



1     Contrasting surface and column-averaged CO<sub>2</sub> responses over terrestrial  
2     China under carbon peaking and carbon neutrality emission pathways:  
3     anthropogenic, biospheric, and regional transport contributions

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## 10    **Abstract**

11             Understanding how changes in anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>)  
12     emissions affect surface CO<sub>2</sub> mole fraction (surface CO<sub>2</sub>),  
13     column-averaged dry-air CO<sub>2</sub> mole fraction (XCO<sub>2</sub>), and the relative  
14     contributions of anthropogenic emissions and biospheric fluxes is  
15     essential for evaluating the atmospheric effects of emission mitigation. In  
16     this study, the Weather Research and Forecasting Model coupled with the  
17     Vegetation Photosynthesis and Respiration Model (WRF-VPRM) was  
18     used to simulate three emission scenarios: a 2016 baseline, a 2030 carbon  
19     peaking scenario, and a 2060 carbon neutrality scenario, under identical  
20     meteorological fields constrained by observations. Contribution  
21     decomposition, sensitivity experiments, backward trajectory analysis, and  
22     potential source contribution function (PSCF) analysis were combined to



23 diagnose the response mechanisms of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. Anthropogenic  
24 emissions increased by 18.1% in 2030 relative to 2016, whereas surface  
25 CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub> increased by only 0.363 and 0.065 ppm, respectively. In  
26 2060, emissions decreased by 90.3%, reducing surface CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub> by  
27 1.914 and 0.359 ppm, respectively. The XCO<sub>2</sub> response was therefore  
28 much weaker than the surface CO<sub>2</sub> response. Anthropogenic contributions  
29 dominated the differences among scenarios, while biospheric fluxes  
30 shaped seasonal variations and became relatively more important under  
31 deep emission reductions. The selected high-CO<sub>2</sub> episodes in the  
32 Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH) region were strongly modulated by  
33 meteorological conditions. Local accumulation dominated under stagnant  
34 conditions, whereas upstream transport dominated under favorable  
35 transport conditions. These results indicate that atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>  
36 responses to carbon peaking and carbon neutrality pathways are jointly  
37 shaped by anthropogenic mitigation, biospheric fluxes, and regional  
38 transport.

39 **Keywords:** carbon neutrality; carbon peaking; WRF-VPRM; atmospheric  
40 CO<sub>2</sub>; XCO<sub>2</sub>; anthropogenic emissions; regional transport

## 41 **1. Introduction**

42 The goals of carbon peaking and carbon neutrality are reshaping  
43 China's anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, with expected changes in total  
44 emissions, sectoral composition, and spatial distribution (IEA, 2021;



45 Zhang and Chen, 2022a, b). Previous studies have developed future  
46 emission pathways for China and evaluated their implications for energy  
47 transition, coordinated air pollution control, health benefits, and regional  
48 mitigation potential (Tong et al., 2020; Cheng et al., 2023; Zhang et al.,  
49 2024; Zhong et al., 2025). These studies provide an important basis for  
50 understanding emission mitigation pathways, but how pathway changes  
51 are translated into atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> mole-fraction responses remains  
52 insufficiently quantified. Changes in anthropogenic emissions do not  
53 translate proportionally into atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> mole fractions, because  
54 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> also reflects biospheric exchange and atmospheric  
55 transport (Ciais et al., 2013; Le Quéré et al., 2018; Canadell et al., 2021;  
56 Friedlingstein et al., 2025). This complexity becomes more evident when  
57 CO<sub>2</sub> is examined at different vertical scales. Surface CO<sub>2</sub> is closely linked  
58 to local emissions and boundary-layer processes, whereas  
59 column-averaged dry-air CO<sub>2</sub> mole fraction (XCO<sub>2</sub>), as observed by  
60 satellite missions such as the Orbiting Carbon Observatory-2 (OCO-2),  
61 represents a vertically integrated signal (Crisp et al., 2004; O'Dell et al.,  
62 2012; Eldering et al., 2017; Wunch et al., 2017). Recent studies have used  
63 satellite observations and regional model simulations to detect urban CO<sub>2</sub>  
64 plumes, analyze spatiotemporal variability, and estimate anthropogenic  
65 emissions in key regions (Zheng et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2024; Sheng et  
66 al., 2025). However, satellite observations alone cannot fully separate the



67 effects of anthropogenic emissions, biospheric fluxes, and atmospheric  
68 transport. High-resolution regional models have therefore been widely  
69 used to simulate urban and regional CO<sub>2</sub> variability and to assess the roles  
70 of emissions and transport (Pillai et al., 2012; Feng et al., 2016; Li et al.,  
71 2020; Dong et al., 2021). Previous applications of the Weather Research  
72 and Forecasting model coupled with the Vegetation Photosynthesis and  
73 Respiration Model (WRF-VPRM) have mainly focused on historical CO<sub>2</sub>  
74 variability, regional budgets, and urban-scale emission signals (Park et al.,  
75 2018; Hu et al., 2020). Among these models, WRF-VPRM couples  
76 mesoscale meteorology with biospheric CO<sub>2</sub> exchange estimated from  
77 satellite-derived vegetation indices and meteorological variables,  
78 allowing anthropogenic emissions, biospheric fluxes, and atmospheric  
79 transport to be represented within a consistent three-dimensional  
80 framework (Ahmadov et al., 2007, 2009; Mahadevan et al., 2008).  
81 Despite these advances, it remains unclear how China's carbon peaking  
82 and carbon neutrality emission pathways affect surface CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub>  
83 differently, and how anthropogenic and biospheric contributions change  
84 from the peaking stage to deep emission reductions.

85 Regional CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are also strongly modulated by  
86 meteorological processes. Weather systems, frontal processes, wind field  
87 variations, and atmospheric boundary-layer height can alter CO<sub>2</sub>  
88 accumulation, dilution, and horizontal transport, leading to rapid changes



89 in surface CO<sub>2</sub> (Chan et al., 2004; Hurwitz et al., 2004; Parazoo et al.,  
90 2011; Díaz-Isaac et al., 2014, 2018; Hu et al., 2021). In eastern China,  
91 high-emission regions such as the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH) region,  
92 Shandong, and the Yangtze River Delta contain dense urban and  
93 industrial CO<sub>2</sub> emission sources (Cai et al., 2018; Dong et al., 2021).  
94 Previous satellite and regional modeling studies have shown that CO<sub>2</sub>  
95 signals over these regions are affected by both local emissions and  
96 regional transport (Zheng et al., 2020; Dong et al., 2021; Sheng et al.,  
97 2025). Under future mitigation pathways, changes in total emissions and  
98 spatial emission patterns may alter the relative importance of local and  
99 transported CO<sub>2</sub> contributions. This issue remains insufficiently  
100 quantified for key high-emission regions.

101 To address these gaps, this study used the online coupled  
102 WRF-VPRM model to simulate atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> over terrestrial China  
103 under three anthropogenic emission scenarios: a 2016 baseline scenario, a  
104 2030 carbon peaking scenario, and a 2060 carbon neutrality scenario. All  
105 simulations were driven by identical meteorological fields to isolate the  
106 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> responses to emission pathway changes. Specifically,  
107 we examined three aspects. First, we compared the magnitude, spatial  
108 distribution, and seasonal variation of surface CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub> among the  
109 three emission scenarios. Second, we quantified the contributions of  
110 anthropogenic emissions and biospheric fluxes to CO<sub>2</sub> variations as



111 emissions changed from the carbon peaking scenario toward carbon  
112 neutrality. Third, we analyzed how local accumulation and regional  
113 transport shaped high-CO<sub>2</sub> episodes in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH)  
114 region. By combining component decomposition, sensitivity experiments,  
115 backward trajectory analysis, and potential source contribution function  
116 (PSCF) analysis, this study quantifies the contrasting responses of surface  
117 CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub> and clarifies the roles of anthropogenic mitigation,  
118 biospheric fluxes, and regional transport.

## 119 2. Data and Methods

### 120 2.1 Model configuration

121 To quantify the response of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations over  
122 terrestrial China to different emission pathways, this study used the  
123 online coupled WRF-VPRM system. The system simulates  
124 meteorological evolution, atmospheric transport, biospheric CO<sub>2</sub>  
125 exchange, and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations within the same  
126 dynamical framework. It also transports CO<sub>2</sub> from different sources as  
127 independent tagged passive tracers (Ahmadov et al., 2007). This tracer  
128 design allows the contributions of background CO<sub>2</sub>, biospheric fluxes,  
129 and anthropogenic emissions to the total CO<sub>2</sub> concentration to be  
130 quantified. Net ecosystem CO<sub>2</sub> exchange was calculated online by VPRM.  
131 VPRM estimates gross primary production and ecosystem respiration  
132 from satellite-derived enhanced vegetation index and land surface water



133 index, together with meteorological variables such as temperature,  
134 shortwave radiation, and photosynthetically active radiation. It then  
135 provides hourly net ecosystem exchange (Mahadevan et al., 2008).

136 To isolate the effects of emission pathway changes, all scenario  
137 simulations were conducted under identical meteorological initial and  
138 boundary conditions and forcing. The meteorological fields were  
139 constrained using four-dimensional data assimilation (FDDA) nudging  
140 (Stauffer and Seaman, 1990, 1994). Specifically, observational nudging  
141 was applied below the planetary boundary layer to assimilate near-surface  
142 air temperature observations from the NCEP ADP (National Centers for  
143 Environmental Prediction Automated Data Processing) dataset (National  
144 Centers for Environmental Prediction et al., 2008), while grid nudging  
145 was applied above the planetary boundary layer using ERA5 (ECMWF  
146 Reanalysis v5) reanalysis fields. This configuration kept the  
147 meteorological fields consistent among the three emission scenarios and  
148 reduced the influence of meteorological variability on the simulated CO<sub>2</sub>  
149 differences.

150 The model domain covered China and its surrounding areas to  
151 reduce the influence of lateral boundary inputs on the results over China.  
152 The domain was centered at 36.461°N, 102.531°E, with a horizontal  
153 resolution of 12 km, 416 × 355 grid cells, 50 vertical layers, and a model  
154 top of 50 hPa. The model was restarted monthly. For each monthly



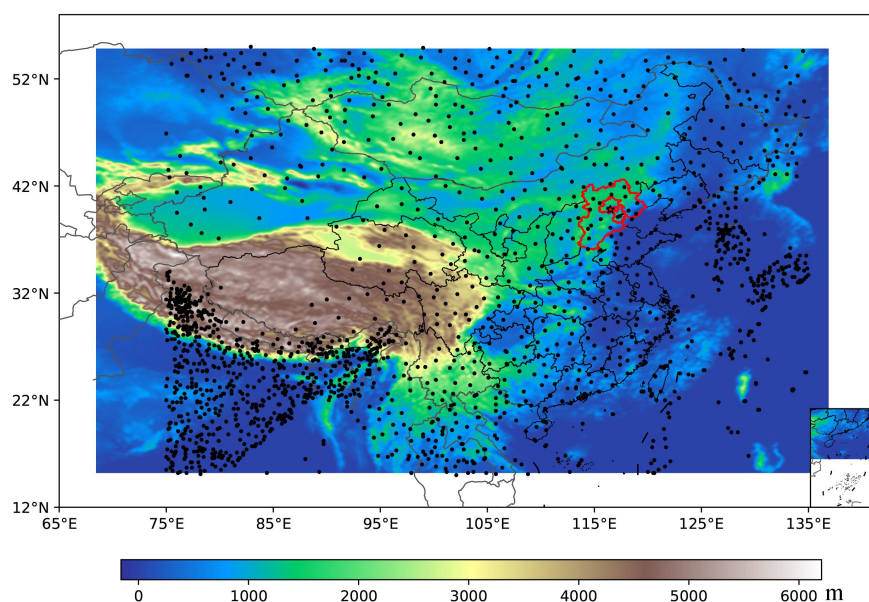
155 simulation, the last 10 d of the preceding month was used as spin-up and  
156 was excluded from the statistical analysis. Figure 1 shows the model  
157 domain, the key study region, the meteorological observation sites used  
158 for observational nudging, and the backward trajectory receptor point.

159 The initial and boundary meteorological fields were derived from  
160 ERA5 data, with a spatial resolution of  $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$  and a temporal  
161 resolution of 6 h (Hersbach et al., 2020). The initial and boundary  
162 conditions for CO<sub>2</sub> were obtained from the CAMS (Copernicus  
163 Atmosphere Monitoring Service) global inversion-optimised greenhouse  
164 gas fluxes and concentrations dataset, with a spatial resolution of  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$   
165 and a temporal resolution of 6 h (Copernicus Atmosphere Monitoring  
166 Service, 2020). The main physical parameterizations included the Lin  
167 microphysics scheme (Chen and Sun, 2002), the CAM longwave and  
168 shortwave radiation schemes (Neale et al., 2010), the YSU planetary  
169 boundary-layer scheme (Hong et al., 2006), the Noah land surface  
170 scheme (Tewari et al., 2004), and the new Grell cumulus convection  
171 scheme (Grell, 1993; Grell and Dévényi, 2002).

172 To isolate the influence of anthropogenic emission pathways, the  
173 2016, 2030, and 2060 baseline simulations used identical meteorological  
174 forcing, nudging settings, physical parameterizations, CO<sub>2</sub> initial and  
175 boundary conditions, and biogenic flux calculation schemes. The 2016  
176 vegetation indices and VPRM parameters were also fixed across all



177 simulations. This design allowed differences in CO<sub>2</sub> among scenarios to  
178 be attributed mainly to changes in anthropogenic emission inputs. It  
179 therefore provided a clear basis for quantifying the surface CO<sub>2</sub> and  
180 XCO<sub>2</sub> responses induced by changes in emission pathways.



181

182 Figure 1. Model domain and observational sites used for observational  
183 nudging. Shading indicates terrain height (m), black dots indicate  
184 meteorological observation sites, the star marks the receptor point for  
185 backward trajectory analysis (39.8°N, 116.5°E), and the red provincial  
186 boundaries indicate the BTH region where anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions  
187 were set to zero in the sensitivity experiments.

## 188 2.2 Emission scenarios

189 Three anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emission experiments were designed: a  
190 2016 baseline scenario, a 2030 carbon peaking scenario, and a 2060



191 carbon neutrality scenario. The 2016 scenario represents the spatial  
192 pattern and sectoral structure of China's anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions  
193 under the historical baseline. The 2016 emission data were obtained from  
194 the MEIC (Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for Climate and Air  
195 Pollution Research) V2.0 inventory, which includes the agricultural,  
196 industrial, power, residential, and transportation sectors (Xu et al., 2023;  
197 Geng et al., 2024). The 2030 and 2060 scenarios were based on the  
198 on-time peak net-zero clean-air pathway from Dynamic Projection model  
199 for Emissions in China (DPEC) V1.2 and represent the carbon peaking  
200 and carbon neutrality stages, respectively (Cheng et al., 2023; Tong et al.,  
201 2020). All emission data were processed consistently into the CO<sub>2</sub>  
202 emission inputs required by WRF-VPRM, including unit conversion,  
203 sectoral classification, spatial interpolation, temporal allocation, and  
204 model-grid matching. For the future scenarios, the changes in national  
205 total emissions, sectoral structure, and spatial distribution provided by  
206 DPEC V1.2 were retained. The same input-processing procedure used for  
207 the 2016 baseline scenario was applied to reduce the influence of  
208 emission preprocessing on the scenario comparison.

209 Additional sensitivity experiments were conducted to distinguish the  
210 contributions of local anthropogenic emissions from the BTH region and  
211 external regional transport to CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. The baseline  
212 experiments retained anthropogenic emissions over the entire model



213 domain. The sensitivity experiments turned off only anthropogenic  
214 emissions from the BTH region. Emissions from other regions,  
215 meteorological fields, biogenic fluxes, and boundary conditions were  
216 identical to those in the corresponding baseline experiments. The  
217 experimental design is summarized in Table 1.

218 Table 1. Design of the baseline and sensitivity experiments.

Experiment name	Emission scenario design
BASE_2016	Anthropogenic CO <sub>2</sub> emissions from MEIC V2.0 for 2016 were used as the baseline emission scenario.
SEN_noBTH_2016	Anthropogenic CO <sub>2</sub> emissions in the BTH region were set to zero, while emissions from other regions were kept the same as in BASE_2016.
BASE_2030	Anthropogenic CO <sub>2</sub> emissions in 2030 under the on-time peak net-zero clean-air pathway from DPEC V1.2 were used as the carbon peaking emission scenario.
SEN_noBTH_2030	Anthropogenic CO <sub>2</sub> emissions in the BTH region were set to zero, while emissions from other regions were kept the same as in BASE_2030.
BASE_2060	Anthropogenic CO <sub>2</sub> emissions in 2060 under the on-time peak net-zero clean-air pathway from DPEC V1.2 were used as the carbon neutrality emission scenario.
SEN_noBTH_2060	Anthropogenic CO <sub>2</sub> emissions in the BTH region were set to zero, while emissions from other regions were kept the same as in BASE_2060.

219 2.3 Diagnostic variables

220 Two CO<sub>2</sub> concentration diagnostics were analyzed. The first was the  
221 near-surface atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, defined as the CO<sub>2</sub> mole  
222 fraction at the lowest model level. This variable represents the combined  
223 effects of near-surface anthropogenic emissions, terrestrial ecosystem



224 exchange, boundary-layer mixing, and local transport, and is referred to  
225 here as surface CO<sub>2</sub>. The second was the column-averaged dry-air CO<sub>2</sub>  
226 mole fraction, referred to as XCO<sub>2</sub>. It was calculated by  
227 pressure-weighted integration of CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations across the model  
228 vertical layers and was used to characterize the column-averaged CO<sub>2</sub>  
229 response over the atmospheric column.

230 XCO<sub>2</sub> was calculated as follows:

$$XCO_2 = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{50} (CO_2 \times \Delta p)_k}{p_{bottom} - p_{top}} \quad (1)$$

231 where  $CO_{2k}$  is the CO<sub>2</sub> mole fraction in the  $k$ th vertical layer,  $\Delta p_k$   
232 is the pressure thickness of that layer,  $k$  is the number of model vertical  
233 layers included in the integration, and  $p_{bottom}$  and  $p_{top}$  denote the  
234 pressure at the bottom and top of the model vertical column, respectively.  
235 In this study, XCO<sub>2</sub> was calculated using the layer-by-layer pressure  
236 thickness from the WRF-VPRM output and was used for model  
237 validation and analysis of the emission pathway responses.

238 To quantify the contributions of different sources to atmospheric  
239 CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, the model output included three CO<sub>2</sub> tracer  
240 components: the background component, the biogenic component, and  
241 the anthropogenic component. Total CO<sub>2</sub> can be expressed as follows:

$$CO_2^{Total} = CO_2^{ANT} + CO_2^{BIO} + CO_2^{BCK} \quad (2)$$

242 Correspondingly, XCO<sub>2</sub> can be expressed as follows:



$$XCO_2^{Total} = XCO_2^{ANT} + XCO_2^{BIO} + XCO_2^{BCK} \quad (3)$$

243 where  $CO_2^{ANT}$  represents the concentration enhancement caused by  
244 anthropogenic emissions,  $CO_2^{BIO}$  represents the concentration change  
245 caused by net terrestrial ecosystem  $CO_2$  exchange, and  $CO_2^{BCK}$   
246 represents the background  $CO_2$  contribution determined by the initial and  
247 boundary conditions. The corresponding column concentration  
248 components are denoted as  $XCO_2^{ANT}$ ,  $XCO_2^{BIO}$ , and  $XCO_2^{BCK}$ ,  
249 respectively. In this study, a positive biogenic contribution indicates an  
250 increase in  $CO_2$  concentration caused by net ecosystem release, while a  
251 negative value indicates a decrease in  $CO_2$  concentration caused by net  
252 ecosystem uptake.

253 To quantify the attenuation of the surface  $CO_2$  signal during its  
254 transfer to the full atmospheric column, an attenuation factor was defined  
255 as follows:

$$F_{att} = \frac{\Delta XCO_2}{\Delta_{surface} CO_2} \quad (4)$$

256 where  $\Delta XCO_2$  and  $\Delta_{surface} CO_2$  represent the changes in  $XCO_2$   
257 and surface  $CO_2$  in a future scenario relative to the 2016 baseline scenario,  
258 respectively. A smaller  $F_{att}$  indicates stronger dilution of the near-surface  
259 concentration signal during column averaging.

260 The seasonal amplitude of the anthropogenic contribution, the  
261 biogenic contribution, and their combined contribution was defined as the  
262 difference between the maximum and minimum values of the monthly



263 mean series within a year.

$$A = X_{max} - X_{min} \quad (5)$$

#### 264 2.4 Validation data and evaluation metrics

265 The Mapping-XCO<sub>2</sub> dataset (Sheng et al., 2023) was used to  
266 evaluate the ability of the model to simulate atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> over China  
267 in 2016. This dataset has a spatial resolution of 1° × 1° and a temporal  
268 resolution of 3 d. It integrates multi-source satellite XCO<sub>2</sub> observations  
269 and fills data gaps, providing a continuous reference for regional-scale  
270 spatiotemporal variations in XCO<sub>2</sub>.

271 Model performance was evaluated using three metrics: the  
272 correlation coefficient (R), mean bias (MB), and root mean square error  
273 (RMSE). R measures the consistency of temporal variations between the  
274 simulations and observations. MB characterizes the systematic model  
275 bias, and RMSE represents the overall magnitude of the simulation error.

276 These metrics were calculated as follows:

$$R = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - \bar{M})(O_i - \bar{O})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - \bar{M})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (O_i - \bar{O})^2}} \quad (6)$$

$$MB = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - O_i) \quad (7)$$

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - O_i)^2} \quad (8)$$

277 In the equation,  $M_i$  and  $O_i$  denote the simulated and reference  
278 values for the  $i$ th sample, respectively;  $\bar{M}$  and  $\bar{O}$  denote the mean



279 simulated and reference values, respectively; and  $n$  is the number of  
280 samples. The 2016 validation results were used to evaluate the ability of  
281 the model to reproduce XCO<sub>2</sub> variations over China and to provide a  
282 basis for the reliability of the subsequent scenario analysis.

### 283 2.5 Contribution decomposition and regional transport analysis

284 For the contribution analysis, the BTH region was treated as the  
285 receptor region. Local emission and external regional transport  
286 contributions were separated using sensitivity experiments in which  
287 anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in the BTH region were set to zero. Let  
288  $CO_2^{ANT}_{BASE}$  denote the anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> contribution in the baseline  
289 experiment, and  $CO_2^{ANT}_{SEN\_noBTH}$  denote the corresponding result after  
290 anthropogenic emissions in the BTH region were set to zero. For the BTH  
291 receptor region, the local emission contribution was defined as follows:

$$CO_2^{local\_BTH} = CO_2^{ANT}_{BASE} - CO_2^{ANT}_{SEN\_noBTH} \quad (9)$$

292 After emissions in the BTH region were set to zero, the remaining  
293 anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> in the BTH region mainly originated from emissions  
294 outside the region that were transported into the BTH region. The  
295 external transport contribution was therefore defined as follows:

$$CO_2^{transport\_toBTH} = CO_2^{ANT}_{SEN\_noBTH} \quad (10)$$

296 The fractions of the external transport contribution and the local  
297 contribution, together with the local-to-transport ratio, were calculated as  
298 follows:



$$R_{transport\_toBTH} = \frac{CO_2^{transport\_toBTH}}{CO_2^{ANT}_{BASE}} \times 100\% \quad (11)$$

$$R_{local\_BTH} = \frac{CO_2^{local\_BTH}}{CO_2^{ANT}_{BASE}} \times 100\% \quad (12)$$

$$f = \frac{CO_2^{local\_BTH}}{CO_2^{transport\_toBTH}} \quad (13)$$

299 By comparing  $CO_2^{local\_BTH}$ ,  $CO_2^{transport\_toBTH}$ , and their  
300 corresponding fractions, the dominant control on anthropogenic  $CO_2$   
301 enhancement in the BTH region could be identified under different  
302 emission pathways.

303 In the regional case analysis, high- $CO_2$  episodes were identified  
304 using the hourly anthropogenic  $CO_2$  contribution at the backward  
305 trajectory receptor point. They were then classified using the contribution  
306 decomposition and meteorological background. An episode was classified  
307 as locally dominated when the local emission contribution accounted for  
308 at least 70% of the anthropogenic  $CO_2$  enhancement, exceeded the  
309 external transport contribution by at least 30 percentage points, and was  
310 accompanied by weak winds, a relatively low boundary layer, and  
311 regional stagnation. An episode was classified as transport dominated  
312 when the external transport contribution accounted for at least 70%,  
313 exceeded the local contribution by at least 30 percentage points, and  
314 occurred under favorable transport conditions. Based on these criteria, 14  
315 to 16 January was selected as the locally dominated episode, and 26 to 28  
316 January was selected as the transport-dominated episode.



317 Backward trajectory and PSCF analyses were conducted to identify  
318 upstream transport pathways and potential source regions (Ashbaugh et  
319 al., 1985; Zeng and Hopke, 1989; Stein et al., 2015; Rolph et al., 2017).  
320 Backward trajectories were calculated using the Hybrid Single-Particle  
321 Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model driven by the  
322 meteorological fields simulated by WRF-VPRM. The trajectory receptor  
323 point was located at 39.8°N, 116.5°E, with a starting height of 100 m and  
324 a backward tracking duration of 72 h.

325 PSCF was used to estimate the probability that potential source  
326 regions contributed to high-CO<sub>2</sub> episodes at the receptor point. The  
327 hourly external transport contribution  $CO_2^{transport\_toBTH}$  was used as the  
328 criterion variable. This reduced the influence of background-field  
329 variations and local accumulation on the identification of potential source  
330 regions. PSCF was defined as follows:

$$PSCF_{ij} = \frac{m_{ij}}{n_{ij}} \quad (14)$$

331 where  $n_{ij}$  is the number of times that all backward trajectories  
332 passed through grid cell (i,j), and  $m_{ij}$  is the number of trajectory  
333 endpoints in that grid cell for which the corresponding external transport  
334 contribution at the receptor point exceeded the prescribed threshold. The  
335 threshold was defined as the 70th percentile of hourly  $CO_2^{transport\_toBTH}$   
336 during the corresponding case period. To reduce the instability caused by  
337 grid cells with a small number of trajectory endpoints, a weighting factor



338  $W_{ij}$  was applied to correct PSCF:

$$WPSCF = W_{ij} \times PSCF_{ij} \quad (15)$$

339 where  $W_{ij}$  was determined according to the number of trajectory

340 endpoints in each grid cell and was defined as follows:

$$W_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1.00, & 80 < n_{ij} \\ 0.70, & 20 < n_{ij} \leq 80 \\ 0.42, & 10 < n_{ij} \leq 20 \\ 0.05, & n_{ij} \leq 10 \end{cases} \quad (16)$$

341 By combining sensitivity experiments, contribution decomposition,  
342 backward trajectory analysis, and PSCF analysis, this study explained the  
343 roles of local emissions and regional transport in high CO<sub>2</sub> episodes in the  
344 BTH region from the perspectives of both contribution magnitude and  
345 transport pathways.

### 346 3. Results

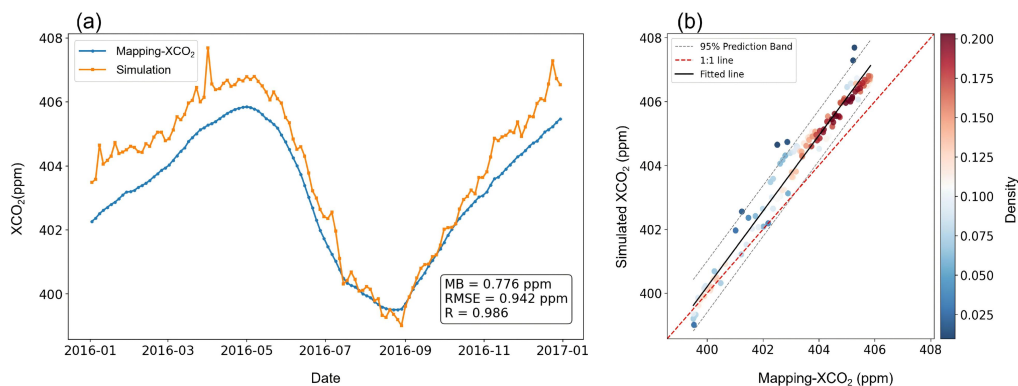
#### 347 3.1 Evaluation of simulated XCO<sub>2</sub> over China

348 Before analyzing the responses to different emission pathways, the  
349 2016 simulation of China-averaged XCO<sub>2</sub> was evaluated using the  
350 Mapping-XCO<sub>2</sub> dataset. As shown in Fig. 2a, both the simulation and the  
351 dataset showed a consistent seasonal cycle. XCO<sub>2</sub> increased in spring and  
352 reached its annual maximum from April to May, decreased in summer as  
353 terrestrial ecosystem uptake strengthened, reached its annual minimum  
354 from August to September, and then rebounded in autumn and winter.  
355 WRF-VPRM reproduced this seasonal phase reasonably well. The  
356 simulation showed a slight positive bias relative to Mapping-XCO<sub>2</sub>, with



357 an MB of 0.776 ppm, an RMSE of 0.942 ppm, and an R of 0.986. The  
 358 scatter density distribution in Fig. 2b further shows that most samples  
 359 were clustered near the 1:1 line. The fitted line was slightly above the 1:1  
 360 line, consistent with the weak positive bias in the time series.

361 This evaluation indicates that WRF-VPRM reasonably reproduced  
 362 the seasonal variation and concentration magnitude of XCO<sub>2</sub> over China  
 363 in 2016. It supports the subsequent analysis of differences in the  
 364 responses of surface CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub> over terrestrial China under different  
 365 emission pathways.



366  
 367 Figure 2. Comparison of simulated China-averaged XCO<sub>2</sub> in 2016 with  
 368 the Mapping-XCO<sub>2</sub> dataset. (a) Time series of China-averaged XCO<sub>2</sub>. (b)  
 369 Scatter density plot of simulated XCO<sub>2</sub> against Mapping-XCO<sub>2</sub>. The red  
 370 dashed line indicates the 1:1 line, the black solid line indicates the linear  
 371 fit, the gray dashed lines indicate the 95% prediction interval, and the  
 372 colors indicate sample density.

373 3.2 Differences in anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions among the three

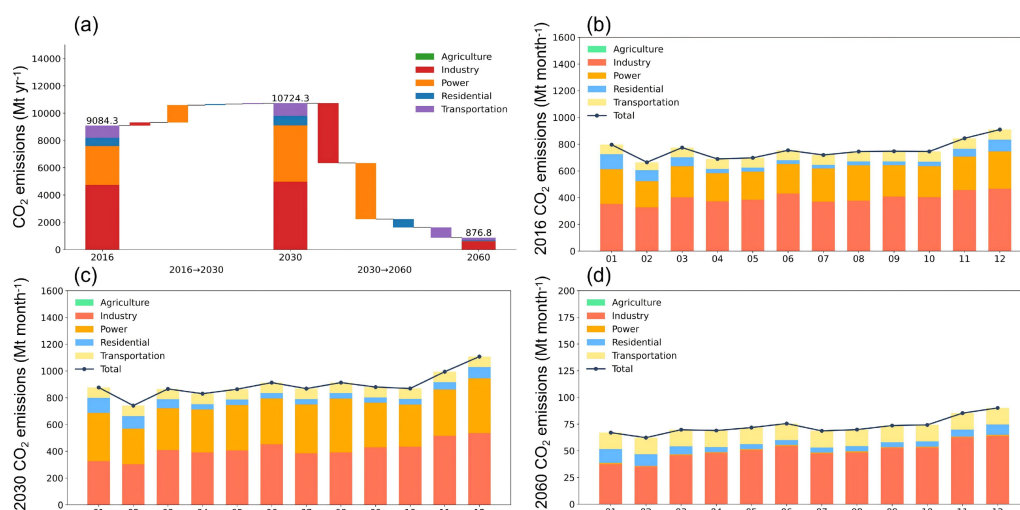


374 pathways

375       Before analyzing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> responses, it is necessary to  
376 characterize the anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emission inputs under the different  
377 pathways. As shown in Fig. 3a, national anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in  
378 2016 were 9084.29 Mt yr<sup>-1</sup>. The industrial and power sectors contributed  
379 4741.26 and 2850.34 Mt yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, together accounting for 83.6%  
380 of the national total. Under the 2030 carbon peaking scenario, national  
381 emissions increased to 10724.27 Mt yr<sup>-1</sup>, about 18.1% higher than in 2016.  
382 The increase mainly came from the power and industrial sectors, with the  
383 power sector alone increasing by 1265.24 Mt yr<sup>-1</sup>. Under the 2060 carbon  
384 neutrality scenario, national anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions decreased to  
385 876.80 Mt yr<sup>-1</sup>, representing reductions of about 90.3% relative to 2016  
386 and 91.8% relative to 2030. The remaining emissions were mainly  
387 concentrated in the industrial and transportation sectors, which  
388 contributed 598.70 and 186.52 Mt yr<sup>-1</sup>, accounting for 68.3% and 21.3%,  
389 respectively. Emissions from the power sector decreased to 11.13 Mt yr<sup>-1</sup>.  
390 These results indicate that deep emission reductions were mainly  
391 reflected in large decreases in power and industrial emissions, whereas  
392 residual emissions were concentrated in industrial and transportation  
393 sectors that are harder to eliminate completely. Figures 3b to d show the  
394 monthly emission variations. Emissions were higher in winter and lower  
395 in summer in both 2016 and 2030. Monthly emissions in 2030 were



396 generally higher than those in 2016, with a more pronounced increase in  
 397 winter. In 2060, monthly emissions were strongly reduced in all months,  
 398 although weak seasonal variations remained. This suggests that residual  
 399 emissions from the industrial, transportation, and residential sectors may  
 400 still contribute to seasonal CO<sub>2</sub> variability after deep emission reductions.



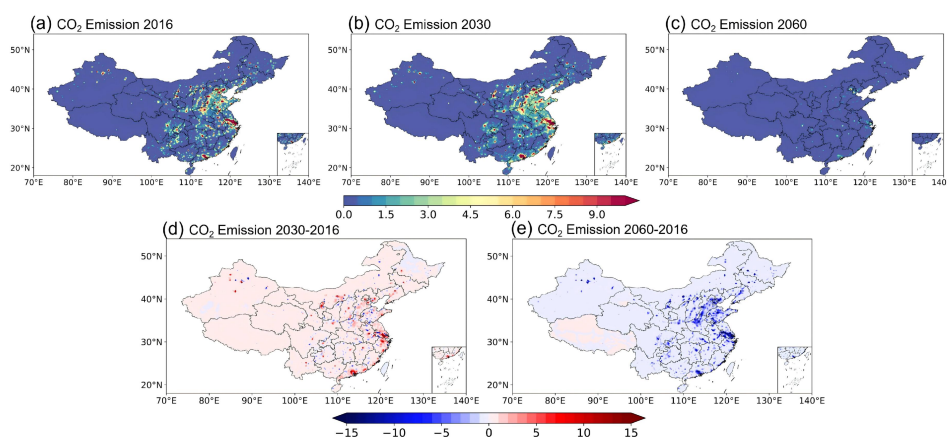
401  
 402 Figure 3. National total anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, sectoral  
 403 contributions, and monthly variations in 2016, 2030, and 2060. (a)  
 404 Annual total emissions and sectoral contribution decomposition (Mt yr<sup>-1</sup>).  
 405 (b to d) Monthly anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and sectoral contributions  
 406 in 2016, 2030, and 2060, respectively (Mt month<sup>-1</sup>).

407 Spatially, high anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in 2016 were  
 408 concentrated in urban agglomerations and industrial regions in eastern  
 409 and central China, including the BTH region, Shandong, the Yangtze  
 410 River Delta, the Pearl River Delta, Henan, Shanxi, and the



411 Chengdu-Chongqing region. In 2030, the spatial pattern of emissions  
412 largely followed the high-emission belts in 2016, with further  
413 enhancement in North China, East China, and some industrial cities in  
414 central and western China. In 2060, most high-emission regions across  
415 China were strongly weakened, and high-value areas contracted to a few  
416 industrial and urban agglomerations.

417 These results show that changes in emission pathways altered the  
418 national total emissions, sectoral structure, and spatial distribution. These  
419 changes further affected the magnitude, spatial pattern, and regional  
420 transport contribution of the surface CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub> responses.



421

422 Figure 4. Spatial distributions and differences of anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub>  
423 emissions over terrestrial China in 2016, 2030, and 2060. (a to c)  
424 Anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emission intensities in 2016, 2030, and 2060,  
425 respectively. (d) Difference in emissions between 2030 and 2016. (e)  
426 Difference in emissions between 2060 and 2016. Positive values indicate



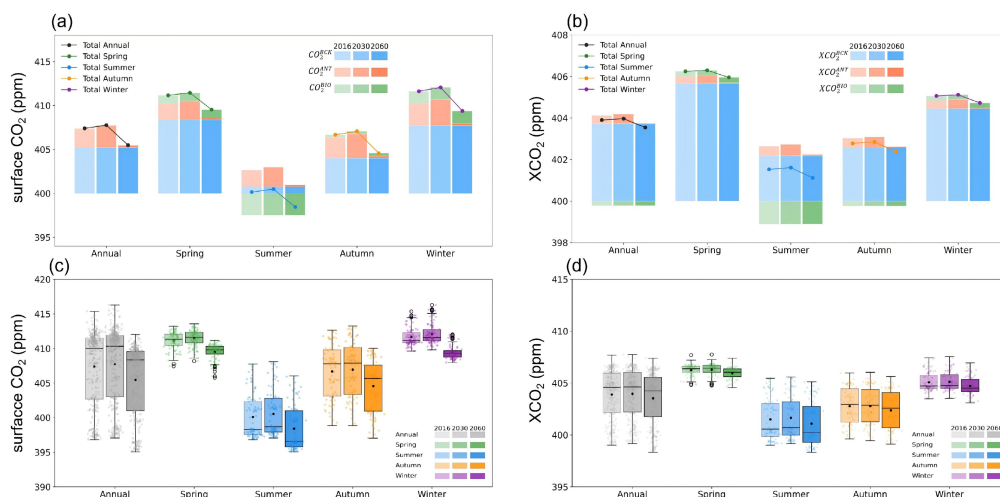
427 emission increases in the future scenarios, and negative values indicate  
428 emission reductions. Unit: Mt yr<sup>-1</sup> grid<sup>-1</sup>.

### 429 3.3 Responses of surface CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub> to different pathways

430 After characterizing the anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emission inputs under  
431 the three pathways, we analyzed the responses of surface CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub>  
432 over terrestrial China. Figures 5a and b show that CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations  
433 increased only slightly in 2030 relative to 2016 and decreased markedly  
434 in 2060. The annual mean surface CO<sub>2</sub> increased from 407.40 ppm in  
435 2016 to 407.76 ppm in 2030, an increase of 0.36 ppm. It then decreased  
436 to 405.49 ppm in 2060, 1.91 ppm lower than in 2016. XCO<sub>2</sub> showed the  
437 same direction of change but with a smaller magnitude, with values of  
438 403.90, 403.97, and 403.54 ppm in 2016, 2030, and 2060, respectively.  
439 These results indicate that the emission increase during the carbon  
440 peaking stage produced a detectable but weak enhancement signal, while  
441 deep emission reductions under the carbon neutrality pathway  
442 substantially reduced CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations over China. The component  
443 contributions indicate that the background component largely set the  
444 absolute concentration levels of surface CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub>. The  
445 anthropogenic contribution dominated the differences among scenarios,  
446 whereas the biogenic contribution mainly shaped the seasonal variations.  
447 Since the three scenarios used the same meteorological background, CO<sub>2</sub>  
448 initial conditions, and boundary conditions, the background component



449 varied little among scenarios. The anthropogenic contribution to surface  
450 CO<sub>2</sub> increased from 2.15 ppm in 2016 to 2.51 ppm in 2030 and decreased  
451 to 0.23 ppm in 2060. The anthropogenic contribution to XCO<sub>2</sub> increased  
452 from 0.40 to 0.47 ppm and then decreased to 0.04 ppm. This suggests that  
453 emission pathway changes affected total CO<sub>2</sub> mainly by changing the  
454 anthropogenic enhancement component. Figures 5c and d show that both  
455 surface CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub> were higher in winter and spring and lower in  
456 summer. For surface CO<sub>2</sub>, the mean concentrations in winter and spring  
457 in 2016 were 411.62 and 411.16 ppm, respectively, while the summer  
458 mean decreased to 400.14 ppm. In 2030, concentrations were generally  
459 higher than those in 2016 in all seasons, with the winter mean increasing  
460 to 412.06 ppm. In 2060, concentrations decreased in all seasons, with the  
461 summer mean decreasing to 398.46 ppm. XCO<sub>2</sub> had the same seasonal  
462 phase as surface CO<sub>2</sub>, but its daily variability and seasonal amplitude  
463 were smaller. These results indicate that enhanced terrestrial ecosystem  
464 uptake during the growing season can substantially offset the  
465 concentration enhancement caused by anthropogenic emissions. In the  
466 non-growing season, weaker biospheric uptake allows CO<sub>2</sub>  
467 concentrations to remain higher.



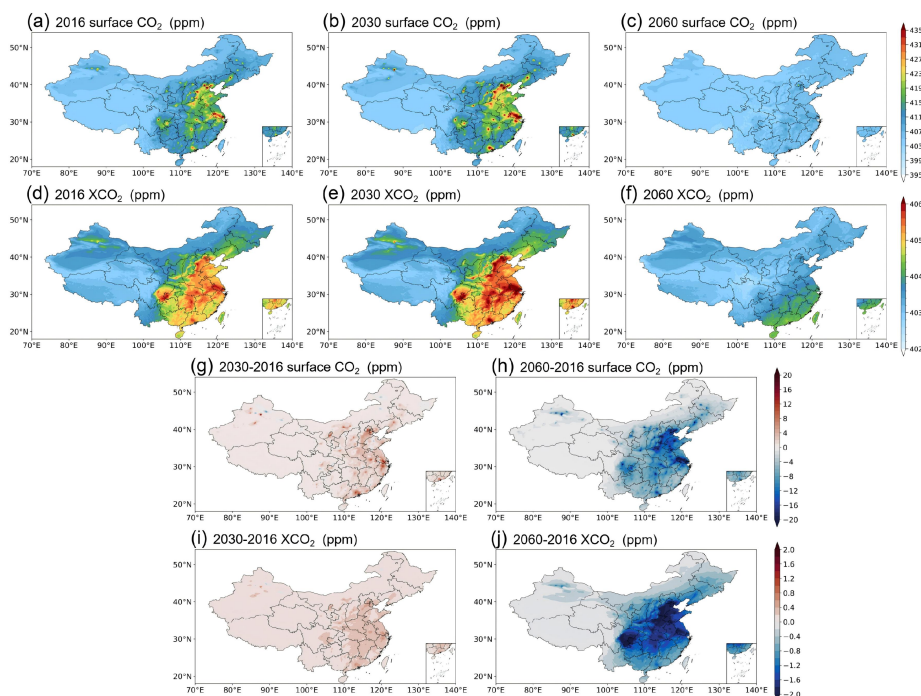
468

469 Figure 5. Annual mean, seasonal mean, and daily distributions of  
 470 China-averaged surface CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub> in 2016, 2030, and 2060. (a)  
 471 Annual and seasonal mean surface CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and the  
 472 contributions of the background, anthropogenic, and biogenic  
 473 components under the three scenarios. (b) Annual and seasonal mean  
 474 XCO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and the contributions of the background,  
 475 anthropogenic, and biogenic components under the three scenarios. (c)  
 476 Annual and seasonal boxplots of daily mean surface CO<sub>2</sub>. (d) Annual and  
 477 seasonal boxplots of daily mean XCO<sub>2</sub>. Unit: ppm.

478 Spatially, high surface CO<sub>2</sub> values were mainly located in urban  
 479 agglomerations and industrial activity centers in eastern and central China,  
 480 including the BTH region, Shandong, the Yangtze River Delta, the Pearl  
 481 River Delta, and central urban agglomerations. In 2030, the locations of  
 482 high surface CO<sub>2</sub> values were generally consistent with those in 2016,



483 with slight enhancement over the original high-emission regions. In 2060,  
484 high-value centers in eastern and central China were markedly weakened,  
485 and spatial contrasts decreased as anthropogenic emissions were reduced.  
486 The XCO<sub>2</sub> spatial field was smoother. Its high-value areas extended from  
487 eastern high-emission regions to surrounding areas, and the scenario  
488 differences were weaker than those of surface CO<sub>2</sub>. This indicates that  
489 surface CO<sub>2</sub> responds more directly to local emissions and  
490 boundary-layer accumulation, whereas XCO<sub>2</sub> reflects the combined  
491 effects of regional-scale accumulation, transport, and vertical averaging.



492  
493 Figure 6. Spatial distributions and scenario differences of surface CO<sub>2</sub>  
494 and XCO<sub>2</sub> over terrestrial China in 2016, 2030, and 2060. (a to c) Annual  
495 mean spatial distributions of surface CO<sub>2</sub> in 2016, 2030, and 2060,



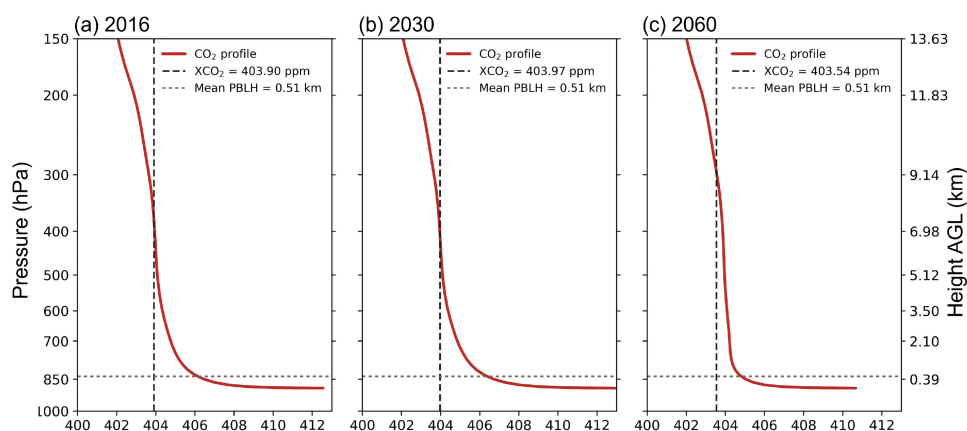
496 respectively. (d to f) Annual mean spatial distributions of XCO<sub>2</sub> in 2016,  
497 2030, and 2060, respectively. (g) Difference in surface CO<sub>2</sub> between 2030  
498 and 2016. (h) Difference in surface CO<sub>2</sub> between 2060 and 2016. (i)  
499 Difference in XCO<sub>2</sub> between 2030 and 2016. (j) Difference in XCO<sub>2</sub>  
500 between 2060 and 2016. Positive values indicate higher CO<sub>2</sub>  
501 concentrations in the future scenarios, and negative values indicate lower  
502 concentrations. Unit: ppm.

503 The vertical profiles in Fig. 7 further explain the difference in  
504 response magnitude between surface CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub>. Under all three  
505 scenarios, CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were higher in the lower layers and  
506 gradually decreased with altitude, indicating that the anthropogenic  
507 emission signal was mainly concentrated near the surface. In 2016 and  
508 2030, lower-tropospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and vertical gradients were  
509 relatively strong, and the lower-layer enhancement in 2030 was slightly  
510 larger than that in 2016. In 2060, lower-layer CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations  
511 decreased markedly and declined rapidly between 850 and 700 hPa.  
512 Because XCO<sub>2</sub> is a pressure-weighted average over the atmospheric  
513 column, the near-surface emission signal is diluted during column  
514 averaging. Its scenario response is therefore much weaker than that of  
515 surface CO<sub>2</sub>. The attenuation factor  $F_{att}$  further quantified this  
516 vertical-scale difference. On the annual mean scale, approximately 17.9%  
517 to 18.8% of the surface CO<sub>2</sub> change relative to 2016 was reflected in



518  $XCO_2$  in 2030 and 2060. On the monthly scale,  $F_{att}$  ranged from 0.124  
519 to 0.306 and from 0.142 to 0.294, respectively. This indicates that the  
520 vertical dilution effect was also influenced by seasonal boundary-layer  
521 structure and vertical mixing.

522 Overall, the  $CO_2$  concentration response over terrestrial China  
523 showed a clear pathway dependence under the 2016, 2030, and 2060  
524 emission pathways. The 2030 peaking pathway corresponded to a weak  
525 concentration enhancement, whereas the 2060 carbon neutrality pathway  
526 corresponded to a substantial concentration reduction. The background  
527 component provided the concentration baseline, the anthropogenic  
528 contribution determined the differences among scenarios, and the  
529 biogenic contribution shaped the seasonal phase. Surface  $CO_2$  responded  
530 more directly to emission changes.  $XCO_2$  retained the emission pathway  
531 signal, but this signal was strongly weakened by vertical integration and  
532 smoothing.



533

534 Figure 7. China-averaged vertical  $CO_2$  profiles and the corresponding



535 XCO<sub>2</sub> in 2016, 2030, and 2060. (a to c) Vertical CO<sub>2</sub> profiles under the  
536 2016, 2030, and 2060 scenarios, respectively. The red solid line indicates  
537 the variation in CO<sub>2</sub> concentration with pressure level, the black dashed  
538 line indicates the corresponding XCO<sub>2</sub>, and the gray dashed line indicates  
539 the annual mean planetary boundary-layer height over terrestrial China.  
540 The left axis denotes pressure, and the right axis denotes height above  
541 ground level, with units of hPa and km, respectively. CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub> are  
542 both given in ppm.

543 Table 2. Attenuation factor for the response difference between surface  
544 CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub>.

Scenario comparison	$\Delta_{surface} CO_2$ (ppm)	$\Delta XCO_2$ (ppm)	Annual $F_{att}$	Monthly $F_{att}$ range
2030-2016	0.363	0.065	0.179	0.124 to 0.306
2060-2016	-1.914	-0.359	0.188	0.142 to 0.294

545 3.4 Contributions of anthropogenic and biogenic components to the  
546 CO<sub>2</sub> response

547 The previous section showed that CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations over terrestrial  
548 China increased weakly in 2030 and decreased substantially in 2060. To  
549 explain the sources of these pathway-dependent responses, we  
550 decomposed the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration changes beyond the background  
551 component into anthropogenic and biogenic contributions and analyzed  
552 their combined effects on the monthly scale. In Fig. 8, the anthropogenic



553 contribution represents the concentration enhancement caused by  
554 emissions, while the biogenic contribution represents the concentration  
555 change caused by net terrestrial ecosystem CO<sub>2</sub> exchange. Their sum  
556 represents the net concentration effect of the combined anthropogenic and  
557 biogenic contributions.

558 For surface CO<sub>2</sub>, the anthropogenic contribution was positive  
559 throughout the year and acted as the direct source of concentration  
560 enhancement under all three pathways. In 2016 and 2030, the  
561 anthropogenic contribution was relatively strong, keeping the net effect  
562 positive in winter and spring. As emissions reached their peak in 2030,  
563 the anthropogenic contribution increased further. The combined  
564 anthropogenic and biogenic contribution reached 5.17 ppm in December,  
565 higher than the 4.45 ppm in 2016. The biogenic contribution showed a  
566 strong seasonal cycle. It became negative in summer when vegetation  
567 uptake strengthened and offset the anthropogenic enhancement from July  
568 to August. The combined contributions in July and August were -1.20 and  
569 -0.98 ppm in 2016 and narrowed to -0.90 and -0.58 ppm in 2030,  
570 respectively. This indicates that increased anthropogenic emissions during  
571 the carbon peaking stage weakened the near-surface CO<sub>2</sub> reduction  
572 caused by growing-season carbon uptake. In 2060, the contribution  
573 structure changed markedly. The anthropogenic contribution decreased  
574 substantially under deep emission reductions and was no longer sufficient



575 to offset biogenic uptake from June to September. The combined  
576 contribution therefore remained negative, reaching -2.73 and -2.90 ppm  
577 in July and August, respectively. The amplitude results further support  
578 this interpretation. The biogenic amplitude of surface CO<sub>2</sub> was 4.70 ppm  
579 under all three scenarios, indicating that the absolute seasonal variability  
580 of the biogenic contribution remained nearly unchanged under the  
581 experimental design with fixed vegetation indices, meteorological fields,  
582 and VPRM parameters. In contrast, the anthropogenic amplitude  
583 increased from 1.54 ppm in 2016 to 1.92 ppm in 2030 and then decreased  
584 to 0.17 ppm in 2060. In 2060, the amplitude of the combined contribution  
585 was 4.71 ppm, almost identical to the biogenic amplitude. This indicates  
586 that the seasonal variation in surface CO<sub>2</sub> under the carbon neutrality  
587 pathway was controlled more strongly by terrestrial ecosystem uptake  
588 and release.

589 XCO<sub>2</sub> retained a seasonal phase similar to that of surface CO<sub>2</sub>, but  
590 both anthropogenic and biogenic signals were weakened by column  
591 averaging. In 2016 and 2030, the combined XCO<sub>2</sub> contribution was  
592 positive in winter and spring and became negative in summer. The  
593 positive contribution in March 2030 was 0.82 ppm, slightly higher than  
594 the 0.78 ppm in 2016. This indicates that the enhanced anthropogenic  
595 contribution under the carbon peaking pathway could still be transmitted  
596 to the column concentration. By 2060, the anthropogenic contribution

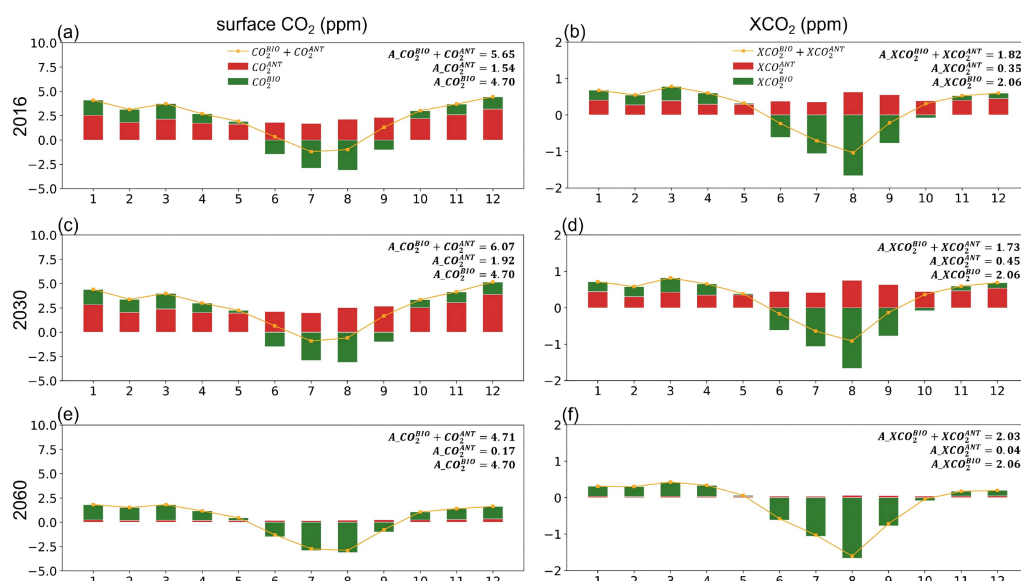


597 decreased markedly, and the relative role of the summer biogenic carbon  
598 sink increased. The combined XCO<sub>2</sub> contribution decreased to -1.60 ppm  
599 in August. Compared with surface CO<sub>2</sub>, XCO<sub>2</sub> showed smaller monthly  
600 variability, indicating that near-surface signals were strongly smoothed  
601 during full-column integration. The amplitude analysis further shows that  
602 the seasonal variability of the anthropogenic contribution in XCO<sub>2</sub> was  
603 weak. The anthropogenic amplitudes of XCO<sub>2</sub> in 2016, 2030, and 2060  
604 were 0.35, 0.45, and 0.04 ppm, respectively, much smaller than the  
605 corresponding biogenic amplitude of 2.06 ppm. By 2060, the  
606 anthropogenic amplitude became very small, while the amplitude of the  
607 combined contribution was 2.03 ppm, close to the biogenic amplitude.  
608 This indicates that, on the column-averaged scale, the biogenic  
609 contribution not only formed the summer minimum but also dominated  
610 the seasonal phase of XCO<sub>2</sub> under the deep-mitigation scenario.

611 Overall, the anthropogenic contribution determined the main  
612 concentration differences among the emission pathways, while the  
613 biogenic contribution mainly shaped the seasonal phase. As the  
614 anthropogenic contribution and its seasonal amplitude decreased  
615 substantially in 2060, the relative role of terrestrial ecosystem exchange  
616 in regulating CO<sub>2</sub> seasonality increased markedly. Because the  
617 anthropogenic contribution was the main source of CO<sub>2</sub> response  
618 differences among the pathways, the following regional case analysis



619 focuses on the local emission and external transport components within  
 620 the anthropogenic contribution.



621  
 622 Figure 8. Monthly variations in the anthropogenic contribution, biogenic  
 623 contribution, and their combined contribution to surface CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub>  
 624 in 2016, 2030, and 2060. Red bars indicate the anthropogenic  
 625 contribution, green bars indicate the biogenic contribution, and the yellow  
 626 line indicates their combined contribution. Unit: ppm. *A* denotes the  
 627 seasonal amplitude, defined as the difference between the maximum and  
 628 minimum values of the 12-month mean series.

### 629 3.5 Regional case studies: local emissions versus regional transport

630 The anthropogenic contribution was the main source of CO<sub>2</sub>  
 631 response differences among the emission pathways. This section therefore  
 632 focuses on the internal structure of the anthropogenic contribution and



633 examines the relative roles of local emissions and external regional  
634 transport during high-CO<sub>2</sub> episodes in the BTH region. Two typical  
635 episodes were selected: 14 to 16 January, representing a locally  
636 dominated episode, and 26 to 28 January, representing a  
637 transport-dominated episode. The same contribution decomposition  
638 framework was applied to both cases. Anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> in the baseline  
639 and sensitivity experiments was decomposed into the local emission  
640 contribution from the BTH region and the external regional transport  
641 contribution. Backward trajectory and PSCF analyses were then used to  
642 identify the main transport pathways and potential source regions. PSCF  
643 was mainly used to identify potential source regions and transport  
644 pathways, while scenario differences in contribution intensity were  
645 evaluated using the quantitative results of the sensitivity experiments.

#### 646 3.5.1 Locally dominated episode

647 During the 14 to 16 January episode, anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub>  
648 concentrations in the BTH region were mainly controlled by local  
649 emission accumulation. As shown in Fig. 9, high anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub>  
650 values in the 2016 and 2030 baseline experiments were concentrated over  
651 the BTH region and neighboring industrial and urban agglomerations.  
652 After anthropogenic emissions in the BTH region were set to zero, high  
653 values in the receptor region were markedly weakened. The near-surface  
654 wind fields in Fig. 9b, e, and h were weak. Airflow over the BTH region

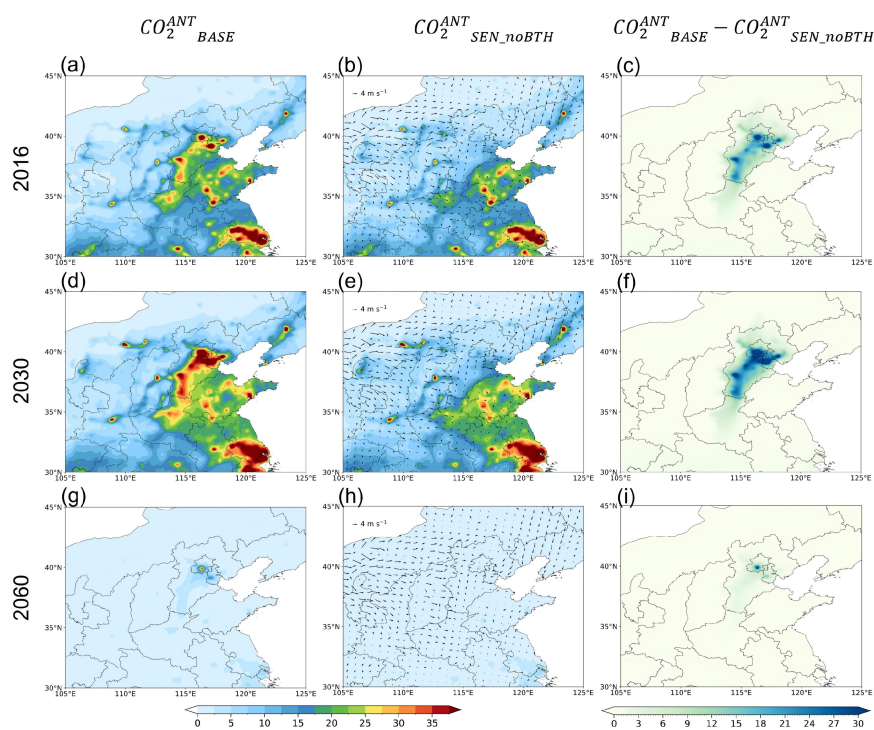


655 and its surrounding areas showed slow transport and local stagnation,  
656 which favored the near-surface accumulation of local emissions. The  
657 corresponding local emission contribution formed clear near-source  
658 enhancement centers over Beijing, Tianjin, and central and southern  
659 Hebei. Table 3 further shows that the local contribution in the BTH region  
660 was 13.92 ppm in 2016, while the external transport contribution was  
661 5.45 ppm. The local contribution accounted for 71.86%. In 2030, the  
662 local contribution increased to 21.34 ppm, and its fraction rose to 75.67%.  
663 In 2060, both the local and external transport contributions decreased  
664 substantially, while the fraction of the local contribution further increased  
665 to 86.90%. These results indicate that anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations  
666 during this episode were mainly controlled by local emissions in the BTH  
667 region. The emission increase in 2030 amplified local accumulation,  
668 whereas deep emission reductions in 2060 substantially weakened the  
669 absolute enhancement.

670 The backward trajectory and PSCF results indicate that the potential  
671 source regions of the locally dominated episode were relatively  
672 concentrated. The trajectories in Fig. 10 were mainly distributed over the  
673 western and eastern areas adjacent to the BTH region. The PSCF  
674 high-value regions showed a narrow-band distribution, mainly extending  
675 along the short-range transport corridor east of the BTH region. The  
676 PSCF spatial pattern was similar among the three scenarios, indicating



677 that under the same meteorological background, potential transport  
678 pathways were mainly determined by the airflow trajectories. In 2030,  
679 relatively high PSCF values were found near Shenyang, suggesting that  
680 this area was a comparatively strong potential source region. This result  
681 indicates that, under enhanced emissions in surrounding regions, high  
682 external transport events were more likely to occur along the transport  
683 pathway. Although a similar potential transport corridor remained in 2060,  
684 the external transport contribution in Table 3 decreased markedly,  
685 showing that deep emission reductions weakened the actual transport  
686 intensity along this pathway.

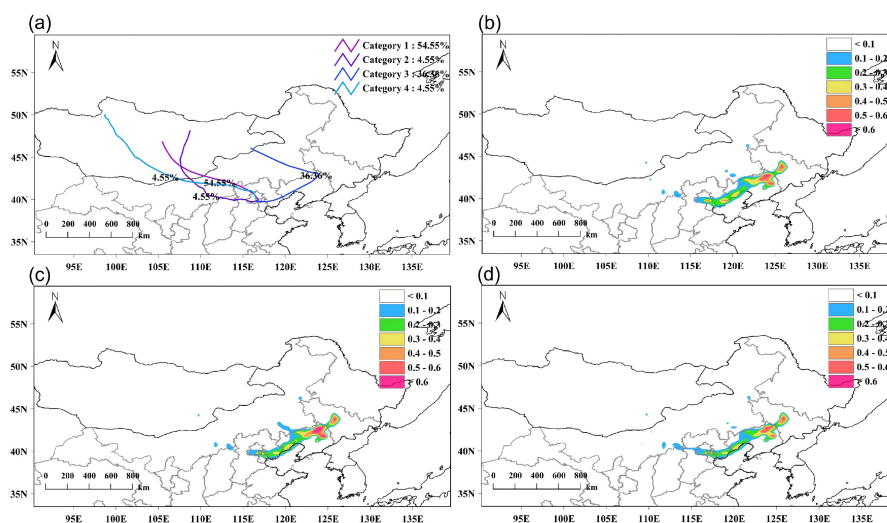


687

688 Figure 9. Decomposition of anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> contributions over the



689 Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH) region and surrounding areas during the  
 690 locally dominated episode. (a, d, g) Anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> contributions in  
 691 the baseline experiments for 2016, 2030, and 2060, respectively. (b, e, h)  
 692 External regional transport contributions under the corresponding  
 693 scenarios, with vectors indicating the near-surface wind field. (c, f, i)  
 694 Local emission contributions from the BTH region. Unit: ppm.



695  
 696 Figure 10. Backward trajectory clustering and PSCF analysis for the  
 697 locally dominated episode. (a) Clusters of 72 h backward trajectories,  
 698 where different colors indicate different trajectory types and percentages  
 699 indicate the proportion of each trajectory type. (b, c, d) Spatial  
 700 distributions of PSCF in 2016, 2030, and 2060, respectively, calculated  
 701 based on the external transport contribution.

702 Table 3. Local emission and external transport contributions in the BTH  
 703 region during the locally dominated episode.



Year	Local contribution (ppm)	External transport contribution (ppm)	Local fraction (%)	External transport fraction (%)	Local-to-transport ratio
2016	13.92	5.45	71.86%	28.14%	2.55
2030	21.34	6.86	75.67%	24.33%	3.11
2060	6.30	0.95	86.90%	13.10%	6.63

704 3.5.2 Transport-dominated episode

705 During the 26 to 28 January episode, anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub>  
706 concentrations in the BTH region were dominated by external regional  
707 transport. Figures 11a and d show that high anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> values in  
708 2016 and 2030 occurred within the BTH region and were also widely  
709 distributed over Shandong, Henan, Liaoning, and surrounding areas of  
710 North China. In Fig. 11b, e, and h, the near-surface wind fields formed a  
711 clear transport pathway over the BTH region and its surroundings.  
712 Airflow entered the BTH region from the west to northwest and then  
713 moved southward, producing high anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> contributions near  
714 the receptor region. Table 4 shows that the external transport contribution  
715 in 2016 was 9.84 ppm, much higher than the local contribution of 2.19  
716 ppm, with an external transport fraction of 81.80%. In 2030, the external  
717 transport contribution increased to 15.69 ppm, accounting for 83.46%. In  
718 2060, the external transport contribution decreased to 4.09 ppm, although  
719 its fraction remained high at 84.16%. These results indicate that external



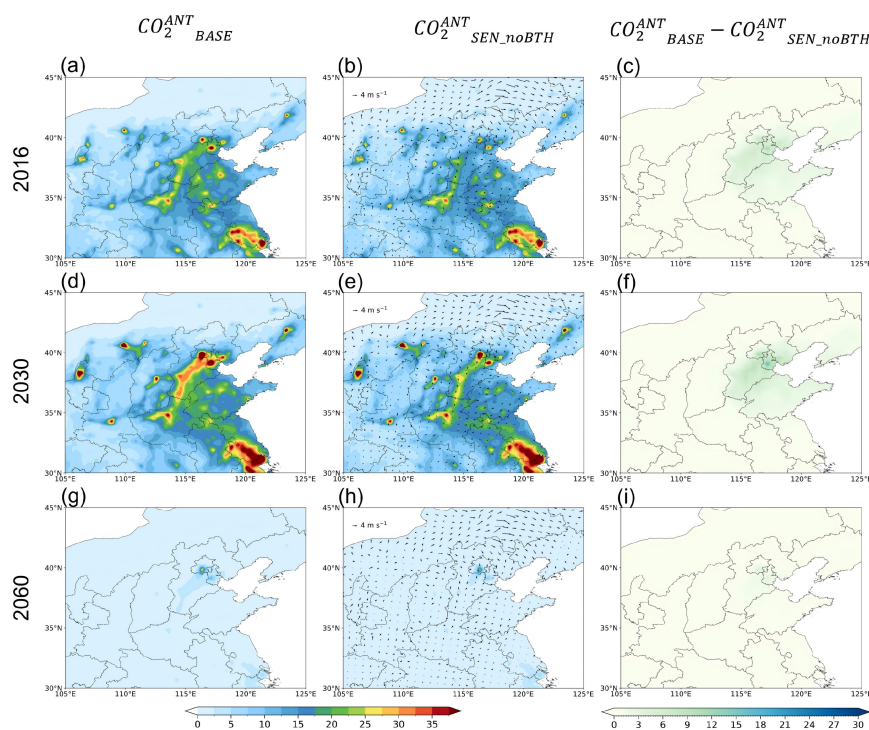
720 regional transport can dominate anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> enhancement in the  
721 BTH region under favorable transport conditions.

722 Figure 12 shows that this transport-dominated episode had a clearer  
723 upstream pathway. The backward trajectories mainly entered the BTH  
724 region from the west to northwest. The PSCF high-value regions showed  
725 a band-shaped distribution from central Inner Mongolia, northern Shanxi,  
726 and northern Hebei to the BTH region. These areas were important  
727 potential source regions affecting high anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> values in  
728 Beijing. In 2030, the PSCF high-value belt became more continuous,  
729 suggesting that under enhanced emissions along the transport corridor in  
730 the carbon peaking scenario, high external transport events were more  
731 likely to occur along this pathway. In 2060, PSCF still indicated a similar  
732 pathway, but the external transport contribution in Table 4 decreased from  
733 9.84 ppm in 2016 to 4.09 ppm. This indicates that emission reductions  
734 substantially weakened the actual transport intensity under the same  
735 meteorological pathway.

736 The comparison between the two episodes shows that high-CO<sub>2</sub>  
737 episodes in the BTH region had clear meteorological dependence and  
738 distinct source structures. During the locally dominated episode, the local  
739 contribution accounted for 71.86% to 86.90%, indicating that local  
740 emission accumulation was the main source. During the  
741 transport-dominated episode, the lower-level wind field formed a clearer



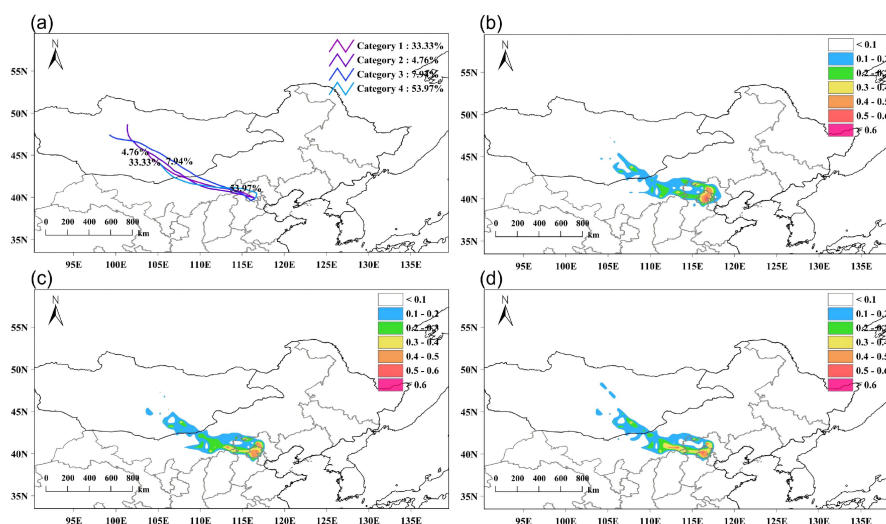
742 upstream inflow pathway, and the external regional contribution exceeded  
743 the local contribution. The emission pathway mainly changed the  
744 absolute contribution magnitude: the 2030 pathway amplified  
745 anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> contributions, whereas the 2060 pathway substantially  
746 weakened both local and external contributions. Meteorological transport  
747 conditions determined the relative roles of local accumulation and  
748 regional inflow. Therefore, evaluations of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration responses in  
749 key regions under the carbon peaking and carbon neutrality pathways  
750 should consider local emission reductions, coordinated mitigation in  
751 surrounding regions, and the modulation of anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub>  
752 contributions by meteorological transport conditions.



753



754 Figure 11. Decomposition of anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> contributions over the  
 755 BTH region and surrounding areas during the transport-dominated  
 756 episode. The panel settings are the same as in Fig. 9.



757  
 758 Figure 12. Backward trajectory clustering and PSCF analysis for the  
 759 transport-dominated episode. The panel settings are the same as in Fig.  
 760 10.

761 Table 4. Local emission and external transport contributions in the BTH  
 762 region during the transport-dominated episode.

Year	Local contribution (ppm)	External transport contribution (ppm)	Local fraction (%)	External transport fraction (%)	Local-to-transport ratio
2016	2.19	9.84	18.20%	81.80%	0.22
2030	3.11	15.69	16.54%	83.46%	0.20
2060	0.77	4.09	15.84%	84.16%	0.19



763 4. Discussion

764 4.1 Response of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations to the carbon  
765 peaking and carbon neutrality pathways

766 Studies of China's carbon peaking and carbon neutrality pathways  
767 have mainly focused on total emissions, energy structure, sectoral  
768 transitions, air quality improvement, and health benefits (Tong et al.,  
769 2020; Zhang and Chen, 2022a, b; Zhang et al., 2024; Zhou et al., 2024;  
770 Zhong et al., 2025). Building on these studies, this work examines how  
771 emission pathway changes translate into atmospheric concentration  
772 responses. The results show that the 2016, 2030, and 2060 emission  
773 pathways produced clear response signals in both surface CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub>  
774 over terrestrial China. Under the 2030 carbon peaking scenario, increased  
775 emissions led to a slight increase in CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Under the 2060  
776 carbon neutrality scenario, deep emission reductions substantially  
777 weakened anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> enhancement.

778 The magnitude of the concentration response was much smaller than  
779 the magnitude of the emission change. This indicates that after emissions  
780 enter the atmosphere, the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration response is jointly regulated  
781 by background concentration, boundary-layer mixing, vertical dilution,  
782 horizontal transport, and biospheric fluxes. Previous studies have shown  
783 that the absolute median difference between screened and bias-corrected  
784 OCO-2 XCO<sub>2</sub> and TCCON measurements is less than 0.4 ppm, although



785 residual biases related to latitude, surface properties, and aerosol  
786 scattering remain (Wunch et al., 2017). Evaluations of satellite XCO<sub>2</sub>  
787 products such as OCO-2 and OCO-3 also indicate that the uncertainty and  
788 RMSE of satellite XCO<sub>2</sub> are often on the order of 0.7 to 1.1 ppm (Taylor  
789 et al., 2023; Fang et al., 2023). XCO<sub>2</sub> enhancements caused by regional  
790 fossil fuel emissions are generally weak, and the emission reduction  
791 signal in column concentrations may be only on the order of 0.1 to 0.2  
792 ppm. It is therefore difficult to detect regional emission reductions  
793 directly using satellite XCO<sub>2</sub> alone (Buchwitz et al., 2021). In this study,  
794 the decrease in XCO<sub>2</sub> in 2060 was only 0.36 ppm, comparable to current  
795 satellite XCO<sub>2</sub> observational errors and regional systematic biases.  
796 High-resolution regional coupled models and contribution decomposition  
797 methods are therefore important for interpreting XCO<sub>2</sub> signals under deep  
798 emission reductions and for separating the anthropogenic and biospheric  
799 contributions to weak XCO<sub>2</sub> responses.

#### 800 4.2 Complementary significance of surface CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub>

801 Surface CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub> reflect CO<sub>2</sub> responses at different vertical  
802 scales. Surface CO<sub>2</sub> represents near-surface conditions and is more  
803 sensitive to local anthropogenic emissions, boundary-layer height,  
804 vertical mixing, and near-surface transport. It can therefore characterize  
805 emission accumulation and local variations near high-emission regions  
806 more directly. In this study, high surface CO<sub>2</sub> values mainly occurred in



807 anthropogenic emission-intensive regions, including the BTH region,  
808 Shandong, the Yangtze River Delta, the Pearl River Delta, and central  
809 urban agglomerations. These high values were slightly enhanced in 2030  
810 and markedly weakened in 2060, indicating that surface CO<sub>2</sub> is suitable  
811 for diagnosing the effect of emission pathway changes on near-surface  
812 concentrations.

813 XCO<sub>2</sub> represents a column-averaged quantity over the full  
814 atmospheric column and has a smoother spatial distribution. Because  
815 XCO<sub>2</sub> is a pressure-weighted average over the atmospheric column,  
816 near-surface concentration signals are diluted during vertical mixing and  
817 column averaging. The attenuation factor further quantified this  
818 difference. The annual mean  $F_{att}$  values for 2030 and 2060 relative to  
819 2016 were 0.179 and 0.188, respectively. Thus, only approximately 18%  
820 to 19% of the surface CO<sub>2</sub> change was reflected in XCO<sub>2</sub> on the annual  
821 mean scale. On the monthly scale,  $F_{att}$  ranged from 0.124 to 0.306 and  
822 from 0.142 to 0.294, respectively, indicating that this response conversion  
823 was also seasonally modulated by boundary-layer structure and vertical  
824 mixing.

825 Using surface CO<sub>2</sub> alone may overemphasize the influence of local  
826 emissions on the full atmospheric column, whereas using XCO<sub>2</sub> alone  
827 may underestimate the importance of near-surface emissions and  
828 boundary-layer processes. Combining surface CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub> allows



829 near-surface emission responses and regional-scale column responses to  
830 be identified simultaneously, making it more suitable for evaluating  
831 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> changes under the carbon peaking and carbon neutrality  
832 pathways.

#### 833 4.3 Co-regulation of anthropogenic and biogenic contributions to the 834 CO<sub>2</sub> response

835 The contribution decomposition results show that the anthropogenic  
836 contribution was the main source of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration differences among  
837 the emission pathways. In 2016 and 2030, the anthropogenic contribution  
838 was positive throughout the year and maintained relatively high CO<sub>2</sub>  
839 concentrations in winter and spring. After emissions reached their peak in  
840 2030, the anthropogenic contribution increased, leading to a slight  
841 increase in CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations relative to 2016. By 2060, the  
842 anthropogenic contribution had decreased substantially, and the  
843 anthropogenic enhancement components in both surface CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub>  
844 were markedly weakened. This indicates that deep emission reductions  
845 can effectively reduce the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> enhancement caused by  
846 anthropogenic emissions.

847 The biogenic contribution mainly regulated the seasonal phase. In  
848 summer, enhanced vegetation photosynthesis increased CO<sub>2</sub> uptake by  
849 terrestrial ecosystems, causing the biogenic contribution to become  
850 negative and offsetting part of the anthropogenic enhancement. After the



851 transition to carbon neutrality, the regulatory mechanism of atmospheric  
852 CO<sub>2</sub> changed markedly. During the high-emission stage, CO<sub>2</sub> differences  
853 among scenarios were mainly controlled by anthropogenic emissions,  
854 while biospheric fluxes mainly modulated the seasonal phase. By the  
855 carbon neutrality stage, both the absolute anthropogenic contribution and  
856 its seasonal amplitude had decreased substantially, and the relative  
857 influence of terrestrial ecosystem uptake and release on monthly CO<sub>2</sub>  
858 variations increased. This result suggests that even if future biogenic  
859 fluxes remain at current levels, deep emission reductions will make  
860 ecosystem processes more prominent in regulating seasonal atmospheric  
861 CO<sub>2</sub> variations.

#### 862 4.4 Influence of regional transport on high CO<sub>2</sub> episodes in key 863 regions

864 The BTH case results show that the source composition of high-CO<sub>2</sub>  
865 episodes was strongly modulated by meteorology. Under weak-wind and  
866 stagnant conditions, local anthropogenic emissions accumulated within  
867 the boundary layer, making the local contribution the dominant source of  
868 anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> enhancement in the BTH region. The emission  
869 increase in 2030 amplified this local accumulation, whereas deep  
870 emission reductions in 2060 substantially reduced the absolute  
871 enhancement. Under favorable transport conditions, external regional  
872 transport could dominate anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> enhancement in the BTH



873 region. The backward trajectory and PSCF results show that transport  
874 pathways from the west to northwest can carry anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> from  
875 upstream source regions into the BTH region. Previous studies have also  
876 shown that weather systems, boundary-layer height, and regional  
877 circulation strongly affect CO<sub>2</sub> transport and accumulation (Chan et al.,  
878 2004; Hurwitz et al., 2004; Parazoo et al., 2011; Díaz-Isaac et al., 2014,  
879 2018; Dong et al., 2021). This study further shows that emission  
880 pathways mainly changed the absolute magnitudes of the local and  
881 external transport contributions, while meteorological conditions  
882 determined their relative proportions.

883 This finding has implications for CO<sub>2</sub> assessment in key regions. For  
884 high-emission receptor regions such as the BTH region, local emission  
885 reductions can reduce near-surface accumulation during stagnant episodes,  
886 while coordinated mitigation in surrounding regions can weaken  
887 transport-dominated high-concentration episodes. Future assessments of  
888 CO<sub>2</sub> concentration changes in key regions should consider local  
889 emissions, upstream source regions, and meteorological transport  
890 conditions together. Otherwise, the influence of external transport on  
891 high-concentration episodes may be underestimated, and changes in  
892 source composition under different weather patterns may be overlooked.

#### 893 4.5 Uncertainties and future work

894 This study used the same meteorological background, CO<sub>2</sub> initial



895 and boundary conditions, vegetation indices, and VPRM parameters, and  
896 changed only the anthropogenic emission inputs. This design helps isolate  
897 the concentration responses caused by emission pathway changes. In real  
898 future scenarios, however, the climate background, boundary-layer  
899 structure, wind fields, temperature, moisture conditions, vegetation  
900 activity, and background CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations may all change. The results  
901 of this study are therefore best interpreted as sensitivity responses to  
902 anthropogenic emissions under a fixed meteorological and ecological  
903 background. Future studies should incorporate changes in climate, land  
904 cover, and ecosystem responses to evaluate CO<sub>2</sub> concentration changes  
905 under conditions closer to the real future atmosphere.

906 Biogenic fluxes are an important source of uncertainty. VPRM  
907 estimates ecosystem CO<sub>2</sub> exchange using satellite vegetation indices,  
908 temperature, water stress functions, and empirical parameters. Using  
909 fixed 2016 vegetation indices and VPRM parameters helps highlight the  
910 influence of anthropogenic emission changes, but it does not fully  
911 account for future ecosystem feedbacks to environmental change.  
912 Therefore, the enhanced relative role of biospheric fluxes in 2060 should  
913 be interpreted as a sensitivity result under fixed biogenic flux conditions.  
914 In the real future, CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization, nitrogen deposition, and phenological  
915 changes may enhance vegetation carbon uptake, while climate stress,  
916 drought, and high temperature may weaken carbon sinks and enhance



917 ecosystem respiration. These processes could alter the seasonal amplitude  
918 and regional differences in the biogenic contribution. Future studies  
919 should couple WRF-VPRM with dynamic vegetation models, future  
920 land-use scenarios, and climate change scenarios to further evaluate the  
921 influence of changes in biospheric fluxes on regional CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations  
922 during the carbon neutrality stage.

923 Model validation also has limitations. This study mainly used the  
924 Mapping-XCO<sub>2</sub> dataset to validate the seasonal variation of XCO<sub>2</sub> over  
925 China in 2016. This evaluation indicates that the model can reasonably  
926 reproduce the overall variation in column concentrations, but constraints  
927 on surface CO<sub>2</sub>, boundary-layer height, vertical profiles, and biogenic  
928 fluxes remain limited. Future studies could conduct multi-scale validation  
929 using flux towers, ground-based CO<sub>2</sub> sites, tower-based profile  
930 observations, TCCON-like column concentration data, and additional  
931 satellite products. The BTH regional analysis selected two typical  
932 episodes, which helped reveal local accumulation and regional transport  
933 mechanisms. However, these cases cannot represent all high-CO<sub>2</sub>  
934 episodes throughout the year. Future work could be extended to  
935 multi-year classification of high-concentration episodes, with statistics on  
936 the frequency, intensity, and transport pathways of local and external  
937 contributions under different weather patterns. Seasonal differences in  
938 transport should also be examined to provide a more comprehensive



939 assessment of CO<sub>2</sub> responses in key regions under the carbon peaking and  
940 carbon neutrality pathways.

## 941 5. Conclusions

942 Based on WRF-VPRM, this study designed a 2016 baseline  
943 emission scenario, a 2030 carbon peaking scenario, and a 2060 carbon  
944 neutrality scenario to analyze the responses of surface CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub>  
945 over terrestrial China to different emission pathways. The sources of CO<sub>2</sub>  
946 concentration changes were identified by decomposing the background,  
947 biogenic, and anthropogenic components. The simulated XCO<sub>2</sub> in 2016  
948 agreed well with the Mapping-XCO<sub>2</sub> dataset, with an R of 0.986, an MB  
949 of 0.776 ppm, and an RMSE of 0.942 ppm. This indicates that the model  
950 configuration can reasonably reproduce the main seasonal variations in  
951 XCO<sub>2</sub> over China and supports the scenario analysis.

952 CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations over terrestrial China showed clear responses to  
953 the carbon peaking and carbon neutrality emission pathways. Under the  
954 2030 carbon peaking scenario, surface CO<sub>2</sub> and XCO<sub>2</sub> increased by 0.363  
955 and 0.065 ppm relative to 2016, respectively. Under the 2060 carbon  
956 neutrality scenario, they decreased by 1.914 and 0.359 ppm, respectively.  
957 Surface CO<sub>2</sub> was more sensitive to emission changes, while the XCO<sub>2</sub>  
958 response was smaller and spatially smoother. The 0.359 ppm XCO<sub>2</sub>  
959 decrease in 2060 was comparable to current satellite XCO<sub>2</sub> observational  
960 errors and regional systematic biases, indicating that direct detection of



961 regional deep-mitigation signals using satellite column concentrations  
962 alone remains challenging. The attenuation factor showed that only  
963 approximately 17.9% to 18.8% of the surface CO<sub>2</sub> change was reflected  
964 in XCO<sub>2</sub> on the annual mean scale, indicating a clear dilution effect of  
965 column averaging on near-surface concentrations. High-resolution  
966 regional coupled models and tracer-component decomposition are  
967 therefore important for identifying weak XCO<sub>2</sub> emission signals and  
968 attributing them to anthropogenic and biospheric contributions.

969 The contribution decomposition results showed that the  
970 anthropogenic contribution controlled the main concentration differences  
971 among the emission pathways, while the biogenic contribution mainly  
972 shaped seasonal variations. In 2016 and 2030, anthropogenic emissions  
973 remained the main source of CO<sub>2</sub> enhancement in winter and spring. By  
974 2060, the anthropogenic contribution decreased substantially, and the  
975 seasonal amplitudes of the anthropogenic component in surface CO<sub>2</sub> and  
976 XCO<sub>2</sub> decreased to 0.17 and 0.04 ppm, respectively, while the biogenic  
977 amplitude remained nearly unchanged. This indicates that after the  
978 transition to the deep-mitigation stage, seasonal variations in atmospheric  
979 CO<sub>2</sub> will be shaped mainly by terrestrial ecosystem exchange, while still  
980 being affected by residual anthropogenic emissions.

981 The BTH sensitivity experiments showed that the source  
982 composition of high-CO<sub>2</sub> episodes in key regions was strongly affected



983 by meteorological conditions. Under weak-wind and stagnant conditions,  
984 local emission accumulation dominated anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> enhancement,  
985 with local fractions of 71.86%, 75.67%, and 86.90% in 2016, 2030, and  
986 2060, respectively. Under favorable transport conditions, external  
987 regional transport became the main contributor, with fractions of 81.80%,  
988 83.46%, and 84.16%, respectively. Increased emissions in 2030 amplified  
989 both local accumulation and regional transport contributions, whereas  
990 deep emission reductions in 2060 weakened their absolute magnitudes.  
991 These results indicate that CO<sub>2</sub> concentration responses in key regions  
992 cannot be evaluated from emissions within administrative boundaries  
993 alone. Upstream source regions and meteorological transport processes  
994 also need to be considered.

995 Overall, this study establishes a quantitative link between China's  
996 carbon peaking and carbon neutrality emission pathways and atmospheric  
997 CO<sub>2</sub> responses. It also reveals how anthropogenic emissions, biospheric  
998 fluxes, and regional transport jointly regulate CO<sub>2</sub> variations. The results  
999 suggest that emission inventories, regional models, satellite XCO<sub>2</sub>, and  
1000 ground-based CO<sub>2</sub> observations should be integrated when evaluating the  
1001 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> responses of the carbon peaking and carbon neutrality  
1002 pathways. Such integration can help distinguish the relative contributions  
1003 of anthropogenic mitigation, biospheric carbon sinks, and transport  
1004 processes. For high-emission receptor regions such as the BTH region,



1005 both local emission reductions and coordinated mitigation in surrounding  
1006 regions are important for reducing high anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> episodes.

### 1007 **Data availability**

1008 The processed data supporting the figures, tables, and main con  
1009 clusions of this study are publicly available from Zenodo at [https://](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.20698486)  
1010 [doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.20698486](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.20698486) (Gu et al., 2026). The archive cont  
1011 ains processed gridded fields, time series, vertical profiles, model-ba  
1012 sed contribution diagnostics, BTH case-study data, receptor-point dat  
1013 a for PSCF analysis, HYSPLIT meteorological driving files, and tab  
1014 ulated statistics used in the manuscript. The original third-party data  
1015 sets are not redistributed in the Zenodo archive and remain availabl  
1016 e from their respective data providers. The Mapping-XCO<sub>2</sub> dataset  
1017 (Sheng et al., 2023) is available from Harvard Dataverse at [https://d](https://dataverse.harvard.edu/dataset.xhtml?persistentId=doi:10.7910/DVN/4WDTD8)  
1018 [ataverse.harvard.edu/dataset.xhtml?persistentId=doi:10.7910/DVN/4WDTD8](https://dataverse.harvard.edu/dataset.xhtml?persistentId=doi:10.7910/DVN/4WDTD8). The NCEP ADP Global Surface Observational Weather Data  
1019 (National Centers for Environmental Prediction et al., 2008) are ava  
1020 ilable from the NCAR Research Data Archive at [https://gdex.ucar.ed](https://gdex.ucar.edu/datasets/d461000/dataaccess/)  
1021 [u/datasets/d461000/dataaccess/](https://gdex.ucar.edu/datasets/d461000/dataaccess/). ERA5 reanalysis data (Hersbach et a  
1022 l., 2020) are available from the Copernicus Climate Data Store at h  
1023 [ttps://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/datasets/reanalysis-era5-pressure-levels?t](https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/datasets/reanalysis-era5-pressure-levels?tab=download)  
1024 [ab=download](https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/datasets/reanalysis-era5-pressure-levels?tab=download). CAMS greenhouse gas products (Copernicus Atmosph  
1025 ere Monitoring Service, 2020) are available from the Copernicus At



1027 mosphere Data Store at <https://ads.atmosphere.copernicus.eu/datasets/c>  
1028 [ams-global-greenhouse-gas-inversion?tab=download](https://ads.atmosphere.copernicus.eu/datasets/cams-global-greenhouse-gas-inversion?tab=download). The MEIC emissi  
1029 on inventory (Xu et al., 2023; Geng et al., 2024) is available at [http://meicmodel.org.cn/?page\\_id=2345](http://meicmodel.org.cn/?page_id=2345), and the DPEC emission scenari  
1030 os (Tong et al., 2020; Cheng et al., 2023) are available at [http://meicmodel.org.cn/?page\\_id=1917](http://meicmodel.org.cn/?page_id=1917).

#### 1033 **Author contribution**

1034 Kaiqiang Gu conceptualized the study, developed the methodology,  
1035 performed the investigation and formal analysis, curated the data,  
1036 produced the visualizations, and wrote the original draft. Yi Yang  
1037 contributed to conceptualization, formal analysis, supervision, funding  
1038 acquisition, and manuscript review and editing. Xiaoming Hu contributed  
1039 to conceptualization, supervision, and manuscript review and editing.  
1040 Shixiang Su contributed to formal analysis and manuscript review and  
1041 editing. Feifan Bian contributed to manuscript review and editing. All  
1042 authors reviewed and approved the final manuscript.

#### 1043 **Competing interests**

1044 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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