

# Estimating the variability of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from Wuhan with TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub> data during 2018 to 2023

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20 **Abstract.** Accurate NO<sub>x</sub> emission estimates are required to better understand air pollution, investigate the effectiveness of emission restrictions, and develop effective emission control strategies. This study investigates and demonstrates the ability and uncertainty of the superposition column model in combination with the TROPospheric Monitoring Instrument (TROPOMI) tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> column data to estimate city-scale NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and chemical lifetimes and their variabilities. Using the recently improved TROPOMI tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> column product (v2.4–2.6), we derive daily NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and chemical lifetimes over the city of Wuhan for 335–372 clear-sky full-NO<sub>2</sub>-coverage days between May 2018 and December 2023, and validate the results with bottom-up emission inventories. We find insignificant weekly cycle of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions for Wuhan. We estimate a slight weekend reduction in NO<sub>x</sub> emission with a weekend-to-weekday ratio of 0.95 and a small seasonal variation of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over Wuhan with a summer-to-winter emission ratio of 0.8777, which is overestimated to some extent, though it is even higher provided by the bottom-up inventories. We calculate a steady decline of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from 2019 to 2023 (except for the valley in 2020 caused by the COVID-19 lockdown), and the emission in 2023 is 15% below the 2019 level, indicating the success of the emission control strategy. The estimated NO<sub>x</sub> lifetimes range from 0.8 h (summer) to 5.3 h (winter), with an average of 2.6 h. Meanwhile, our method shows 30% lower NO<sub>x</sub> lifetimes for fast wind (> 7 m s<sup>-1</sup>) speed. The superposition model method results in 15% lower estimation of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions when the wind direction is from distinct upwind NO<sub>2</sub> hotspots compared to other wind directions, indicating the need to improve the approach for cities that are not relatively isolated pollution hotspots. The method tends to underestimate NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and lifetimes when the wind speed is > 5–7 m s<sup>-1</sup>, the estimation for Wuhan is 4% for the emissions and 8%

for the chemical lifetime. The results of this work nevertheless confirm the strength of the superposition column model in estimating urban  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions with reasonable accuracy.

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## 1 Introduction

Nitrogen oxides ( $\text{NO}_x \equiv \text{NO}_2 + \text{NO}$ ) are key atmospheric components affecting the formation of particulate matter and ozone (Bassett and Seinfeld, 1983; Jacob, 1999; Penner et al., 1991). They are emitted into the atmosphere mainly from the combustion of fossil fuels, which takes place primarily in urban areas, to heat and provide electricity to homes and businesses and to run cars and factories. Cities are responsible for more than 70% of global  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions, and this proportion increases with the process of global urbanization and industrialization (Park et al., 2021; Stavrakou et al., 2020; Baklanov et al., 2016). Thus, accurate  $\text{NO}_x$  emission inventories for cities are required for monitoring the effectiveness of reducing air pollution and for global and regional chemical models to reproduce the complicated urban air pollution (Beirle et al., 2011). Bottom-up city  $\text{NO}_x$  emission inventories are quite uncertain in the emission factors (Lu et al., 2015) and during the down-scaling from national or regional emissions to city level (Butler et al., 2008; Lamsal et al., 2011).

$\text{NO}_2$  has long been detected by remote sensing instruments with high quality because of its strong spectral features within the ultraviolet (UV)/visible spectrum, ~~and various~~ Various satellite instruments have been providing tropospheric  $\text{NO}_2$  column measurements for near-surface  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions estimation for tens of years (Burrows et al., 1999; Bovensmann et al., 1999; Levelt et al., 2006; Veefkind et al., 2012). Limited by the ~~early~~, coarse spatial resolution of the early instruments, researchers computed the global or regional long-term mean  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions with satellite observations and chemical transport models (CTMs) (Martin et al., 2003; Lamsal et al., 2011; Kharol et al., 2015). With the improving capabilities of later satellite sensors, more researchers started to estimate  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions on higher spatial and temporal resolutions but still depended on CTMs (e.g., Ding et al., 2017; Visser et al., 2019; Xing et al., 2022). However, there are barriers to access and employment of CTMs, and there is a substantial computational burden when our target is a ~~a single~~ single individual city. Therefore, CTM-independent methods have been developed and applied to estimate  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions since the early 2010s (e.g., Beirle et al., 2011; De Foy et al., 2014; Kong et al., 2019; Beirle et al., 2019; Rey-Pommier et al., 2022).

Beirle et al. (2011) ~~reduced~~ rotated the 2-dimensional  $\text{NO}_2$  map surrounding a large point source (such as a megacity or a power plant, factory) to the 1D  $\text{NO}_2$  line density by integrating the  $\text{NO}_2$  column density across the wind direction toward the wind direction and integrated  $\text{NO}_2$  columns perpendicular to the wind to obtain the so-called  $\text{NO}_2$  line density along the wind direction. They developed an Exponentially Empirical-Modified Gaussian ~~model-method~~ (EMG) to estimate city- $\text{NO}_x$

emissions and ~~chemical~~-lifetime from the increase of NO<sub>2</sub> over the ~~sourcecity~~ and its decay downwind of the city. Over the years, The-the model has been refined (Valin et al., 2013), validated (De Foy et al., 2014; 2015), applied (e.g., Lu et al., 2015; Lange et al., 2022; Goldberg et al., 2019) and extended (Liu et al., 2016; 2022). The EMG ~~methododel~~ has been first applied to OMI NO<sub>2</sub> data to calculate NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from cities, power plants, and factories across the globe and was shown to be accurate when wind speed is larger than 2 or 3 m s<sup>-1</sup>. This method is frequently used to calculate mean NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over longer time periods (like some years) with OMI data (e.g., Lu et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2016). ~~(Goldberg et al., 2019; Jin et al., 2021)~~In addition, this model requires a relatively large study area and is limited to calculating the mean NO<sub>x</sub> emissions averaged over a longer time period.

At present, the much improved spatial resolution and retrieval quality of the TROPOMI sensor allows the quantification of episodic (like biomass burning) or even daily NO<sub>x</sub> emissions with the EMG method (Goldberg et al., 2019; Jin et al., 2021). ~~makes it possible to track the NO<sub>2</sub> distribution and downwind plume over the city from a single satellite overpass.~~ Based on a single TROPOMI overpass, Lorente et al. (2019) ~~narrowed down the study area to the domain of one city and~~ developed a superposition column model to fit the NO<sub>2</sub> line density for daily NO<sub>x</sub> emissions~~ss~~. They found highest emissions on cold weekdays and lowest emissions on warm weekend days, indicating the significant contribution from home heating during winter in Paris-on (sub-)city scale. Zhang et al. (2023) used this model to estimate the daily variation of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over Wuhan from September 2019 to August 2020, and further inferred CO<sub>2</sub> emissions based on the simultaneous and co-located NO<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> satellite observations. The superposition column model estimates NO<sub>x</sub> chemical lifetimes and emissions on daily basis, avoiding the bias. ~~The superposition column model avoids the bias caused by the useusing of the average-ofd the~~ NO<sub>2</sub> ~~product columns~~ in the nonlinear system ~~to calculate mean NO<sub>x</sub> lifetimes and emissions~~ (Valin et al., 2013). However, Lorente et al. (2019) and Zhang et al. (2023) used daily hydroxyl radical (OH) concentration from CTMs as an important parameter, which induced computational burden when the study period is as long as several years. In addition, the CTM output OH concentration is highly uncertain (Zhang et al., 2021) and leads to uncertainty in the estimated city NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and chemical lifetime.

In this study, we continue to focus on the city of Wuhan, extend our study period from May 2018 to December 2023, and estimate city NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and lifetimes on a daily basis with the superposition column model. We discard CTM output OH concentration in the method to reduce the results' uncertainty and improve computing efficiency. Lorente et al. (2019); Zhang et al. (2023) Our purpose is, first, to demonstrate the ability of the superposition column model to provide information on city NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and lifetimes on interannual, seasonal, and weekly variations influenced by changes in human activity; second, to investigate the model performance influenced by the meteorology (wind speed and directions). The rest of the paper is organized as follows: ~~Section-Section~~ 2 introduces the data and methods we employ in this study. In ~~Section-Sect.~~ 3, we compare our results with those of other studies, analyze the temporal variability of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and lifetimes over Wuhan, investigate the dependence of our estimations on the wind field, ~~and.~~ We discuss the uncertainties in this work of this work in Sect. 4. The ~~conclusion-concluding~~ remarks are presented in ~~Section-Sect.~~ 45.

**2.1 TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub> tropospheric columns**

On 13 October 2017, the Copernicus Sentinel-5 Precursor (S-5P) satellite was successfully launched into a sun-synchronous orbit with the local overpass time at around 13:30. The TROPospheric Monitoring Instrument (TROPOMI) is the only instrument on board S-5P, dedicated to air quality and climate monitoring. TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub> columns are retrieved in the spectral range from ~~observes NO<sub>2</sub> at 405–~~ to 465nm of the UV-visible spectral band with an ~~unprecedented~~ nadir spatial resolution of ~~3.5 × 5.57.2 × 3.6~~ km<sup>2</sup> (reduced to 5.6 × 3.6 km<sup>2</sup> as of 6 August 2019) (Van Geffen et al., 2020; 2022). The small pixels and large swath width (approximately 2600 km) of TROPOMI allow the detection of localized point sources and downwind NO<sub>2</sub> plumes from cities on a daily basis (Beirle et al., 2019; Lorente et al., 2019).

This work uses the operational TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub> version 2.4.0–2.6.0 algorithm from May 2018 to December 2023. Compared to the previous versions v1.x, ~~The~~ the version 2.3.1 includes a different treatment of the surface albedo to avoid negative and > 1 cloud fraction~~compared to the earlier versions,~~ and updates the FRESCO-wide cloud retrieval that leads to a lowering cloud pressure. These result in~~which led to a~~ 10% – 1540% increase of tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> columns, depending on ~~over polluted scenes~~ the level of pollution and season (Van Geffen et al., 2022; Lange et al., 2023). There is a major change from version 2.3.1 to 2.4.0. In v2.4.0, a new TROPOMI surface albedo climatology (Directional Lambertian Equivalent Reflectivity, DLER) was implemented in the cloud fraction and cloud pressure retrievals and air-mass factor calculation (Eskes et al., 2023). The use of the DLER results in a substantial increase of NO<sub>2</sub> columns in vegetated regions, and the higher resolution (0.125 ° × 0.125 °) of the DLER better resolves the variability in the surface albedo (Keppens and Lambert, 2023). The ~~v2.4.0~~ version 2.4.0 made a complete mission reprocessing from 1 May 2018 to 22 July 2022 and then switched to the offline mode, ~~until 12 March 2023.~~ The version 2.5.0 implemented a minor bug fix concerning the qa\_value field over snow or ice-covered regions. The version 2.6.0 started on 16 November 2023, and is exactly the same as version 2.5.0.

The version 2.4.0–2.6.0 Level 2 tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> products are reported to be biased between +33% (over cleaner areas) and –50% (over highly polluted areas) compared to the ground-based MAX-DOAS data from 29 stations, with the overall negative median bias being 28%. Amongst all the 29 ground stations, one is in north China, Xianghe. At Xianghe, the TROPOMI tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> columns correlate ( $R^2 = 0.88$ ) well with the MAX-DOAS data with a median low bias of ~20%, and the weekly averaged relative difference is within  $\pm 30\%$  for most of the days (Keppens and Lambert, 2023). When we use the TROPOMI data in Wuhan, some low bias is expected, and we adjust a scale factor of 1.2 to (partly) correct the bias and screen each ground pixel for the quality assurance flag (qa\_value) greater than 0.75.

**2.2 Wind data ~~and chemical parameters~~**

Apart from the tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> columns, wind field (wind direction and wind speed) ~~and atmospheric chemical parameters~~ are needed as forward model parameters to determine city NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and chemical lifetimes. We use the reanalysis of

~~hourly~~ wind data on pressure levels provided by the fifth-generation (ERA5) European Center for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) (Hersbach et al., 2020). This dataset provides hourly wind data on 37 vertical levels with the~~has a~~ horizontal resolution of  $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$ ; Considering the vertical consistency of wind speeds and directions, ~~and~~ we use the 3 levels mean meridional and zonal wind below 950hPa. The two hourly values immediately before and after the TROPOMI overpass timestamp are linearly interpolated.

~~The chemical parameters, including the hydroxyl radical (OH) concentration and atmospheric  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratio, are obtained from version 12.3.2 GEOS-Chem chemical transport model simulations for lack of observations. The nested grid version of the GEOS-Chem model over East Asia ( $70^{\circ}\text{E}$ — $140^{\circ}\text{E}$ ,  $15^{\circ}\text{N}$ — $55^{\circ}\text{N}$ ) operates full aerosol-oxidant simulation at  $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.3125^{\circ}$  spatial resolution with 47 vertical levels from ground to the top of the stratosphere (Zhang et al., 2015). The GEOS-Chem model is widely used and refined worldwide to simulate and evaluate the atmospheric aerosol and gas phase pollutants (<https://geoschem.github.io/overview.html>). It has been extensively found to be skillful in simulating the concentration and distribution of ozone,  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ , and nitrate aerosols in China (Zhai et al., 2021; Geng et al., 2017; Lu et al., 2019; Li et al., 2019). Thus we can say that the GEOS-Chem model produces compelling predictions of chemical parameters of  $\text{NO}_x$ . This work uses the boundary layer mean OH concentration at 12:00–14:00 to predict prior values for the atmospheric  $\text{NO}_x$  chemical loss rate. As we stated in our previous work (Zhang et al., 2023), the GEOS-Chem simulated  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratio varies less than 10% with seasons, so we use the fixed value of 1.26 in this work following Zhang et al. (2023).~~

## 2.3 Emission inventory

~~An i~~Initial guess of  $\text{NO}_x$  emission patterns and amounts are needed in this study, and we use the Air Benefit and Attainment and monthly Cost Assessment System Emission Inventory (ABACAS-EI) (Zhao et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2018; Zheng et al., 2019) for the year 2019 to provide this information. The ABACAS-EI is available at  $1\text{km} \times 1\text{km}$  gridded resolution over China, and it is developed based on activity rates and energy consumption levels with an estimated uncertainty of  $\pm 35\%$  (Zhao et al., 2013; Li et al., 2024b). Two other bottom-up  $\text{NO}_x$  emission inventories are also used for comparison. The first one is the Emission Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR) v8.1, which provides monthly sectoral  $0.1^{\circ} \times 0.1^{\circ}$   $\text{NO}_x$  emissions from 2000 to 2022, and the 2018–2022 data are employed. The second is the 2018–2020 monthly  $\text{NO}_x$  emission from the Multi-resolution Emission Inventory model for Climate and air pollution research (MEIC) v1.4, with the spatial resolution of  $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$  (Zheng et al., 2021a; 2021b).~~The Emission Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR) v6.1 of 2018 annual total is also used for comparison.~~

## 2.4 The superposition column model

Lorente et al. (2019) introduced this superposition column model to estimate city  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions and chemical lifetimes based on a single TROPOMI overpass and determined daily  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions over Paris. Zhang et al. (2023) modified and used this model for the Chinese city of Wuhan in a more polluted background.

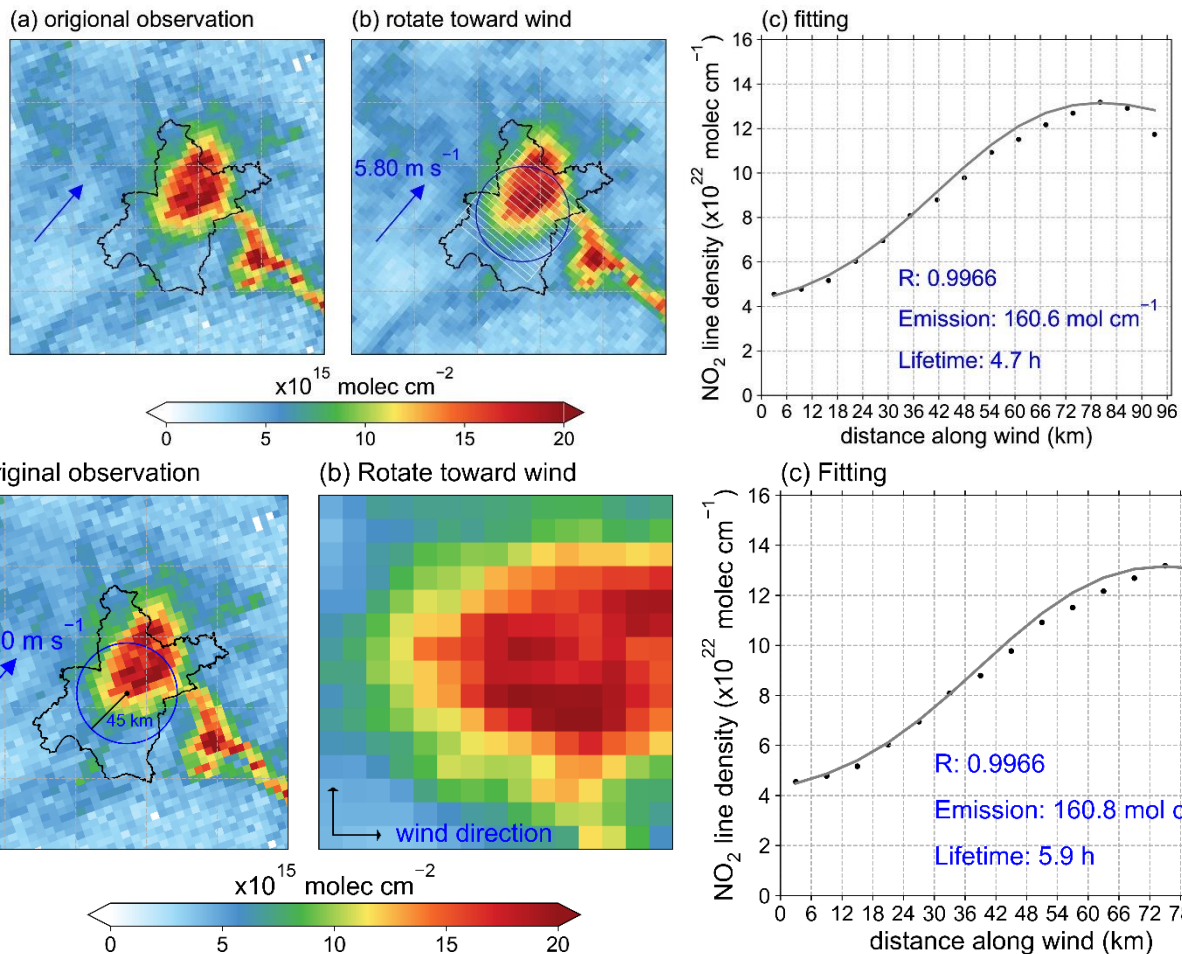


Figure 1: The analysis steps of the superposition column model. (a) The original TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub> columns ~~were~~ are on 4 March 2023. The administrative boundary of Wuhan is plotted, and the blue circle inside denotes the study domain centered on Wuhan city center (114.4 E, 30.6 N) with a 45 km radius, and the white lines indicate the grid cells along with the wind direction. (b) NO<sub>2</sub> columns resampled at a grid map aligned with the wind direction within the study domain. ~~The blue circle inside denotes the study domain centered on Wuhan city center with a 45 km radius, and the white lines indicate the grid cells along with the wind direction.~~ (c) ~~Integrate~~ The grid cells perpendicular to the wind direction are integrated to obtain the NO<sub>2</sub> line density and fit it with the superposition column model.

Using the day 4 March 2023 as an example, we demonstrate the analysis steps of the superposition column model (Fig. 1). We focus on the build-up of NO<sub>2</sub> columns over a 45 km radius around the city center 114.4 E, 30.6 N, which covers the urban area of Wuhan ~~of Wuhan city center~~ (the blue circle in Fig. 1b). Compared to Zhang et al. (2023), our study domain is limited to the urban area (within the Fourth Ring Road) of Wuhan. For one reason, most (~ 60%) of the NO<sub>x</sub> emissions are concentrated in the urban area (Zhang et al., 2023); for another, we use regional mean wind fields and NO<sub>x</sub> chemical loss rate,



the larger study domain would induce large uncertainty in the result. We construct a  $15 \times 15$  grid map centered at the city center with each grid size of  $0.05^\circ \times 0.05^\circ$  ( $6\text{km} \times 6\text{km}$ ), and rotate the grid map toward the mean wind direction. One demission of the grid map is along with and the other perpendicular to the wind direction. The mean wind direction is determined by the mean meridional and zonal winds over the study domain. The original TROPOMI observation (Figure Fig. 1a) is sampled into the rotated grid map (Fig. 1b). The TROPOMI  $\text{NO}_2$  columns in the 15 grid cells perpendicular to the wind direction are integrated to form the so-called  $\text{NO}_2$  ‘line densities’ (Beirle et al., 2011), resulting in 15 grid cells along the wind direction (Fig. 1c).

Then, the  $\text{NO}_2$  line density is fitted with the superposition column model (Lorente et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2023) which is based on a simple column model (Jacob, 1999). We solve each grid cell along the wind direction with a the simple column model,  $\text{NO}_x\text{-NO}_2$  builds up within the current cell and decays exponentially downwind of this cell.

$$N_i(x) = \frac{E_i}{k} \left(1 - e^{-kL/u}\right) \cdot e^{-k(x-x_i)/u} \cdot \frac{[\text{NO}_x]+1}{[\text{NO}_x]/[\text{NO}_2]} \quad \text{for } x > x_i, \quad (1)$$

$$N_i(x) = 0 \quad \text{for } x \leq x_i, \quad (2)$$

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

$\text{NO}_x$  emissions from cell  $i$  ( $E_i$ ,  $\text{mol cm}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) along the wind direction contribute ( $N_i(x)$ ,  $\text{mol cm}^{-1}$ ) to the overall line density through the build-up of  $\text{NO}_x\text{-NO}_2$  within the current cell and exponential decay in the downwind cells (Eq. (1)). We assume a first-order loss of  $\text{NO}_2$  reacted with OH in the atmosphere. In Eq. (1),  $k$  ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ) represents the loss rate of  $\text{NO}_x$  at the

TROPOMI overpass time, and the relationship between  $k$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  chemical lifetime  $\tau_{[\text{NO}_2]}$  (h) is  $k = \frac{1}{\tau_{[\text{NO}_2]} \times 3600}$ . Here,

Lorente et al. (2019); Zhang et al. (2023) we make an initial guess to the  $\text{NO}_2$  chemical lifetime of 4 h for cold season months (October to March) and 2 h for warm months season (April to September) to derive the parameter  $k$ . We set a large range for  $k$  to allow it to change between 1/4 to 4 times of the initial value.  $k$  is determined by the atmospheric OH concentration ( $[\text{OH}]$ ,  $\text{molec cm}^{-3}$ ), the reaction rate constant  $k'$  between  $\text{NO}_2$  and OH (here we use  $2.6 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  from the

GEOS Chem model) and the  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratio in the atmosphere:  $k = \frac{k'[\text{OH}]}{[\text{NO}_x]/[\text{NO}_2]}$ .  $L$  denotes the length of each grid cell, i.e.  $6$

$\times 10^5 \text{ cm}$ , and  $u$  is the wind speed ( $\text{cm s}^{-1}$ ). We follow Zhang et al. (2023) to take a fixed value 1.26 for  $[\text{NO}_x]/[\text{NO}_2]$ .  $E_i$  has makes no contribution to the its upwind cells (Eq. (2)).

$$N_i(x) = 0 \quad \text{for } x \leq x_i, \quad (2)$$

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

The contributions from all the 15 cells are stacked up to ~~make-construct~~ the superposition column model, and ~~combined~~ with the contribution from the background NO<sub>2</sub> line densities ( $b + ax$ ) to obtain the overall  $N(x)$  (Eq. (3)). The initial guess of the background value  $b$  is set as the NO<sub>2</sub> line density at the ~~upend-upwind end~~ point  $N(0)$ .

The terms  $E_i$ ,  $k$ , ~~and~~  $\alpha$  ~~and~~  $b$  are fitted ~~through a least squares minimization~~ to the TROPOMI observed NO<sub>2</sub> line densities ( $N_{TROPOMI}(x)$ ) and the a priori ABACAS NO<sub>x</sub> emissions ( $E_{ABACAS,i}$ ) to determine  $N(x)$ . ~~The cost function is defined as follows: the combination of a least squares minimization of  $N(x)$  to the TROPOMI observed line density  $N_{TROPOMI}(x)$  and  $E_i$  to the ABACAS EI NO<sub>x</sub> emissions  $E_{ABACAS,i}$~~

$$\text{func} = \left( \frac{N(x) - N_{TROPOMI}(x)}{N_{TROPOMI}(x)} \right)^2 + \text{factor} * \left( \frac{E_i - E_{ABACAS,i}}{E_{ABACAS,i}} \right)^2$$

(4)

The emission term is used in the cost function to ~~dilute~~ reduce the dependence of fitted NO<sub>x</sub> chemical lifetimes and emissions on the  $\tau_{[NO_x]}$ , for too large a varying range is applied for it. We exert a scale factor ( $fac$ ) changing between 0.1 and 0.2 to the emission term to make sure the cost function is dominated by the NO<sub>2</sub> line density term. ~~OH concentrations, which are of significant uncertainty and have no solid observations (!!! INVALID CITATION !!! (Zhang et al., 2021)). Zhang et al. (2023)~~

Finally, ~~In the fitting procedure, we make some changes compared to Zhang et al. (2023). First, for the treatment of the initial guess of OH concentrations, considering the uncertainty in simulated OH concentrations, we use the monthly instead of daily mean noon time (12:00–14:00) boundary layer OH concentration as the initial guess for the daily inversion. We allow it to change between 0.3 to 2 times in lieu of the  $\pm 30\%$  interval around the initial value; this range is chosen because most (more than 90%) of the simulated daily OH concentration falls in the 0.3 to 2 times the monthly mean value. Second, the combination of a least squares minimization of  $N(x)$  to the TROPOMI observed line density  $N_{TROPOMI}(x)$  and  $E_i$  to the ABACAS EI NO<sub>x</sub> emissions  $E_{ABACAS,i}$  (Eq.(4)). We restrict the emissions to a gaussian shape and a scale factor is applied to the emission term. It is found to be 0.1 for all the days that lead to the best fit of the NO<sub>2</sub> line densities. We make these modifications to the superposition column model because we are trying to dilute the dependence of fitted NO<sub>x</sub> emissions on the OH concentrations, which are of significant uncertainty and have no solid observations (Zhang et al., 2021).~~

$$\text{func} = \left( \frac{N(x) - N_{TROPOMI}(x)}{N_{TROPOMI}(x)} \right)^2 + \text{factor} * \left( \frac{E_i - E_{ABACAS,i}}{E_{ABACAS,i}} \right)^2$$

~~(4)~~ the total NO<sub>x</sub> emissions  $E$  (in the unit of mol s<sup>-1</sup>) from the study domain can be calculated with

$$E = \sum_{i=1}^{15} E_i \times L \quad (5)$$

and the estimated NO<sub>x</sub> ( $\tau_{[NO_x]}$ ) chemical lifetime is obtained through Eq.(6) (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016):

$$\tau_{[NO_x]} = \frac{1}{k \cdot 3600} \cdot \frac{[NO_x]}{[NO_2]} \quad (6)$$



3 Results and discussion

3.1 Mapping Wuhan’s NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and comparison to other inventorieschemical lifetimes

From May 2018 until December 2023, we collect 581 overpasses with clear skiesfull-NO<sub>2</sub>-coverage over Wuhan. We remove the overpasses with inhomogeneous wind fields, which happen most frequently in winter. The inhomogeneous wind fields include the situations when the wind direction changes more than 45° within 2 hours before the satellite overpasses, and the wind at zonal or meridional direction reverses at different pressure levels when the satellite overpasses. Multiple overpasses within one day are analysed separately to calculate NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and then averaged for the daily mean emission level. We also exclude the days with estimated NO<sub>x</sub> emissions beyond 0.5–1.5 times the ABACAS bottom-up emissions. The 0.5–1.5 times interval is chosen because it covers the uncertainty level of bottom-up NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, the degree of seasonal and weekly variability, and the year to year change of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over Wuhan from 2018 to 2023. This standard is not applied when calculating NO<sub>x</sub> emissions during the COVID-19 lockdown influenced period (23 January 2020 to the end of April 2020).

Finally, we obtain a total of 37235 days with valid NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and chemical lifetimes estimations. The number of valid days for each year and each season are summarized in Table 1. For the five years (2019–2023) with full-year measurement, the percentage of days with valid estimations is 14.05.3%–19.222.5%. Seasonally, we obtain the most valid days in autumn (defined as September to November), followed by summer (June to August). There are least valid days in winter (December to February) after spring (March to May) for due to the cloudy and polluted conditions in winter.

Table 1: Number of days with valid NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and lifetime estimations for each year and each season.

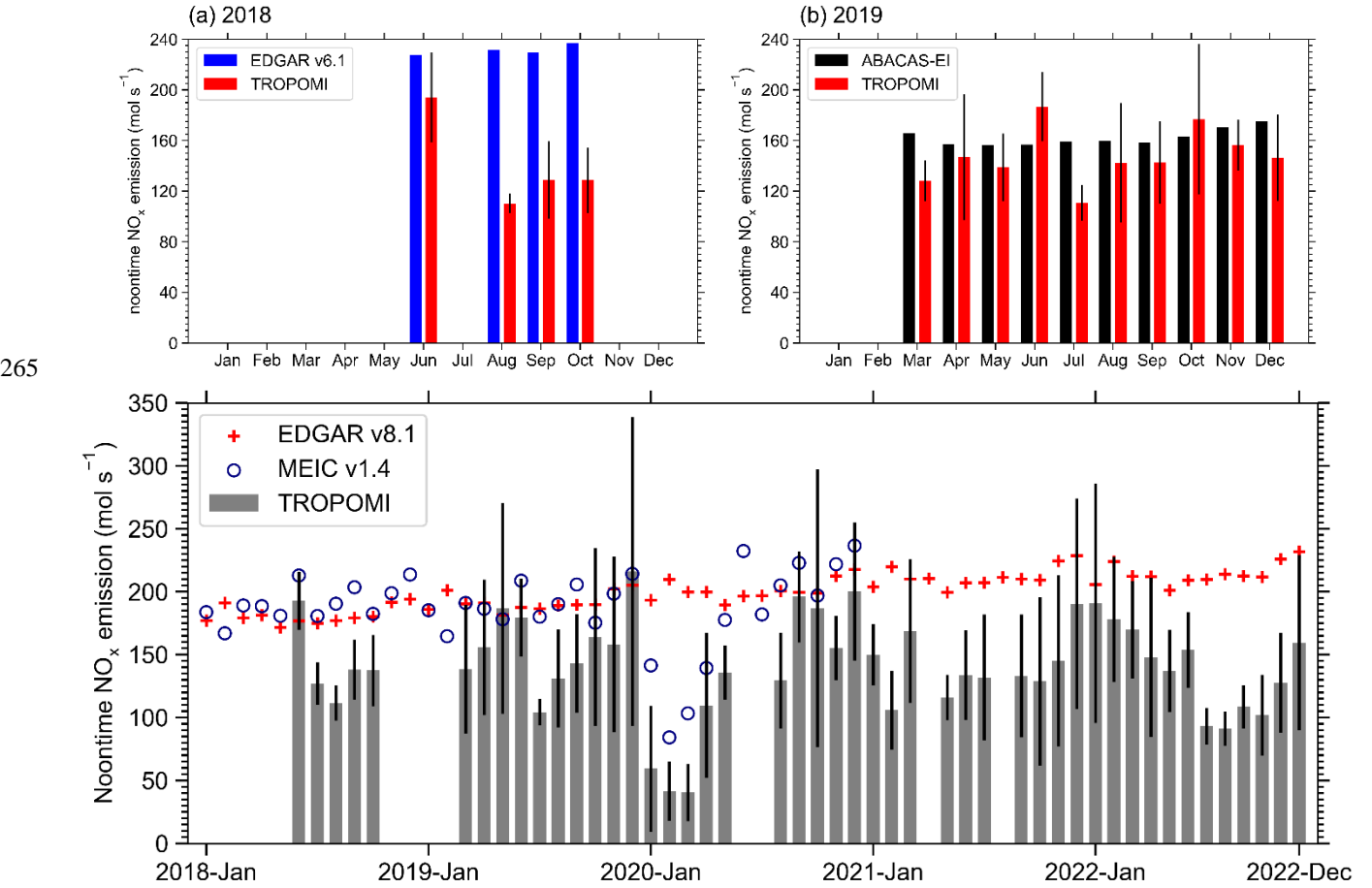
By year	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
	286	6964	569	6565	8270	7254
By season <sup>a</sup>	Spring	Summer	Autumn	Winter		
	8270	704	13149	6250		

a. The COVID-19 lockdown-influenced days (23 January to the end of April in 2020) are not considered when we count the valid days by season.

3.1.1 NO<sub>x</sub> emissions

Zhang et al. (2023) used the superposition column model to calculate NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over Wuhan for the period from September 2019 to August 2020. They calculated 11.5 kg s<sup>-1</sup> (equivalent to about 250 mol s<sup>-1</sup>) NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over Wuhan (including the city-centerurban area and the outskirts of Wuhan) from September to November 2019. We estimate 153.448.8 ± 40.58.8 mol s<sup>-1</sup> NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over the central-urban region of Wuhan for the same period, indicating ~60% of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions are concentrated over the central area. Lange et al. (2022) applied the EMG function-method to calculate NO<sub>x</sub>

emissions over Wuhan from March 2018 to ~~November-January 2020 (the COVID-19 lockdown-influenced period excluded)~~ of  $115.1 \pm 10.1 \text{ mol s}^{-12}$ , and they used ~~a~~ much earlier TROPOMI data versions 1.1.0–1.3.0 with larger low bias and they did not apply an ad hoc correction factor of 1.2 as we do in this study. ~~Zhang et al. (2023) estimated an average NO<sub>x</sub> lifetime over Wuhan of 2.46 h, Lange et al. (2022) reported a 2.94 ± 0.3 h. This study calculates a mean NO<sub>x</sub> lifetime of 2.61 h, close to the previous studies.~~



**Figure 2:** Monthly NO<sub>x</sub> emissions estimated with the TROPOMI data (~~redgrey columns~~), reported by EDGAR ~~v6v8.1~~ (~~red plusesblue~~) and ~~ABACAS-EI~~MEIC v1.4 (~~blackblue circles~~)- from 2018 to 2022 (from 2018 to 2020 for MEIC v1.4)for (a) 2018 and (b) 2019. The emissions of EDGAR v8.1 and MEIC v1.4 are scaled to the noontime emission intensities to keep in consistent with TROPOMI. The TROPOMI monthly mean is calculated only when three or more days are available. Thus, the comparison is unavailables are only possible for some-several months. The error bars on the TROPOMI estimations represent the standard deviation of the daily NO<sub>x</sub> emissions in each month ~~derived by the superposition column model~~.

We now compare the NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over Wuhan estimated in this study with those from ~~ABACAS EI (for the year 2019) and EDGAR v6v8.1 (for the year 2018)and MEIC v1.4~~ in Figure-Fig. 2. The monthly ~~It needs to be pointed out that the~~

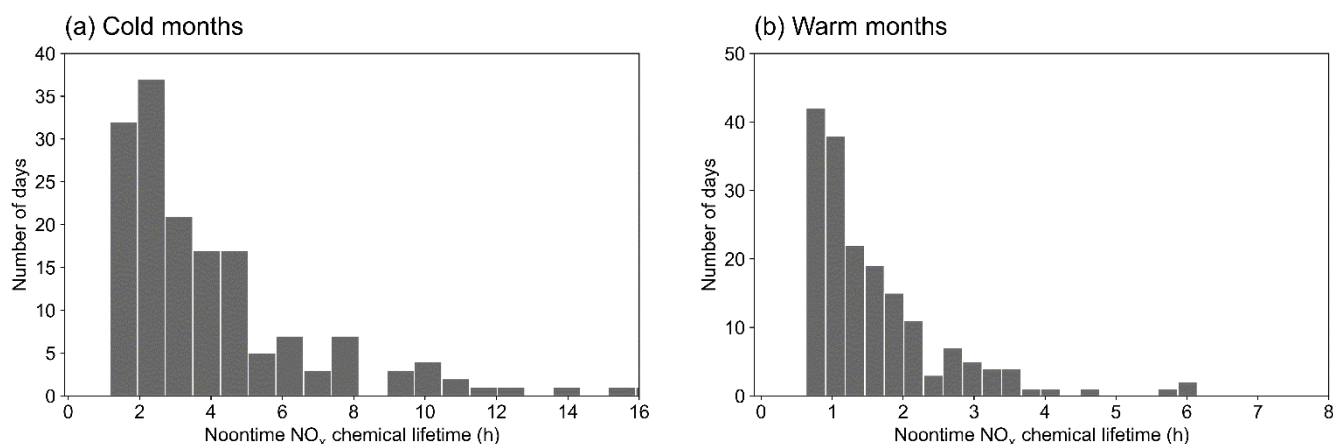
275 ~~annual~~ total NO<sub>x</sub> emissions are provided in the ~~ABACAS-EI and~~ EDGAR ~~v6v8.1 and MEIC v1.4~~, and we convert them into  
monthly mean noontime emission intensities with the time factor in ABACAS-EI. Since the monthly mean TROPOMI NO<sub>x</sub>  
emissions are calculated only when three or more days' NO<sub>x</sub> emissions are available, ~~we obtain only four months (June,~~  
~~August, September, and October) in 2018 and 10 months (March to December) in 2019~~ the comparison is missing for the  
months November 2018 to February 2019, June and July 2020, April and August 2021. Overall, the TROPOMI estimation is  
280 close to the bottom-up emission inventories during cold months, while much lower during warm months. For the three years  
(2018 to 2020) when MEIC v1.4 data is available, the difference between TROPOMI and MEIC v1.4 is within 35%, and  
both of them capture the NO<sub>x</sub> emission reduction in early 2020 due to COVID-19 lockdown. TROPOMI and EDGAR v8.1  
are close to each other (within 30% difference) in 2018 and 2019, but the discrepancy is larger since 2020. EDGAR v8.1 is >  
50% higher than TROPOMI from 2020 to 2022. For 2018, we estimate monthly NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over Wuhan of  $\sim 140.5 \text{ mol s}^{-1}$   
285  $^+$ , while it is as high as  $\sim 230 \text{ mol s}^{-1}$  estimated by EDGAR v6.1. Lange et al. (2022) also found a large discrepancy between  
satellite derived and EDGAR bottom up NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over Wuhan and several other large cities. For 2019, the monthly  
NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over Wuhan calculated by the superposition column model is  $\sim 4.7\%$  lower than that from the ABACAS EI,  
close to the difference reported by Zhang et al. (2023).

### 3.1.2 NO<sub>x</sub> chemical lifetimes

290 Different from Lorente et al. (2019) and Zhang et al. (2023), we do not use the CTM simulated daily OH concentration to  
constrain city NO<sub>x</sub> chemical lifetime, instead we fit it around an initial value. The initial guess of the chemical lifetime for  
cold and warm months are determined according to the fitting results of Zhang et al. (2023).

We

Zhang et al. (2023) estimated an average NO<sub>x</sub> chemical lifetime over Wuhan of 2.46 h, Lange et al. (2022) reported a  
295 2.94  $\pm$  0.3 h. This study calculates a mean NO<sub>x</sub> lifetime of 2.61 h, close to the previous studies.



**Figure 3: Distribution of estimated NO<sub>x</sub> chemical lifetimes over Wuhan in (a) cold months and (b) warm months.**

The final generated NO<sub>x</sub> chemical lifetime over Wuhan is displayed in Figure. 3. Overall we calculate a mean NO<sub>x</sub> chemical lifetime of 2.4829 h, close to the 2.46 h estimated by Zhang et al. (2023), but and is around 205% lower than Lange et al. (2022) reported 2.94±0.3 h for the NO<sub>x</sub> effective lifetime. Lange et al. (2022) The fitting result Our initial guess for cold months NO<sub>x</sub> chemical lifetime is 4 h (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016), and the fitting result is 3.44.25 h, lower than the initial guess, and for most of the days, the estimated NO<sub>x</sub> chemical lifetime is between 1.5 h and 46 h. For the warm months, most of the estimates are within the 0.58 – 2.5 h range, and the mean value is 1.62 h is also lower than the initial guess.

### 3.2 Temporal variability of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over Wuhan

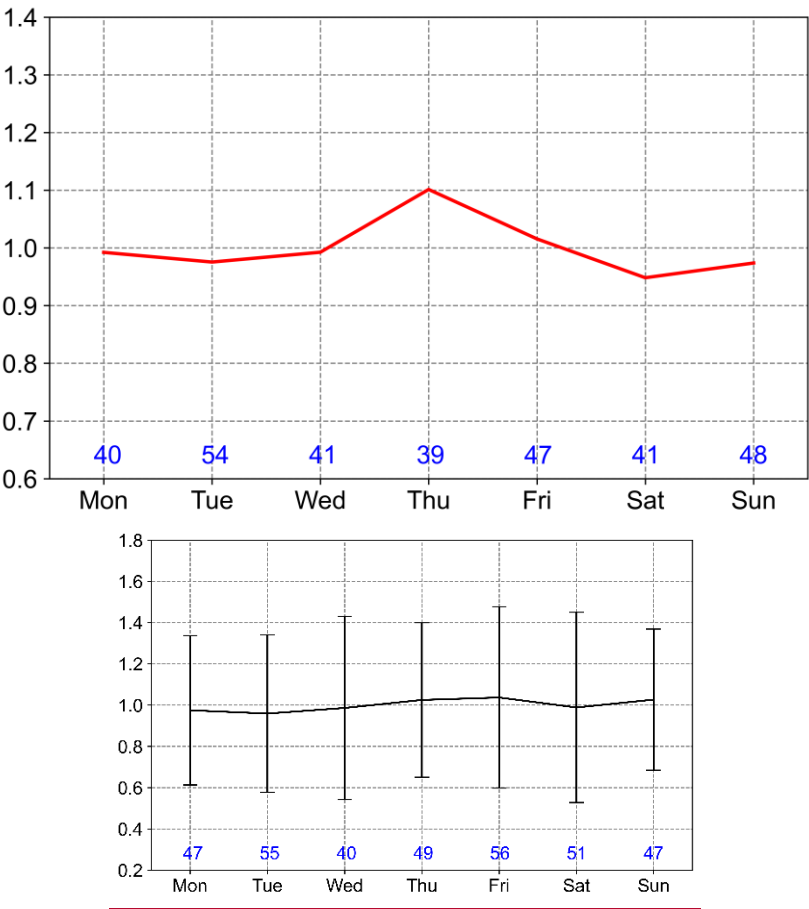
Considering the atmospheric photochemical activity of NO<sub>x</sub>, previous studies using the build-up of NO<sub>2</sub> pollution along the wind direction are primarily based on satellite NO<sub>2</sub> data in the warm season months (May to September in the Northern Hemisphere) (Lu et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2016; Goldberg et al., 2021b). Lange et al. (2022) have proven-proved that it is also possible to fit the NO<sub>2</sub> line densities for NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and lifetimes in winter when NO<sub>x</sub> lifetimes are much longer. Zhang et al. (2023) estimated a year-round daily NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and lifetimes over Wuhan from September 2019 through August 2020. In this study, we extend the study period to 6 years. We have more than 40 valid days for each weekday and weekends day of the week, and more than 50-60 days for each season and each year (2018 excepted), making it possible to investigate the time variabilities of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over Wuhan on the weekly, seasonal, and interannual scales.

#### 3.2.1 Weekly cycle

To identify the weekly cycle of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over Wuhan, we exclude the 25-27 valid days during the COVID-lockdown period, resulting in 310-345 valid daily NO<sub>x</sub> emission estimates. The weekend effect (defined as the reduction in NO<sub>2</sub> columns or NO<sub>x</sub> emissions on weekends compared to weekdays) is widely recognized and reported in cities around the world but not in Chinese cities (Beirle et al., 2003; Stavrou et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2023; Goldberg et al., 2021a). Beirle et al. (2003) explained the absence of a weekend effect in Chinese cities by the dominant role of power plants and industry in NO<sub>x</sub> emission sources. Stavrou et al. (2020) found a slight reduction of NO<sub>2</sub> columns on weekends compared to the weekday average in Chinese cities from 2005 to 2017. Because of China's clean air action on power plants and the growing vehicle population, transportation has replaced power plants as the dominant contributor to NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. However, we still find no significant minimum-reductions on weekends for Wuhan, as shown in Figure-Fig. 34. Wei et al. (2022) also reported weak weekday/weekend differences in surface NO<sub>2</sub> concentration over Chinese cities. The 'Annual Report on Wuhan Transportation Development (2023)' ([https://jtj.wuhan.gov.cn/zjzt/zxdt/202409/t20240904\\_2450210.shtml](https://jtj.wuhan.gov.cn/zjzt/zxdt/202409/t20240904_2450210.shtml), last access: 25 November 2024, in Chinese) revealed that the traffic flow passed through the Outer Ring Road and the Fourth Ring Road of Wuhan was highest on Friday and lowest on Tuesday and Sunday, but the difference is only less than 2%. Our result also sees an insignificant maximum on Friday and minimum on Tuesday. Cultural and living differences with other cities might

330 explain the absence of a strong weekend effect in Wuhan. Shops, restaurants, and traffic are much busier on weekends, especially at noon when the satellite passes. Lange et al. (2022) reported a 0.79 weekday-to-weekend ratio for Wuhan, the possible reason is that our study is limited to the urban area, while a larger area is needed by Lange et al. (2022) to perform the EMG method. The different behaviors and sources in the urban and suburban areas might lead to the different weekend-to-weekday emission ratio.

335 ~~We calculate an overall 0.95 weekend to weekday NO<sub>x</sub> emission ratio, while Lange et al. (2022) reported the ratio of 0.79. We do not have a clear explanation for this difference. Actually, we find a NO<sub>x</sub> emissions maximum on Thursday, which was also seen by Beirle et al. (2003) for Chinese cities. The weekday maximum is mostly seen on Fridays or Thursdays in cities in Europe and North America(Stavrakou et al., 2020; Goldberg et al., 2024).~~



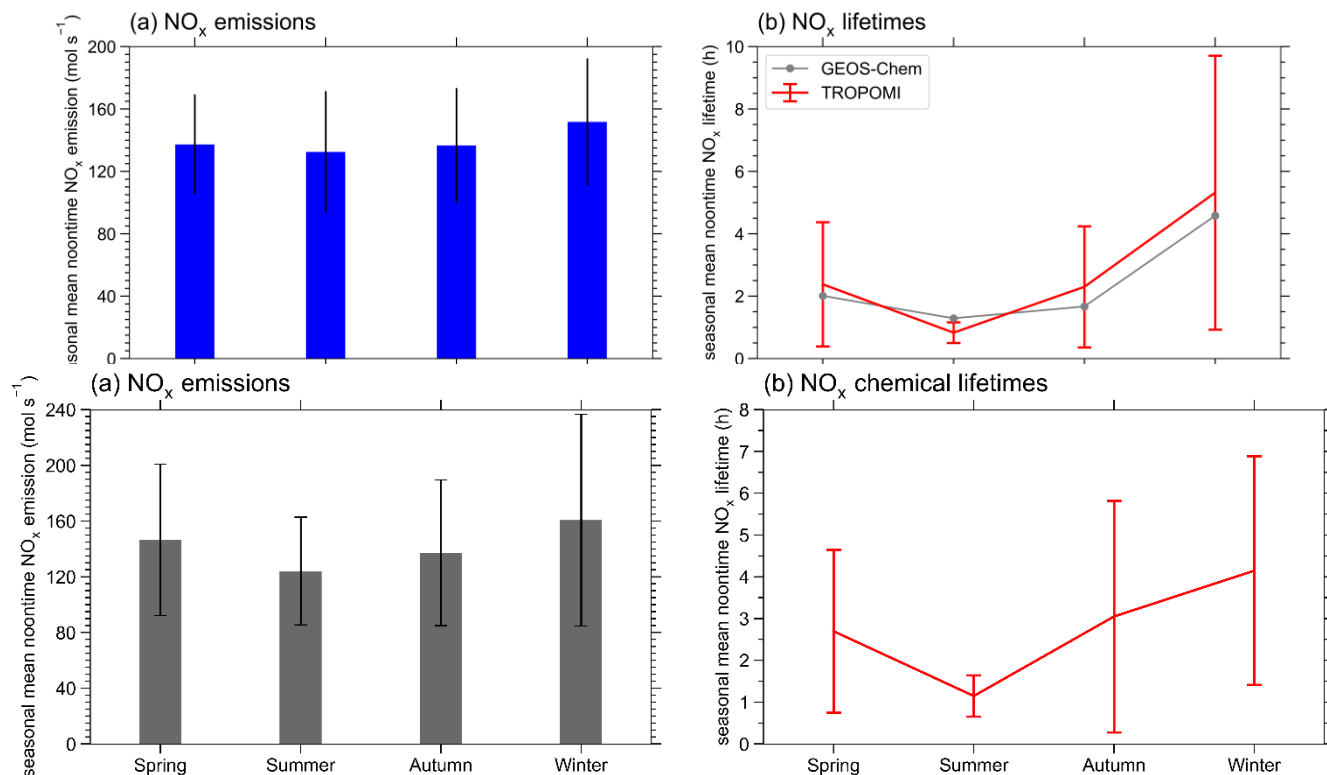
340 **Figure 34:** Weekly cycle of mean (2018–2023) NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. The emissions are normalized with respect to the mean emissions of all the days. The number of valid measurement days for each weekday and weekends day of the week is listed in the plot. The error bars represent the standard deviation of the daily NO<sub>x</sub> emissions.

### 3.2.2 Seasonal pattern

Seasonal NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over Wuhan are plotted in ~~Figure-Fig. 4a5a. Similar to the bottom-up emission inventories, our~~  
results reveal ~~that Wuhan NO<sub>x</sub> emissions vary little variability in NO<sub>x</sub> emissions between seasons~~from season to season with  
345 ~~the highest emission in winter and lowest in summer.~~ Winter emissions are ~~slightly~~ higher by ~~10.59.6% — 14.529.4%~~ than the  
other three seasons. ~~This is different from the bottom-up emission inventories which show little seasonal difference, as~~  
~~shown in Fig. 2. According to the bottom-up emission inventories, a small seasonal variation of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions should be~~  
~~expected. This is expected,~~ for transportation and industry are the two dominant contributors to NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over Wuhan,  
making up nearly 90% of the total NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, and these two emission sectors exhibit no significant seasonal variations  
350 (Zheng et al., 2018). Also, Wuhan is located in central China where winter is mild, and there is no domestic heating in winter.  
The summer-to-winter NO<sub>x</sub> emission ratio usually serves to indicate the relative importance of winter heating and summer  
power consumption due to air conditioning. Here we calculate a summer-to-winter ratio of 0.8777, ~~while and~~ Lange et al.  
(2022) reported ~~an even lower 0.3, while it is larger than 0.85 in the bottom-up emission inventory.~~

~~Two possible factors may contribute to the large difference in the summer-to-winter emission ratio between this study and~~  
355 ~~Lange et al. (2022). First is the different treatment to the NO<sub>x</sub>-to-NO<sub>2</sub> ratio. We use a fixed NO<sub>x</sub>-to-NO<sub>2</sub> ratio of 1.26, while~~  
~~Lange et al. (2022) calculated the ratio from day to day, and it was lower in summer than in winter, leading to a lower NO<sub>x</sub>~~  
~~emission estimation in summer. (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016)Second is that we use the bottom-up emission inventory to~~  
~~constrain our estimation, the flat seasonality of the bottom-up emissions leads to a higher summer-to-winter ratio of this~~  
~~study. Their much lower summer to winter emission ratio may be caused by much lower estimated summertime NO<sub>x</sub>~~  
360 ~~emissions or much higher winter emissions or both.~~





**Figure 45: (a) TROPOMI estimated seasonal mean noontime (a) NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and (b) chemical lifetimes over Wuhan. (b) TROPOMI estimated (red line), and GEOS-Chem model produced (gray line) seasonal mean noontime NO<sub>x</sub> lifetimes over Wuhan.**

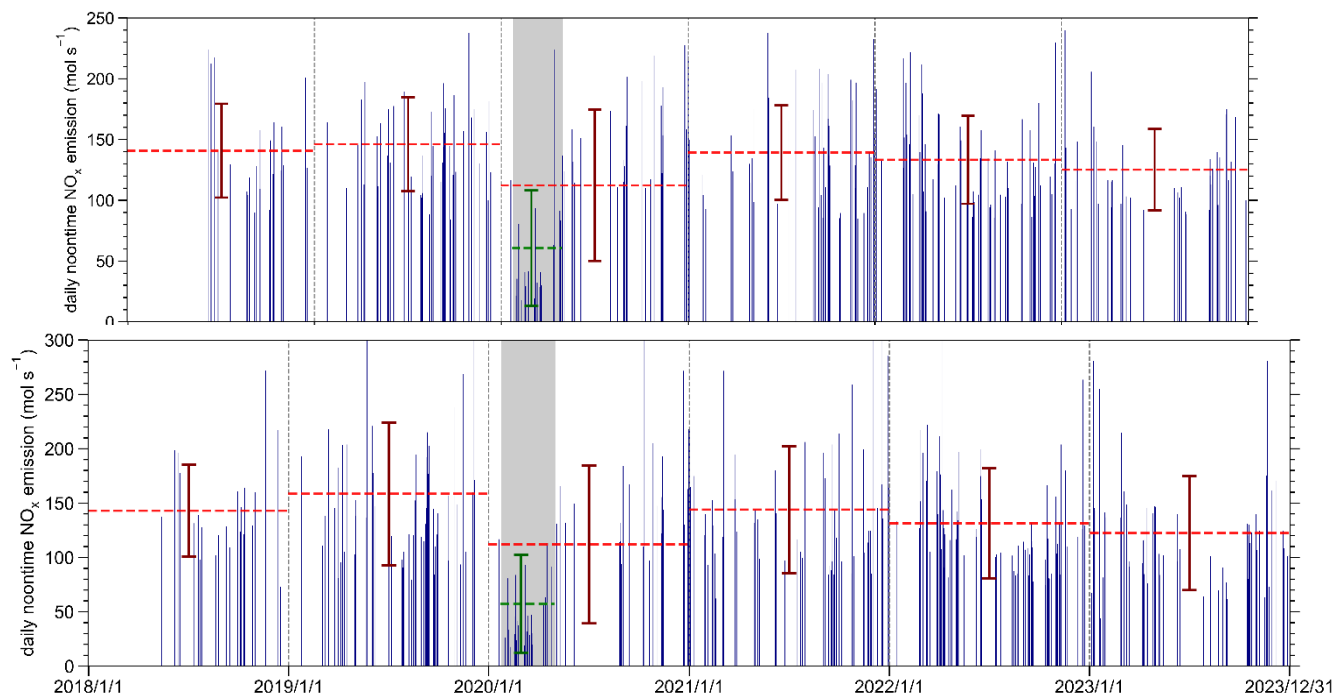
The error bars represent the standard deviation.

Determined-Dominated by the NO<sub>x</sub> photochemical activity rate under the influence of temperature and OH concentrations, the NO<sub>x</sub> chemical lifetimes are longest in winter and shortest in summer, as shown in Figure-Fig. 4b5b. Spring and autumn NO<sub>x</sub> chemical lifetimes are close to each other between winter and summer. For winter, we estimate an average of 4.1 h, close to the 4.8 h reported by Zhang et al. (2023), and longer than the ~3 h effective lifetime estimated by Lange et al. (2022), which makes sense for the effective lifetime is the combination of the chemical lifetime and dispersion lifetime (Lu et al., 2015; De Foy et al., 2014). A significant difference is seen in the summer lifetime estimation. Our estimation for summer is 1.1 h, while Zhang et al. (2023) reported an average of 1.4 h, close to the GEOS-Chem model result (Figure 4b, gray line), and we calculate a lower 0.8 h, even lower than the 2–3 h calculated by Liu et al. (2016) for the warm season. We see much more substantial seasonal difference than Lange et al. (2022) reported an ~2 h. With the known We estimate an average of 5.3 h in winter lifetime and less than one h in summer, while the values are three h in winter and around 2 h for summer, as calculated by Lange et al. (2022). The GEOS-Chem results are between ours and those from Lange et al. (2022), with 4.6 h in winter and 1.3 h in summer. Our calculation is closer to the GEOS-Chem simulation, especially in winter.

~~Given the~~ observed satellite NO<sub>2</sub> line densities, the estimated ~~lifetime NO<sub>x</sub> emissions~~ will be ~~higher shorter~~ when the estimated ~~NO<sub>x</sub> emissions~~ lifetime is ~~shorter higher~~, and the ~~estimated emissions lower~~ lifetime shorter otherwise (Jin et al., 2021). ~~Thereby, the reasons to explain the higher summer-to-winter NO<sub>x</sub> emission ratio can also be used to explain the shorter summer NO<sub>x</sub> lifetime in this study. Therefore, we estimate higher summer NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over Wuhan and lower winter emissions than Lange et al. (2022), leading to a much higher (also more realistic, considering the sectoral emission contributions) summer to winter emission ratio in this study. In this work, the a priori NO<sub>x</sub> emissions are used to restrict the computation of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. Thereby, we have partly avoided the possible underestimation of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. This may also partly explain the much higher summer to winter NO<sub>x</sub> emission ratio in this work than in Lange et al. (2022), for they may have underestimated summer NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over Wuhan.~~

### 3.2.3 Interannual variation

Stringent emission control strategies have been implemented in China to control NO<sub>x</sub> emissions to combat air pollution since as early as 2010, and a nationwide NO<sub>x</sub> emission reduction has been seen since 2012 (Zheng et al., 2018; Li et al., 2024a), ~~and w.~~ We find a similar trend over Wuhan from 2018 to 2023. Our calculation shows a ~~slight n~~ increase ~~(3.1%)~~ in NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over Wuhan from 2018 to 2019 (~~Figure-Fig. 56~~). The outbreak of COVID-19 in early 2020 led to ~~dramatic strong~~ changes in NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. Studies have investigated the reduction in satellite NO<sub>2</sub> columns (Bauwens et al., 2020; Fioletov et al., 2022) and NO<sub>x</sub> emissions (e.g. Ding et al., 2020; Zheng et al., 2021a; Lange et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2021) around the world due to the lockdown restrictions to combat the COVID-19. ~~We have also found a more than 70% decrease in NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over Wuhan in early February 2020.~~ Although Wuhan reopened on 9 April 2020, we define the COVID-19 lockdown-influenced period as 23 January to the end of April, considering the slow recovery of human activities. There are ~~25-27~~ days with valid NO<sub>x</sub> emissions estimation during this period, as shown in ~~Figure-Fig. 56~~. We calculated the lowest NO<sub>x</sub> emissions of less than 20.0 mol s<sup>-1</sup> during the lockdown, and the mean NO<sub>x</sub> emissions in this period are ~~5849%~~ lower than the ~~2019 emission level~~ same period in 2019. The mean emission during the other days in 2020 is comparable to 2019. ~~The EDGAR data does not show decrease in NO<sub>x</sub> emissions during the lockdown period, while MEIC reveals ~40% reduction (Fig. 2).~~



**Figure 56:** Daily  $\text{NO}_x$ -nighttime  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions over Wuhan on clear-sky days the days with valid estimation from 13 May 2018 through 31 December 2023. The annual mean emissions for each year are marked as red dashed lines, and the green dashed line represents the mean  $\text{NO}_x$  emission during the COVID-19 lockdown-influenced period. The error bars denote the emission standard deviation for each time frame. The COVID-19 lockdown-influenced period is shaded in grey.

We present the estimated annual mean  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions in Fig. 6, and find a steady decrease after 2019, except the valley in 2020. Considering the strong seasonality of the estimated  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions and the availability of valid days for calculation in different years, when we make the comparison between two years, the annual mean emissions are calculated based on the months available for both years (Lonsdale and Sun, 2023). For example, January and February estimations are absent for 2019, June and July are not available for 2020, therefore March to May and August to December monthly values are used to determine the annual mean emissions for the comparison of the two years. We find that the estimated  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions in 2020 is 10.7% lower than 2019. Overall, because of the COVID-19 lockdown, the 2020 annual mean emission is 23.6% below the 2019 level, while Lonsdale and Sun (2023) reported only 5% lower. One possible reason for the difference is that they reported a much higher estimation in October 2020. Emissions in 2021 and 2022 are close to each other and about 10% lower than 2019. A significant decrease (13.6%) is seen in 2023 compared to 2022. emissions over Wuhan in 2020 compared to 2019.  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions rebound by 21.6% from 2020 to 2021 but are still 7.2% less than the 2019 level. In 2022, we find 9.6% lower  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions below 2019, while Lonsdale and Sun (2023) reported a larger 26%. A further 6.7%  $\text{NO}_x$  emission reduction over Wuhan is seen in 2023 under 2022.

3.3 Wind field dependence of emission and lifetime estimations

Ideally, NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and chemical loss rate directly derived from the satellite observations in combination with the wind fields should be insensitive to the wind direction and even wind speed. However, Valin et al. (2013) showed that the chemical NO<sub>x</sub> lifetime in a city plume is wind speed dependent and shorter under strong winds. ~~This suggests that it is inappropriate to average the NO<sub>2</sub> plumes at all wind speeds to obtain the mean OH concentration. In our study, we treat every plume separately to estimate the removal rate of NO<sub>x</sub> over the city, and this provides us with the opportunity to investigate the dependence of estimated NO<sub>x</sub> lifetimes and emissions on the wind direction and speed. The EMG method is found to provide best emission estimation under stronger wind speed condition (De Foy et al., 2014; Ialongo et al., 2014). In this study, we also investigate the superposition column model performance on different wind direction and wind speed groups.~~De Foy et al. (2014)

3.3.1 Wind direction

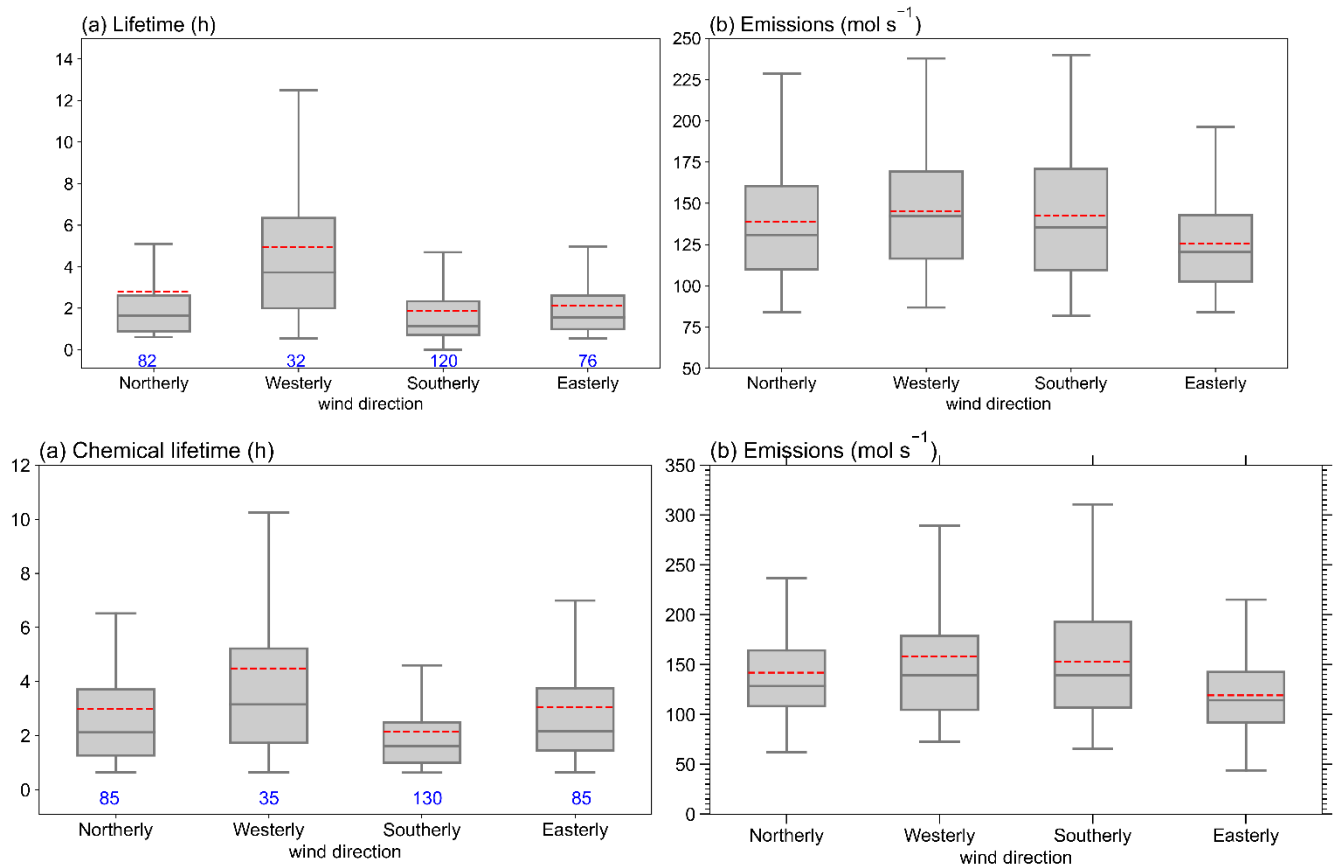
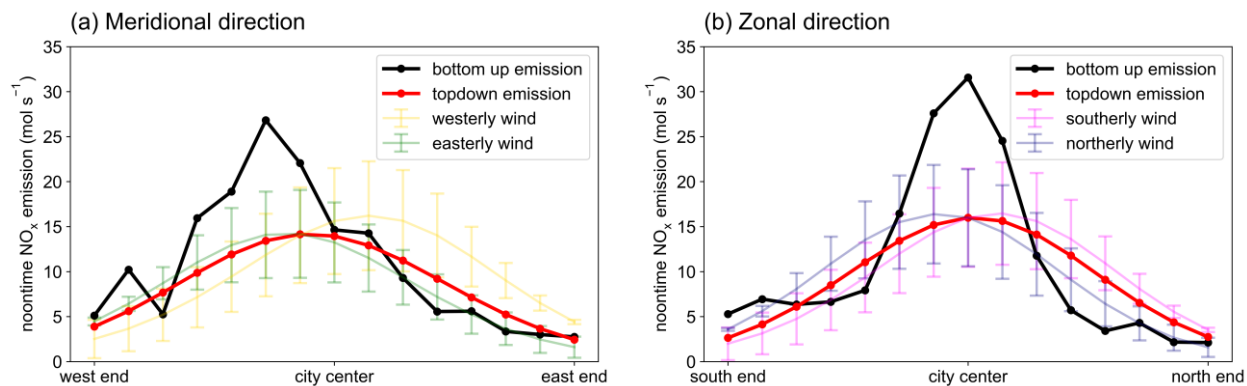


Figure 67: Boxplots of estimated NO<sub>x</sub> (a) chemical lifetimes and (b) emissions over Wuhan are categorized into four groups based on wind direction. For each box, the middle line indicates the median; the box top and bottom indicate the upper and lower

quartiles, respectively; the whiskers indicate the farthest nonoutlier values; and the means are presented with red dashed lines. The number of days in each category is listed in blue.

We separate the ~~310-345~~ valid calculations by wind direction (northerly wind:  $315^{\circ}$ — $45^{\circ}$ , westerly wind:  $225^{\circ}$ — $315^{\circ}$ , southerly wind:  $135^{\circ}$ — $225^{\circ}$ , and easterly wind:  $45^{\circ}$ — $135^{\circ}$ ) and compare the estimated  $\text{NO}_x$  lifetimes and emissions in each category in ~~Figure Fig. 67~~. The variation in  $\text{NO}_x$  ~~chemical~~ lifetimes with wind direction is closely related to the seasonal prevailing wind direction. About 1/3 of the ~~days with westerly winds are in the winter and more than half of the westerly wind days are in the cold months~~~~winter winds are from the west~~; consequently, we compute the longest  $\text{NO}_x$  lifetimes under westerly winds. On the contrary, ~~spring and~~ summer ~~is-are~~ dominated by southerly wind, resulting in the shortest  $\text{NO}_x$  lifetime under this wind direction.

The estimated  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions also vary with wind directions, as shown in Fig. 7b. Emissions under westerly (southerly) winds are 12% above (8% below) the 345 days' mean emission level, in accordance with the distribution of  $\text{NO}_x$  chemical lifetimes with the wind direction. ~~We have found in Section 3.2 that the seasonal variation in  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions is slight in Wuhan. Hence, the dependence of  $\text{NO}_x$  emission estimation on wind direction is not likely influenced much by the season. We find that  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions vary little with wind directions, except that estimated  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions under the easterly wind condition are ~10% lower than the 310 days mean. Both the northerly and easterly winds are most abundant (~50%) in autumn, but estimated emissions under northerly winds are equal to the 345 days' mean level, while it is ~15% lower under the easterly wind.~~ When looking at tropospheric  $\text{NO}_2$  columns over Wuhan (~~Figure Fig. 4b1a~~), we find that it is relatively clean to the north, west, and south of Wuhan, but there are high  $\text{NO}_2$  spots to the east of the city. Although we have tried to avoid the influence of upwind emissions by assuming a linear change in the background  $\text{NO}_2$  columns (Zhang et al., 2023), the finding here indicates that it is insufficient. The high  $\text{NO}_2$  columns at the starting point of the  $\text{NO}_2$  line density will lead to ~~underestimating underestimation of~~ city  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions; the days with distinct upwind  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions should be treated cautiously in future calculations.



**Figure 7: Fitted emission distribution in the (a) meridional direction and (b) zonal direction, the bottom-up emission distribution in the corresponding direction is plotted in a black line.**

The fitted emission distribution under each wind direction is also compared in Figure 7. We can see clear mirrored distributions between the westerly and easterly wind direction (Figure 7a) and the southerly and northerly wind direction (Figure 7b). This can be explained by the fact that the windy conditions disperse quickly  $\text{NO}_2$  away to the downwind region (Goldberg et al., 2024). Finally, the fitted emission distribution in the zonal and meridional directions are basically in line with those from the bottom-up emission inventory, with the difference that the fitted emission distributions are flatter.

### 3.3.2 Wind speed

We then sort our 310-345 days with valid  $\text{NO}_x$  emission calculations into four categories according to wind speed: slow wind ( $0-3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ), medium slow wind ( $3-5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ), medium fast wind ( $5-7 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ), and fast wind ( $> 7 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ). We have more than 27-23 valid calculations for each category, and the corresponding lifetime and  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions are shown in Figure-Fig. 8. We find that  $\text{NO}_x$  lifetimes change little when wind speed is less than  $7 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , varying from 2.4 h ( $5-7 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) to 2.6 h ( $0-3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ). However, a 32% shorter  $\text{NO}_x$  lifetime at fast wind speed ( $> 7 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) is seen compared to the slow wind speed ( $< 5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ), in accordance with the 31% difference calculated by Valin et al. (2013).

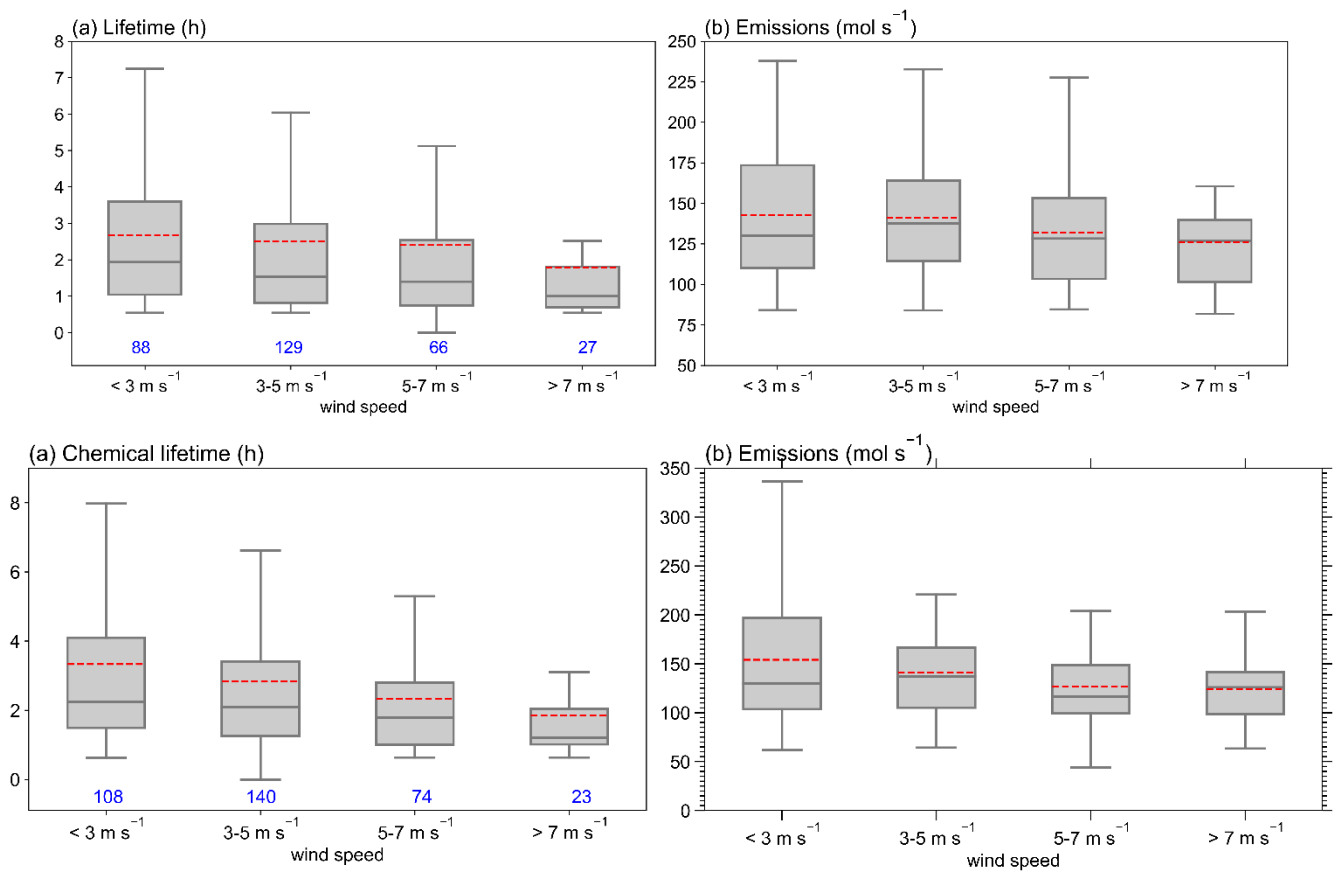




Figure 88: Same as Figure Fig. 6-7 but with the wind speed.

Overall we find a decrease of  $\text{NO}_x$  chemical lifetime and emission with the increase of the wind speed, which can We find that  $\text{NO}_x$  lifetimes change little when wind speed is less than  $7 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , varying from  $2.4 \text{ h}$  ( $5-7 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) to  $2.6 \text{ h}$  ( $0-3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ). However, a 32% shorter  $\text{NO}_x$  lifetime at fast wind speed ( $> 7 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) is seen compared to the slow wind speed ( $< 5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ), in accordance with the 31% difference calculated by Valin et al. (2013). Surprisingly, we also estimate slightly lower (about 9%)  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions when wind speed is fast. It may be explained that the fast wind speed leads to strong ventilation of  $\text{NO}_2$  and, thus, lower estimated  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions. Estimated  $\text{NO}_x$  chemical lifetime decrease by 14–20% as the wind speed increases (Fig. 8a). The lifetime under fast wind is nearly 40% lower than that when the wind speed is slower than  $5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , in accordance with the 31% difference calculated by Valin et al. (2013). The change of estimated  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions with wind speed is smaller (Fig. 8b). The estimated  $\text{NO}_x$  emission decreases by ~20% from  $< 3$  to  $5-7 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  wind speed category, and the emission changes little when wind speed is greater than  $5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . Thus the superposition column underestimate  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions and chemical lifetimes when the wind speed is faster than  $5-7 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . The underestimation rate depends on the fraction of days with fast speed, in Wuhan's case, the overall influence is less than 4% for emission and ~8% for chemical lifetimes.

Then we look back to the varying estimated  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions in different seasons and under different wind directions. The average wind speeds in the four seasons change small from  $3.8$  to  $4.8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , falling into the  $3-5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  wind speed group. This indicates that the lower summer-to-winter  $\text{NO}_x$  emission ratio estimated by the top-down method (this study and Lange et al. (2022)) than the bottom-up emission inventories cannot be attributed to the decreasing estimation with the wind speed. In addition, the average wind speeds in the four directions vary from  $3.5$  to  $4.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , eliminating the influence of the decreasing estimation with the wind speed on the lower estimated emissions under easterly winds. It has a small influence (less than 1% in Wuhan's case) on the overall estimation of city  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions, for the days with fast wind make up only less than 10% of the total number of days. The low bias should be considered for cities with a large proportion of fast winds.

#### 4 Discussion on the uncertainty

We use the superposition column model to estimate city  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions and chemical lifetimes on daily basis, and the results are used to analyse the temporal variability of  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions over Wuhan. There are factors leading to uncertainties in our estimation and analysis.

##### 3.3.3 Uncertainties

The uncertainties of  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions and lifetimes estimation come from the parameters and quantities used during the fitting procedure. The primary sources of uncertainties include:

—The systematic error in TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub> data. The TROPOMI version 2.4.0–2.6.0 data made significant improvements from the earlier versions, and there is a ~20% difference compared to the ground-based data at the Xianghe site in North China (Keppens and Lambert, 2023); we have corrected the possible underestimation over Wuhan by a factor of 1.2, but we thus we still conservatively consider a 20% uncertainty in the NO<sub>2</sub> column.

~~—The bias in the a priori OH concentration. In our previous work (Zhang et al., 2023), we limited the OH concentration between the 0.8–1.2 interval of GEOS-Chem simulated OH concentration and found that the estimated OH concentration in more than 90% of the days fell in this interval, so we exerted a 20% uncertainty on OH concentration. In this study, we conservatively choose the uncertainty of 30% following Lange et al. (2022).~~

~~—Influence of upwind emissions. Previous work using the superposition column model (Lorente et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2023) did not consider the influence of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions in the surrounding area on the estimation of city NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. In this work, we~~ We find a ~~40~~15% anomaly in estimated NO<sub>x</sub> emission and 8% anomaly in NO<sub>x</sub> chemical lifetime for Wuhan when there are distinct hotspots of NO<sub>2</sub> in the upwind region. We thus take the ~~40~~15% (for emission) and 8% (for chemical lifetime) uncertainty to represent the influence of upwind emissions. We must clarify that this part of the uncertainty is ‘city-specific’. It can be neglected for some isolated cities or large point sources like Paris or Riyadh. For other cities located in polluted backgrounds, the uncertainty in ~~reduced~~ by upwind emissions should be calculated accordingly, and it is not necessarily to be ~~40~~15% and 8%.

~~—Bottom-up NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. We use bottom-up emissions to constrain our estimations. the NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratio, and the wind fields.~~ Uncertainty in bottom-up emission inventory is 35% (Zhao et al., 2013; Li et al., 2024b), and we have found that it has a 10% influence on the estimated NO<sub>x</sub> emissions while 30% on the chemical lifetime estimation.

~~—as stated in Sect. 2.3. Uncertainty arising from The NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratio and the wind field. Uncertainty arises from the NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratio is 10% are 10% and 20%, respectively, in accordance with those that from Zhang et al. (2023).~~

~~—Wind fields. Uncertainty caused by the wind fields partly comes from the systematic wind error, which we take 20% following Zhang et al. (2023); the other part comes from the limitation of the superposition column model, and we exert 4% for emission and 8% for chemical lifetime estimation. This part of uncertainty is also ‘city-specific’, and the uncertainty increases as the mean wind speed increases in the study domain. the NO<sub>x</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> ratio, and the wind fields.~~

Finally, we use the root-mean-square sum of all the above contributions, resulting in a ~~54~~35% uncertainty for the NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and 44% for NO<sub>x</sub> chemical lifetimes estimated for Wuhan.

~~To be mentioned, It is noteworthy that Zhang et al. (2023) also considered the uncertainty caused by the area of the study domain and the chemical transport model simulated OH concentration, and they found a 15% and 20% uncertainty caused by the domain size two factors, separately. In this study, we leave out the consideration of the uncertainty caused by the size of the study domain because our study domain is limited to the urban area of Wuhan, and it is a proper size to estimate NO<sub>x</sub> emissions in the urban area. we discard the model simulated OH concentration in the fitting procedure so the uncertainty caused by the OH concentration is avoided. we leave out the consideration of this part of the uncertainty source because our~~

study domain is limited to the urban area of Wuhan, and it is a proper size to estimate  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions in the urban area. We give initial guess of the  $\text{NO}_x$  chemical lifetimes, the uncertainty of which is not considered because we let it vary in a quite large range, the initial value would have little influence on the fitting.

Our analysis of the temporal variability of the estimated  $\text{NO}_x$  chemical lifetime and emission is also of uncertainty, though this part of uncertainty is difficult to quantify. First, our conclusion about the insignificant weekly effect of  $\text{NO}_x$  emission over Wuhan might be reliable, for this is also found in the surface  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{O}_3$  concentration (references)(Wei et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2020), indicating no significant weekday/weekend difference in the oxidation environment. Second, we have overestimated the summer-to-winter emission ratio (0.77), though it is even higher in the bottom-up emission inventory. For one reason, for all the seasons and pollution levels. However, the low bias of TROPOMI data is found to be stronger during polluted period (references), which happens more frequently in winter(Douros et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2022), so the fixed scale factor will flatten the seasonal pattern. For one reason, For another, as we have stated in Section 3.2.2, we use a fixed  $\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_2$  ratio, which is found to be lower in summer than winter, so the fixed value will lead to we use during the fitting also leads to lower estimated summer-to-winter emission ratio. For another, even though the v2.3.1 and after versions have higher retrieval in winter and over polluted area (Van Geffen et al., 2022), they are still found to be lower in polluted area and higher in clean area, when compared to the ground measurements (Keppens and Lambert, 2023). As a consequence, we may still underestimate winter emissions and/or even overestimate summer emissions, thus leading to a higher estimated summer-to-winter emission ratio. Third, when comparing two years' emissions, the annual mean emissions are calculated based on the months available for both years instead of all valid days' average. In this way we have minimized the uncertainty caused by the different availability of valid days in different years. However, the reliability of our results need more years of estimation and more bottom-up information to confirm. Fourth, based on the analysis of wind direction dependence of the estimated  $\text{NO}_x$  chemical lifetime and emission, we point out the limitation of the superposition column model of underestimating  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions when there is emission hotspot in the upwind direction. The 15% underestimation is determined for the city of Wuhan, but we need more estimation for this city and others to confirm this uncertainty rate. Finally, we find that fast wind speed ( $>7 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) leads to 40% lower  $\text{NO}_x$  chemical lifetime estimation.

## 4.5 Conclusion

In this work, we use the superposition column model to calculate city  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions and lifetimes on a daily basis, with a time span of nearly six years, from May 2018 to December 2023. The city of Wuhan is used as an example to investigate the seasonal pattern, weekly cycle, and interannual variation of city  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions. The dependence of estimated  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions and lifetimes the model performance on the wind direction and speed are also discussed. We choose the urban area of Wuhan as our study domain, about 90 km in diameter 45 km radius around the city center. For each clear sky day full- $\text{NO}_2$ -coverage day with a homogeneous wind field, the TROPOMI  $\text{NO}_2$  columns are sampled in to a we sample the TROPOMI  $\text{NO}_2$  column data in  $15 \times 15$  grid that is align with the wind direction the grid size of  $6 \text{ km} \times 6 \text{ km}$  and rotate it with the wind

~~direction~~. Then, every 15 grid cells perpendicular to the wind direction are accumulated to form the NO<sub>2</sub> line density. The NO<sub>2</sub> line density is fitted with the superposition column model to obtain the final daily NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and lifetimes.

For the period from May 2018 to December 2023, we obtain ~~335–372~~ days with valid NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and lifetimes estimations over Wuhan, with more than ~~50–60~~ days for each season and each year (2018 excepted) and more than 40 days for each ~~weekday and weekends~~ day of the week. The monthly NO<sub>x</sub> emissions ~~for the years 2018 and 2019~~ from 2018 to 2022 are compared with those from EDGAR v8.1 and ~~ABACAS–MEIC v1.4 (until 2020)~~ bottom-up emission inventories, respectively. ~~We see 39% lower NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over Wuhan compared to the EDGAR v6.1 dataset, and the difference is only 4.7% compared to the ABACAS inventory. The difference between our estimation and the bottom-up emissions inventories is within 35% for 2018–2019, and EDGAR v8.1 emission is higher by more than 50% than our estimation in 2020–2022.~~ We find a ~~moderate seasonal variation with a relatively high (0.787)~~ summer-to-winter NO<sub>x</sub> emission ratio, which might be biased high, though it is even higher in the bottom-up inventory (> 0.85). ~~This can partly be explained by the fact that we use the ABACAS bottom-up NO<sub>x</sub> emissions as one of the limiting factors to constrain the top-down emissions, avoiding the possible underestimation of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions in the summertime when NO<sub>2</sub> columns are rather low.~~ The estimated noontime NO<sub>x</sub> lifetimes vary from ~~less than 1.1~~ h in summer to ~~5.34.1~~ h in winter, with an average of ~~2.6–8~~ h. We see ~~only a slight drop in NO<sub>x</sub> emissions on weekends (the weekend to weekday ratio is 0.95) over~~ insignificant weekly cycle for Wuhan, which may ~~be related~~ to the living culture and style of the Chinese. We find that NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over Wuhan during the COVID-19 lockdown-influenced period are nearly ~~6050~~% lower than the normal level and rebound to the 2019 emission level for the rest of 2020. Overall, our calculations reveal a steady decline in NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from 2019 to 2023, and the emissions in 2023 are 15.6% below the 2019 level.

Compared to previous studies using the superposition column model (Lorente et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2023), we discard the CTMs simulated OH concentration in the derivation of NO<sub>x</sub> chemical loss rate. By doing so we make this method CTM-independent and computational efficient, and also avoid the uncertainty caused by the OH concentration. We use the bottom-up emission inventory to constrain the emission estimation, which induces about 10% uncertainty to the estimation and leads to overestimation of the summer-to-winter emission ratio.

We separate the ~~340–345~~ days (~~25–27~~ days during the COVID-19 lockdown excluded) of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and lifetimes according to wind direction and speed to investigate the model performance under the wind field influence. We find a ~~~4015~~% lower estimated NO<sub>x</sub> emissions in the condition with distinct upwind emissions, indicating that we need to be more careful in the future when computing NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over cities or large point sources located in a polluted background. Because of the ventilation of NO<sub>2</sub> under fast wind speed, the estimated NO<sub>x</sub> chemical lifetime and emission decrease as the wind speed increases. Thereby, the estimation will be underestimated for the sources dominated with fast winds. We also see 30% shorter NO<sub>x</sub> lifetime under fast wind.

We have demonstrated in this work that by combining the superposition column model and the high spatial resolution TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub> column product, one can investigate the variability of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and lifetimes on daily to annual time

scale. We also provide recommendations for dealing with conditions with upwind emissions and high wind speeds for better and more accurate city NO<sub>x</sub> emissions estimations. So far, the superposition column model has only been used for two cities, Paris and Wuhan; we will extend it to other cities and emission sources in the future.

**Author contributions.** QZ and KFB designed the research. QZ did the processing, visualizations and main writing. KFB edited the paper. CL and AM provided improvements in the method. BZ and SL provided the ABACAS emission inventory. YP reviewed the paper.

**Competing interests.** The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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**Data availability.** The TROPOMI NO<sub>2</sub> data can be freely downloaded from the Tropospheric Emission Monitoring Internet Service (<https://www.temis.nl/airpollution/no2.php>). The ERA5 data can be found at the Copernicus Climate Change (C3S) climate data store (CDS) (<https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-pressure-levels?tab=overview>).

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