1	Sensitivity of inverse estimation of 2004 elemental carbon
2	emissions inventory in the United States to the choice of
3	observational networks
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9	Abstract
10	Choice of observational networks used for inverse re-estimation of elemental (or black)
11	carbon (EC) emissions in the United States impacts results. We convert the Thermal
12	Optical Transmittance (TOT) EC measurements to the Thermal Optical Reflectance
13	(TOR) equivalents to make full utilization of available networks in inverse modeling of
14	EC using regional air quality model. Results show that using the Interagency Monitoring
15	of Protected Visual Environments (IMPROVE) network gives significantly lower
16	emissions estimate compared to using the Speciation Trends Network (STN) and other
17	networks or using all available networks together. The re-estimate obtained by using
18	IMPROVE sites alone made overall model performance worse compared to the
19	bottom-up estimate of EC emissions, while both re-estimates, using STN (and others)
20	sites and using all sites together, significantly improved the performance. Further analysis
21	suggests that site density with respect to geographical location (downwind) impacts the
22	robustness of a network's inverse re-estimate.

1. Introduction

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25	Atmospheric chemical transport models are subject to emissions uncertainties.
26	Application of inverse methods in atmospheric models helps reconcile the gap between
27	modeled and observed species concentrations by adjusting the emissions. During the past
28	decade, using surface monitoring networks and satellite images, inverse modeling has
29	been actively utilized to "correct" bottom-up emissions estimates [Bergamaschi et al.,
30	2000; Elbern et al., 2000; Gilliland et al., 2003; Heald et al., 2004; Mendoza-Dominguez
31	and Russell, 2001]. However, the adoption of different observational networks in inverse
32	modeling can lead to discrepancies in inverse emissions estimates [Law et al., 2003;
33	Patra et al., 2006]. Of interest is the sensitivity of the inverse estimates to the choice of
34	observational networks. Here we study the sensitivity of inverse estimation of elemental
35	(or black) carbon (EC) emissions to different observational networks and examine the
36	robustness of the re-estimates.
37	EC is measured as the light-absorbing fraction of carbonaceous aerosol species and
38	can be a significant component of fine particulate matter (PM _{2.5}). However, its
39	measurement is operationally defined and different measurement techniques give
40	differing, but often highly correlated results [Chow et al., 2004; Hitzenberger et al., 2006;
41	Nejedlÿ et al., 2003; Schmid et al., 2001]. EC is found to be associated with adverse
42	human health effects and regional visibility degradation and can influence radiative
43	forcing [Charlson et al., 1992; Penner et al., 1992; Ramanathan et al., 2001]. EC in the
44	atmosphere comes solely from combustion processes of either fossil fuels (e.g. coal
45	burning and diesel combustion) or bio-mass (e.g. wildfire and prescribed burning).
46	Studies suggest EC emissions inventories are significantly underestimated at regional

47 level (e.g. in the United States) [Eder and Yu, 2006; Tesche et al., 2006]. Limited inverse 48 modeling studies have been carried out to adjust the existing emissions inventory 49 [Hakami et al., 2005; Park et al., 2003] utilizing aircraft and/or surface measurements, 50 however the spatial and temporal coverage of EC measurements were extremely limited 51 in these studies. EC emissions in the US are estimated to be about 0.4 Tg yr⁻¹ which is 5% of the 52 53 global totals [Bond et al., 2004], which makes the US the third largest emitter after China 54 (~20%) and India (~9%). There are two major national surface networks measuring EC 55 currently operational in the US: the Interagency Monitoring of Protected Visual 56 Environments (IMPROVE) network and the Speciation Trends Network (STN). In 57 addition, there is the SouthEastern Aerosol Research and CHaracterization (SEARCH) 58 [Hansen et al., 2006] in the southeastern US, and the Assessment of Spatial Aerosol 59 Composition in Atlanta (ASACA) [Butler et al., 2003] in Georgia, measuring EC as well. 60 IMPROVE sites are located primarily in rural areas while STN, SEARCH and ASACA 61 networks include urban, sub-urban and rural sites (urban and sub-urban sites being the 62 majority). The observations at rural sites (i.e. a portion of current IMPROVE sites) have 63 been utilized by Park, et al. [2003] to adjust the carbonaceous aerosols including EC 64 emissions in the US for 1998, but urban networks have not been utilized in previous 65 similar inverse modeling studies. 66 We adopt an inverse method [Mendoza-Dominguez and Russell, 2000], along with 67 the Community Multiscale Air Quality model (CMAQ) [Byun and Schere, 2006] 68 equipped with the Decoupled Direct Method in Three Dimensions (DDM-3D) [Cohan et 69 al., 2005; Dunker et al., 2002; Napelenok et al., 2006; Yang et al., 1997] for sensitivity

70 calculations, to adjust the 2004 US regional EC emissions inventory. We examine the

71 sensitivity of EC emissions adjustment to the choice of different observational networks

72 (i.e., IMPROVE versus STN, SEARCH and ASACA combined (called SSA hereafter)

and all of the networks (called ALL hereafter) (see site locations in Figure 1a)) in the

74 inverse modeling.

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2. Method

76 For five chosen months (January, March, May, August and October) in 2004, we 77 apply CMAQ (Version 4.5, updated with mass conservation [Hu et al., 2006]) to simulate 78 EC concentrations as well as DDM-3D to obtain coefficients of EC sensitivity to specific 79 sources. The modeling domain (Figure 1b), covering the entire continental US as well as 80 portions of Canada and Mexico, has a 36-km horizontal resolution and thirteen vertical 81 layers extending ~16 km above ground, 7 layers below 1 km and a first layer of 18 m 82 thickness. The Fifth-Generation PSU/NCAR Mesoscale Model (MM5) [Grell et al., 1994] 83 is used to develop the meteorological fields and is run with 34 vertical layers using four 84 dimensional data assimilation (FDDA) technique and the Pleim-Xiu Land-Surface Model 85 (PX-LSM) [Pleim and Xiu, 1995; Xiu and Pleim, 2001]. Simulated surface 86 meteorological fields were examined against surface hourly observations from North 87 America (Table S1), with performance well within the typical range for air quality 88 modeling [Emery et al., 2001; Hanna and Yang, 2001]. The Sparse Matrix Operator 89 Kernel Emissions (SMOKE) model [CEP, 2003] is used to prepare gridded, CMAOready emissions using a priori emissions (APRIORI) for the year 2004 which were 90 91 projected from a 2002 inventory (VISTAS2002) [MACTEC, 2005]. Biomass fire 92 emissions in VISTAS2002 were estimated for a "typical" year by averaging actual fire

information from a five-year period between 1999 and 2003, which is used directly as the estimate for 2004. We sub-divide APRIORI to twenty-seven sources: Canadian total within the domain, Mexican total within the domain, and the continental US emissions divided to five regional planning organization (RPO) regions (Figure 1b), further split into five categories: on-road mobile, off-road mobile, fire (including wildfire, agricultural burning and prescribed burning), wood fuel and "others" (including coal-burning power plants etc.). We calculate the sensitivity of EC concentrations (at each grid cell) to each of the above sub-group EC emissions sources. Sensitivities of EC concentration to each individual sub-group source are used to estimate how much EC emissions from each specific source should be adjusted to minimize the CMAQ EC prediction errors (difference between the simulation and the observation) at each site through ridge regression [Draper and van Nostrand, 1979]. Detailed description of the inverse method is documented elsewhere [Mendoza-Dominguez and Russell, 2000]. Here, we calculate the emissions adjustment factors m that minimize the objective function Γ (Equations S1 and S2) which is a linear combination of the errors and the adjustments to emissions. Inverse modeling is conducted three times using measurements, respectively, from the IMPROVE, SSA and ALL networks. Measurements used here are 24-hr averages (midnight to midnight) collected using filters, but in different frequencies, either daily, or every third day or sixth day. We first average all measurements (and the corresponding predictions as well as the sensitivity coefficients) at the same site to get a monthly mean. For multiple sites that are located in the same grid cell, we further average their monthly means to obtain a composite. After merging, the number of IMRPOVE sites remained the

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116 same at 163 (i.e. no multiple sites in a same grid cell), while the number of SSA sites 117 dropped from 245 to 211. Note that different protocols are adopted by the networks to 118 measure aerosol carbon fraction (EC and organic carbon (OC)); the Thermal Optical 119 Transmittance (TOT) is used by STN and ASACA while the Thermal Optical 120 Reflectance (TOR) is used by IMPROVE and SEARCH. Most of the speciation profiles used in SMOKE to split EC and OC emissions from PM2.5 totals were determined using 121 122 the TOR protocol. For consistency, we convert the TOT measurements to TOR 123 equivalent values by using seasonal factors (Table 1) obtained through a parallel TOR 124 and TOT comparison study recently carried out at the SEARCH sites [Chen et al., 2009]. 125 We apply three sets of adjustment factors to APRIORI to obtain the posterior EC 126 emissions inventories. These re-estimates of emissions are then used to drive the model. 127 We calculate the improvements of the posterior CMAQ model performance (with respect 128 to the prior performance) to examine the robustness of each re-estimate obtained. Model 129 performance is judged by the fractional bias (FB) and fractional error (FE) (Equations S3 130 and S4).

3. Results and Discussion

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APRIORI estimates (through bottom-up methods) the US continental total EC
emissions for 2004 as about 0.36 Tg yr⁻¹. Off-road and fire emissions are the two leading
categories continent-wide (Figure S1a). Fire emissions lead in the west (WRAP and
CENRAP) and off-road emissions lead in the east (VISTAS, MANE-VU and Midwest).
By using APRIORI, the model performance is comparable to what is typically reported
for regional application of CMAQ [Eder and Yu, 2006; Tesche et al., 2006]. Overall FB
and FE against ALL sites are -42.6% and 65.1%. Among the five simulated months: the

139 best performance is seen for winter (January) and the worst for summer (August) though 140 all of the months were biased low (Figure 2). Note that CMAQ predictions did a slightly 141 better job at the IMPROVE sites than at the SSA sites (not shown), while on average, the IMPROVE sites have much cleaner air than the SSA sties with an observed EC mean of 142 $0.23 \, \mu g \, m^{-3} \, versus \, 1.05 \, \mu g \, m^{-3}$. 143 144 We re-estimate the US continental total EC emissions for 2004 to be 0.40, 0.29 and 0.44 Tg yr⁻¹, respectively, by using ALL, IMPROVE and SSA networks in the inversion. 145 146 Note that we apply the adjustment factors to APRIORI for each month of 2004, i.e. either 147 the chosen month itself or a month that the chosen month represents (Table S2), to get the 148 annual totals. Overall, the IMPROVE re-estimate reduced the prior annual emissions 149 significantly, while both the ALL and SSA re-estimates increased the emissions. Between 150 the ALL and SSA re-estimates, insignificant differences (within a few percents) are seen 151 for most RPOs and categories, but the SSA re-estimates increased emissions largely from 152 WRAP and from fire while the ALL re-estimates did not (Figure S1). Both the ALL and 153 SSA re-estimates improved model performance (against ALL sites) for all five months, 154 for both FB and FE (Figure 2). However the IMPROVE re-estimate led to a deterioration 155 in the model performance (Figure 2). We also calculated "performance change" (defined 156 as the difference of FEs between the posterior and the prior) at each individual site. Both 157 the ALL and SSA re-estimates resulted in better CMAQ predictions at about 70% of the 158 total sites (i.e. ALL sites), while the IMPROVE re-estimate made predictions worse at 159 two thirds of them (Figure S2), roughly proportional to the number of SSA and 160 IMPROVE sites. This suggests that the IMPROVE re-estimate of EC emissions is less robust than the ALL or SSA re-estimate. This is tied to the geographic location of major 161

emission sources and the monitors. While one set of sources (on-road, off-road and fuel burning) are concentrated in urban areas (similar to SSA sites), fires are not. Thus using a network that is less sensitive to the one set of sources weakens the inversion.

Prediction errors still remain in the posterior model results obtained by using the ALL and SSA re-estimates even though the performance improved. The remaining errors could come from model parameterization and other model inputs, e.g. errors in vertical diffusion, wind fields, boundary conditions and etc., as well as remaining errors in emissions inputs, e.g. the errors in the temporal variations and sub-regional spatial variability that our emissions adjustments did not address. The remaining prediction errors might also come from the representativeness of point measurements within a modeled grid, especially for sites near polluted areas where large spatial gradients exist in EC concentrations. However, compared to the much coarser grid spacing adopted in previous studies (e.g. 80-km or even 2° latitude by 2.5° longitude), the 36-km grid spacing we have adopted in this study better captures the spatial gradients of primary pollutants like EC.

A common belief is that an inverse re-estimate would be more robust when using a higher density of monitoring sites, especially for primary pollutants like EC. Domain wide, the total number of SSA sites is just slightly larger than IMRPOVE sites, which explains only part of the difference in robustness. However, the monitoring site densities are geographically imbalanced for both the SSA and IMPROVE networks. The IMPROVE sites are situated more in the western US than in the east, while the SSA sites are predominantly in the east (Table 2). Since upper level winds are mostly eastward the urban-oriented SSA network is impacted by emissions from more upwind regions. The

life time of EC is about 6 days on average [Park et al., 2005] which is sufficient to be transported across the continent. This can be seen more clearly through the non-zero sensitivity counts reported by RPO region (Table 3a). Monitoring sites located in WRAP are situated in the far west and are having a smaller number of non-zero sensitivities than any other RPO to the east. Inside WRAP the ratio of IMPROVE sites to SSA sites is almost 3:1. Downwind, the number of non-zero sensitivities becomes larger while at the same time the number of SSA sites relative to IMRPOVE sites increase. These results suggest that the robustness of the EC inverse re-estimates are impacted by site density and geographical location, with further downwind sites adding robustness. Furthermore, sites with larger sensitivities receive heavier weightings in inversion (Equation S2). In this regard the location of rural (impacted by smaller sources) vs. urban (impacted by larger sources), plays a role. The sites, that is immediately downwind of larger sources are more impacted and weight more in the inversion. While there is no difference in the average number of non-zero sensitivities between IMPROVE and SSA networks from the same RPO (Table 3a), the average number of above-EC-detection-limit sensitivities are significantly less for IMPROVE than SSA, and more so in the West (Table 3b). This suggests that the robustness of the EC inverse re-estimates is further impacted by the sites located immediately downwind of larger sources. This also explains that the ALL reestimate was not significantly more robust than the SSA re-estimate though utilizing more than 50% more sites. Park, et al. [2003], the only previous top-down estimation of EC emissions in the US, increased the a priori estimate of 0.66 Tg yr⁻¹ to 0.75 Tg yr⁻¹. They estimated a 15%

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increase in fossil fuel emissions, a 65% increase in biofuel emissions and a 17% decrease

in biomass burning emissions. There are a number of differences between that study and the one presented here. The prior inventory of fossil fuel emissions (totaling to 0.52 Tg yr⁻¹) used in their study had been developed for 1984 [Cooke et al., 1999] and may have largely overestimated the EC fossil fuel emissions for the year 1998 [Bond et al., 2004]. Second, the grid spacing was 2° latitude by 2.5° longitude in their global transport model. Third, only 45 rural-sites from IMPROVE network were available then. Finally among the 45 sites, seven of them (model overestimated at these sites) were further excluded.

4. Conclusion

Our sensitivity study of inverse re-estimation of EC emissions in the US to the choice of different observational networks found that the re-estimate using the

Our sensitivity study of inverse re-estimation of EC emissions in the US to the choice of different observational networks found that the re-estimate using the IMPROVE sites (all rurally situated) alone leads to significantly different results than using STN sites plus SEARCH and ASACA sites (mainly urban and suburban) or using all sites together. The difference in model performance between the posterior and prior simulations suggests that the IMRPOVE re-estimate was less robust than the other two. Further analysis based on examining the sensitivity coefficients obtained through DDM-3D calculations suggests that it was neither the rural vs. urban site locations nor number of sites, alone, but the site density with respect to geographical location (downwind of source) affected the robustness of the inverse re-estimate as well. Since much of the EC emissions are associated with sources more concentrated in urban areas, having more measurements in urban area leads to better constraining on EC emissions inventory.

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- 336 photochemical models, Environmental Science and Technology 31, 2859-2868.

- 339 Figure Captions
- 340 Figure 1. (a) EC monitoring networks: IMPROVE (green dots), STN (red dots) and
- 341 SEARCH and ASACA (pink dots). Urban areas in the United States are shown in blue.
- 342 (b) Modeling domain, with a 36-km horizontal grid spacing. The sub regions of the

- 343 United States studied as source areas in the sensitivity analysis are the five RPO regions:
- 344 CENRAP, Midwest RPO, MANE-VU, WRAP and VISTAS.
- 345 Figure 2. Monthly CMAQ EC performance (against ALL sites) by using the a priori and
- 346 the three a posteriori emissions inventories (i.e. the All, IMPROVE and SSA re-
- estimates): (a) FB and (b) FE.

349 Tables

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- **Table 1** Seasonal factors (a) converting BC ambient concentration from TOT
- measurements to TOR equivalents: $TOR = a \times TOT$.

Winter	Spring	Summer	Fall
1.672	1.831	2.577	1.890
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*Data source Chen et al. [2009]

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Table 2 Sites numbers located in each RPO region.

Network	WRAP	CENRAP	Midwest RPO	VISTAS	MANE-VU	Total
SSA	35	39	34	67	36	211
IMPROVE	92	24	7	17	23	163
ALL	124	60	39	82	53	358

*These are numbers of composite sites.

357 Table 3a Average number of non-zero DDM-3D sensitivities (below 0.000001 μg m⁻³

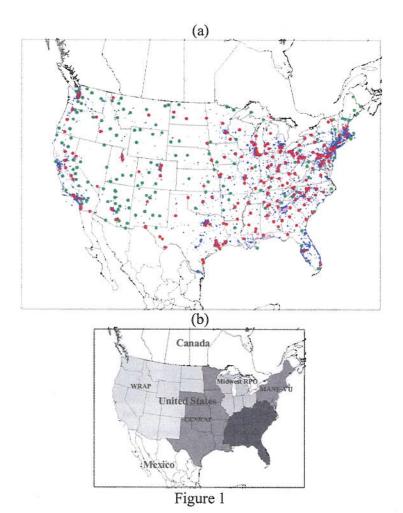
per total EC emissions in a specific source is considered numerical noise and omitted).

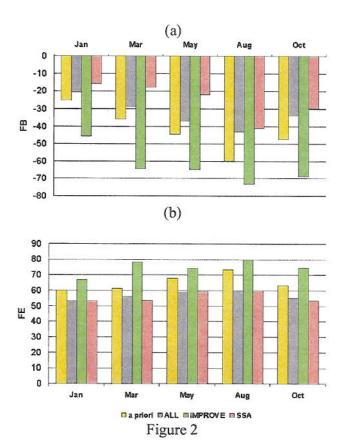
Network	WRAP	CENRAP	Midwest RPO	VISTAS	MANE-VU	Domain
SSA	11.7	23.0	24.6	26.3	27.0	23.0
IMPROVE	11.4	21.7	25.4	26.8	27.0	17.2
All	11.5	22.6	24.7	26.4	27.0	20.4

361 Table 3b Average number of above-EC-detection-limit DDM-3D sensitivities

362 (>0.05μg m⁻³ per total EC emissions in a specific source).

Networks	WRAP	CENRAP	Midwest RPO	VISTAS	MANE-VU	Domain
SSA	2.5	1.7	2.4	2.8	2.8	2.5
IMPROVE	0.7	0.8	1.9	1.8	2.0	1.1
All	1.2	1.4	2.2	2.6	2.4	1.8





Supporting Material

- 2 Table S1 Statistical measures in MM5-generated meteorological parameter fields with
- 3 respect to the Techniques Development Laboratory (TDL) surface observations.

Parameters	Measures	Unit	Jan	Mar	May	Aug	Oct
Surface Wind Speed	Mean OBS	(m/s)	3,72	4,01	3,87	2.89	3.25
	Bias	(m/s)	-0.01	-0.14	-0.08	0.07	0.13
	RMSE	(m/s)	2.02	1.98	1.89	1.73	1.81
Surface Wind Direction	Mean OBS	(deg)	261.25	243.56	211.28	227.50	193.77
	Bias	(deg)	2.56	2.39	2.01	2.48	2,57
	Gross Error	(deg)	25.98	26.92	28.77	32.61	27.80
Surface Air	Mean OBS	(K)	270.63	280.34	289.54	293.92	285.95
Temperature	Bias	(K)	-0.79	-0.75	-0.29	-0.24	-0.36
	RMSE	(K)	3.23	2.94	2.63	2.49	2.46
Surface Humidity	Mean OBS	(g/kg)	3.33	5.04	8.68	11.55	7.71
	Bias	(g/kg)	0.01	0.09	-0.11	-0.22	-0.15
	Gross Error	(g/kg)	0.52	0.77	1.10	1.28	0.92

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5 Table S2 Representative months and the months they represent.

Representing	Jan	Mar	May	Aug	Oct
Represented	Dec and Feb	Apr	Jun	Jul and Sep	Nov

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7 Equations

- 8 We calculate the emissions adjustment factors m that minimize the objective
- 9 function Γ :

$$\Gamma = e^T W_e e + m^T W_m m \tag{S1}$$

11
$$m = \left(G^T W_e G + W_m\right)^{-1} G^T W_e d \tag{S2}.$$

where e is a vector of length N representing the prediction errors remaining after adjustment of emissions (N being the total number of valid pairs of observation and simulation during each chosen month), m is the vector of factors that are used to adjust each sub-group emission source and is of length J (J being the total number of emissions sub-groups: 27), superscript T denotes the transpose of a vector or matrix, W_e is a N×N matrix weighting the observations, W_m is a J×J matrix representing the penalty function

18 that constrains the emissions adjustment factors within prescribed bounds derived from 19 the uncertainty limits of the base emission estimates, G is a N×J matrix of semi-20 normalized sensitivity coefficients and d is vector of current prediction errors before the 21 emissions adjustments and is of length N. The first term of our objective function is the 22 square of the weighted prediction error while the second term is the square of the penalized emissions adjustment. The linear system described by Equation 2 has a 23 dimension of N with J unknown parameters. When N >J, such as the cases in this study, 24 25 this is an over-determined problem, and will have a unique least square solution.

Model performance is judged by the fractional bias (FB) and fractional error (FE):

27
$$FB = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{2(Sim_i - Obs_i)}{(Sim_i + Obs_i)} \times 100\%$$
 (S3)

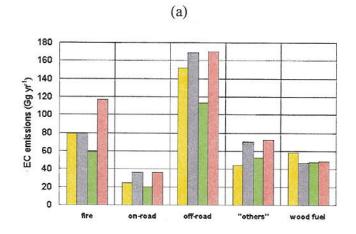
28
$$FE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{2|Sim_i - Obs_i|}{(Sim_i + Obs_i)} \times 100\%$$
 (S4)

- 29 where N is the total number of valid pairs of simulated (Sim) and observed (Obs)
- 30 concentrations.

32 Figure Captions

- 33 Figure S1. EC emission totals of the a priori and the a posteriori inventories (i.e. the
- 34 ALL, IMPROVE and SSA re-estimates): (a) by category (continental US) and (b) by
- 35 region.
- 36 Figure S2. "Performance change" (against ALL sites) versus percentage of total number
- of sites (one count at each month).

38



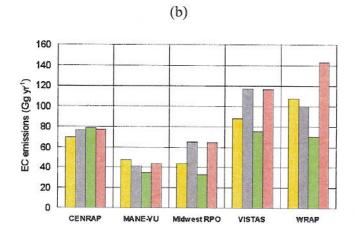


Figure S1

■a priori ■ALL ■IMPROVE ■SSA

