2.7	2.4	4.5	11.9	1.4	1.0	7.8	2.8	0.8	4.5	
	Power	0.3	0.2	1.5	2.7	1.5	1.7	1.5	10.8	0.2	1.2	3.5	1.5	0.3	1.5	
	Industry	1.2	0.2	0.8	2.4	2.0	2.0	4.1	12.4	0.2	0.4	2.2	1.3	1.1	4.4	
	Provincial	0.0	0.0	0.0	9.2	6.3	5.2	4.8	11.1	0.9	1.8	7.2	6.4	4.4	4.6	
$\overline{RC_p}$ +1 σ_p		Emission factors	Threshold	Sectors class.	Resolution	Satellite	Reference	ø	Emission	Threshold	Sectors class.	Resolution	Satellite	Reference year	ø	
	Model Satellite Prior Res. Cons.					System parameters		Prior		Model Res.	Satellite Cons.		System parameters			
				\overline{RC} +1 σ		$(0-4%)$			$(4-8%)$			>8%		unit: %		

231 **Figure 2**. **An overview of sensitivity inversion tests' impacts on (a) NO^x and (b) CO² emissions**. The 232 color blocks in this figure represent the sum of absolute average *RC* and 1σ (i.e., $|\overline{RC}|+1\sigma$), which reflect 233 the extent of the corresponding tests' impact. Sectoral and provincial results are depicted on an annual scale. 234 The numbers within each grid represent the maximum value of $|\overline{RC}|$ +1 σ under tests on corresponding factors. 235 For example, the $|\overline{RC}|+1\sigma$ noted in the Emission factors column refers to ef₋₁0%. It is noteworthy that the 236 sectoral dimensions in this figure display their absolute average *RC* on the daily scale, with their 237 corresponding 1*σ* shown separately in Fig. S4.

238 **3.2 Emission sensitivity at different temporal scales**

239 To exclusively examine emission sensitivities in the temporal dimension, this section focuses on the variation 240 of national total emissions in each test. Tests influencing both NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions exhibit comparable 241 effects, while prior tests exclusively influence CO₂ emissions (Fig. 3). For conciseness, we focus on the *RC*^{*t*} 242 in CO₂ emissions in tests here (discussion on NO_x emissions seen in Text. S1). The average RC_t of national 243 total emissions are comparable across temporal scales with differences below 1% (lines in Fig. 3, Figs. S6- 244 S7). However, the consistency of RC_t weakens from yearly to monthly to daily scales (increased $1\sigma_t$ as shown 245 by the shadow in Fig. 3). To better characterize the extent of tests' impact, the discussion here focuses on the $RC_t \pm 1\sigma_t$ on a daily scale, reflecting the magnitude and consistency of the impact concurrently. 246

247 At the national total scale, prior tests (ef $[-10\%, -1\%]$, thre 40% /60%, and 4 sectors) influence CO₂ 248 emissions consistently over time while leaving NO_x emissions unaffected (Fig. 3). This occurs because these 249 tests only impact sectoral attribution and CO_2 -to-NO_x emission ratios. Total NO_x emissions are determined 250 in the top-down process before sectoral attribution, thus remaining unchanged (Fig. S1). However, sector-

- 251 specific CO₂ emissions, derived from NO_x emissions, are influenced due to the varying $CO₂$ -to-NO_x emission 252 ratios among sectors (Fig. S9). A reduction in NO_x EFs increases rNO_x , thereby increasing the sectoral CO₂-253 to-NO_x emission ratios since CO_2 EFs are assumed to be unchanged (Eq. 4). This results in a linear elevation 254 of CO₂ emissions in tandem with the decreased NO_x EFs (Fig. S5), with CO₂ emission variations reaching 255 up to 10.7%±0.7% under ef_-10%. Similarly, modifications in threshold values and sector classification alter 256 the identification of dominant sectors per grid, changing the sectoral attribution. Thre 40%/60% and 4_sectors bring about $RC_t \pm 1\sigma_t$ of 0.6% $\pm 1.5\%$, -0.2% $\pm 1.7\%$, and 0.2% $\pm 0.8\%$ in CO₂ emissions, respectively, 257 258 demonstrating their least influence on emission estimates. Despite differences in the magnitude of prior tests' 259 impacts (RC_t), they share a consistency at finer temporal scales, with daily $1\sigma_t$ below 4.0%. 260 Changes in model resolution (Res 2×2.5) introduce the largest variation in estimates among all sensitivity tests, triggering $RC_t \pm 1\sigma_t$ of -1.2% \pm 6.0% in daily CO₂ emissions. Its notable inconsistency of impact on the 261 262 finer temporal scale ($1\sigma_t > 4.0\%$) can be traced back to its induced spatiotemporally diverse changes in *β* 263 (Figs. S8a and S8b). The overall low estimate of *β* under Res_2×2.5 results in negative *RCt*, and the uneven
- 264 spatial distribution of *β* explains the large 1*σt*.
- 265 As for the impact of satellite constraint, the systematic changes such as missing value supplementation 266 (Trop fill) or version changes (Trop v2.3) have a larger impact with daily CO₂ emission variations of 267 1.3%±3.9% and -0.4%±5.9%, while alterations in satellite data quality screening conditions (Trop_cf/Trop_qa) exert a relatively minor impact on estimates with $RC_t \pm 1\sigma_t$ less than 0.5% ± 1.8 %. The 268 269 spatiotemporal changes in satellite $NO₂$ retrievals contribute to the inconsistent effects of Trop fill and 270 Trop v2.3 on daily emissions. However, the small $1\sigma_t$ in screening condition tests suggests that the 271 uncertainty of satellite retrievals has a minor impact on estimates unless there are systematic changes, 272 possibly because we used the ten-day moving average satellite observation data to constrain emissions.
- 273 Among inversion system parameters tests, the alteration of the reference year (2021 base) exhibits a notable temporally inconsistent impact, with $RC_t \pm 1\sigma_t$ of -0.6% $\pm 6.9\%$ in daily CO₂ emissions. This inconsistency 274 275 can be attributed to the spatiotemporally diverse changes in *β*, similar to the model resolution test (Figs. S8c 276 and S8d). In contrast, changes in *β* (β [-20%, 20%]) exert a more notable but consistent impact on estimates, 277 linearly strengthening as the tested amplitude increases (Fig. S5), with $β_20%$ triggering variations of 278 2.6%±3.0% in CO² emissions. The spatiotemporally uniform changes in *β* act linearly on the inversion 279 estimate of NO_x emissions (Eq. 1), and then on CO_2 emissions. Therefore, their impact remains consistent on 280 a daily scale.

281

282 **Figure 3**. **Comparison of the impacts of various tests on national total (a) NO^x and (b) CO² emissions** 283 **at different time scales.** Gray lines correspond to the RC_t in annual emissions. Blue lines depict the average 284 *RC*_{*i*} in monthly emissions, with the blue shadow indicating monthly scale 1 σ . Red lines RC_t in monthly emissions, with the blue shadow indicating monthly scale $1\sigma_t$. Red lines illustrate the average 285 *RC_t* in daily emissions, accompanied by the red shadow indicating daily scale $1\sigma_t$.

- 286 **3.3 Emission sensitivity across source sectors**
- 287 Regarding daily national sectoral NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions, their responses to different sensitivity tests, in terms of both emission magnitude and consistency ($RC_s \pm 1\sigma_s$), are largely similar, except for NO_x EFs tests 288 289 (ef $[-10\%, -1\%]$) (Fig. 4). Therefore, we primarily discuss the impacts of tests on sectoral emissions using 290 CO₂ as a representative (refer to Text. S2 for discussion on sectoral NO_x emission), and then delve into 291 elucidating the divergent impact of NO_x EFs on sectoral NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions.
- 292 Irrespective of NO_x emission factor changes (ef $[-10\%, -1\%]$), industrial and power emissions exhibit greater 293 robustness than transport and residential emissions, which are more susceptible to different configurations. 294 Specifically, residential emissions demonstrate the highest susceptibility to reference year, showing $RC_s \pm 1\sigma_s$ of up to -6.7% \pm 7.3% in CO₂ emissions in 2021 base test, and exclusively display notable 295 296 sensitivity to prior tests (4 sectors and thre $40\%/60\%)$ compared to other sectors (Fig. 4). In contrast, 297 transport emissions are notably influenced by model resolution, with Res 2×2.5 incurring CO₂ emission 298 variations of -7.8%±12.2%. Among all sensitivity tests, the model resolution stands out as the most influential

299 factor on sectoral emissions, because the resolution of grid cells affects the determination of the dominant 300 source sector.

301 The overall largest sensitivity of residential emissions to sensitivity tests is potentially attributed to its low 302 proportion to total emissions (Fig. S10). Take thre_40%/60% as an example, lowering the threshold from 50% 303 to 40% results in identifying more grids as residential source dominant. This, in turn, leads to an increase in 304 residential emission proportions when allocating the total TROPOMI-constrained NO_x emissions into sectors 305 and subsequently CO₂ emissions. Conversely, fewer grids are assigned as residential-dominant when the 306 threshold rises from 50% to 60%, resulting in lower residential emissions (Fig. S11). The next sensitive sector 307 is transport, particularly vulnerable to mode resolution, which may be associated with its characteristics in 308 spatial distribution. Transport-dominant grids, particularly those with truck emissions, are typically located 309 close to industry-dominant grids whose NO_x emissions outweigh those from the transport (Zheng et al., 2020). 310 The use of a coarser horizontal resolution could result in a diminished attribution of emissions to transport. 311 The reduction in NO_x EFs (ef [-10%, -1%]) is the only test impacting sectoral NO_x and CO₂ emissions differently. For NO_x emissions, the residential sector shows the strongest sensitivity with $RC_s \pm 1\sigma_s$ of up to 312 313 $-9.1\% \pm 4.5\%$ under ef -10% . However, its influence on $CO₂$ emissions is most pronounced in all sectors 314 except residential, with variations of 12.4%±1.1% in CO₂ emissions from industry, 11.9%±1.9% from 315 transport, 10.8%±1.2% from power, but only 1.0%±4.9% from residential sectors under ef_-10%. The 316 reduction in NO_x EFs shifts the dominant sector attribution, substantially lowering NO_x emissions from the 317 residential sector due to its vulnerability to these changes, similar to the impact seen with the thre_60%. The 318 other sectoral (industry, transport, and power) $CO₂$ emissions present stronger sensitivity to NO_x EFs tests, 319 linearly correlated with the extent of EFs changes. The decline in sectoral NO^x EFs linearly reduces *r*NO^x 320 (Eq. 4), raising the corresponding CO_2 emissions by increasing sectoral CO_2 -to-NO_x emission ratios.

321

322 **Figure 4**. **Response of sectoral national NO^x and CO² emissions to different sensivity tests on a daily** 323 **scale.** From left to right, the panels correspond to the (**a**) industry, (**b**) power, (**c**) transport, and (**d**) residential 324 source sectors, as the label notes. The dots inside each figure are the average RC_s of daily NO_x (deep color) 325 and CO₂ (light color) emissions incurred by corresponding tests. The shading area indicates the $1\sigma_s$ of *RC*_{*s*} of 326 daily sectoral emissions in different tests. daily sectoral emissions in different tests.

327 **3.4 Emission sensitivity at subnational scales**

328 Refining spatial coverage from national to subnational level (i.e., province) reveals that factors causing 329 inconsistent impacts over finer time scales also tend to induce inconsistent impacts on more granular spatial 330 regions (Fig. 5). On the annual total scales, the RC_p of NO_x and CO_2 emissions at the provincial scale closely 331 resemble each other under most sensitivity tests, except for prior tests that only influence $CO₂$ emissions (Fig. 332 S13). When comparing across provinces, the sensitivity of emissions to tests correlates with the size of the 333 provincial area, with smaller regions exhibiting greater susceptibility. Shanghai, the smallest provincial-level 334 administrative unit in China in terms of area, experiences the largest *RC^p* throughout China in nearly all tests. 335 Conversely, Inner Mongolia, one of China's top three largest provinces, undergoes the minimum *RC^p* in all 336 tests. Under Res 2×2.5 , the *RC_p* of annual total NO_x and CO₂ emissions in Shanghai are 19.6% and 22.6%, 337 respectively, while in Inner Mongolia, they are -3.2% and -3.3%. Employing a resolution of $2^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$ in

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 Shanghai is impractical in real-world applications, as it would result in fewer than two grids covering the 339 area. Henan also encounters substantial *RC_p* under Res 2×2.5, reaching as high as -15.8% and -12.4% in 340 annual total NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions. This could be attributed to its proximity to Shandong, a province with approximately twice the emissions of Henan, making Henan particularly sensitive to the changes in model resolution due to the overlapping grid cells. It is noteworthy that Guizhou exhibits the highest sensitivity to 343 satellite constraint, with RC_p reaching up to 11.9% and 11.8% in annual total NO_x and CO₂ emissions under Trop_v2.3. This sensitivity is attributed to the high cloudiness of the Yunnan-Guizhou Plateau, causing satellite observations to be highly uncertain over Guizhou (Wang et al., 2023; Li et al., 2021; Cai et al., 2022).

347 **Figure 5**. **Response of provincial annual total NO^x and CO² emissions to different tests.** (**a**) and (**b**) show 348 *RC_p* of NO_x emissions incurred by tests. (c) and (d) are plotted for CO₂ emission as (a) and (b). Lines refer
349 to the *RC*_{*n*} caused by the corresponding test or the averaged *RC*_{*n*} caused by correspond 349 to the *RC_p* caused by the corresponding test or the averaged *RC_p* caused by corresponding test clusters (ef^{ress} 10%, -1%) and β [-20, 20%]), and the shadow refers to the *RC_p* range in test clusters. Only 10%, -1%] and β [-20, 20%]), and the shadow refers to the *RC_p* range in test clusters. Only provinces with 351 enough TROPOMI observations are shown here (i.e., grids with $NO₂ TVCDs$ larger than 1×10^{15} 352 molecules/cm² cover more than 90% of anthropogenic NO_x emissions within provinces).

To further investigate the daily total emission response ($RC_r \pm 1\sigma_r$) to tests at the regional scale, we select 353

354 and analyze Jing-Jin-Ji clusters (JJJ, including Beijing, Tianjin, and Hebei), Inner Mongolia, Yangtze River

355 Delta clusters (YRD, including Shanghai, Zhejiang, and Jiangsu), and Guangdong (the location of the Pearl

- 356 River Delta). These regions respectively represent an industrialized region with high population density, an
- 357 industrialized region with sparse population density, and two major economic development zones with high

358 population density in China (Fig. 6). Geographically, these regions span North China (JJJ and Inner

359 Mongolia), East China (YRD), and South China (Guangdong), thereby covering different meteorological and

geographic factors. Overall, the $RC_r \pm 1\sigma_r$ of daily regional emissions are similar for NO_x and CO₂ except for ef_[-10%, -1%], resembling their daily national emission responses (Fig. 3). The $RC_r \pm 1\sigma_r$ of daily regional emissions is especially notable in YRD and Guangdong (southern part of China). This could be attributed to the relatively low NO² concentration in southern China (Fig. S2), making them particularly sensitive to spatial 364 variations in parameters, such as the *β* in 2021 base (Fig. S8) and NO₂ TVCDs in Trop v2.3 test. Besides, the cloud fraction is higher in southern China, introducing larger uncertainties in remote sensing (Liu et al., 2019; Latsch et al., 2022). The emission responses to prior and β_[-20%, 20%] tests are close for these four regions, particularly in the prior tests, suggesting that these impacts on emissions are less dependent on geographic factors.

 Figure 6. **Response of regional total NO^x and CO² emissions to tests on a daily scale.** (**a**), (**b**), (**c**), and (**d**) show the $RC_r \pm 1\sigma_r$ of daily NO_x (deep color) and CO₂ (light color) emissions in different tests in Jing-Jin-Ji 372 clusters (Beijing, Tianjin, and Hebei), Inner Mongolia, Yangtze River Delta clusters (Shanghai, Zhejiang, and Jiangsu), and Guangdong. The shading area inside each figure refers to the corresponding 1σ . It is 373 and Jiangsu), and Guangdong. The shading area inside each figure refers to the corresponding $1\sigma_r$. It is worth 374 proting that the Res 2×2.5 test is not shown here since the resolution of 2°×2.5° proves too coarse noting that the Res_2×2.5 test is not shown here since the resolution of $2^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$ proves too coarse for certain 375 regions, rendering it unrealistic for real-world applications. The result containing Res_2×2.5 is present in SI as Fig. S14 for reference.

4 Discussion

 This study delineates an approximate spectrum of uncertainties inherent in deriving conclusions of varying 379 precision with our air pollution satellite sensor-based $CO₂$ emission inversion system. When interpreting conclusions based on the emission data derived from such an inversion system, it is practical and imperative to aggregate emissions across different dimensions to fulfill specific usage requirements. Direct utilization of data with all fine-grained resolutions at temporal, sectoral, and spatial dimensions poses challenges. If

383 adhering to a variation tolerance of 5%, the reliability of annual national NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions is established in most cases. Notably, careful attention is needed when selecting model resolution and attributing sectoral emissions. Expanding the tolerance to 10%, which isstill below the conventional bottom-up method's uncertainty range of 13%-37% (Zhao et al., 2011; Huo et al., 2022), renders annual regional or daily national emissions robust from an average perspective. Nevertheless, meticulous scrutiny is advised when drawing conclusions based on daily sectoral or daily regional emissions, especially in specific regions (e.g., Shanghai, Guizhou). The large uncertainty of daily sectoral emission is typically observed in other emission datasets, 390 such as Carbon Monitor (up to 40% uncertainty) (Liu et al., 2020c; Huo et al., 2022). Further liberalizing the tolerance to 25%, which is quite uncertain for scientific and policy-making purposes, the majority of conclusions derived from our estimates stand as reliable. The extensive tolerance range primarily stems from regional emissions, posing a challenging issue for many emission inversion techniques. For example, the uncertainty in NO^x emissions derived from the 2D MISATEAM (chemical transport Model-Independent SATellite-derived Emission estimation Algorithm for Mixed-sources) method is approximately 20% for large 396 and mid-size US cities (Liu et al., 2023), and the uncertainty for daily NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions based on the superposition model ranges from 37% to 48% on a city scale (Zhang et al., 2023).

 This study paves the way for the continuous improvement of the current air pollution satellite sensor-based CO² emission inversion system. Firstly, prioritizing a nimble and appropriate horizontal resolution is crucial 400 for establishing accurate localized relationships between $NO₂ TVCDs$ and NO_x emissions, contributing to 401 improved NO_x and $CO₂$ emission estimations from temporal, sectoral, and spatial perspectives. Secondly, the more accurate satellite observation is conducive to reducing the uncertainty in final results, presenting increasing promise with advancements in remote sensing technology. Besides, the progress in multi-species synchronous observations through satellite and aircraft platforms offers alternative verification for multi- species emission inversion, such as the Copernicus Anthropogenic Carbon Dioxide Monitoring constellation 406 (CO2M) (Sierk et al., 2021). Thirdly, the reliability of sectoral NO_x EFs changes, which determine CO₂-to-407 NO_x emission ratios, is essential for the accurate conversion from NO_x to CO₂ emissions. This underscores 408 the need to acquire more accurate NO_x EFs. While obtaining on-site measurements of $CO₂$ -to-NO_x emission 409 ratios is challenging, efforts are underway to enhance its configuration. An iterative modification of NO_x EFs within the current system could be incorporated, minimizing the gap between bottom-up updated and 411 TROPOMI-constrained sectoral NO_x emissions to below 2%. This approach yields more accurate $CO₂$ -to-412 NO_x emission ratios and CO₂ emissions (Fig. S15). The optimized CO₂ emission change from 2021 to 2022 is +0.6%, reflecting a more precise representation of the growth in fossil fuel consumption (+1.9%). Fourthly, utilizing a more refined approach to determine dominant sectors at a grid level can reduce the uncertainty of small-contributing sectoral emissions, particularly in the residential sector. These enhancements will improve the system's accuracy in estimating emissions across all dimensions, positioning it as a valuable tool for simultaneous inversion-based monitoring of greenhouse gas and air pollutants emissions, ultimately supporting a strategic roadmap for the vision of clean air and climate warming mitigation.

- *Code and data availability.* The source code of the GEOS-Chem model is available at
- 421 https://geoschem.github.io/. The prior NO_x and $CO₂$ emissions of 2019 MEIC (v1.4) are available at 422 http://meicmodel.org.cn/?page_id=541&lang=en. The v2.4.0 TROPOMI NO₂ column concentrations are
- 423 publicly available at https://www.temis.nl/airpollution/no2col/no2regio_tropomi.php. The activity level data
- of China from 2019 to 2022 including the industrial production of cement, iron, thermal electricity, etc., are
- 425 available at https://data.stats.gov.cn/english/easyquery.htm?cn=C01.
- *Supplement*. The supplement related to this article is available online.
- *Author Contributions.* Bo Zheng designed the research and led the analysis. Hui Li performed the simulation,
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