

CO₂ and CO temporal variability over Mexico City from ground-based total column and surface measurements

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Abstract.

Accurate estimates of greenhouse gas emissions and sinks are critical for understanding the carbon cycle and identifying key drivers of anthropogenic climate change. In this study, we investigate the variability of CO and CO₂ concentrations and their ratio over the Mexico City Metropolitan Area (MCMA) from long-term time-resolved columnar measurements at three stations, using solar absorption Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR). Using a simple model and the mixed layer height derived from a ceilometer, we determined the CO and CO₂ concentration in the mixed layer from the total column measurements and found good agreement with surface cavity ring-down spectroscopy measurements. In addition, we used the diurnal pattern of CO columnar measurements at specific time intervals to estimate an average growth rate that, when combined with the space-based TROPOMI CO measurements, allowed deriving annual CO and CO₂ MCMA emissions from 2016 to 2021. A decrease of more than 50% of the CO emissions was found during the COVID19 lockdown period with respect to the year 2018. These results demonstrate the feasibility of using long-term EM27/Sun column measurements to monitor the annual variability of anthropogenic CO₂ and CO emissions in Mexico City without recourse to complex transport models. This simple methodology could be adapted to other urban areas if the orography favours low ventilation for several hours per day, which allows that column growth rate to be dominated by emission flux.

1 Introduction

The greenhouse gas (GHG) mitigation strategies implemented in megacities following the 1997 Kyoto Protocol and the 2015 Paris Agreement play a crucial role in the global action plan to mitigate climate change, given that cities are accountable for more than 70% of the global anthropogenic emissions (Duren and Miller, 2012). With the recent progress in space-based and ground-based remote GHG measurements in terms of accuracy, spatial coverage, resolution and temporal frequency, GHG emissions can increasingly be constrained by comparing bottom-up and top-down estimates. Top-down approaches are generally based on ground- or space-based atmospheric measurements coupled with inverse modelling, using 3D-Eulerian (i.e: WRF-Chem) or Lagrangian and hybrid (i.e: X-STILT, Hysplit) approaches (Wu et al., 2018, Che et al., 2022; Lian et al., 2023).

44 The quantification of anthropogenic CO₂ enhancements from cities using satellite data e.g: GOSAT (Wang et al.,
45 2019), OCO-2 (Ye et al., 2020) or TanSat (Liu et al., 2018) is still challenging due to the sparsity of the
46 observations, the low signal from the anthropogenic contribution compared to the background levels and
47 biogenic contribution, and some inconveniences inherent to space-measurements such as the non-negligible
48 aerosol effects (Wang et al., 2020 and references therein). Some studies have estimated the urban enhancements
49 of anthropogenic CO₂ concentrations along with CO and NO₂ from satellite measurements, as these air
50 pollutants can serve as tracers of anthropogenic CO₂ (Silva et al., 2013; Park et al., 2021 and references therein).
51 The CO/CO₂ ratio is often used to determine the combustion efficiency of the cities (Park et al., 2021 and
52 references therein). With the development of a new generation of space-based observatories, such as Sentinel-5P
53 and OCO-2,3, the evolution of GHGs at the city scale can now be characterised with a finer temporal and spatial
54 resolution (Kiel et al., 2021) but more validation efforts are needed. As inverse modelling is likely undermined
55 by the approximations used for defining the emission patterns, transport processes and meteorology, top-down
56 approaches may lead to discrepancies in emissions estimates, in particular in sites with complex orography.

57 Ground-based total column FTIR instruments provide valuable long-time concentration measurements
58 of GHG and pollutant reactive species, as well as anthropogenic tracers, constituting a key element to validate
59 regional and local inventories. Some studies reported estimates of CO₂ and CH₄ emissions from large urban
60 areas (Babenhauserheide et al., 2018 in Tokyo; Hedelius et al., 2018 in the California Southern Coast Air Basin
61 California megacity), using data from high-resolution FTIR instruments (i.e: Bruker IFS120/5HR) contributing
62 to the Total Column Carbon Observing Network (TCCON). Nevertheless, only a few TCCON stations are
63 located in urban areas (Toon et al., 2009; Chevallier et al., 2011; Sussman et al., 2020). The development of the
64 Collaborative Carbon Column Observing Network (COCCON, Frey et al., 2019), using a new generation of
65 portable low spectral resolution FTIR spectrometers (EM27/SUN, Gisi et al., 2012; Hase et al., 2016) able to
66 simultaneously measure the CO₂, CO, H₂O and CH₄ average total columns with a similar quality as TCCON, has
67 considerably densified the number of measurements in urban environments. Some studies reported emission
68 estimates for big cities by means of the deployment of several EM27/SUN instruments at strategic sites
69 throughout the cities (Hase et al., 2015 and Zhao et al., 2019 in Berlin; Vogel et al., 2019 in Paris; Makarova et
70 al., 2021 in St Petersburg; Zhou et al., 2022 in Beijing and Xianghe; Che et al. 2022, in Beijing; Reißmann et al.,
71 2022 for Munich) coupling columnar measurements with inverse modelling. Most of these studies were based on
72 short-term campaign observations, applying the Differential Column Methodology (DCM, Chen et al., 2016) or
73 dedicated dispersion models (Hase et al., 2016), coupled with simple mass balance-based methods or inverse
74 modelling to derive emissions. Most of these studies reported significant discrepancies between the estimates,
75 depending on the models used (Viatte et al., 2017).

76 In this study, we aimed to determine the Mexico City Metropolitan Area (MCMA) CO₂ and CO
77 emissions using ground-based FTIR and surface measurements, without resorting to complex dispersion and/or
78 chemistry transport models. The MCMA, with a population around 22 million inhabitants, is in the top ten most
79 populous cities in the world and ranks among the major emitters of GHGs in North America. The available
80 information of GHGs emission estimates are mainly based on the inventories reported by the Ministry of the
81 Environment of Mexico City (SEDEMA), which is updated every two years, but lagging several years behind. In
82 the report based on 2018, the latest published before the COVID19-lock-down (2020), a total emission of 75.2
83 Mt CO₂-eq is estimated for the MCMA, 87% of which is attributed to fossil fuel combustion and 58% originates

84 from the transport sector (SEDEMA Inventory, 2018). The Mexico City government is actively engaged in the
85 C40 Climate Change Program and implemented significant policy measures since 2008, including promoting
86 sustainable transportation systems, implementing energy efficiency measures, increasing the use of renewable
87 energy sources, and adopting green building practices. On a national scale, the country is committed to reduce its
88 GHGs emissions by 35% by 2030 with respect to its base level, as stated in the last Nationally Determined
89 Contributions report (NDC-2022, UNFCCC). To assess the effect of the national and local mitigation policies,
90 the installation of ground-based GHG measurement networks and the refinement of bottom-up estimates by
91 comparing them with the top-down method (i.e: inverse modelling) is of critical importance to obtain a
92 comprehensive GHGs database that can serve as follow-up of the mitigation actions.

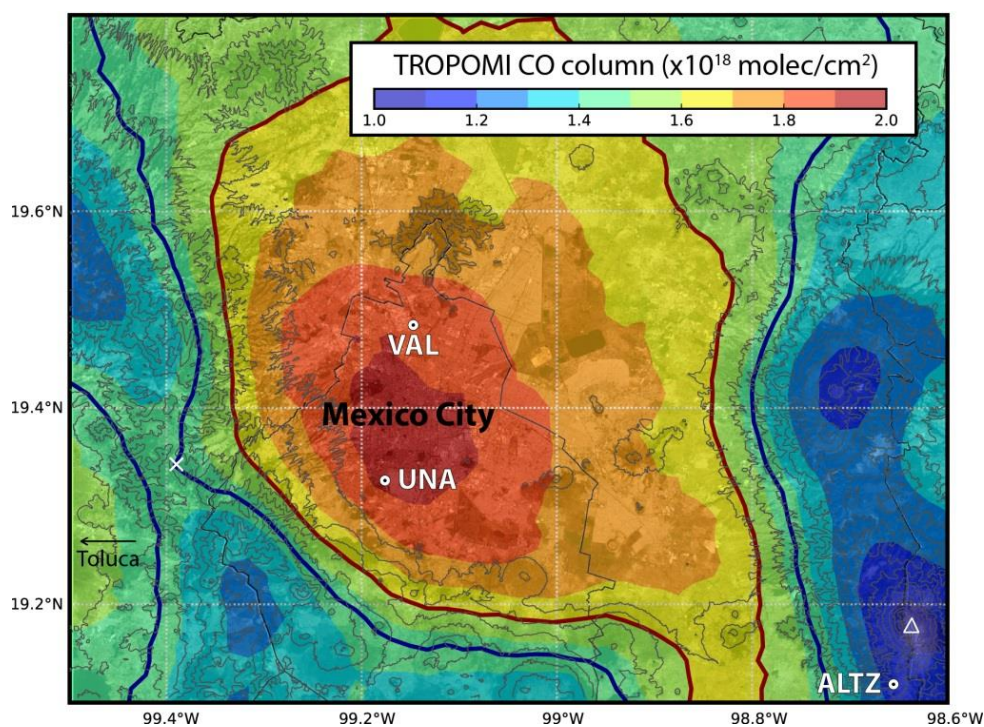
93 The Institute of Atmospheric Sciences and Climate Change (ICAyCC, Spanish acronym) at UNAM
94 (Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México) deployed in the last decade a wide range of surface gas sensors
95 and ground-based remote sensing instruments across the MCMA (Grutter, et al., 2003; Molina et al., 2010;
96 Bezanilla et al., 2014; Stremme et al., 2009; 2013; Baylon et al., 2017) in the frame of research projects related
97 to air quality assessment, atmospheric monitoring and satellite products validation. Since 2013, UNAM has
98 contributed to the Network for the Detection of Atmospheric Composition Change (NDACC), performing
99 continuous composition measurements of the free troposphere from the high altitude Altzomoni Atmospheric
100 Observatory (ALTZ) station, located 60 km southeast of Mexico City at 3985 m a.s.l. Baylon et al., (2017)
101 reported the background CO₂ variability and trend from this station between 2013 and 2016. Stremme et al.,
102 (2013) reported the first top-down estimate of carbon monoxide (CO) emissions for the MCMA, based on FTIR
103 CO total column measurements and the Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI) data. These
104 authors derived the CO₂ emissions for the MCMA using the CO emission estimates and the average CO/CO₂
105 ratio reported in Grutter (2003), using FTIR measurements. In 2018, the Mexican/French “Mexico City’s
106 Regional Carbon Impacts (MERCICO2)” project (coordinated by UNAM and LSCE) was launched aiming to
107 assess the CO₂ emissions from MCMA using EM27/SUN measurements and inverse modelling to evaluate the
108 effectiveness of the mitigation strategies implemented by the local authorities. Xu et al., (submitted) examined
109 the performance of a modelling system based on WRF-Chem to assess the whole-city emissions using the
110 EM27/SUN measurements deployed in the frame of the MERCICO2 project. The complex orography of the
111 region posed a challenge in the atmospheric transport simulations and thus for the top-down estimates using
112 inverse modelling. Indeed, Mexico City is situated in a high altitude basin (~2300 m. a.s.l.), surrounded by
113 mountains reaching up to 5.6 km a.s.l., and is prone to accumulate anthropogenic emissions, especially during
114 the dry season, when the atmospheric boundary layer ventilation is limited (Burgos-Cuevas et al., 2023). The
115 boundary layer dynamics in the basin and the wind surface circulation is complex, due to the temperature
116 contrasts and rough topography.

117 In this study, we report the long-term (2013-2021) variability of the CO₂ and CO total columns and
118 surface concentrations (from 2014) over the MCMA using ground-based FTIR and surface Cavity Ring-Down
119 Spectroscopic (CRDS) measurements. Using the mixed layer height data from the continuous ceilometer
120 measurements at UNAM, we examined the consistency of the surface and total column measurements of our
121 network. We also determined an average CO/CO₂ ratio based on FTIR and surface measurements at different
122 temporal resolutions (from daily to intraday). Then, using the spatial distribution of TROPOMI CO column

123 measurements, we explore the potential of our FTIR network to capture the variability of the megacity CO and
 124 CO₂ emissions using a simplified model, i.e.: without recourse to complex numerical simulations. Our estimates
 125 are compared with the available bottom-up and previous top-down estimates.

126 2 Sites, instrumentation and measurement protocols

127 We used in this study the column-averaged dry-air mole fractions of CO₂ and CO (XCO₂ and XCO)
 128 from three permanent FTIR stations distributed in a radius of 100 km around MCMA (Fig. 1), and the surface
 129 measurements performed at UNA and ALTZ sites. The measurement periods for the different instruments at
 130 each site are reported in Table 1. The VAL station is located at the northern part of the city in a highly
 131 industrialised zone. The UNA station is situated at the south of the city in the main campus of UNAM. The third
 132 station is the ALTZ background site (3985 m a.s.l.), located 60 km ESE from UNAM, within the Izta-Popo
 133 National Park. The equipment of the different stations and measurement protocols are described in the following
 134 sub-sections.



135
 136 **Figure 1:** Map of the ALTZ, UNA and VAL stations and average distribution (2018-2022) of carbon monoxide total
 137 columns over the Mexico City Metropolitan Area (MCMA) calculated from the TROPOMI CO product. Red and
 138 blue contour lines represent the inner and outer area used to calculate the effective area (see details in text). The cross
 139 symbol indicates the smallest CO total column value observed upwind the city at the elevation of the Mexican basin,
 140 which is used to estimate the background. The average total column can be decomposed into two main contributors: i)
 141 a background of around 1.45×10^{18} molec.cm⁻² (limits represented by blue contour lines) and ii) the local influence
 142 corresponding to the carbon monoxide emitted on the same day. The total columns are highly influenced by the
 143 topography which is clearly visible over the highest terrains of the region, near to the Popocatepétl and Iztaccíhuatl
 144 volcanoes at the south east of Mexico City. The mountains of Ajusco are located southwest of Mexico City. The
 145 enhancement in the center of the metropolitan area reflects the carbon monoxide locally emitted on the same day.

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150 **Table1: Instrumentation and measurement periods used in this study.**

Station	Instrument	Measurement period	Product
ALTZ (19.119°N, 98.655°W 3.99 km a.s.l.)	IFS120/5HR	01/01/2013 - 01/06/2021	XCO and XCO ₂
	EM27/SUN #038	21/10/2020 - 20/12/2020 & 10/02/2021 - 22/02/2021	XCO and XCO ₂
	EM27/SUN #104	07/02/2020 - 18/02/2020	XCO and XCO ₂
	CRDS G2401 Picarro	15/11/2015 - 01/06/2021	Surface CO and CO ₂
UNA (19.326°N, 99.176°W 2.28 km a.s.l.)	Vertex	15/11/2015 - 20/06/2017	XCO
	EM27/SUN #038	07/05/2021 - 25/05/2021	XCO and XCO ₂
	EM27/SUN #062	17/03/2016 - 01/06/2017	XCO ₂
	EM27/SUN #104	01/06/2017 - 01/06/2021 04/04/2019 - 19/09/2019	XCO and XCO ₂ XCO and XCO ₂
	CDRS G2401 Picarro	15/11/2015 - 01/06/2021	Surface CO and CO ₂
CL31 Vaisala ceilometer	15/11/2015 - 01/06/2021	Mixed Layer Height	
VAL (19.484°N, 99.147°W 2.26 km a.s.l.)	EM27/SUN #104	23/09/2019 - 01/06/2021	XCO and XCO ₂

151 **2.1 The UNA station: Total columns, surface concentrations and mixed-layer height measurements**

152 Atmospheric total columns of several gas species, such as O₃, NH₃, CH₄, CO, and HCHO have
153 continuously been measured at UNA since 2010 (Bezanilla et al., 2014; Plaza-medina et al., 2017; Baylon et al.,
154 2017; Rivera-Cardenas et al., 2021; Herrera et al., 2022) using solar absorption FTIR spectroscopy.
155 Measurements are performed in the mid-infrared (MIR) and near-infrared (NIR) spectral ranges using a Bruker
156 model Vertex 80 spectrometer. The instrument has a Maximum optical Path Difference (MPD) of 12 cm
157 (corresponding to a spectral resolution of 0.075 cm⁻¹) and is equipped with two detectors, a liquid-nitrogen
158 cooled mercury-cadmium-telluride (MCT) and InGaAs detectors. Solar absorption measurements are performed
159 using a home-built solar tracker. A full description of the instrumental set-up and measurement protocols is
160 given in Bezanilla et al. (2014) and Plaza-Medina et al. (2017). The CO measurements are routinely performed
161 in the MIR spectral range with a spectral resolution of 0.1 cm⁻¹, using the MCT detector.

162 In March 2016, an EM27/SUN spectrometer was implemented at UNA to continuously measure XCO₂,
163 XCH₄, XH₂O, XCO total columns from solar NIR spectra with a spectral-resolution of 0.5 cm⁻¹ (MPD of 1.8
164 cm). The spectrometer is equipped with its own solar tracker (Bruker CAMTracker; Gisi et al., 2011) capturing
165 and redirecting the solar beam into a RockSolid™ pendulum interferometer equipped with a Quartz beamsplitter.
166 The EM27/SUN, with serial number #62 installed at the UNA station (hereafter EM27-SUN_62), was initially
167 operated with a standard InGaAs-diode detector sensitive to the 5500-11000 cm⁻¹ spectral range, to which a
168 second InGaAs detector with Ge filter was added in 2017 for CO measurements through a second channel (4000
169 – 5500 cm⁻¹) (Hase et al., 2016). Further details on the technical characteristics and systematic performance
170 evaluation of the EM27/SUN spectrometer are given in Frey et al., (2019) and Alberti et al., (2022). The
171 spectrometer was installed in a home-made protective box, including a remotely-controlled dome cover, a GPS
172 and a PCE-THB-40 data-logger for precise timing and surface pressure measurements. Double sided forward-

173 backward interferograms are routinely recorded with a scanner velocity of 10 kHz, so that the recording time of
174 one measurement (averaging 10 IFGs scans) is close to one minute.

175 Additionally, CO₂, CO, CH₄ and H₂O surface measurements are continuously performed at the UNA
176 station using a Cavity Ring-Down Spectrometer (CRDS, model G2401 from Picarro Inc.). The CRDS
177 spectrometer uses a laser to quantify the spectral features of gas-phase molecules in an optical cavity offering
178 effectively of up to 20 km absorption path length. Frequency shifts are prevented with a high-precision-
179 wavelength monitor and temperature and pressure are precisely controlled by the analyzer. The quantification is
180 improved by the simultaneous spectral analysis of the measured gases. A calibration system using 3 gas
181 standards provided by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration Earth System Research Laboratory
182 (NOAA ESRL), traceable to the WMO2007 scale, was set up in 2018 at UNA and in 2019 at ALTZ. Data
183 collected before the installation of the calibration systems were corrected with calibration coefficients obtained
184 in 2018. The sampling inlet using Synflex tubing was placed at 24 m a.g.l. at UNA station and includes a Nafion
185 air dryer, as described in detail by González del Castillo et al. (2022). Data are continuously collected at 0.3 Hz
186 rate and their uncertainties, calculated as the standard deviation of raw data over 1-minute intervals when
187 measuring calibration gases, are equal to 0.03 ppm at UNA (González del Castillo et al., 2022).

188 Finally, continuous mixed-layer height (MLH) measurements are performed since 2008 at UNA using a
189 CL31 ceilometer instrument (Vaisala). This is a robust commercial instrument which emits light pulses at 10
190 kHz repeating frequency at 910 nm using an indium-gallium-arsenide diode laser. It detects the backscatters
191 signal through a single lens with a silicon avalanche photodiode. The resulting backscattering profiles have a
192 vertical resolution of 10 m and reach an altitude of 7,500 m. The profiles have been used to retrieve MLH above
193 the city since 2011 (García-Franco et al., 2018).

194 **2.2 The ALTZ background station: Total columns and surface measurements**

195 The Altzomoni Atmospheric Observatory (ALTZ) was equipped with a high-resolution FTIR
196 spectrometer (model IFS120/5HR, Bruker) in 2012, capable of measuring atmospheric spectra in the NIR and
197 MIR spectral regions with 257 cm MPD, equivalent to a spectral resolution of 0.0035 cm⁻¹. The instrument is
198 installed into a container with a motorised dome cover on the roof and a microwave communication system (60
199 km line-of-sight to the university campus), which allows a fully-remote control of the instruments. When the
200 dome is open, a solar tracker (CAMTracker; Gisi et al., 2012) collects the solar beam and orients it toward the
201 spectrometer entrance. The spectrometer can be operated with KBr or CaF₂ beam splitters, 3 different detectors
202 (MCT, InSb, and InGaAs) and a set of 7 optical filters is installed in a rotating wheel. The measurement routine
203 consists in the acquisition of high (0.005 cm⁻¹), medium (0.02 cm⁻¹ and 0.1 cm⁻¹) and low (0.5 cm⁻¹) resolution
204 spectra in the NIR and MIR spectral ranges using the different NDACC filters (~40 min for a complete
205 sequence).

206 The NIR CO and CO₂ spectra (0.02 cm⁻¹) used in this study were recorded as the average of two scans
207 taken for approximately 38 s with a scanner speed of 40 kHz. The MIR CO spectra (0.005 cm⁻¹) are deduced
208 from the coaddition of 6 scans (<200 s) with a scanner speed of 40 kHz. Due to a spectrometer laser
209 replacement, the IFS120/5HR measurements were interrupted between November 2020 and January 2021. To
210 avoid an important gap in the measurements, an EM27/SUN (EM27/SUN_38) was temporarily installed at the
211 station during this period (Table 1). The intercalibration factors used for combining the two types of

212 measurements were determined from previous side-by-side measurements performed during February 2021 (see
213 Table S1 and section 3.1.3).

214 A CRDS (model G2401 from Picarro Inc.) instrument was implemented at the station in 2014 providing
215 continuous CO₂, CO, CH₄ and H₂O surface measurements (González del Castillo et al., 2022). The sampling
216 inlet using Synflex tubing was placed at 4 m a.g.l. and includes a Nafion air dryer (similar installation to UNA).
217 A calibration system similar to that implemented at UNA, using 3 NOAA ESRL gas standards, was set up in
218 2019. The station also includes meteorological instruments, pressure and temperature sensors and visible
219 cameras among other instrumentation for atmospheric and environmental monitoring.

220 2.3 The VAL station: Total column measurements

221 The VAL station, located in Vallejo in the northern part of MCMA, is part of the city's air quality
222 network (RAMA) run by SEDEMA. An EM27/SUN spectrometer (EM27/SUN_104) was installed at this station
223 in 2019 together with a surface CO₂ sensor. The VAL spectrometer has been performing measurements with the
224 two detectors since November 2019. Additionally, the VAL site included a low-cost medium precision CO₂
225 sensor, as a part of a network implemented during the MERCI-CO₂ campaign. It consists of a NDIR-type of
226 sensor (SenseAir, model HPP3) that can measure in the 0 to 1000 ppm range and after a calibration and target
227 gas follow-up procedure, can produce data with <1% accuracy (Porras et al., 2023).

228 3.1 FTIR data processing and analysis

229 In this study, we used the solar absorption measurements acquired by five different FTIR instruments
230 (i.e: three EM27/SUN, a Vertex 80 and a IFS120/5HR) to estimate the XCO₂, and XCO total columns at each
231 station. The retrieval strategies were adapted as a function of the spectral resolution and averaging kernel of each
232 species. Table 2 summarises the different products used in this study, and their retrieval parameters.

233 **Table 2: FTIR analysis: Description of the different FTIR products, retrieval strategies and parameters used in this study.**

Instrument (spectral resolution)	Gas	Microwindows (cm ⁻¹)	Interfering gases	Retrieval code	Retrieval method
EM27/SUN and IFS-120/5HR LowRes (0.5 cm ⁻¹)	CO ₂	6173.0 - 6390.0	H ₂ O, CH ₄	PROFFAST	Scaling VMR COCCON strategy
	CO	4208.7 - 4318.8	H ₂ O, HDO, CH ₄ , HF		
	O ₂	7765.0 - 8005.0	H ₂ O, CO ₂ , HF		
IFS-120/5HR (0.02 cm ⁻¹) (TCCON-type)	CO ₂	6180.0 - 6260.0 6310.0 - 6380.0	H ₂ O, CH ₄ , HDO	PROFFIT9.6	Scaling VMR
	CO	4208.7 - 4257.3 4262.0 - 4318.8	CH ₄ , H ₂ O, HDO		
	O ₂	7765.0 - 8005.0	H ₂ O, CO ₂ , HF		
IFS-120/5HR (0.005 cm ⁻¹) (NDACC-type)	CO	2057.70 - 2058.00 2069.56 - 2069.76 2157.50 - 2159.15	O ₃ , N ₂ O, H ₂ O, OCS and CO ₂	PROFFIT9.6	Profile NDACC strategy
Vertex80 (0.1 cm ⁻¹)	CO	2056.70 - 2059.00 2068.56 - 2069.77 2156.50 - 2160.15	O ₃ , N ₂ O, H ₂ O, OCS and CO ₂	PROFFIT9.6	Profile

234 3.1.1 EM27/SUN spectra analysis

235 Double-sided interferograms from the EM27/SUN were analysed following the standardised COCCON
236 protocol, using PREPROCESS and PROFFAST codes, developed by the KIT and made freely available
237 (<https://www.imk-asf.kit.edu/english/COCCON.php>). The codes and retrieval methods are fully described in Sha
238 et al. (2020), Frey et al. (2021) and Alberti (2023) and only briefly summarised here. The PREPROCESS
239 algorithm generates the required spectra by a Fast Fourier Transform. The processing incorporates various
240 quality checks, as a signal threshold, intensity variations during recording, requirement of proper spectral
241 abscissa scaling, and generates spectra only from raw measurements passing all checks (the remaining ones
242 being flagged). We used the ILS parameters (i.e: modulation efficiency amplitude and phase error) reported on
243 the KIT-COCCON website (<https://www.imk-asf.kit.edu/english/COCCON.php>) and in Alberti et al. (2022),
244 corresponding to the initial KIT calibration of the spectrometers (Frey et al., 2019, Alberti et al., 2022). The
245 PROFFAST-PCXS module (i.e: forward model of PROFFAST) pre-calculates daily lookup tables of the
246 molecular absorption cross-sections according to the meteorological parameters and gas trace VMR profiles
247 priors. The latest PROFFAST-PCXS version uses the HITRAN 2020 spectroscopic linelists (with some
248 extensions, e.g., line mixing parameters added for CH₄). Here, we used the standard COCCON linelists as
249 incorporated in the previous PROFFAST version, i.e: HITRAN 2008 for CH₄, HITRAN 2012 for CO₂, a
250 modified version of HITRAN 2009 by Toon (2014) for H₂O, a TCCON standard linelist for O₂, and the same
251 solar line list as previously used by TCCON (compiled by G.C. Toon for GGG2014). The least-squares fitting
252 code PROFFAST-INVERS retrieves the total columns by scaling the prior VMR profiles iteratively until
253 adjusting the fit to the measured spectra. The intraday variability of surface pressure is considered in the
254 retrieval, interpolated from the in-situ pressure measurements. For tying the column-averaged abundances
255 provided by COCCON to TCCON data, PROFFAST applies post-process Airmass-Dependent (ADCF) and
256 Independent (AICF) corrections, independent from the instrument, similar as used in the TCCON process (Sha et
257 al., 2020, and Alberti, 2023). The corrections and parameters used are reported in the COCCON website and
258 Alberti, (2023).

259 We automatized and adapted the data processing to obtain a preliminary “real-time” hourly-updated
260 analysis (hereafter, AN1) for each site, additionally to the off-line treatment (hereafter, AN2) applying the
261 standard COCCON procedure. The meteorological data used in the AN1 retrieval were derived from the daily-
262 available radiosonde data, provided by Servicio Meteorologico Nacional (SMN) from measurements performed
263 in the early morning (6 AM LT) at the Mexico City International Airport. The AN1 strategy adopted fixed VMR
264 priors for each species, consisting in the averaged profile of 41 years (1980-2020) run of the Whole Atmospheric
265 Community Climate Model (WACCM), as commonly used in the NDACC community. The AN2 processing,
266 generating the COCCON standard products, used the daily TCCON meteorological data and priors (GGG2014
267 version of MAPs files), downloaded from the Caltech server, which are based on National Centers for
268 Environmental Prediction (NCEP) reanalysis. For both AN1 and AN2 processing, we used the in situ intraday
269 surface pressure measurements from the PCE-THB-40 sensors. A correction factor was applied to the pressure
270 measurements to take into account the bias between the different pressure sensors used, previously
271 intercompared by a few days of side-by-side measurements.

272 CO₂, O₂, and CO were analysed in the 6173.0 - 6390.0 cm⁻¹, 7765.0 - 8005.0 cm⁻¹ and 4208.7 - 4318.8
 273 cm⁻¹ spectral windows, respectively. The XCO₂ and XCO column-averaged dry air mole fractions were
 274 calculated using the O₂ retrieved total columns, according to Wunch et al. (2009):

$$275 \quad X_{gas} = 0.2095 (C_{gas} / C_{O_2}) \quad (1)$$

276 where C_{gas} and C_{O₂} are the target gas and O₂ total columns, respectively.

277 The real-time (AN1) and COCCON (AN2) XCO₂ and XCO products showed relative differences lower than
 278 0.05% and 5%, respectively. The results presented hereafter are based on the official COCCON products (AN2
 279 analysis).

280 3.1.2 Vertex80 and IFS120/5HR spectra analysis

281 High (0.005 cm⁻¹) and medium (0.02 cm⁻¹ and 0.1 cm⁻¹) resolution solar-absorption spectra are
 282 processed using the PROFFIT9.6 code (Hase et al., 2004).

283 XCO₂ is retrieved from the NIR 0.02 cm⁻¹ resolution spectra applying the procedure described in Baylon et al.
 284 (2017), in which two independent CO₂ and O₂ VMR-scaling retrievals are performed using fixed WCCAM
 285 VMR priors and NCEP-derived meteorological data. Spectral windows and interfering gases (Table 2) are
 286 similar to those used in the standard TCCON procedure. XCO₂ is then calculated from the retrieved CO₂ and O₂
 287 total columns by applying Eq. (1).

288 For the ALTZ analysis, CO was retrieved from the high (0.005 cm⁻¹) resolution spectra in the MIR region,
 289 applying the standard NDACC procedure (Pougatchev et al., 1994; Rinsland et al. 1998; Table 2). It uses a
 290 profile retrieval strategy with fixed WACCM VMR priors and NCEP meteorological data. Since the O₂ specie is
 291 not analysed in the MIR region, the XCO was determined using the dry air columns (C_{dryair}):

$$293 \quad XCO = \frac{C_{CO}}{C_{dryair}} \quad (2)$$

294 with:

$$295 \quad C_{dryair} = \left(\frac{P_g}{g} m_{dryair} \right) - \left(C_{H_2O} \frac{m_{H_2O}}{m_{dryair}} \right) \quad (3)$$

296 where C_{CO} and C_{H_{2O}} are the retrieved CO and H_{2O} total columns, *g* the column-averaged gravity acceleration, P_g
 297 the ground pressure and m_{dryair} and m_{H_{2O}}, the dry air and H_{2O} molecular masses respectively. In addition, we
 298 analysed XCO from the NIR spectral region to complement the MIR time-series, occasionally interrupted when
 299 the liquid nitrogen was missing at the station. The CO and O₂ columns in the NIR region were analysed using
 300 scaling retrievals in the same spectral windows as that used by TCCON (Table 2), but with fixed WACCM VMR
 301 priors and NCEP meteorological data. XCO was calculated from the CO and O₂ retrieved total columns applying
 302 Eq. (1). To minimise the air mass dependence effect (likely low for CO), we filtered out data with a SZA >60°.
 303 XCO NIR and MIR products were compared and intercalibrated (section 3.1.3).

304 For UNA, we used the XCO total columns calculated from the Vertex80 measurements to complement the
 305 EM27/SUN time series during the period when it was operating with a single detector (between March 2016 and
 306 September 2017). CO was analysed from the 0.1 cm⁻¹ resolution spectra in the MIR spectral range, using a
 307 standard NDACC profile retrieval strategy and the PROFFIT9.6 retrieval program with constant WACCM VMR
 308

309 priors and NCEP meteorological data. Spectral windows (Table 2) were adapted following Pougatchev and
310 Rinsland (1995). Previous CO total columns time series retrieved from the same method at UNA were presented
311 in Garcia-Franco et al. (2018) and Borsdorff et al. (2018, 2020). Only the constraint of these CO retrievals were
312 adjusted for the Megacity and allowed in addition a free fitting of the mixing layer concentration, following the
313 work by Stremme et al. (2009) in which low resolution MIR spectra with a different retrieval program have been
314 analysed.

315 **3.1.3 Measurement precision and FTIR product intercomparison**

316 Side-by-side measurements were performed at the ALTZ and UNA stations on several occasions
317 (Table1) to assess the FTIR measurement precisions, to characterise the bias between the different products and
318 to define the inter-calibration factors for the XCO₂ and XCO products. We used the EM27/SUN_62 products as
319 reference, for which we previously applied the standard XCO₂ and XCO calibration factors reported in Alberti et
320 al. (2022), to inter-calibrate our results with the COCCON network and the Karlsruhe TCCON station operated
321 by KIT. The linear regression parameters from the different measurement pairs and the calibration factors are
322 presented in the Supplementary data (Table S1 and S2).

323 We found a bias lower than 0.2% and 1.0% between the three EM27/SUN, for XCO₂ and XCO respectively, and
324 a coefficient of determination (R^2) higher than 0.99.

325 On the other hand, the precision of the EM27/SUN measurements was assessed by calculating the standard
326 deviation over a 5 min-interval period, and found to be on average 2.7 ppb and 0.3 ppm for XCO and XCO₂,
327 respectively.

328 The intercomparison of the IFS120/5-HR high resolution (0.02 cm^{-1}) products and the EM27/SUN XCO₂
329 products was performed for the daily average data used in this study. The calibration factors were determined
330 using i) the EM27/SUN XCO₂ products and ii) the IFS 120/5-HR low resolution (0.5 cm^{-1}) product (Fig. S2),
331 processed in the same way as the COCCON EM27/SUN data but having the advantage of being measured even
332 outside the campaigns carried out with the EM27/Sun. We finally found a bias around 0.4% (slope=0.996), and a
333 coefficient of determination R^2 of 0.92. This bias is of order of that expected when comparing TCCON and
334 COCCON products (Frey et al., 2019), when no empirical calibration is applied. On the other hand, a bias of 2%
335 (and $R^2=0.92$) was found comparing the XCO from the EM27/SUN and the Vertex (MIR) products at UNA.

336 One of the main contributions of the apparent bias observed when comparing products from different
337 instruments and using different retrieval strategies can be due to their respective Averaging Kernel (AK) which
338 characterise the smoothing error. It is especially the case in the comparison of XCO from the EM27/SUN (i.e:
339 NIR scaling retrieval product, Degree Of Freedom (DOF) =1) and from the Vertex (MIR profile-product, DOF >
340 2). To assess this effect, we refined the comparison after smoothing the vertically resolved Vertex profiles with
341 the EM27/SUN AK (following Rodgers, 2000; Borsdorff et al., 2014, 2018) and re-calculating the smoothed
342 Vertex total columns. After this smoothing, the bias is reduced to 0.2% instead of 4.1% for the CO total
343 columns. For the XCO product, which includes the use of the surface pressure for the MIR product and the
344 retrieved O₂ column for the NIR product the bias is reduced to 0.4% instead of 3.5%.

3.2 Surface CRDS data analysis

The surface CO₂ and CO data acquired with the CRDS analysers were processed and averaged following the procedure described in González del Castillo et al. (2022). Data were averaged and their standard deviation calculated, per minute, then per hour. To extract the trend and seasonal CO and CO₂ variability, data were filtered by discarding hours generally affected by transient and very local effects. Data recorded between 13 and 17h with standard deviations lower than 6.0 ppm were selected for the UNA station, while nighttime data (19 to 5h) with standard deviations lower than 2.0 ppm were selected for the ALTZ station, according to González del Castillo et al. (2022).

3.3 Mixed Layer height from the Lidar measurements

The MLH is retrieved using a combined algorithm based on the gradient method and a wavelet-covariance transformation as described in detail by García-Franco et al. (2018). These results were compared with radiosonde data and MLH values derived from surface and vertical column densities of trace gases, and more recently Burgos-Cuevas et al. (2022) used the variance of the vertical velocity from a Doppler Lidar (Wind Cube 100, Leosphere) and compared with the ceilometer results at the same location. These studies show that the ceilometer retrieved MLHs compare well with other techniques during the daytime (they agree within 15% with the trace gas method), which are relevant for this study, whereas late afternoon and nighttime retrieved values might be affected by aerosol residual layers at higher altitudes.

3.4 Mixed layer CO and CO₂ concentrations from FTIR measurements

Pollutant concentrations within the mixed layer are often estimated using surface measurements, although surface concentrations are very sensitive to the air mass vertical transport, unlike the total columns. It is especially the case within the Mexico City basin where the mixed layer has a strong diurnal dynamics controlling the vertical distribution of the emitted pollutants (Stremme et al., 2009; Garcia-Franco et al., 2018). An estimate of the CO₂ and CO vertically averaged concentrations across the mixed layer can be made using the total columns measured at the UNA and ALTZ stations. The dry air mole fraction measured at the UNA station (XCO_2^{UNA}) is the weighted mean of that measured in the mixed layer (CO_2^{ML}) and in the free troposphere at the ALTZ station (XCO_2^{ALTZ}):

$$XCO_2^{UNA} = w_1 \times CO_2^{ML} + w_2 \times XCO_2^{ALTZ} \quad (4)$$

$$CO_2^{ML} = \frac{XCO_2^{UNA} - w_2 \times XCO_2^{ALTZ}}{w_1} \quad (5)$$

The weights (w_1 and w_2) depend on the pressure difference between the mixed-layer height (MLH) and the UNA station, the pressure on top of the mixed layer is calculated assuming an exponential decay and an effective scale height H_{scale} (assumed to be 8.0 km):

$$w_1 = \left(1 - e^{-\frac{MLH}{H_{scale}}}\right) \text{ and } w_2 = \left(e^{-\frac{MLH}{H_{scale}}}\right) \quad (6)$$

378 The MLH above Mexico City was estimated using the hourly-averaged measurements of the ceilometer at the
 379 UNA station. The hourly-averaged CO_2^{ML} and CO^{ML} products were calculated applying the same strategy for the
 380 entire time series and are reported in Fig. 7, concurrently to the surface data.

381 4 Results

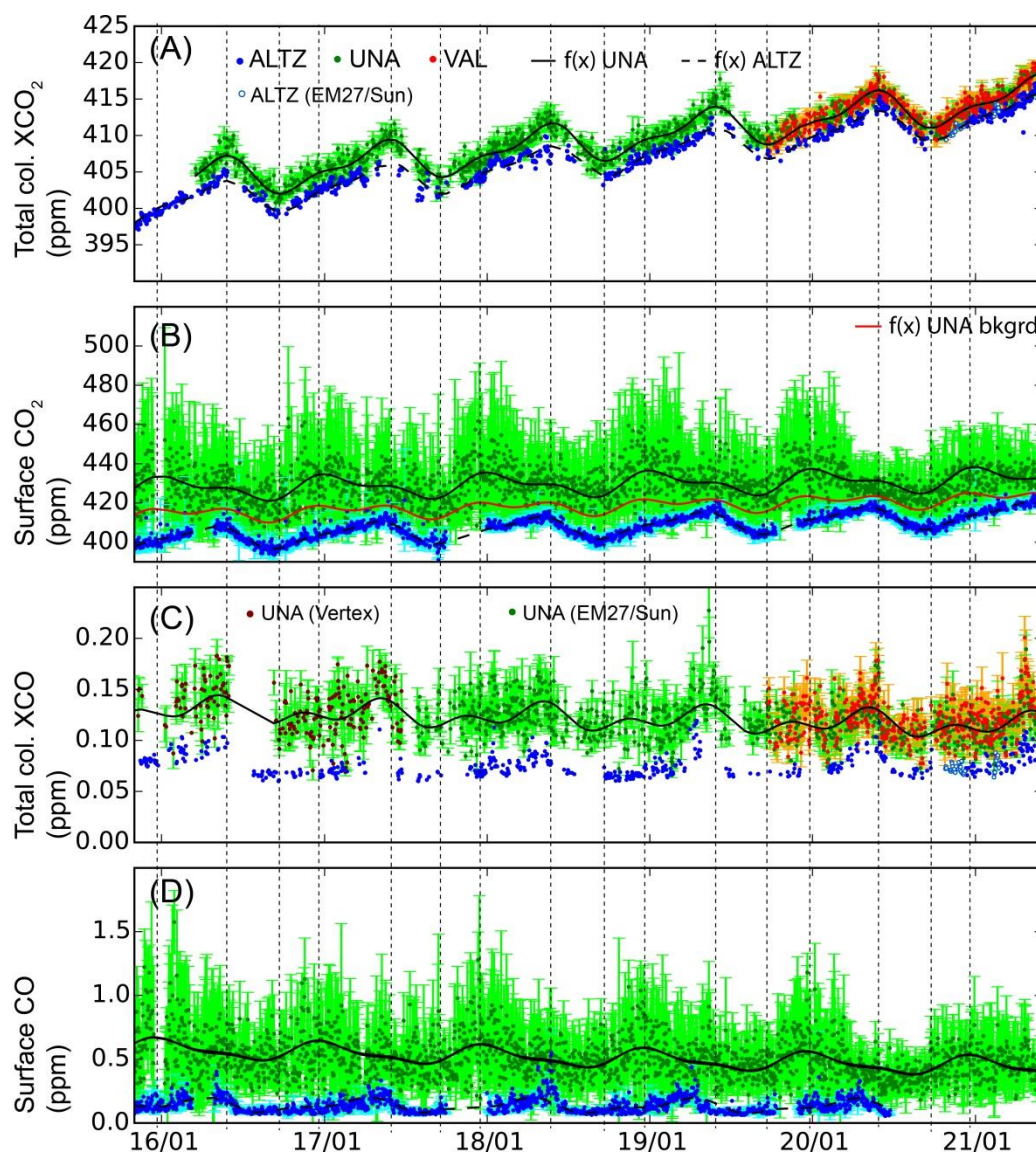
382 The FTIR XCO₂ and XCO daily-averaged time series and CO₂ and CO surface concentrations obtained at the
 383 UNA, VAL and ALTZ stations between November 2015 and June 2021 are shown in Fig. 2. Trends and
 384 seasonal variabilities were fitted using a Fourier series analysis (Eq. (7) and black and red solid lines in Fig. 2),
 385 following Wunch et al. (2013):

386

$$387 f(x) = ax + \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \cos(2\pi kx) + b_k \sin(2\pi kx), \text{ with } n = 2 \quad (7)$$

388

389 where x is the time (decimal year), a the mean growth rate (ppm/year), and a_k and b_k the Fourier coefficients
 390 modulating the annual cycles. The coefficients for each gas species and station are reported in Table 3.



391

392 **Figure 2: Time series of (A) the total column XCO₂ from the FTIR measurements (B) the CO₂ surface**
 393 **concentration from the CRDS measurements, (C) the total column XCO from the FTIR measurements**
 394 **(D) the CO surface concentration from the CRDS measurements for the UNA (in green), VAL (in red)**
 395 **and ALTZ (in blue) stations. For each time series, the daily average data are presented as dots with their**
 396 **daily standard deviations. Black traces show the annual fit calculated from the Fourier series (Eq. (7)). In**
 397 **(A) and (C), we distinguished between ALTZ data obtained from the IFS120/5HR (blue full circles) and**
 398 **from the EM27/Sun (blue open circles) and in (C), between the CO total columns obtained from the**
 399 **VERTEX instrument (in brown) and the EM27/Sun (in green) at the UNA station. In (B) the red curve**
 400 **corresponds to the background fit, calculated following Gonzalez del Castillo et al. (2022), to determine**
 401 **the annual trend and seasonal cycles. Vertical dash lines highlight the minimum and maximum of the**
 402 **annual cycles for the different products.**

403 4.1 Trends and interannual variability

404 The total column XCO₂ time series (Fig. 2A) at ALTZ and UNA show a similar mean growth rate
 405 around 2.4 ppm/year (2.4 and 2.3 ppm/year for ALTZ and UNA, respectively, Table 3) over the whole
 406 measurement period. A similar mean growth rate is also found for the surface CO₂ time series (Table 3 and Fig.
 407 2B) in ALTZ (2.5 ppm/year). These values are consistent with those estimated at the Mauna Loa Observatory
 408 (MLO) reference station for the 2016-2021 period (average of 2.5±0.5 calculated from surface data available in
 409 the NOAA site <https://gml.noaa.gov/ccgg/trends>).

410

411 *Table 3: Fourier series fitting parameters for the UNA, VAL and ALTZ XCO₂ and XCO time series presented in Fig. 2,*
 412 *and calculated from Eq.(7).*

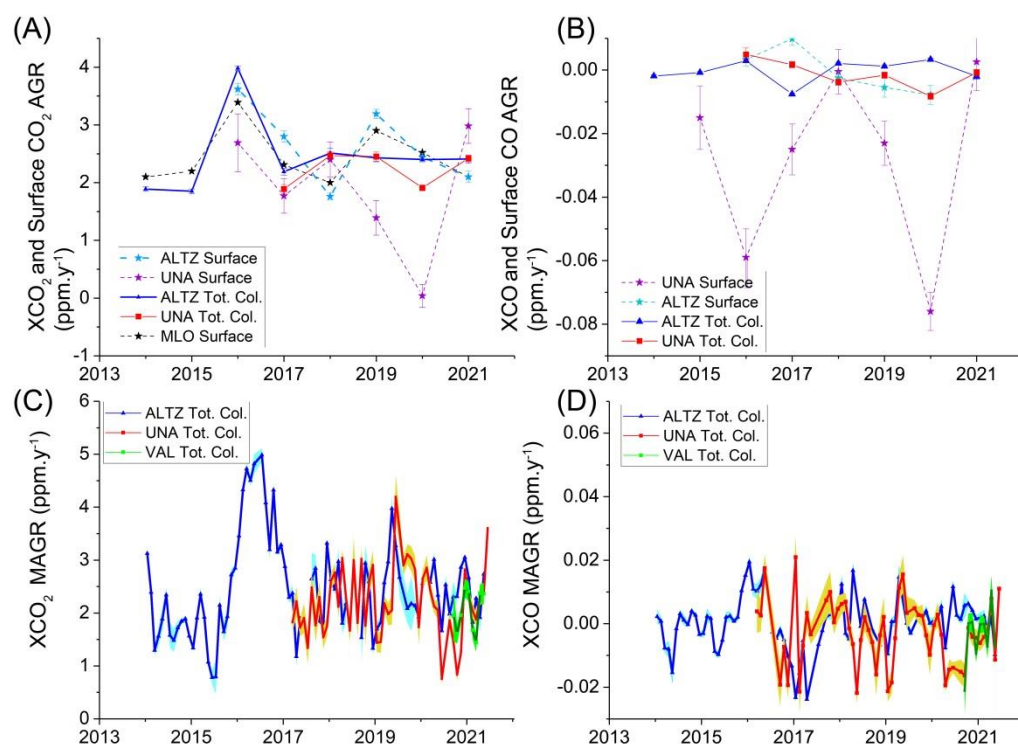
Fitting parameters (ppm/year)	XCO ₂ , UNA Tot. Col.	XCO ₂ ALTZ Tot. Col.	CO ₂ UNA Surface	CO ₂ ALTZ Surface	XCO UNA Tot. Col.	CO UNA Surface
<i>a</i>	2.25±0.02	2.40±0.01	1.6±0.1	2.48±0.02	(-4.0±0.8)×10 ⁻³	(-2.7±0.1)×10 ⁻²
<i>a1</i>	-1.06±0.04	-0.78±0.04	1.7±0.2	-0.39±0.05	(-2.4±0.7)×10 ⁻³	(6.5±0.4)×10 ⁻²
<i>a2</i>	2.11±0.04	1.93±0.04	1.1±0.2	-0.36±0.05	(-3.2±0.8)×10 ⁻³	(1.5±0.4)×10 ⁻²
<i>b1</i>	0.71±0.04	0.64±0.04	2.1±0.2	4.62±0.05	(8.6±0.8)×10 ⁻³	(6.5±4.0)×10 ⁻³
<i>b2</i>	-0.78±0.04	-0.45±0.04	-2.1±0.2	-1.69±0.05	(-7.9±0.7)×10 ⁻³	(-2.2±0.4)×10 ⁻²

413

414 At the UNA station a surface mean growth rate of 1.6 ppm/year is found, lower than that observed from the total
 415 column measurements. Comparing the surface mean growth rates with those reported by González del Castillo et
 416 al. (2022) for the 2014-2019 period, we observe a significant difference for the UNA station (2.3 ppm/year in
 417 González del Castillo et al., 2022) but very similar values for the ALTZ station (2.6 ppm/year in González del
 418 Castillo et al., 2022). The difference observed at UNA could stem from (i) starting our new time series at the end
 419 of 2015, when the annual growth rate is maximum (González del Castillo et al., 2022) and (ii) the inclusion of
 420 the 2019-2021 period, when the mean growth rate clearly decreased. At the VAL station, the total column XCO₂
 421 time series are found very similar to those observed at UNA stations (Fig. 2A). Figure S1 shows that 86% of the
 422 daily average data at VAL and UNA have a difference lower than 1.0 ppm, although a large part of the

423 comparison was done during the COVID19 lock-down period (Table1), for which lower gradients are expected
 424 due to the decrease of the anthropogenic emissions.

425 The interannual variability can be explored through the time series of the mean annual growth rate (AGR) and
 426 the monthly-sampled annual growth rate (MAGR), according to Buchwitz et al. (2018). The MAGR is calculated
 427 by month, as the difference between the monthly-average Xgas data of a year i and the monthly-averaged data of
 428 the previous year ($i-1$). The AGR is obtained for each year, averaging all of the MAGR. The AGR and MAGR
 429 for total column and surface measurements are presented in Fig. 3. We include data from the MLO in Fig. 3A,
 430 for which the AGR (dashed black curve) was derived from the surface data available in the NOAA site.



431
 432 **Figure 3: XCO₂ (A) and XCO (B) annual growth rates (AGR) and XCO₂ (C) and XCO (D) monthly-sampled annual**
 433 **growth rate (MAGR) obtained from total column and surface measurements for UNA, VAL, and ALTZ stations. In**
 434 **(A), the Mauna Loa (MLO) AGR trend was added in black dash-line. In (A) and (B) errors bars represent the**
 435 **standard error after removing annual cycles, reflecting the data sample quality. The standard error for the MAGR is**
 436 **shown as shaded area in (C) and (D).**

437 At ALTZ, the interannual variability of the total column XCO₂ AGR (Fig. 3A) was found similar to that
 438 obtained from both the ALTZ and MLO surface data, with a coincident peak in 2016, reaching an AGR value of
 439 3.5 (surface data) and 4.0 (total column data) ppm/year. Surface data AGR time series show a second peak in
 440 2019, which is not apparent for the total column XCO₂ time series. The time series of the MAGR (Fig. 3C)
 441 allows better identifying and characterising the period and duration of the anomalies. The 2016 XCO₂ anomaly
 442 has a duration up to 15 months (from October 2015 to March 2017), reaching a maximum value (around 5.0
 443 ppm/year) between March and July 2016, corresponding to a factor of 2.8 higher than the 2013-2015 base level
 444 (1.8 ppm/year).

445 At UNA, the XCO₂ AGR and MAGR time series (Fig. 3A and 3C) are very similar to those observed at the
 446 ALTZ station, except for the year 2020. During this year, the AGR dropped by ~20% at UNA before returning in
 447 2021 to the level of the previous two years. This behaviour contrasts with the AGR observed at ALTZ, which
 448 remains nearly constant between 2017 and 2021. The MAGR time series at UNA (Fig. 3C) shows that this drop

449 is dominated by the exceptionally low June and October growth rates, representing the lowest MAGR values of
 450 the UNA time series. This observation is supported by the VAL MAGR, although the time series is much
 451 shorter. The surface CO₂ AGR at UNA shows a much higher interannual variability, with the strongest anomaly
 452 observed in 2020, where the AGR is close to zero. A very clear decrease of the day-to-day and intraday CO₂
 453 surface variability is observed in Fig. 2B from April to mid-September 2020, consistent with the XCO₂ MAGR
 454 anomaly.

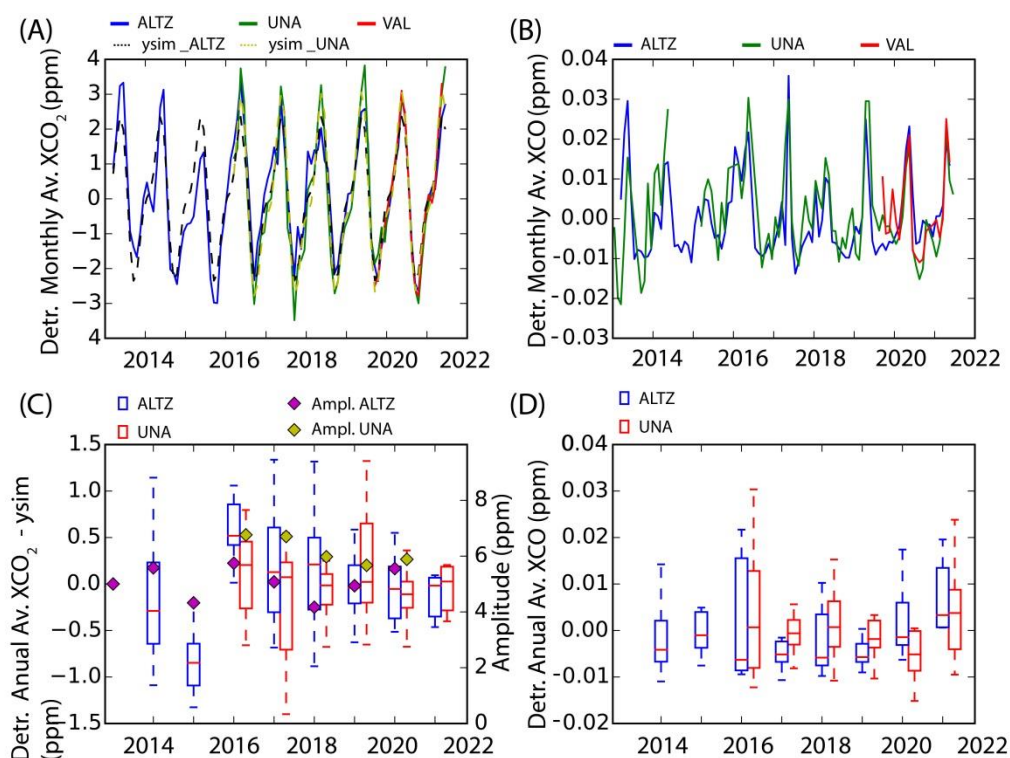
455 Upon examining CO, the UNA XCO time series (Fig. 2C) has daily averages ranging between 0.10 and
 456 0.23 ppm with a mean and standard deviation of 0.12 and 0.02 ppm, respectively, but shows a decreasing rate ($-$
 457 4.0×10^{-3} ppm/year) over the whole measurement period. The VAL XCO time series show a very similar baseline
 458 to UNA, with a daily average difference lower than 0.02 ppm for 85% of the coincident dataset (Fig. S1). At the
 459 ALTZ background site, the XCO baseline and day-to-day variability are lower than at UNA and VAL, as
 460 expected (mean and standard deviation equal to 0.08 and 0.01 ppm, respectively). The surface CO time series
 461 (Fig. 2D) shows a more significant decreasing trend (-2.68×10^{-2} ppm/year) than the total column data at UNA,
 462 while the baseline at ALTZ remains constant around 0.11 ppm. The CO AGR and MAGR at ALTZ and UNA
 463 are shown in Fig. 3B and D. Generally, the XCO AGR and MAGR oscillate around their base level at the ALTZ
 464 and UNA stations, with short-term anomalies. At ALTZ, a strong negative XCO AGR anomaly is observed in
 465 2017, which was not observed for XCO₂, likely resulting from the exceptionally high XCO columns measured
 466 during 2016. This is supported by the increase of the XCO MAGR from October 2015 to July 2016 (Fig. 3D),
 467 coinciding with the first 10 months of the highest XCO₂ anomaly and followed by the lowest XCO MAGR
 468 values of the time series (around -0.02 ppm/year in April 2017). At the UNA station, the AGR slightly decreases
 469 between 2016 and 2020 and increases again in 2021. The most significant and prolonged (>5 months) MAGR
 470 anomaly (Fig. 3D) occurred between April and September 2020, with negative values. Some short-term
 471 additional anomalies are observed, but only a few of them (in May 2018 and January 2019) are not affected by
 472 the limited number of available measurements.

473 **4.2 Seasonal variability and short-term cyclic events**

474 Annual cycles are observed for both total column XCO₂ and CO₂ surface measurements at ALTZ, UNA
 475 and VAL stations (Fig. 2). The maximum and minimum of the total column XCO₂ cycles are observed in May-
 476 June and September, respectively, with an average amplitude around 5 (ALTZ) and 6 (UNA) ppm.

477 To examine the temporal changes in amplitude and shape of the annual cycles, total column data were monthly-
 478 averaged, detrended by subtracting the linear part of the fit ($f(x) = ax$, in Eq. (7)), and compared to the detrended
 479 mean annual cycle ($f(x) - ax$) in Fig. 4. To obtain a longer-term view, we included the 2013-2015 period from the
 480 ALTZ station, previously published in Baylon et al. (2017), after applying the inter-calibration factors (section
 481 3.1.3). At ALTZ, two periods significantly deviated from the average XCO₂ seasonal cycle, i.e.: (i) the year
 482 2015, where all the monthly averaged XCO₂ are below the fit and with one of the lowest seasonal amplitudes
 483 (~ 4.0 ppm, Fig. 4A and 4C) of the whole time series, and (ii) the year 2016, with higher monthly averages than
 484 the mean XCO₂ seasonal cycle and the highest amplitude (~ 5.8 ppm, Fig. 4A and 4C). At UNA, the difference
 485 with respect to the average XCO₂ seasonal cycle is not significant, except for the year 2020, where all the
 486 monthly averages are below the mean annual cycle (Fig. 4C). During this period, the UNA and VAL XCO₂
 487 monthly-averaged data fit exceptionally well with those of the ALTZ station between March 2020 and March

488 2021 in terms of shape and amplitude, while the UNA and VAL annual cycle amplitudes are slightly higher than
 489 those of ALTZ for the other years.



490
 491 **Figure 4: Interannual and annual variability of the detrended XCO₂ and XCO total column data at the UNA, VAL**
 492 **and ALTZ stations. In (C) and (D) the whisker diagrams are calculated from the monthly average detrended data.**
 493 **The amplitude is determined as the max-min values.**

494 Regarding the CO₂ surface data (Fig. 2B), annual cycles are observed with maxima and minima reached mid-
 495 December and mid-September, respectively. As also reported in González del Castillo et al. (2022), the
 496 maximum occurred during winter, when shallower boundary layer prevails and the summer-autumn minimum
 497 can be explained by the dilution of trace gases in a deeper convective boundary layer and more active urban
 498 vegetation.

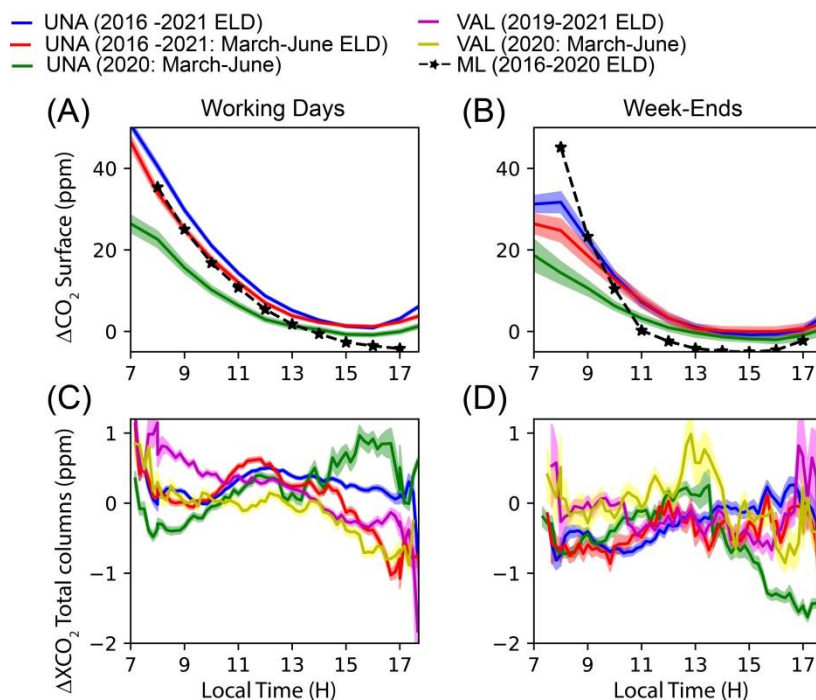
499 XCO peaks every year in April-May at the three stations (Fig. 2C and Fig. 4B) and then shows minimal annual
 500 values in August, preceding by 1 month the minimum and maximum values of the XCO₂ time series. The April-
 501 May maximal annual values, also confirmed by TROPOMI measurements (Borsdorff et al., 2020), coincide with
 502 the biomass burning season and the periods during which the mixed layer reaches its maximum altitude (García-
 503 Franco et al., 2018). During 2015, the XCO time series show a very low maximum reached in February instead
 504 of May (Fig. 4B), contrasting with 2016, where high total column XCO values are reached in January and
 505 maintained for a period of at least 5 months. 2016 also corresponds to the year with the highest XCO variability
 506 of the time series (Fig. 4D). Additionally, in 2018, the XCO annual cycles differ from the other years with lower
 507 values and a flat shape during the first semester of the year (January-May).

508 Surface CO data (Fig. 2D) also show periodic increases at the ALTZ station with maxima reached during April-
 509 May, coinciding with the maxima observed from total column XCO measurements. They confirm the increase of
 510 the CO emissions during the biomass burning season, at least dominant in the ALTZ measurements. However, at
 511 the UNA station, cycles are also observed in the surface data but with a maximum coinciding with that of the

512 CO₂ surface data, and lagging behind the XCO₂ total columns. These cycles are likely dominated by other
 513 processes affecting both CO and CO₂ species such as the mixed layer seasonal dynamic.

514 4.3 Intraday variability

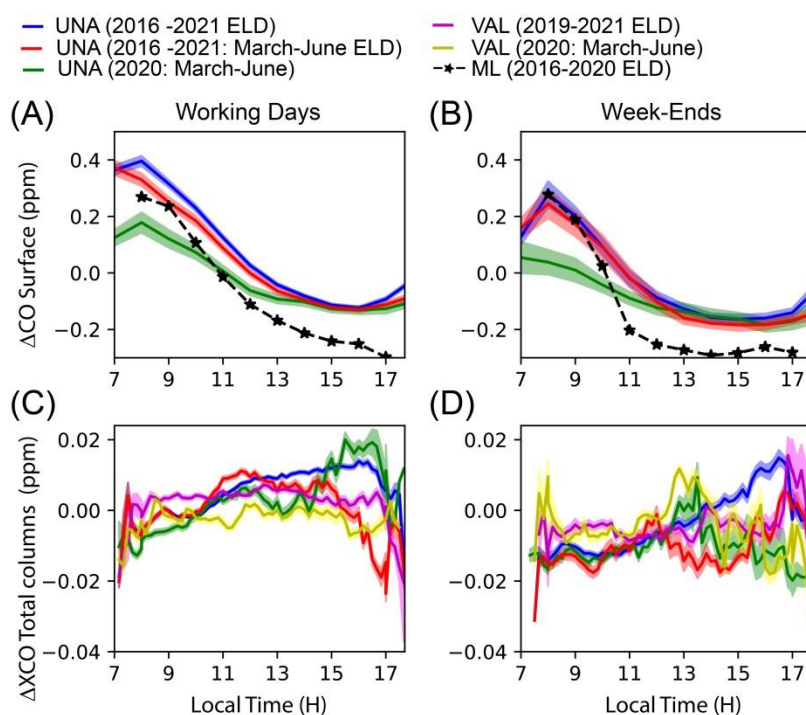
515 The intraday variability of the total columns and surface data are depicted in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6. Since the
 516 ALTZ total column data do not present a significant diurnal pattern (the hourly variability remains lower than the
 517 standard error of the time series), they are not presented in these plots.



518
 519 **Figure 5: Diurnal patterns of the detrended surface CO₂ mole fractions (A and B) and XCO₂ total columns (C and D)**
 520 **measured at UNA and VAL stations. For each panel, the different curves represent different time periods: in blue, the**
 521 **whole measurement period excluding the lock-down (March-June 2020) period, in green the lock-down period**
 522 **(March-June 2020) and in red the whole measurement periods only including the March to June months and**
 523 **excluding the lock-down period. The standard errors are presented as shaded areas. Black curves represent the**
 524 **diurnal pattern of CO₂ in the Mixed Layer (ML) calculated from the total columns data for the UNA station.**

525

526



527

528 **Figure 6: Same as Figure 5, but from surface CO and total column XCO measurements.**

529 Total column data were detrended by removing the seasonal fit (black traces in Fig. 2A and Fig. 2C), and
 530 averaged over 10 min. To avoid a possible bias due to strong ventilation periods, a filter based on a ventilation
 531 index (VI) was applied, following recommendations in Hardy (2001), Su et al. (2018) and Storey and Price
 532 (2022). The VI is calculated as the product of average wind speed velocity (between the surface and 100 m
 533 height), and the planetary boundary layer height for UNA and VAL locations. The wind velocity and the MLH
 534 were estimated with the U and V wind components and the PBL height fields from the hourly ERA5 reanalysis
 535 product (Hersbach et al., 2020). In the MCMA, the surface wind speed presents a diurnal pattern, generally
 536 reaching a maximum during the afternoon between 14 and 15h LT (Fig. S4). The filter selects the days
 537 complying with the following criteria (i) a maximum wind velocity (average 10-100m height) between 10h and
 538 12h LT lower than $1.5 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ (threshold based on Stremme et al., 2013) and (ii) a daily VI lower than $2350 \text{ m}^2\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$,
 539 which represents a commonly used threshold for selecting poor ventilation conditions (Hardy, 2001; Storey and
 540 Price, 2022). About 60% of the original XCO₂ and XCO dataset is selected by applying the filter, and will be
 541 considered in the following analysis. We note that about 70% of discarded data corresponds to the January-May
 542 period of the year. Filtered total column XCO₂ and XCO data were averaged by 10 min and presented in Fig. 5C
 543 and 5D and Fig. 6C and 6D, distinguishing between the working days (WD) and the week-end (WE) periods. To
 544 explore the 2020 lock-down influence on the diurnal pattern, three different periods were distinguished for each
 545 plot, the first one (blue trace: 2016 - 2021) corresponding to the whole measurement period excluding the
 546 interval between March and June 2020 corresponding to the lock-down period (hereafter, called “ELD” for
 547 “excluding the lock down period”), where a significant MAGR decrease was observed; the second (green trace:
 548 March- June 2020) only includes the lock-down period, and additionally excludes the rainy season to avoid bias
 549 due to incomplete daily time series; and the third period (red trace) is the same as the first one, but only
 550 considering the March to June months to be compared with the lock-down period.

551 Surface data from the CRDS analyzers were detrended by removing the background fit following the
552 methodology described in the section 3.2, and filtered to be coincident with the filtered total column
553 measurements (selection of data between 7 and 18 h LT and only including the days with low ventilation
554 conditions). They were finally averaged by hours and presented in Fig. 5A and 5B and Fig. 6A and 6B for the
555 WD and WE periods, respectively, for which each curve represents the periods mentioned above.

556 The surface CO₂ diurnal pattern at UNA station for the whole measurement period (2016-2021, Fig. 5A and 5B
557 in blue) is consistent with the one previously described in Gonzalez del Castillo et al. (2022) for the 2014-2019
558 period, with a maximum observed during the early morning (reached before 7h LT), a minimum during the
559 afternoon (between 15 and 16h LT) and an average amplitude around 45 ppm. A lower amplitude of these cycles
560 is observed at WE (average amplitude of 28 ppm) with respect to the WD periods. During the 2020 lock-down
561 period (green curve), the WD surface CO₂ diurnal profile has a comparable amplitude (average amplitude of 26
562 ppm) to those of the WE for the whole measurement period, and slightly higher than that observed during the
563 lock-down WE periods (average amplitude of 22 ppm). The surface CO diurnal profile (Fig. 6: 2016-2021, blue
564 curve) peaks at 8h and then decreases until 16 h LT during any day of the week. The WD and WE data shows
565 amplitudes of up to 0.5 ppm and 0.3 ppm, respectively. During the lock-down period the WD and WE
566 amplitudes are much lower (0.3 and 0.2, respectively), consistently with the CO₂ surface observations.

567 The XCO₂ and XCO diurnal patterns (Fig. 5C and 5D and Fig. 6C and 6D) have very different shapes than those
568 of the surface data, with amplitudes one order of magnitude lower. The variability observed between 7 and 8h is
569 likely due to the low number of measurements during this time interval, and will not be taken into account in the
570 following analysis. The UNA and VAL XCO₂ diurnal patterns significantly differ in shape. The VAL WD curve
571 (magenta) continuously decreases from 8h to 17h (amplitude around 2 ppm) during both the whole measurement
572 and lock-down periods, but during the lockdown period, lower values are generally recorded with higher intra-
573 hour variability between 11h and 14h. The general WD decreasing trend suggests a maximum reached during the
574 early morning (before 7h LT). This observation is supported by the CO₂ surface measurements performed with
575 the low-cost medium precision CO₂ sensors (Porrás et al., 2023), recording a maximum between 6h and 7h LT.
576 The UNA XCO₂ WD diurnal pattern (blue trace) is almost constant until 10h, then increases until reaching a
577 maximum around 12h, slightly decreases until 17h LT and finally shows an abrupt decrease after that. The
578 amplitude of the diurnal variability is around 1 ppm. During the lock-down period, the diurnal profile is
579 different, increasing until 12h LT, slightly decreasing until 13h LT and then increasing again until reaching a
580 maximum at 16h, and finally abruptly decreasing until 17h LT. The lock-down WD XCO₂ profile shows lower
581 values than the other periods until 13h, but the peak observed at 16h is not apparent for the other periods.
582 Variability is generally lower at WE (<1ppm), except for the lock-down period, for which an important decrease
583 is observed after 14h LT, but it is likely affected by a low number of measurement days. For XCO, the diurnal
584 profiles also have different shapes at UNA and VAL. At UNA, the March-June XCO diurnal profiles (red and
585 green curves) resemble that of XCO₂ for both the lock down and whole measurement periods. When considering
586 the twelve months of the year (blue trace), the maximum curve slightly increases between 12h and 16h, when it
587 reaches its maximum. It contrasts with the variability of the March to June months curves during this time
588 interval, for which an increase is observed during the lock-down period or a decrease if considering the whole
589 measurement period. At VAL, the diurnal profile is fairly constant until 17h with slightly lower values during the
590 lock-down period.

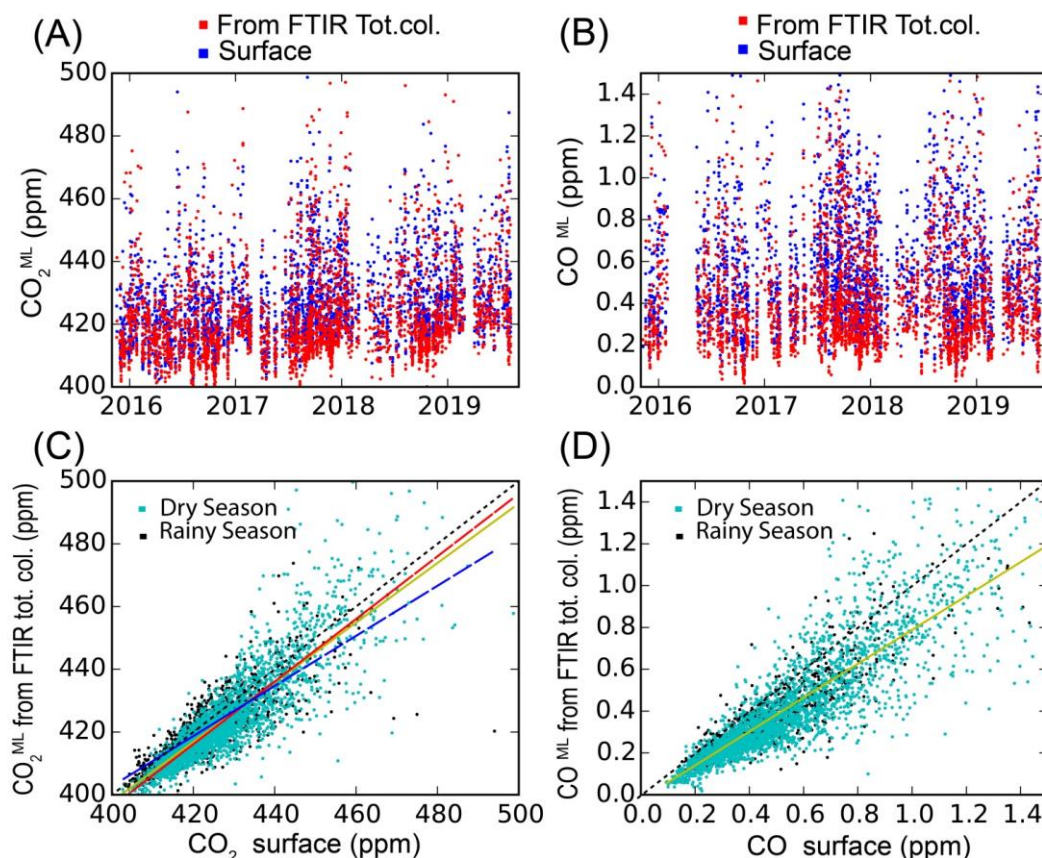
591 The total column XCO diurnal profiles at WE are less reliable with larger standard errors, likely due to the low
592 number of considered measurements. An increase is nevertheless observed at UNA where the considered day's
593 number is statistically more reliable, with a peak around 17h LT, which was not observed for XCO₂.

594 The difference observed between the diurnal pattern of the XCO and XCO₂ at VAL and UNA is likely due to the
595 different advection drivers in the region mainly controlled by the topography. A Northern surface wind direction
596 (Fig. S6) is generally dominating over the Mexican valley but is locally highly influenced by the mountainous
597 barriers. The West-northwest wind component at UNA is likely to be the effect of down-slope flows from the
598 mountain ridge in the early morning (6 – 9 LT mostly), while at VAL, the plateau-to-basin winds are the main
599 influx into the basin coming from the northwest in the morning. There can also be an influence from an up-
600 valley flow in the mornings (de Foy et al., 2006). More generally the VAL station is likely influenced by the
601 north mountain, generating a significant gradient in the CO distribution upwind of the VAL station (Fig. 1). In
602 contrast, near the UNA station, the flat ground allows a more efficient mixing and due to the dominant North-
603 Northeast wind component in the late morning, the captured airmasses likely often reflects the MCMA plume
604 emissions.

605 **4.4 CO and CO₂ within the mixed layer from FTIR and surface data.**

606 Figure 7 shows the hourly-averaged CO₂ and CO concentration within the mixed layer (CO₂^{ML} and CO^{ML}
607 products), calculated from the FTIR measurements (see section 3.4), concurrently to the surface data. The CO₂^{ML}
608 and CO^{ML} products are in agreement with the surface observation, with a slope of 0.95 ± 0.02 ($R^2=0.74$) for CO₂
609 (Fig. 7C) and 0.81 ± 0.02 ($R^2=0.74$) for CO (Fig. 7D). For CO₂, the slope was found closer to 1.0 (1.00 ± 0.02)
610 with an offset of -2.9 ± 0.2 and a better R^2 (0.77) when discarding the data corresponding to the rainy season. This
611 effect is likely due to the removal of the incomplete daily time series frequently interrupted at the beginning of
612 the afternoon during the rainy season.

613 The CO₂^{ML} and CO^{ML} diurnal patterns are presented in Fig. 5A and 5B and Fig. 6A and 6B (dash lines)
614 together with those of surface measurements, after a similar filtering. The CO₂^{ML} and surface CO₂ diurnal
615 patterns (Fig. 5A and 5B) are very similar in shape and amplitude, especially during the WD, although a small
616 difference is observed at the end of the afternoon (<5 ppm). This difference is likely due to the increase of the
617 uncertainties of the MLH estimate when it is more diluted. The CO^{ML} and surface CO diurnal profiles (Fig. 6A
618 and 6B) also have similar amplitudes and shape for both WD and WE, although the CO^{ML} diurnal profile shows
619 lower values (offset around 0.1 ppm at WD). Despite this very simplified model, these results show that the total
620 column and surface measurements are mutually very consistent when the seasonal and diurnal variability of the
621 ML expansion above Mexico City is taken into account.



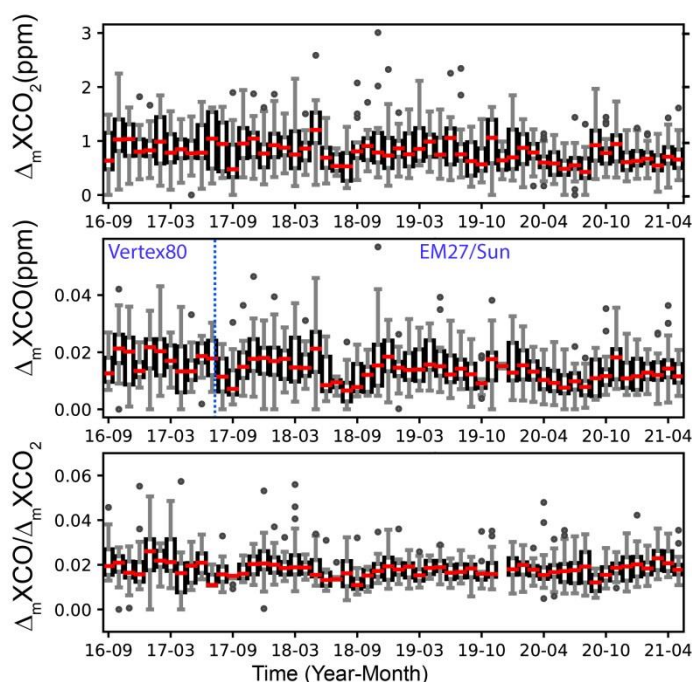
622
 623 **Figure 7: Comparison between (A) the CO_2^{ML} and (B) CO^{ML} products derived from the ALTZ and UNA total column**
 624 **measurements (red) and the surface measurements (blue) at the UNA station. (C) and (D) represent the correlation**
 625 **plots for CO_2 and CO, respectively. In (C) and (D), we distinguished between data corresponding to the dry**
 626 **(November to May: cyan) and rainy (June to October: black) seasons. In (C), yellow, red and blue linear regression**
 627 **curves correspond to the whole measurement period (yellow: slope= 0.95 ± 0.02 ; Offset= 17.9 ± 0.2 ; $R^2=0.74$), the dry**
 628 **season (red: slope= 1.00 ± 0.02 ; Offset: -2.9 ± 0.2 ; $R^2=0.77$) and the rainy season (blue: slope= 0.80 ± 0.03 ; Offset:**
 629 **83.7 ± 0.39 ; $R^2=0.66$). In (D), since no significant difference was found for the different period, the regression line**
 630 **(yellow: slope= 0.81 ± 0.02 ; offset: -0.021 ± 0.004 ; $R^2=0.74$) represent the whole measurement. The black dash line**
 631 **represents $y=x$.**

632 4.5 XCO_2 to XCO enhancements ratios

633 The XCO and XCO_2 correlated enhancements and their ratio can give insights into the combustion
 634 efficiency of the sources in a city, and therefore on their contributions. In this study we explored the variability
 635 of the XCO/ XCO_2 ratios at both long-term and intraday scales.

636 For the long-term analysis, the XCO_2 “background” level was calculated using a statistical method, using the
 637 lower 5th percentile of the measured Xgas over a 1-day running window (You et al., 2021). We did not use the
 638 ALTZ measurements because of (i) the periodic influence of the wildfires in the region during the dry season,
 639 and (ii) the discontinuity of our daily averaged time series. The enhancements above background $\Delta_m \text{XCO}_2$ and
 640 $\Delta_m \text{XCO}$ measured at UNA and averaged by months and their ratios are presented in Fig. 8, as whisker diagrams.

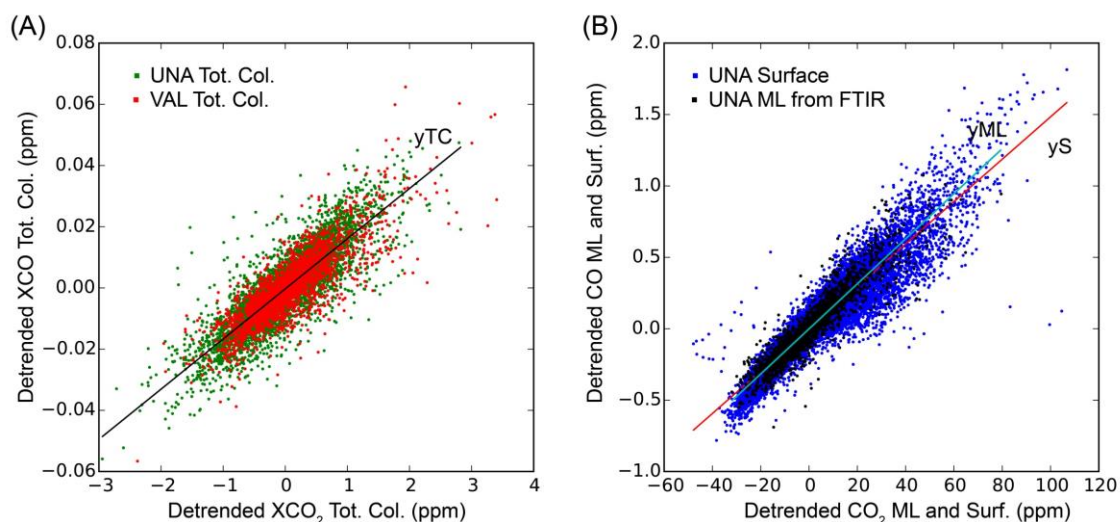
641



642
 643 **Figure 8: Whisker diagram representing by month the variability of ΔXCO_2 , ΔXCO and their ratio from the UNA**
 644 **measurements.**

645 Both $\Delta_m XCO_2$ and $\Delta_m XCO$ time series show a slight decrease over time (around 0.05 ppm/year and 0.001
 646 ppm/year, respectively). Although the $\Delta_m XCO/\Delta_m XCO_2$ ratio displays a variability around its mean value
 647 (0.018 ± 0.003), there are no discernible cyclic or long-term trend in the time series, except for the rainy periods
 648 of 2017, 2018 and 2020 when low ratios (and low $\Delta_m XCO$ and $\Delta_m XCO_2$ values) were observed. The $\Delta_m XCO$
 649 and $\Delta_m XCO/\Delta_m XCO_2$ ratio show a higher variability at the beginning of the time series (until July 2017) likely
 650 due to the use of the CO Vertex products. The long term $\Delta_m XCO$ decrease, also observed in other studies
 651 (Garcia-Franco, et al., 2019; Molina, 2021, Hernández-Paniagua et al., 2021) likely reflect the effect of the
 652 successive air quality management programs implemented in the CDMX since the 1990s to improve the air
 653 quality, including technological advancements and fuel quality enhancements as well as refinery closures,
 654 industrial relocation, or fuel substitution. Regarding the low seasonal variability observed for the CO/CO₂ ratios,
 655 it is likely related to mass burning episodes and high-pressure weather conditions that occur during the dry
 656 season.

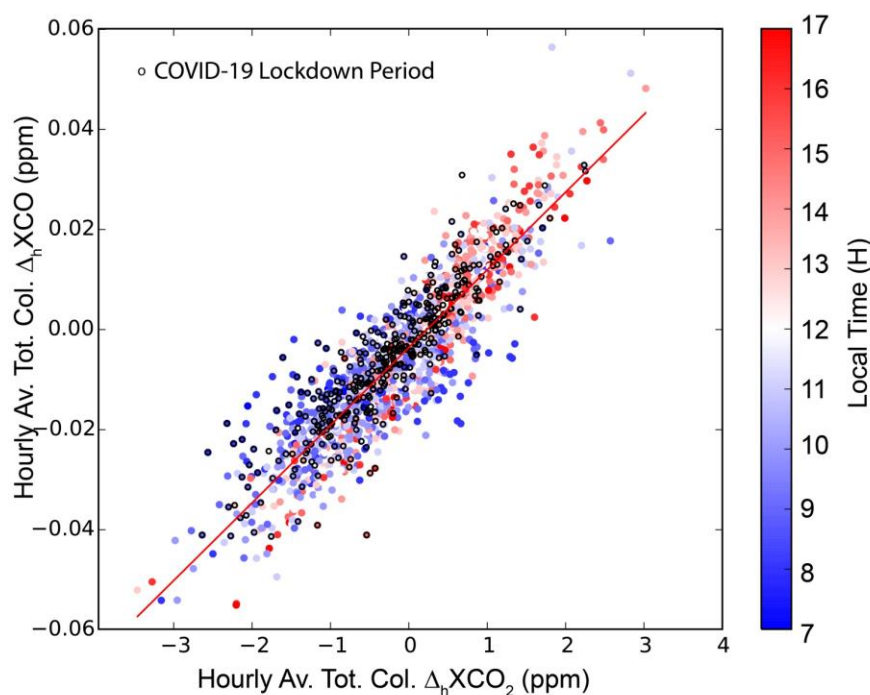
657 To perform the intraday analysis, the hourly-averaged data were first detrended by subtracting the daily average.
 658 The resulting ΔXCO_2 vs. ΔXCO datasets are plotted in Fig. 9A. The entire ΔXCO_2 and ΔXCO datasets showed a
 659 good correlation at both the UNA and VAL stations, with similar linear regression slopes around 0.0164 ± 0.0003 ,
 660 which is consistent with that found from the surface measurements and the ML product (Fig. 9B). Although
 661 there is an actual difference in the emission types of the southern and northern parts of the city, the North hosting
 662 industrial and commercial sources and the South being largely residential and commercial, the common and
 663 dominant source of CO in the MCMA (at UNA and VAL stations) could incriminate motorised vehicles. The
 664 data dispersion around the regression line likely reflects more punctual and local influence of other sources with
 665 an important week-to-week variability.



666

667 **Figure 9: Correlation plot of (A) the detrended (by removing the daily averages) hourly-average total column XCO vs.**
 668 **XCO₂ data, and (B) the detrended hourly average Mixing Layer (ML) and surface CO vs. CO₂ products. Solid lines**
 669 **represent the linear regression lines, with the following parameters: TC slope=0.0164±0.0003, R²=0.72 for the total**
 670 **columns at UNA and VAL; yS slope=0.0148±0.0001, R²=0.87 for the surface products and yML slope=0.0158±0.0002,**
 671 **R²=0.88 for the Mixing Layer products.**

672 On the other hand, the total column (UNA-VAL) differences, presented in Fig. S3 can also be used to calculate
 673 the $\Delta XCO/\Delta XCO_2$ ratio, with a more precise subtraction of a common background (which assumes a
 674 homogeneous background across the entire city) from the two stations. Figure 10 shows the hourly-average
 675 ΔXCO_2 (UNA-VAL) vs. ΔXCO (UNA-VAL) correlation plot for the coincident measurement period. A well-
 676 defined linear correlation is observed with a slope of 0.015 ± 0.001 and a coefficient of determination of $R^2=0.80$,
 677 highly consistent with that found in Fig. 9. The use of the (UNA-VAL) total columns difference notably
 678 improved the coefficient of determination, by removing the regional long-term and short-term perturbations
 679 affecting the two sites. The intraday variability of the ΔXCO (UNA-VAL)/ ΔXCO_2 (UNA-VAL) ratio (Fig. 10:
 680 colour scale), showing higher columns at VAL during the morning and at UNA during the afternoon likely
 681 reflect the North to South transport of air across the city. We note that the ratio remains the same during the
 682 lock-down period. We would expect lower intraday (UNA-VAL) ΔXCO and ΔXCO_2 amplitudes during the
 683 lock-down period, but it is not clearly apparent in this correlation plot.



684
 685 **Figure 10: Correlation plot of the ΔXCO (UNA - VAL) vs. ΔXCO_2 (UNA - VAL) hourly averages (colour scale**
 686 **depending on the time is shown to the right) for the coincident measurement period (September 2019 - June 2021).**
 687 **Dots with black edges highlight the measurements during the COVID19 lock-down period (March-June 2020).**
 688 **Regression line (in red): Slope: 0.015 ± 0.001 , $R^2 = 0.80$.**

689 4.6 Estimate of CO and CO₂ MCMA emissions.

690 The variability of the long-term CO emissions in the MCMA can be estimated, following the method
 691 detailed in Stremme et al. (2013). In that study, they assumed that, since the XCO emissions in the MCMA are
 692 mainly due to traffic pollution, the rapid changes observed in the XCO total column (less affected by the airmass
 693 vertical distribution) should reflect the CO fresh emissions under certain meteorological conditions. Low
 694 ventilation, strong turbulence in the mixed layer and limited zenithal angle of measurements are critical criteria
 695 to avoid enhancement due to horizontal transport or local heterogeneity. XCO growth rates can be estimated at
 696 specific time intervals complying with these conditions from long-term time series. Further details on the method
 697 and estimates of uncertainties due to these assumptions are given in Stremme et al. (2013). Here, we determined
 698 an optimised time interval for estimating the mean CO growth rate using (i) the diurnal surface wind speed
 699 patterns and (ii) the MLH growth rate, the latter reflecting the turbulence within the mixed layer (Fig. S4). The
 700 time interval complying with a rapid growth of the mixed layer and low surface wind speed ($< 2 \text{ m.s}^{-1}$) was
 701 found between 10 and 12h, which is in agreement with the requirements mentioned in Stremme et al. (2013).
 702 Growth rates and their uncertainties were determined by year, based on the linear regression (with 95%
 703 confidence interval) of the 10-min averaged detrended CO total columns over the 10-12h interval. For example,
 704 for the year 2018, we found a CO growth rate of $52 \pm 5 \text{ kg.km}^{-2}.\text{h}^{-1}$.

705 To extrapolate the growth rate over the MCMA, we used the TROPOMI CO total column data that we averaged
 706 over the 2018-2022 period (Fig. 1), following the same method as described in Stremme et al. (2013). We
 707 assume that the total amount of fresh CO is proportional to the total emission of the MCMA and to the total
 708 column enhancement at the UNA site, which reflects the CO accumulated at this site. The ratio of the total
 709 accumulated CO in the MCMA to the accumulated CO at UNA is therefore the same as the emission ratio of the

710 whole Megacity to the emission flux at UNA. Therefore this ratio is the extrapolation factor and represents an
 711 effective area, defined as Eq. (8):

$$712 \quad Eff_Area = \frac{\int(CO_{MCMA} - CO_{bgnd})}{CO_{UNA} - CO_{bgnd}} \quad (8)$$

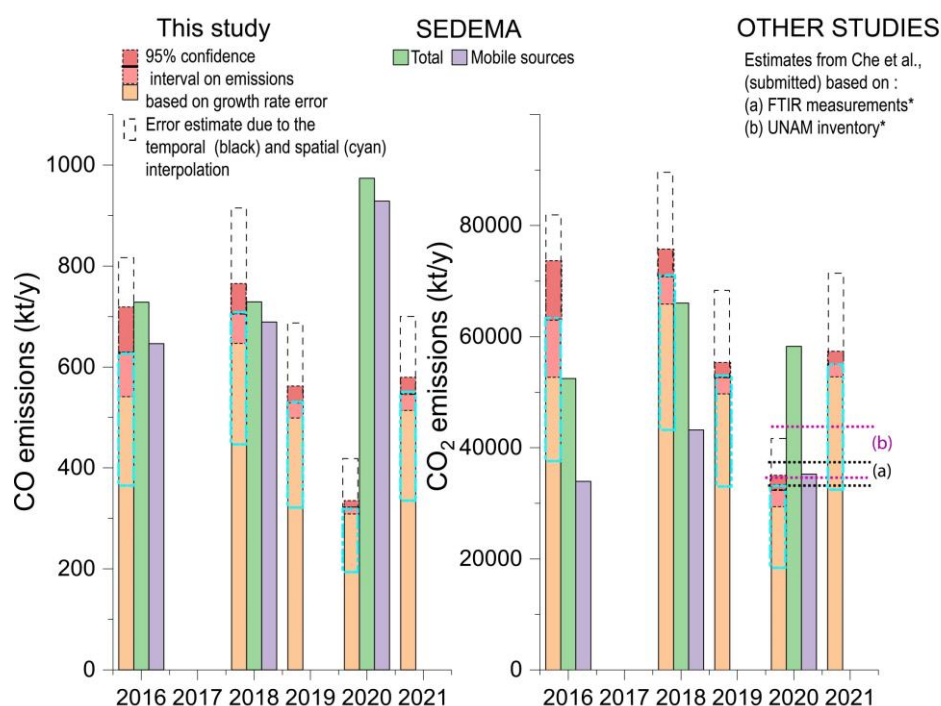
713 In Eq. (8), $(CO_{MCMA} - CO_{bgnd})$ is integrated over the area where the CO TROPOMI total columns are higher than
 714 a predefined background value. As the TROPOMI overflight time is around 13h30 LT, we cannot neglect the
 715 ventilation and slight advection is smoothing out the distribution, so that both the background and the column at
 716 UNA have to be chosen carefully. The background column was therefore estimated in two ways (i) from the
 717 smallest value observed upwind of the city (cross symbol in Fig. 1) at the elevation of the Mexican basin
 718 (contour line separating Mexico City from the Toluca area in the west in Fig. 1) and found to be 1.45×10^{18}
 719 molec.cm⁻² and (ii) from the Tecamac site, where the border of MCMA was assumed in Stremme et al. (2013)
 720 and where the column was found to be 1.60×10^{18} molec.cm⁻².

721 Due to advection, even locations slightly out of the megacity are presenting enhanced CO columns and it is not
 722 clear which is the background column in the Mexican basin. Figure S5 illustrated the sensitivity of the effective
 723 area to the background uncertainties. A 10% higher background leads to a 40% smaller extrapolation factor and
 724 a 40 % emission underestimate. The fresh CO was estimated from the TROPOMI data by removing the
 725 background (1.45×10^{18} molec.cm⁻²) to the average total columns found at UNA (1.93×10^{18} molec.cm⁻²) and was
 726 found to be 4.79×10^{17} molec.cm⁻². In cases where the CO total column is lower than the background, likely due
 727 to the topography effect, we set the difference column to zero for the integration. This topographic effect is
 728 important for the considered area, as there are plenty of mountains around the basin, like the mountain ridge in
 729 the west (including Ajusco, Desierto de Leones, etc.), some mountains in the mountain ridge on the eastern part
 730 of the area including in the south the two volcanoes Popocatepetl and Iztaccihuatl.

731 Finally, we found effective areas of ~ 2017 km² (outer area, blue contour line in Fig.1) and ~ 1178 km² (inner
 732 area, red contour line in Fig.1) considering the two background values given above. The “inner area” reflects
 733 conditions without ventilation effect, therefore the outer area is more appropriate for the emission estimates
 734 given that the TROPOMI measurements occurred at 13:30 when the ventilation cannot be neglected. The other
 735 estimates calculated from the inner area will be thereafter only indicated within brackets and considered to
 736 estimate the sensitivity of the result.

737 Since the measured growth rate corresponds to a time interval of only 2 hours in the middle of the day, the CO
 738 intraday fluctuations have to be taken into account. Stremme et al. (2013) used a factor which was taken from the
 739 available bottom-up inventories and described that the CO emissions per/day are roughly 18.5 times the emission
 740 per hour at noon. Assuming the same factor, we estimate a CO rate around 0.71 ± 0.06 (0.42 ± 0.04) Tg/year for
 741 2018. If no information about the diurnal distribution of the emission rate is available, we should assume a
 742 uniform distribution and an upper value of the CO rate could be estimated using an intraday time interpolation
 743 factor of 24 hours instead of 18.5, finally resulting in $\sim 30\%$ higher estimates. Despite the significant
 744 uncertainties introduced by spatial and temporal interpolation, their impact on the relative variability, trends and
 745 anomalies of the emission rates is less important if the same method and assumptions are consistently applied
 746 across the entire time series.

747 CO₂ emissions could not be directly estimated using the same method, given its complex diurnal pattern, which
 748 is a cumulative result of both natural and anthropogenic contributions and likely been influenced by additional
 749 factors, related to instrumental and retrieval effects (i.e: air mass dependence error with a sub-percentage
 750 contribution for CO₂, non-ideal column sensitivity of the retrieval which represent near 25% overestimation for
 751 CO₂ anomaly and 5% underestimation for CO anomaly in the PBL). Instead, we based our CO₂ estimates on the
 752 measured XCO/XCO₂ ratio. The average XCO/XCO₂ molec. ratio (0.0164±0.0003) determined from the UNA
 753 and VAL total column measurement (Fig. 9) was converted to a mass ratio (multiplying it by the molecular
 754 weight ratio) and found to be 0.0100±0.0002. Considering this ratio, we estimated the CO₂ annual emission at
 755 71±6 (42±4) Tg/year for 2018. Our estimates of CO and CO₂ emissions by year and their average over the whole
 756 time series, applying the same method, are presented in Fig. 11 and Table S3, concurrently with the SEDEMA
 757 inventories for the MCMA. We obtained a 2016-2021 CO and CO₂ average emissions of 0.55±0.02 (0.32±0.01)
 758 and 46±2 (32±1) Tg/year, respectively, when excluding the lockdown period (Table S3). Here, the given
 759 uncertainties are solely those stemming from the propagation of errors in growth rate estimates. Uncertainties on
 760 absolute values are much higher when considering spatial and temporal extrapolations errors, but they do not
 761 influence the interpretation of relative values.



*: The same intraday temporal interpolation factor was applied for the comparison. (a) and (b) were based on the 10/2020 - 05/2021 period

762

763 **Figure 11: Comparison of CO and CO₂ emission estimates from UNA FTIR diurnal growth rates and from SEDEMA**
 764 **inventories. For CO₂ (right), the estimates from Che et al. (submitted) are also reported, although it was based on the**
 765 **10/2020 to 05/2021 period, after applying the same intraday temporal factor as used for our study to convert the**
 766 **Gg/hour to kt/year.**

767 5 Discussion

768 5.1 Long term variability

769 In this contribution, we characterised the seasonal and inter-annual variability and trends of the CO and
 770 CO₂ total column and surface concentrations from two urban and one background stations. The average total

771 column 2013-2019 growth rate obtained at ALTZ (~2.5 ppm/year) and its inter-annual variability are in
772 accordance with that typical of the Northern Hemisphere measurements from TCCON stations (hereafter, NH-
773 TCCON) (Sussman et al., 2020: AGR of 2.4 ppm/year for the 2012-2019 period).

774 Both the NH-TCCON and ALTZ stations captured an important increase of the AGR in 2016 (+1.1 ppm/year for
775 the TCCON stations and +2.1 ppm/year for the ALTZ station with respect to 2015), coinciding with the most
776 intense ENSO (El Niño Southern Oscillation) event since the 1950s'. The impact of "El Niño" events on the
777 carbon cycle is not yet fully understood, although they are consistently accompanied by a global increase of
778 XCO₂ due to increasing drought in many regions and a decrease in global land carbon uptake. In 2016, an
779 increase of 1.3 ppm/year was observed in the Mauna Loa in situ AGR with respect to 2015 (Betts et al., 2018),
780 for which the contribution of the 'El Niño' event was estimated at about 25%, the rest ascribed to an increase of
781 the anthropogenic emissions. In Mexico, the "El Niño" events are generally associated with a decrease in
782 precipitations, with deficits which can reach up to 250 mm in the South-Western area of the country, causing
783 drought and a higher occurrence of wild and forest fires (Bravo-Cabrera et al., 2018, González del Castillo et al.,
784 2020). Our observations from the ALTZ measurements highlight a much higher XCO₂ increase (+2.1 ppm/year)
785 during 2016 with respect to 2015 than that observed at the NH-TCCON stations. During this period a small
786 increase in the XCO MAGR (~ +0.02 ppm) is also observed at both ALTZ and UNA stations, maintaining the
787 highest values of the whole time series over more than 4 months. Assuming that the CO MAGR variability
788 captured at the ALTZ station during 2016 rather reflects a change in the global MCMA's emissions, we attempt
789 to delineate the global and local contributions in the 2016 XCO₂ ALTZ AGR increase. Adopting a molecular
790 CO/CO₂ ratio of ~ 0.016, a hypothetical increase of the XCO₂ MAGR over the 09/2015 - 09/2016 period due to
791 the local emissions would be around +1.2 ppm/year, thus about 60% of the observed increasing rate during this
792 period (+2.1 ppm/year). This gross estimate suggests that the El Niño regional effect only contributed at about
793 25% (0.9 ppm) to the observed AGR increase, which is close to the estimate from the NH-TCCON stations (~
794 +1.1 ppm) and from in situ data.

795 On the other hand, our long-term FTIR and surface time series allows examining the effect of the COVID-19
796 lock-down on the tropospheric CO₂ and CO concentration above the MCMA at local and regional scales. The
797 reduction of the surface CO and CO₂ AGR at UNA (CO₂ AGR to a value close to zero, and CO AGR ~ -0.1
798 ppm/year) with respect to the other years (Fig. 3), and the strong diminution of their amplitude in the mean
799 diurnal cycles clearly reflect a significant decrease of the local emissions near the UNA station, likely due to a
800 drastic reduction of the urban traffic (the average annual congestion level decreased from 52% in 2019 to 36% in
801 2020 in Mexico City, from TomTom available estimates [https://www.tomtom.com/traffic-index/mexico-city-
802 traffic/](https://www.tomtom.com/traffic-index/mexico-city-traffic/)).

803 The FTIR total column XCO₂ and XCO time series at UNA did not capture such a drastic change, only a small
804 punctual decrease of the MAGR lower than the standard deviation of the whole time series was observed
805 between April and October 2020. These results are in accordance with previous studies in other parts of the
806 world. Although a reduction of 8.8% of the global CO₂ emissions was observed during the first five months of
807 2020 (Liu et al., 2020; Jones et al., 2020) and an annual reduction from 4 to 7% (Le Quéré et al., 2020), the
808 atmospheric total column XCO₂ showed a less clear effect (Sussman et al., 2020).

809 5.2 CO/CO₂ ratio and MCMA emission estimates

810 In this study, we robustly determined the CO/CO₂ ratio characterising the combustion efficiency of the city
811 (0.016±0.01) from both surface and total column measurements at two urban stations. We found the same ratio
812 for the UNA and VAL stations, and this ratio is very consistent with that found using the (UNA-VAL) gradients
813 and using the surface measurements. This ratio is also consistent with that reported by MacDonald et al. (2023),
814 calculated from TROPOMI and OCO-2/3 measurements (0.019) and slightly higher than that obtained from the
815 EDGAR, FFDAS and ODIAC inventories (ratio ~0.012) reported in the same study.

816 Our estimate of CO emissions from the UNA measurements is based on a simplified approach, limited
817 to days with low ventilation and time intervals corresponding to the late morning hours. It assumes a
818 homogeneous area in the footprint and averages selected days without discrimination. Given that the temporal
819 and spatial extrapolation introduces large uncertainties, only the relative and interannual behaviour of the
820 emission can be discussed here, but the approach demonstrates how close column growth rate can be related to
821 emission flux, if meteorological conditions allow neglecting advection. Our estimated range of CO emissions are
822 consistent with the SEDEMA inventories at least for the year 2016 (factor 0.98) and 2018 (factor 1.04) if
823 considering that they are dominated by the mobile sources. However, it is not the case for 2020, for which our
824 estimate is much lower than SEDEMA by a factor of 0.3. During the lock-down period we estimated a decrease
825 of about 55% compared to 2018 while in the SEDEMA report, 2020 is the year with the maximum CO emissions
826 (increase of 35% compared to 2018 considering the mobile sources). Both of these estimates contrast with
827 Kutralam-Muniasamy et al. (2021), which reported an increase of 1.1% during the lock-down using the RAMA
828 surface data. The large difference observed between these different studies can be due to i) the different methods
829 used for extrapolating in space and time the emissions, ii) higher uncertainties of the FTIR-based estimates due
830 to an important reduction the selected days of measurements and iii) an over-estimation of the SEDEMA
831 inventory due to a lack of data during the lock-down period. Our estimate is based on the extrapolation of data
832 from only one station (UNA), for which the dominant source is mainly the UNAM traffic activity. During the
833 lockdown, the UNAM was closed and a significant reduction of the local traffic was recorded, but this traffic
834 reduction was likely not representative of the whole MCMA. However, the decrease of the MAGR at both VAL
835 and UNA stations does not support the increase of the CO emissions estimated by the SEDEMA inventory.
836 Interestingly, it was not possible to apply the same method to calculate CO emissions at VAL because the
837 average growth rate was close to zero (Fig. 6). This behaviour at VAL is likely due to the fast dispersion of the
838 pollutant at this site, weakening the link between the diurnal pattern and the emissions.

839 Regarding CO₂, our estimates also agree with the SEDEMA's inventory, especially if we consider the total
840 emissions instead of mobile sources (factor of 1.2 and 1.1) for the years 2016 and 2018. For 2020, we estimated
841 a decrease of 55% while the SEDEMA inventory indicates a decrease of about 10%. The CO/CO₂ ratios
842 calculated from the SEDEMA data for total emissions are similar to ours (0.014 and 0.011 in 2016 and 2018,
843 respectively), suggesting that our average CO/CO₂ ratio is actually representative of the global mixing of the
844 different sources of the MCMA, and not only dominated by the road traffic. Interestingly, according to the
845 SEDEMA inventory, road traffic, the main anthropogenic CO source is identified by ratios (0.019 and 0.016 in
846 2016 and 2018, respectively) only slightly higher than our global average; whilst the industrial and domestic
847 burning sectors, which represent the second main CO₂ anthropogenic sources, produces a one order of magnitude
848 lower ratio. In any case, our measurements are well representative of the main source of the CO and CO₂

849 anthropogenic emissions. Indeed, if we consider the 2018 SEDEMA ratio for mobile sources (0.016), we find
850 CO₂ emissions of the order of 43,100 kt/year for this year, within ~5% of the SEDEMA estimates.
851 Our results were also compared with the estimates reported in Che et al. (submitted), Che et al. (2023) and
852 Grutter et al. (2024) based on an intensive FTIR measurement campaign performed during the 10/2020 to
853 05/2021 period and using a Column-Stochastic Time-Inverted Lagrangian Transport model (X-STILT) and a
854 bayesian inversion (Fig. 11). Considering the same measurement period, our method leads to CO₂ emission
855 estimates ranging between 29,000 and 49,800 kt/year using inner and outer effective area, respectively, which is
856 consistent with the estimates obtained in Che et al. (submitted), ranging between 32,700 and 37,200 kt/year
857 when applying the same intraday temporal extrapolation factor. Although the method we used for estimating the
858 MCMA emissions is coarse and contains large uncertainties, mainly due to the temporal and space extrapolation,
859 it shows the ability to use one station capturing the variability of the anthropogenic emissions of the MCMA and
860 providing a year-by-year follow-up emission information without using complex dispersion models.

861 **6 Summary and conclusion**

862 We have analysed the variability of the total column XCO and XCO₂ above the MCMA from two urban
863 and one background stations. The long-term XCO₂ data at the ALTZ station shows an average annual growth
864 rate of ~2.5 ppm/year, similar to what has been reported from TCCON stations in the northern hemisphere, and
865 captured the perturbation driven by the 2015-2016 El Niño event. The urban stations show a similar growth rate
866 (~2.3 ppm/year) and unlike at ALTZ, a slight decrease of XCO₂ and XCO during the COVID19 lock-down
867 period could be observed. The CO₂ and CO concentrations within the mixed layer, estimated from the FTIR total
868 column measurements and ceilometer data, were found to be consistent with the surface measurements. These
869 findings confirm that the concentrations near the surface are mainly controlled by the emissions and the daily
870 behaviour of the mixed layer in MCMA. Our long-term total column and surface time series from both urban
871 stations allowed us to determine with great confidence an average CO/CO₂ ratio, indicative of the Mexico City
872 combustion efficiency. The CO/CO₂ ratio over our long-term measurement period seems to be fairly constant
873 and equals ~0.016 (mass ratio: 0.010). This value is consistent with other studies such as from satellite
874 measurements (OCO-2/3 and TROPOMI) and the bottom-up inventories reported by MacDonald et al. (2023).
875 Finally, we estimated the CO emissions using the average daily growth rate determined from measurements at
876 the UNA station. Although this method likely leads to an under-estimate of the emissions due to the non-
877 negligible effects of advection, our results were found to be very consistent with the 2016 and 2018 SEDEMA
878 inventories. The same strategy could not be applied at the VAL station, likely because of dominant southward
879 advection of the airmass, due to the complex topography in this part of the MCMA. In contrast, the UNA station
880 is located in a flat ground downwind of the main anthropogenic source of the MCMA which likely allows
881 establishing a direct relationship between the columnar measurements and the MCMA CO and CO₂ emissions.
882 We finally estimated the CO₂ emissions using the CO growth rate and the CO/CO₂ ratio. The finding that our
883 CO₂ emission estimates are within 20% of those of SEDEMA for total emissions show that our ratio reflects not
884 only the traffic sources but is also affected by other sources such as industrial activities and domestic burning.
885 The UNA station, with its advantageous orography, is therefore a good site to capture well-mixed emissions
886 from the city and serves as a site to follow the interannual variability and trends of the emissions in this urban
887 environment. Finally, this study showed the feasibility to monitor the long-term evolution of anthropogenic CO₂

888 and CO emissions in Mexico City by deploying only a few EM27/SUN instruments. The methodology employed
889 here for monitoring the long-term temporal variability of CO emission fluxes is likely to be adapted to other
890 urban areas where the topography damps the ventilation down for several hours each day, thereby establishing
891 that the column growth rate is dominated by the emission flux. Although the straightforward model presented
892 here is not intended to replace a complex transport/chemical model for a precise estimate of city emissions, the
893 results obtained demonstrate that it is nevertheless possible to track their temporal evolution with a high degree
894 of reliability.

895 **7 Author contribution**

896 All the co-authors contributed in the discussion of concepts, and to the preparation of the manuscript. NT, WS
897 and MG were responsible of FTIR measurements and the data analysis. MG and WS lead the ALTZ station
898 development and its long-term operation. AB and EGC were responsible of the maintenance of the instruments
899 at the Alzomoni station. VA helped to classify the days and hours with low ventilation and strong turbulence
900 and provided the UNAM emission inventory. EGC was in charge of the in-situ measurements, with the support
901 of OL. MG and MR led the MERCI-CO₂ project. FH lead at KIT the German-Mexican collaboration for the
902 deployment of the high resolution FTIR spectrometer and supports its long-term operation as part of NDACC.
903 FH has helped in the design and setup of the spectrometer and solar tracker before it was shipped to Mexico. He
904 has developed the retrieval code PROFFIT and gives continuously support to the UNAM group for its use and in
905 operating the spectrometer. FH and CA lead the German-Mexican collaboration and give precious help for the
906 EM27/Sun measurements in the frame of the COCCON network. All the co-authors contributed of the writing of
907 the manuscript.

908 **8 Competing interests**

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

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921 **10 References**

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