

Variational regional inverse modeling of reactive species emissions

with PYVAR-CHIMERE-v2019

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Abstract

Up-to-date and accurate emission inventories for air pollutants are essential for understanding their role in the formation of tropospheric ozone and particulate matter at various temporal scales, for anticipating pollution peaks and for identifying the key drivers that could help mitigate their emissions. This paper describes the Bayesian variational inverse system PYVAR-CHIMERE, which is now adapted to the inversion of reactive species, in addition to greenhouse gases. Complementarily with bottom-up inventories, this system aims at updating and improving the knowledge on the high spatio-temporal variability of emissions of air pollutants and their precursors. The system is designed to use any type of observations, such as satellite observations or surface station measurements. The potential of PYVAR-CHIMERE is illustrated with inversions of both CO and NO_x emissions in Europe, using the MOPITT and OMI satellite observations, respectively.

1. Introduction

The degradation of air quality is a worldwide environmental problem: 91% of the world's population have breathed polluted air in 2016 according to the World Health Organization (WHO), resulting in 4.2 millions of premature deaths every year [WHO, 2016]. The recent study of Lelieveld et al. [2019] even suggests that the health impacts attributable to outdoor air pollution are substantially higher than previously assumed (with 790,000 premature deaths in the 28 countries of the European Union against the previously estimated 500,000 [EEA, 2018]). The main regulated primary (i.e. directly emitted in the atmosphere) anthropogenic air pollutants are carbon monoxide (CO), nitrogen oxides (NO_x =NO+NO₂), sulfur dioxide (SO₂), ammonia (NH₃), volatile organic compounds (VOCs), and primary particles. These primary air pollutants are precursors of secondary (i.e. produced in the atmosphere through chemical reactions) pollutants such as ozone (O₃) and Particulate Matter (PM), which are also threatening to both human health and ecosystems. Monitoring concentrations and quantifying emissions are still challenging and limit our capability

37 to forecast air quality to warn population and to assess i) the exposure of population to air pollution
38 and ii) the efficiency of mitigation policies.

39

40 Bottom-up (BU) inventories are built in the framework of air quality policies such as The
41 Convention on Long-Range Transboundary Air Pollution (LRTAP, <http://www.unece.org>) for air
42 pollutants. Based on national annual inventories, research institutes compile gridded global or
43 regional, monthly inventories (mainly for the US, Europe and China) with a high spatial resolution
44 (currently regional or city scale inventories are typically finer than $0.1^{\circ} \times 0.1^{\circ}$). These inventories are
45 constructed by combining available (economic) statistics data from different detailed activity
46 sectors with the most appropriate emission factors (defined as the average emission rate of a given
47 species for a given source or process, relative to the unit of activity). It is important to note that the
48 activity data (often statistical data) has an inherent uncertainty and that its reliability may vary
49 between countries or regions. In addition, the emission factors bear large uncertainties in their
50 quantification [Kuenen et al., 2014; EMEP/EEA, 2016; Kurokawa et al., 2013]. Moreover, these
51 inventories are often provided at the annual or monthly scale with typical temporal profiles to build
52 the weekly, daily and hourly variability of the emissions. The combination of uncertain activity
53 data, emission factors and emission timing can be a large source of uncertainties, if not errors, for
54 forecasting or analyzing air quality [Menut et al., 2012]. Finally, since updating the inventories and
55 gathering the required data for a given year is costly in time, manpower and money, only a few
56 institutes have offered estimates of the gaseous pollutants for each year since 2011 (i.e, EMEP
57 updated until the year 2017, MEIC updated until the year 2017 to our knowledge). Nevertheless,
58 using knowledge from inventories and air quality modeling, emissions have been mitigated. For
59 example, from 2010 to nowadays, emissions in various countries have been modified and/or
60 regional trends have been reversed (e.g., the decrease of NO_x emissions over China since 2011 [de
61 Foy et al., 2016]), leading to significant changes in the atmospheric composition. Consequently, the
62 knowledge of precise and updated budgets, together with seasonal, monthly, weekly and daily
63 variations of gaseous pollutants driven, amongst other processes, by the emissions are essential for
64 understanding their role in the formation of tropospheric ozone and PMs at various temporal scales,
65 for anticipating pollution peaks and for identifying the key drivers that could help mitigate these
66 emissions.

67

68 In this context, complementary methods have been developed for estimating emissions using
69 atmospheric observations. They operate in synergy between a chemistry-transport model (CTM) -
70 which links the emissions to the atmospheric concentrations-, atmospheric observations of the
71 species of interest, and statistical inversion techniques. A number of studies using inverse modeling

72 were first carried out for long-lived species such as greenhouses gases (GHGs) (e.g., carbon dioxide
73 CO₂ or methane CH₄) at the global or continental scales [Hein et al., 1997; Bousquet et al. 1999],
74 using surface measurements. Later, following the development of monitoring station networks, the
75 progress of computing power, and the use of inversion techniques more appropriate to non-linear
76 problems, these methods were applied to shorter-lived molecules such as CO. For these various
77 applications (e.g., for CO₂, CH₄, CO), the quantification of sources was solved at the resolution of
78 large regions [Pétron et al., 2002]. Finally, the growing availability and reliability of observations
79 since the early 2000s (in-situ surface data, remote sensing data such as satellite data), the
80 improvement of the global CTMs, of the computational capacities and of the inversion techniques
81 have increased the achievable resolution of global inversions, up to the global transport model grid
82 cells, i.e. typically with a spatial resolution of several hundreds of square kilometers [Stavrakou and
83 Muller, 2006; Pison et al., 2009; Fortems-Cheiney et al., 2011; Hooghiemstra et al., 2012; Yin et
84 al., 2015; Miyazaki et al., 2017, Zheng et al., 2019].

85

86 Today, the scientific and societal issues require an up-to-date quantification of pollutant emissions
87 at a higher spatial resolution than the global one and imply to widely use regional inverse systems.
88 However, although they are suited to reactive species such as CO and NO_x, and their very large
89 spatial and temporal variability, they have hardly been used to quantify pollutant emissions. Some
90 studies inferred NO_x [Pison et al., 2007; Tang et al., 2013] and VOC emissions [Koohkan et al.,
91 2013] from surface measurements. Konovalov et al. [2006, 2008, 2010], Mijling et al. [2012, 2013],
92 van der A et al. [2008], Lin et al. [2012] and Ding et al. [2017] have also shown that satellite
93 observations are a suitable source of information to constrain the emissions of NO_x. These regional
94 inversions using satellite observations were often based on Kalman Filter (KF) schemes [Mijling et
95 al., 2012, 2013; Van der A et al., 2008; Lin et al., 2012; Ding et al., 2017].

96

97 Here, we present the Bayesian variational atmospheric inversion system PYVAR-CHIMERE for the
98 monitoring of anthropogenic emissions at high spatial resolutions. It takes advantage of the previous
99 developments for the quantification of fluxes of long-lived GHG species such as CO₂ [Broquet et
100 al., 2011] and CH₄ [Pison et al., 2018] at the regional to the local scales, but now solves for reactive
101 species such as CO and NO_x. It has also a better level of robustness, clarity, portability, and
102 modularity than these previous systems .It is based on the Bayesian variational assimilation code
103 PYVAR [Chevallier et al. 2005] and on the regional state-of-the-art CTM CHIMERE, dedicated to
104 the study of regional atmospheric pollution events [Menuet et al., 2013, Mailler et al., 2017].
105 Variational techniques require the adjoint of the model to compute the sensitivity of simulated
106 atmospheric concentrations to corrections of the fluxes. CHIMERE is one of the CTMs possessing

107 its adjoint code (e.g., for global models: GEOS-CHEM [Henze et al., 2007], IMAGES [Stavrakou
108 and Muller, 2006], TM5 [Krol et al., 2008], GELKA [Belikov et al., 2016] and LMDz [Chevallier
109 et al., 2005; Pison et al., 2009] ; for limited-area models: CMAQ [Hakami et al., 2007], EURAD-
110 IM [Elbern et al., 2007], RAMS/CTM-4DVAR [Yumimoto et Uno, 2006], WRF-CO2 4D-Var
111 [Zheng et al., 2018]).

112

113 The principle of variational atmospheric inversion and the configuration of PYVAR-CHIMERE are
114 described in Section 2 and in Section 3, respectively. Details about the forward, tangent-linear and
115 adjoint codes of CHIMERE are also given. Then, the potential of PYVAR-CHIMERE is illustrated
116 in Section 4 with the optimization of European CO and NO_x emissions, constrained by observations
117 from the Measurement of Pollution in the Troposphere (MOPITT) and from the Ozone Monitoring
118 Instrument (OMI) satellite instruments, respectively.

119

120 **2. Principle of Bayesian variational atmospheric inversion**

121 The Bayesian variational atmospheric inversion method adjusts a set of control parameters in input
122 of the CTM, including parameters related to the emissions whose estimate is the primary target of
123 the inversion. The control vector \mathbf{x} contains these variables to be optimized during the inversion
124 process (surface fluxes but it may also include initial or boundary conditions for example, see
125 Section 3.3). The adjustments are applied to prior values, usually taken, for the emissions, from pre-
126 existing BU inventories. The principle is to minimize, on the one hand, the departures from the
127 prior estimates of the control parameters, which are weighted by the uncertainties in these estimates
128 (called hereafter “prior uncertainties”), and, on the other hand, the differences between simulated
129 and observed concentrations, which are weighted by all other sources of uncertainties explaining
130 these differences (called hereafter all together “observation errors”). In statistical terms, the
131 inversion searches for the most probable estimate of the control parameters given their prior
132 estimates, the observations, the CTM and the associated uncertainties. The solution, which will be
133 called posterior estimate in the following, is found by the iterative minimization of a cost function J
134 [Talagrand et al., 1997], defined as:

$$135 J(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b)^T \mathbf{B}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b) + (H(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y})^T \mathbf{R}^{-1}(H(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y}) \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

136

137 H is the non-linear observation operator that projects the state vector \mathbf{x} onto the observation space.
138 In most of the variational atmospheric inversion cases (such as those described in Section 4), the
139 observation operator includes the CTM and an interpolation or an extraction and averaging of the
140 simulated concentration fields (see Section 3.4). The observations in \mathbf{y} could be surface
141 measurements and/or remote sensing data such as satellite data. The prior uncertainties and the

142 observation errors are assumed to be centered and to have a Gaussian distribution. Consequently,
143 the prior uncertainties are characterized by their covariance matrix \mathbf{B} and the observation errors are
144 characterized by their covariance matrix \mathbf{R} . By definition, the observation errors combine errors in
145 both the data and the observation operator, in particular measurement errors and errors in the
146 conversion of satellite measurement into concentration data, errors from the CTM, representativity
147 errors due to the comparison between point measurements and gridded models or due to the
148 representation of the fluxes as gridded maps at a given spatial resolution, and aggregation errors
149 associated with the optimization of emissions at a given spatial and/or temporal resolution (as
150 specified in the control vector) that is different from (usually coarser than) that of the CTM [Wang
151 et al., 2017].

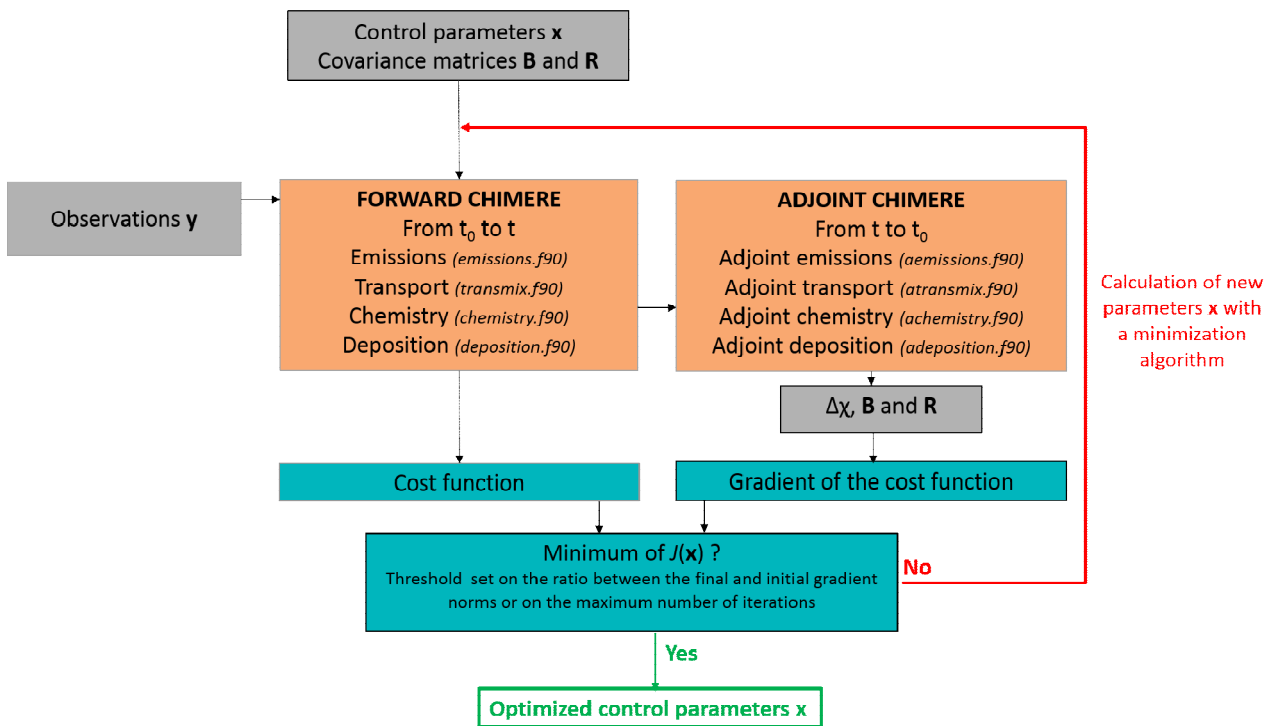
152
153 For inversions with observation and control vectors having a high dimension, the minimum of J
154 cannot be found analytically due to computational limitations. It can be reached iteratively with a
155 descent algorithm. In this case, the iterative minimization of J is based on a gradient method. J is
156 calculated with the forward observation operator (including the CTM) and its gradient relative to
157 the control parameters \mathbf{x} : $\nabla J(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{B}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b) + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1}(\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y})$ (Eq. 2) is provided by the
158 adjoint of the observation operator (including the adjoint of the CTM). As shown in Figure 1, the
159 minimization algorithm repeats the forward-adjoint cycle to seek an optimal solution for the control
160 parameters.

161
162 The high-non linearity of the chemistry for reactive species makes it difficult to use its tangent-
163 linear to approximate the actual observation operator (e.g. as in Chevallier et al. [2010] who use the
164 conjugate gradient algorithm of Fisher and Courtier [1995]), and, more generally, it makes the
165 inversion problem highly non linear. Therefore, in PYVAR-CHIMERE, we use the M1QN3 limited
166 memory quasi-Newton minimization algorithm [Gilbert and Lemaréchal, 1989], which relies on the
167 actual CHIMERE non-linear model to compute J at each iteration of the minimization. As most
168 quasi-Newton methods, it requires an initial regularization of \mathbf{x} , the vector to be optimized, for
169 better efficiency. We adopt the most generally used regularization, made by minimizing in the space
170 defined by $\chi = \mathbf{B}^{\frac{1}{2}}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b)$ instead of the control space defined by \mathbf{x} . Although more advanced
171 regularizations can be chosen, the minimization with χ is preferred for its simplifying the equation
172 to solve. In the χ -space, Equation 2 can be re-written as follows: $\nabla J \chi = \chi + \mathbf{B}^{\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{H} \times (\mathbf{R}^{-1}(\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}) -$
173 $\mathbf{y}))$. The criterion for stopping the algorithm is based on a threshold set on the ratio between the
174 final and initial gradient norms or on the maximum number of iterations to perform. Due to the non-
175 linearity of the problem, the minimization may reach only a local minimum.

176

177 Finally, the calculation of the uncertainty in the estimate of emissions from the inversion, known as
 178 “posterior uncertainty”, is challenging in a variational inverse system. Even though the posterior
 179 uncertainty can be explicitly written in various analytical forms, it requires the inversion of matrices
 180 that are too large to invert given the current computational resources in our variational approach. As
 181 a trade-off between computing resources and comprehensiveness, the analysis error may be
 182 evaluated by an approach based on a propagation of errors through sensitivity tests (e.g., as in
 183 Fortems-Cheiney et al., [2012]). It can also be estimated through a Monte Carlo Ensemble
 184 [Chevallier et al., 2007], implemented in PYVAR.

185



186

187 **Figure 1.** Simplified scheme of the iterative minimization in PYVAR-CHIMERE. PYVAR,
 188 CHIMERE and text sources are *displayed in blue, in orange and in grey, respectively*.

189

190 3. The PYVAR-CHIMERE configuration

191 3.1. PYVAR adapted to CHIMERE

192 The PYVAR-CHIMERE inverse modeling system is based on the Bayesian variational assimilation
 193 code PYVAR [Chevallier et al. 2005] and on a previous inversion system coupled to CHIMERE
 194 [Pison et al., 2007]. PYVAR is an ensemble of Python scripts, which deals with preparing the
 195 vectors and the matrices for the inversion, drives the required Fortran codes of the transport model
 196 and computes the minimization of the cost function to solve the inversion. Previously used for
 197 global inversions with the LMDz model (e.g., Pison et al., 2009; Chevallier et al., 2010; Fortems-
 198 Cheiney et al., 2011; Yin et al., 2015; Locatelli et al., 2015; Zheng et al., 2019), PYVAR has been
 199 adapted to CHIMERE with an adjoint code without chemistry a first time by Broquet et al. [2011].

200 In order to couple PYVAR to the new state-of-the-art version of CHIMERE (see Section 3.2), to
201 include chemistry, and to increase its modularity, flexibility and clarity, the new system described
202 here has been developed. It includes elements of the inversion system (coded in Fortran90) of
203 [Pison et al., 2007].
204

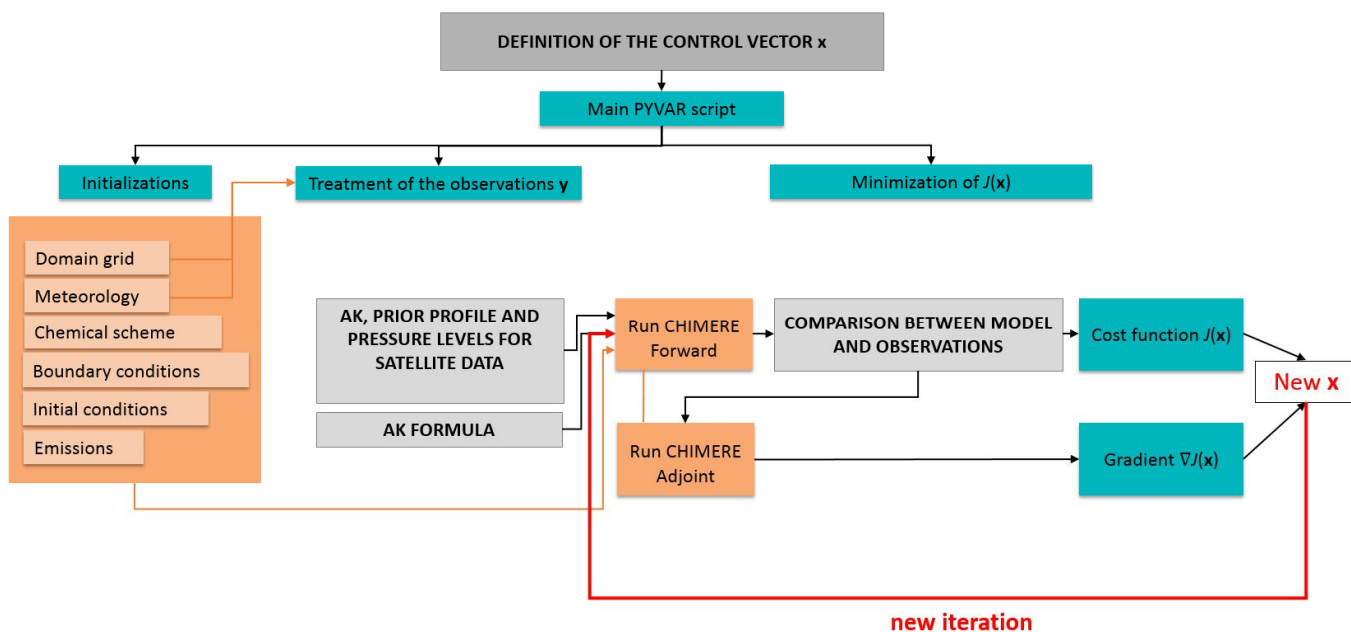
205 **3.2. Development and parallelization of the adjoint and tangent-linear codes of** 206 **CHIMERE**

207 To compute the sensitivity of simulated atmospheric concentrations to corrections to the fluxes, the
208 adjoint of CHIMERE has been developed. Originally, the sequential adjoint was coded [Menut et
209 al., 2000; Menut et al., 2003; Pison et al., 2007]. The adjoint has been coded by hand line by line,
210 following the principles formulated by Talagrand [1997]. It contains exactly the same processes as
211 the CHIMERE forward model. Then, it has been parallelized. This work required a redesigning of
212 the whole code, associated with a full testing scheme. Furthermore, the tangent-linear (TL) code has
213 been developed and validated at LSCE. Changes have been implemented in the forward CHIMERE
214 code embedded in PYVAR-CHIMERE to match requirements of the studies lead with PYVAR-
215 CHIMERE. These changes have been implemented in both the adjoint and the TL codes. Compared
216 to the CHIMERE 2013 version [Menut et al., 2013], the most important of these changes are:

- 217 • For the geometry, the possibility of polar domains and the use of the coordinates of the corners of
218 the cells instead of only the centers
- 219 • For the transport, the non-uniform Van Leer transport scheme on the horizontal,
- 220 • For chemistry, various switches have been added to avoid going into the chemistry, deposition and
221 wet deposition routines when no species requires them (e.g. no chemistry for methane at a regional
222 scale).

223
224 PYVAR-CHIMERE is currently operational for the full module of gaseous chemistry. As a
225 compromise between the robustness of the method for reactive species, the time required coding the
226 adjoint and the computational cost with a full chemical scheme, the aerosols modules of CHIMERE
227 have not been included in the adjoint of CHIMERE yet and are therefore not available in PYVAR-
228 CHIMERE. The development and maintenance of the adjoint means that the version used is
229 necessarily one or two versions behind the distributed CHIMERE version
230 (<http://www.lmd.polytechnique.fr/chimere/>). It should also be noted that PYVAR-CHIMERE only
231 infer anthropogenic emissions at this stage. The optimization of biogenic emissions, which are
232 linearly interpolated at the sub-hourly scale in CHIMERE, is currently under development.
233

234 As an example, Figure 2 presents a simplified scheme of how PYVAR scripts are used to drive this
 235 version of CHIMERE for forward simulations and inversions using satellite observations. A mode
 236 is also available to test the adjoint: it runs the TL code.
 237



238
 239 **Figure 2.** Simplified scheme of how PYVAR scripts are used to drive CHIMERE for an inversion
 240 using satellite observations. PYVAR, CHIMERE and text sources are displayed in blue, in orange
 241 and in grey, respectively. “AK” refers to Averaging Kernels as detailed in Section 3.4.
 242

243 3.3. Definition of the control vector

244 The control vector is specified by the user in a text file. This file is formatted following Table 1. The
 245 parameters to constrain could be fluxes and/or initial conditions and/or boundary concentration
 246 conditions, at the grid-cell resolution or for one region encompassing up to the whole domain.
 247 Several types of corrections can be applied, they are defined in the code as "add", "mult" or "scale".
 248 Both the corrections "add" and "mult" are applied to gridded control variables. For correction type
 249 “add” the control variables are increments added to the corresponding components of the model
 250 inputs. For correction type “mult”, the control variables are scaling factors multiplying the
 251 corresponding components of the model inputs. The difference between the two options "add" and
 252 "mult" plays a role when inverting fluxes which can switch from positive to negative values (like
 253 CO₂ natural fluxes). For type “scale”, the corrections consist in applying scaling factors to activity
 254 maps and/or masks for regions (which is similar to the control of budgets for different regions,
 255 types of activities, and/or processes in inversions where the control vector is not gridded [Wang et
 256 al., 2018]) and adding the obtained values to the corresponding components of the model inputs.

257 Different simple but efficient ways of building the error covariance matrix \mathbf{B} are implemented in
 258 PYVAR-CHIMERE. The variances and correlations are defined independently. The variances are
 259 specified by the user through standard deviation coefficient (Table 1), which can be a fixed value
 260 ("fx") or a percentage ("pc") to define the diagonal standard deviation matrix Σ . For correction
 261 types "mult" and "scale", as well as for correction type "add" with a fixed value, the value is
 262 directly used as the standard deviation of the uncertainty in the corresponding components of the
 263 control vector. For correction type "add" with a percentage provided, maps of standard deviation of
 264 uncertainty are built by applying this percentage to the matching input fields (fluxes, initial
 265 conditions, boundary conditions). The user may also provide a script to build personalized maps of
 266 variances.

267
 268 Potential correlations between uncertainties in different types of control variables, e.g. between
 269 fluxes and boundary conditions, and correlations between uncertainties in different species, e.g.
 270 between fluxes of CO and NO_x, are not coded yet. Only correlations for a given type of control
 271 variable and a given species are so far taken into account so that the \mathbf{B} matrix is block diagonal. For
 272 a given type of control variable and a given species (in the illustration in section 4.2.2: CO, NO or
 273 NO₂ fluxes), spatial and temporal correlations can be defined using correlation lengths through time
 274 L_t and space L_s . Those lengths are used to model temporal and/or spatial auto-correlations using an
 275 exponentially decaying function: the correlation r between parameters and at a given location but
 276 separated by duration $d(x_i, x_j)$, or at a given time but distant by $d(x_i, x_j)$ is given by $r(x_i, x_j) =$
 277 $exp\left(\frac{-d(x_i, x_j)}{L}\right)$ where L ($= L_T$ or L_S) is the corresponding correlation length. There is no correlation
 278 between uncertainties in land and ocean flux. Note that the spatial correlations are computed for
 279 each vertical level independently when dealing with control variables with vertical resolution (3D
 280 fields of fluxes when accounting for emission injection heights, or boundary/initial conditions).
 281 Vertical correlations in the uncertainties in such variables have not been coded yet. Apart from this,
 282 the system assumes that temporal correlations and spatial correlations depend on the time lag and
 283 distance but not on the specific time and location of the corresponding parameters. It also assumes
 284 that the correlation between uncertainties at different locations and different time can be derived
 285 from the product of the corresponding autocorrelation in time and space.

286 Each block of \mathbf{B} can thus be decomposed based on Kronecker products: $\mathbf{B} = \Sigma C_t \otimes C_s \Sigma$ where \otimes is
 287 the Kronecker product, C_t and C_s are the temporal and spatial correlations, respectively. The
 288 calculations involving $\mathbf{B}^{1/2}$ are simplified in PYVAR-CHIMERE using the Eigen-decomposition of
 289 C_t and C_s . Its square root can be calculated according to: $C_t^{1/2} = V_{C_t} D_{C_t}^{1/2} V_{C_t}^T$ (and similarly for C_s)
 290 (Eq 4) where V_{C_t} is the matrix with the Eigenvectors as columns, and D_{C_t} is the diagonal matrix of

291 Eigenvalues of C_t . It is possible to chose a threshold under which the eigenvalues are truncated
 292 when computing the spatial correlations in order to save computation and memory, but not when
 293 computing the temporal correlations.

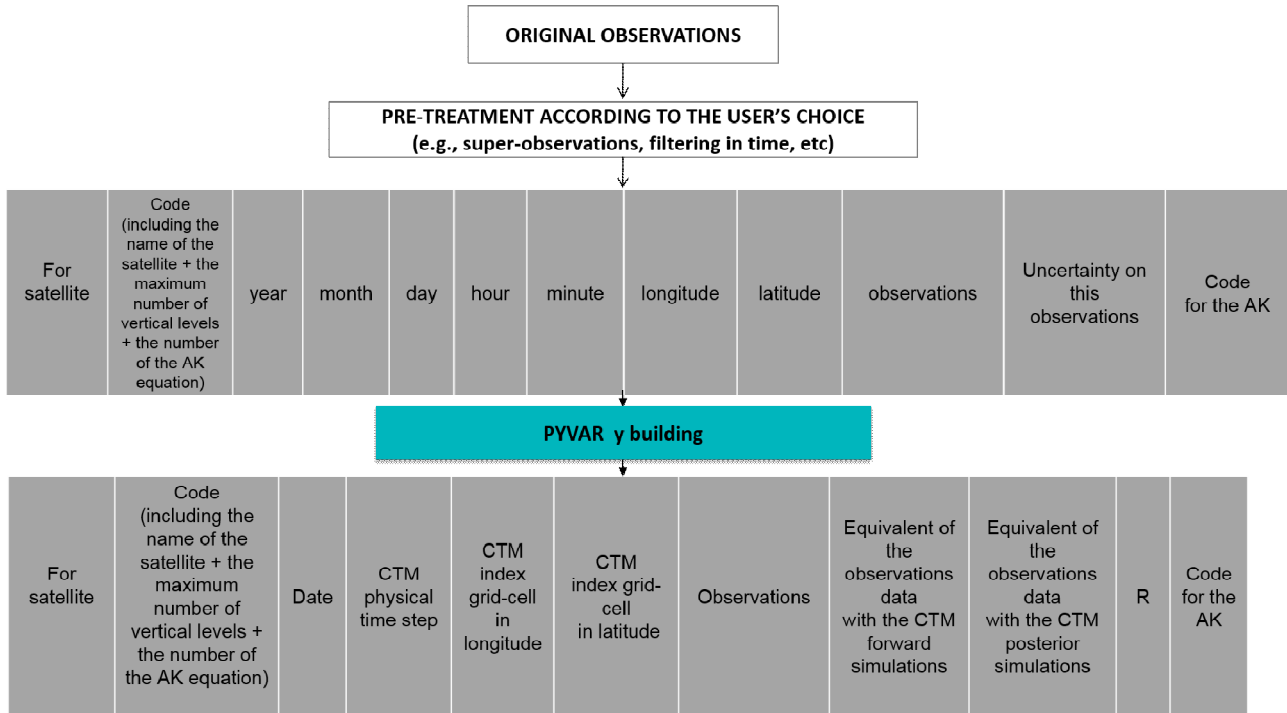
Possible ways to define the control vector and to construct the error covariance B matrix								
Constrained species	Correction type : - Add - Mult - Scale	Spatial resolution - at the grid-cell resolution - for one region	Temporal resolution (in hours)	Input to constrain: -Fluxes -Initial conditions -Lateral Boundary conditions -Top Boundary conditions	B variance coefficient: -fx -pc	Decorrelation time (in hours)	Decorrelation length on land (in km)	Decorrelation length on sea (in km)
Examples of the definition of the control vector and of the construction of the B matrix for the experiments presented in Section 4								
CO	add	0.5°x0.5°	24	Fluxes	100 %	-	-	-
CO	add	0.5°x0.5°	24	Initial conditions	15%	-	-	-
CO	add	0.5°x0.5°	24	Lateral Boundary conditions	15%	-	-	-
CO	add	0.5°x0.5°	24	Top Boundary conditions	15%	-	-	-
NO	add	0.5°x0.5°	24	Fluxes	30 %	-	50	50
NO	add	0.5°x0.5°	24	Initial conditions	15%	-	-	-
NO ₂	add	0.5°x0.5°	24	Fluxes	30 %	-	50	50
NO ₂	add	0.5°x0.5°	24	Initial conditions	15%	-	-	-

294 **Table 1.** Possible ways to define the control vector and to construct the error covariance B matrix
 295 in PYVAR-CHIMERE and examples of the configuration for the experiments presented in Section 4.

296 3.4 Equivalents of the observations

297 The individual data given as constraints in the system are first formatted into a text file described in
 298 Figure 4. During forward simulations, the equivalents of the components of y (i.e, the equivalents
 299 of the individual data) are calculated by PYVAR-CHIMERE. It includes the CTM and an
 300 interpolation (see below the vertical interpolation from the model's grid to the satellite levels) or an
 301 extraction and averaging (e.g. extracting the grid cell matching the geographical coordinates of a
 302 surface station and averaging over one hour). As a compromise between technical issues such as the
 303 time required for reading/writing files, the observation operator H that generates the equivalent of

304 the observations by the model (i.e. $H(\mathbf{x})$) has been so far partly embedded in the code of CHIMERE.
 305 It makes it easier to use finer time intervals than available in the usual hourly outputs of CHIMERE
 306 to compute the required information (e.g., within the finer CTM physical time steps).



307
 308 **Figure 3.** Simplified scheme of how PYVAR scripts prepares the observations, using satellite data
 309

310 To make comparisons between simulations and satellite observations, the simulated vertical profiles
 311 are first interpolated on the satellite's levels (with a vertical interpolation on pressure levels) **in**
 312 **CHIMERE**. Then, the averaging kernels (AKs), when available, are applied to represent the
 313 vertical sensitivity of the satellite retrieval. Two types of formula, depending on the satellite
 314 observations used, have been detailed in PYVAR-CHIMERE for the use of AKs: $C_m = AK \cdot C_{m(o)}$
 315 or $C_m = x_a + AK(C_{m(o)} - x_a)$ where C_m is the modeled column, AK contains the averaging
 316 kernels, x_a is the prior profile (provided together with the AKs when relevant) and $C_{m(o)}$ is the
 317 vertical distribution of the original model partial columns interpolated to the pressure grid of the
 318 averaging kernels.

319
 320 **3.5. Numerical language**

321 The PYVAR code is in Python 2.7, the CHIMERE CTM is coded in Fortran90. The CTM requires
 322 several numerical tools, compilers and libraries. The PYVAR-CHIMERE system was developed
 323 and tested using the software versions as described in Table 2.

324

	URL	Version
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Software	Python	https://www.python.org/downloads/	2.7
	Fortran compiler ifort	https://software.intel.com/en-us/fortran-compilers	Composer-xe- 2013.2.146
Libraries or packages	UnidataNetCDF	https://www.unidata.ucar.edu/	3
	Open MPI	https://www.open-mpi.org/	1.10.5
	GRIB_API	https://confluence.ecmwf.int/display/GRIB/Releases	1.14
	nco	http://nco.sourceforge.net/#Source	4.6.3

325 **Table 2.** URL addresses for the development and the use of the PYVAR-CHIMERE system and its
326 modules.

327
328 PYVAR-CHIMERE’s computation time for one node of 10 CPUs is about 4h for 1 day of inversion
329 (with ~10 iterations) for the European domain size of 101 (longitude) x 85 (latitude) x 17 (vertical
330 levels) used in Section 4.2.3. The model parallelism results from a Cartesian division of the main
331 geographical domain into several sub-domains, each one being processed by a worker process. To
332 configure the parallel sub-domains, the user has to specify two parameters in the model parameter
333 file: the number of sub-domains for the zonal and meridian directions. The total number of CPUs
334 used is therefore the product of these two numbers plus one for the master process.

335

336 **4. Potential of PYVAR-CHIMERE for the inversion of CO and NO_x emissions**

337 The potential of the PYVAR-CHIMERE system to invert emissions of reactive species is illustrated
338 with the inversion of CO and NO_x anthropogenic emissions in Europe respectively based on
339 MOPITT CO data and OMI NO₂ data. We have chosen to present illustration of CO inversion over a
340 7-day window, the first week of March 2015. Considering the short lifetime of NO_x of a few hours
341 [Valin et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2016], we have chosen to present illustration of NO_x inversion over a
342 1-day window, the 19th February 2015. These particular periods have been chosen as they present a
343 **representative** number of super-observations during winter, and as the emissions are high during
344 that period. All the information required by the system to invert CO and NO_x emissions are listed in
345 Table 1.

346

347 **4.1. Data and model description**

348 **4.1.1. Observations y**

349 We use CO data from the MOPITT instrument [Deeter et al., 2019]. MOPITT has been flown
350 onboard the NASA EOS-Terra satellite, on a low sun-synchronous orbit that crosses the equator at
351 10:30 and 22:30 LST. The spatial resolution of its observations is about 22x22 km² at nadir. It has
352 been operated nearly continuously since March 2000. MOPITT CO products are available in three
353 variants: thermal-infrared TIR only, near-infrared NIR only and the multispectral TIR-NIR product,

354 all containing total columns and retrieved profiles (expressed on a ten-level grid from the surface to
355 100 hPa). We choose to constrain CO emissions with the MOPITT surface product for our
356 illustration. Among the different MOPITTv8 products, we choose to work with the multispectral
357 MOPITTv8-NIR-TIR one, as it provides the highest number of observations, with a good
358 evaluation against in situ data from NOAA stations [Deeter et al., 2019]. The MOPITTv8-NIR-TIR
359 surface concentrations are sub-sampled into “super-observations” in order to reduce the effect of
360 errors that are correlated between neighboring observations: we selected the median of each subset
361 of MOPITT data within each $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ grid-cell and each physical time step (about 5-10 minutes).
362 After this screening, 8437 “super-observations” remain in the 7-day inversion (from 10667 raw
363 observations). These super-observations are provided to PYVAR-CHIMERE as constraints y , and
364 treated as described in Section 3.4. It is important to note that the potential of MOPITT to provide
365 information at a high temporal resolution, up to the daily scale, is hampered by the cloud coverage
366 (see the blanks in Figure 6b).

367

The observational constraint on NO_2 emissions comes from the OMI QA4ECV tropospheric columns [Muller et al., 2016; Boersma et al., 2016, Boersma et al., 2017]. The Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI), a near-UV/Visible nadir solar backscatter spectrometer, was launched onboard EOS Aura in July 2004. It has been flown on a 705 km sun-synchronous orbit that crosses the Equator at 13:30 LT. Our data selection follows the criteria of the OMI QA4ECV data quality statement. As the spatial resolution of the OMI data is finer than that of the chosen CHIMERE model grid ($13 \times 24 \text{ km}^2$ against $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$, respectively), the OMI tropospheric columns are sub-sampled into “super-observations” (median of the OMI data within the $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ grid-cell and each physical time step and its corresponding AK).

368

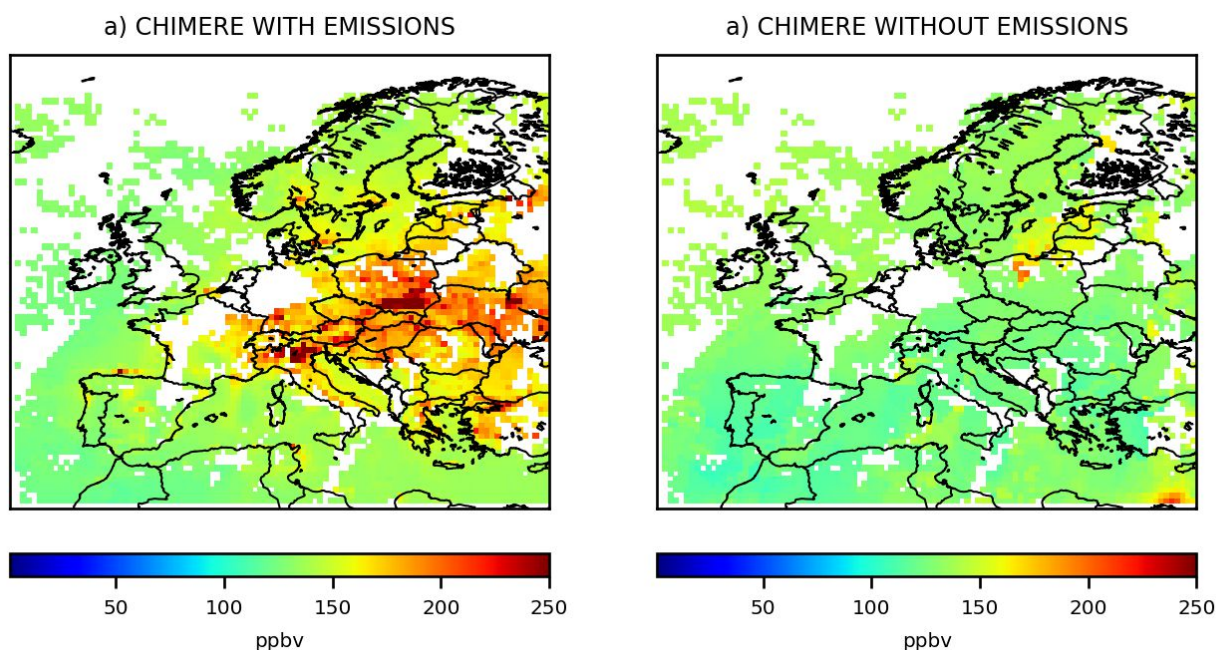
4.1.2 CHIMERE set-up

369 CHIMERE is run over a $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ regular grid (about $50 \times 50 \text{ km}^2$) and 17 vertical layers, from the
370 surface to 200hPa (about 12km), with 8 layers within the first two kilometers. The domain includes
371 101 (longitude) x 85 (latitude) grid-cells (15.5°W - 35°E ; 31.5°N - 74°N , see Figure 5). CHIMERE is
372 driven by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) meteorological
373 forecast [Owens and Hewson, 2018]. The chemical scheme used in PYVAR-CHIMERE is
374 MELCHIOR-2, with more than 100 reactions [Lattuati, 1997; CHIMERE 2017], including 24 for
375 inorganic chemistry. The prior anthropogenic emissions for CO and NO_x emissions come from the
376 TNO-GCHco-v1 inventory [Super et al., 2019], the last update of the TNO-MACCII inventory
377 [Kuenen et al., 2014]. The prior anthropogenic emissions for VOCs come from the EMEP inventory
378 [Vestreng et al., 2005; EMEP/CEIP website]. Different climatological values from the LMDZ-

379 INCA global model [Szopa et al., 2008] or from a MACC reanalysis are used to prescribe
380 concentrations at the lateral and top boundaries and the initial atmospheric composition in the
381 domain. Full access to and more information about the MACC reanalysis data can be obtained
382 through the MACC-II web site(<http://www.copernicus-atmosphere.eu>). In order to ensure realistic
383 fields of simulated CO and NO₂ concentrations from the beginning of the inversion period, runs
384 have been preceded with a 10-day spin-up.

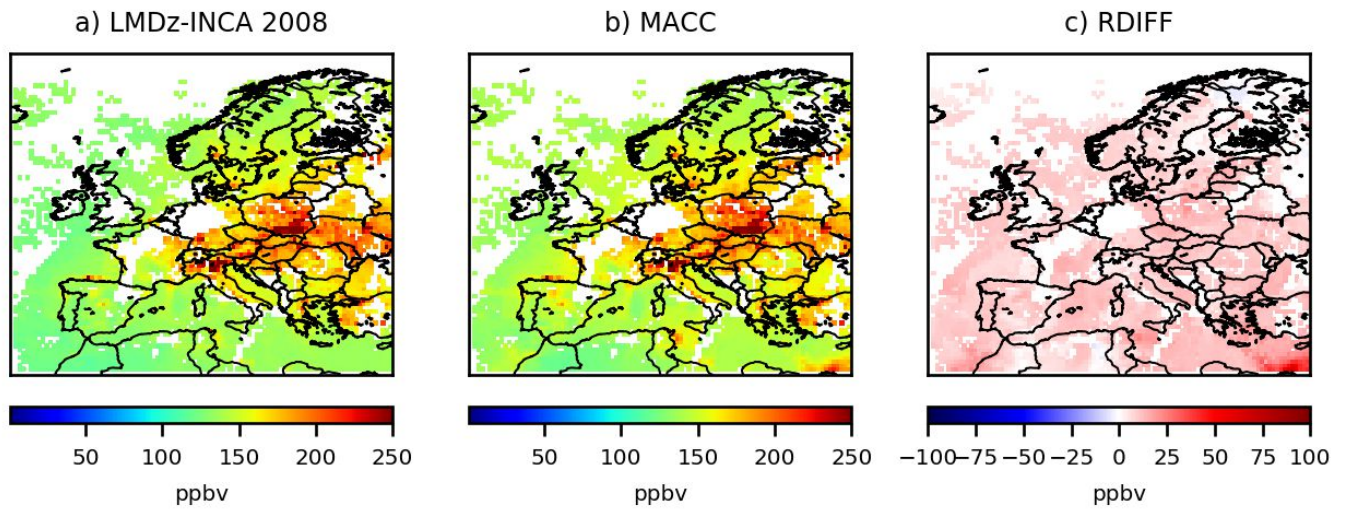
4.1.3. Sensitivity to emissions and to initial and boundary conditions

385 With its lifetime of about two months, CO could be strongly driven by the initial and lateral
386 boundary conditions prescribed in the CTM. In fact, as seen in Figure 4b, initial and boundary
387 conditions provide a relatively flat background and the patterns which appear clearly over the
388 background are linked to surface emissions (Figure 4a). To characterize the uncertainties in the
389 concentration fields due to the initial and lateral boundary conditions, we performed a sensitivity
390 test by using either climatological values from LMDZ-INCA or a MACC reanalysis: the results
391 were not significantly different, with relative differences in concentrations of less than 15% over
392 continental land (Figure 5c).



393

Figure 4. CO surface concentrations simulated by CHIMERE a) with anthropogenic and biogenic emissions, and b) without emissions, in ppbv, at the 0.5°x0.5° grid-cell resolution, over Europe averaged from the 1st to the 7th, March 2015.

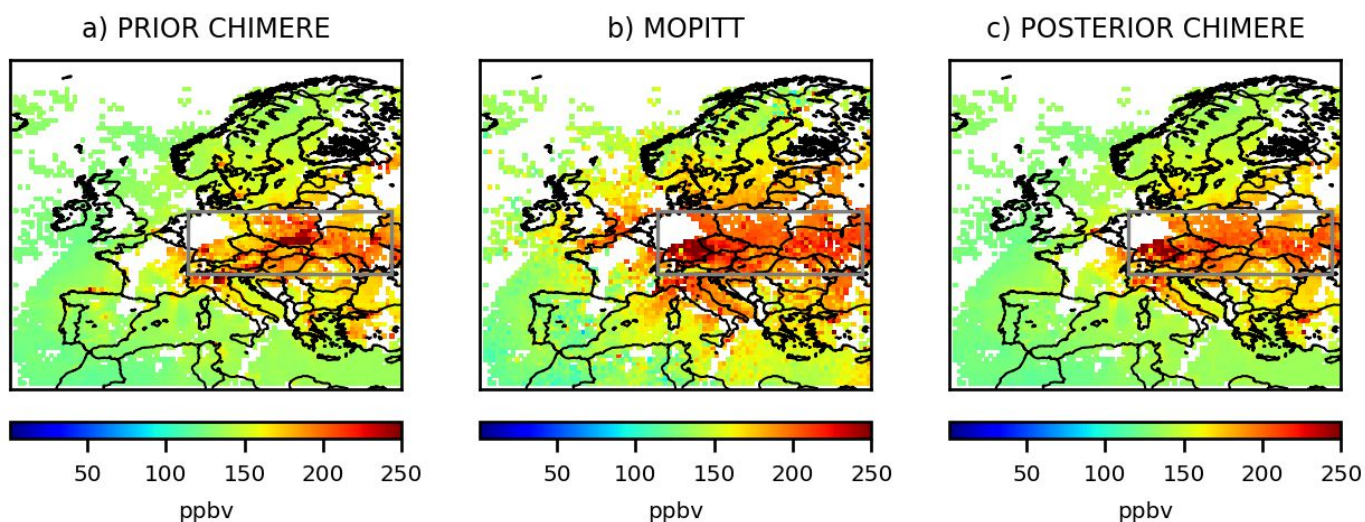


394

Figure 5. *CO surface concentrations simulated by CHIMERE using for initial and boundary conditions, a) the climatological values from the LMDZ-INCA global model b) the climatological values from a MACC reanalysis, in ppbv, and c) the relative differences between these two simulations, in %, at the $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ grid-cell resolution, over Europe averaged from the 1st to the 7th, March 2015.*

4.1.4. Comparison between CHIMERE and the observations

395 Large discrepancies are found between the MOPITT CO observations (Figure 6b) and the prior
 396 simulation of their equivalents by CHIMERE over Europe (Figure 6a). For the first week of March
 397 2015, CO concentrations are generally under-estimated by CHIMERE, particularly over Central and
 398 Eastern Europe (excepted in the south of Poland). On the contrary, CO concentrations seems to be
 399 over-estimated over Spain and Portugal. Large discrepancies are also found between the OMI NO₂
 400 super-observations and the prior simulation of their equivalents by PYVAR-CHIMERE (Figure 7).
 401 Over Europe, the prior simulation strongly underestimates the tropospheric columns over industrial
 402 areas (e.g., over the Netherlands and over Po Valley). These discrepancies might be explained by an
 403 underestimation in the BU inventory due to a general trend in emissions (if the underestimation
 404 persists throughout the year) or to an underestimation regarding particular activity sectors or the
 405 time profiles at given scales (daily, monthly). This can also be explained by uncertainties from the
 406 satellite data or from the CTM (e.g., atmospheric production, chemistry with OH).
 407



408

Figure 6. *CO collocated surface concentrations a) simulated by CHIMERE using the prior TNO-GHGco-v1 emissions and the climatological values from the LMDZ-INCA global model for initial and boundary conditions, b) observed by MOPITTv8-NIR-TIR and c) simulated by CHIMERE using the posterior emissions, in ppbv, at the $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ grid-cell resolution, over Europe averaged from the 1st to the 7th, March 2015. Mean bias between simulations and observations are given in Section 4.2.3 for the area in the grey box.*

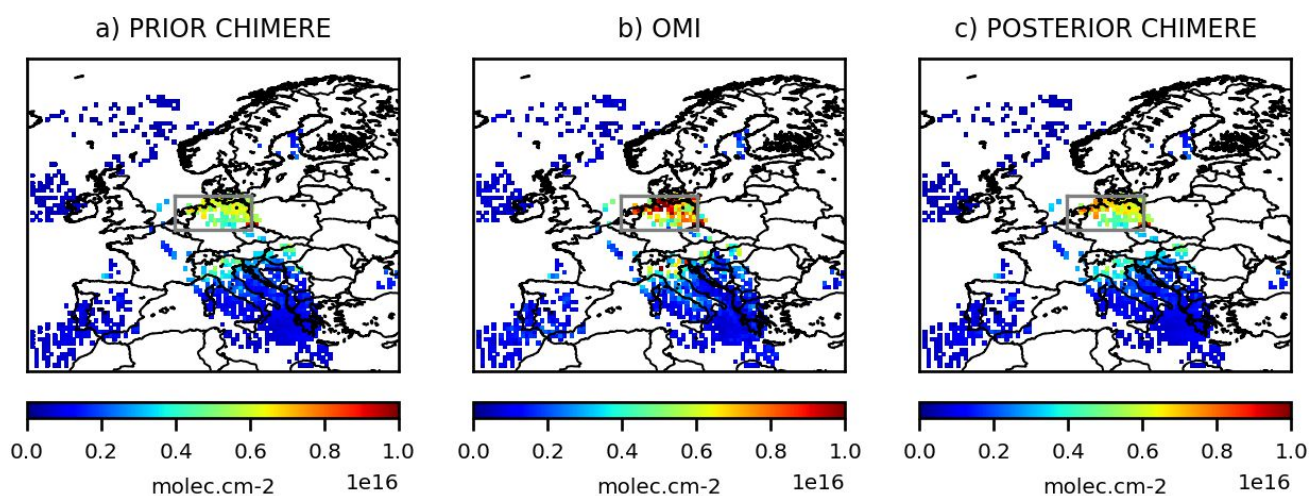


Figure 7. *NO₂ collocated surface concentrations a) simulated by CHIMERE using the prior TNO-GHGco-v1 emissions and the climatological values from the LMDZ-INCA global model for initial and boundary conditions, b) observed by OMI and c) simulated by CHIMERE using the posterior emissions, in $1e^{16}$ molec.cm-2, at the $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ grid-cell resolution, over Europe the 19th, February 2015. Mean bias between simulations and observations are given in Section 4.2.4 for the area in the grey box.*

409 4.2. Inversions

410 4.2.1. Control vector \mathbf{x}

411 For the CO inversion, the control vector \mathbf{x} contains:

- 412 ■ the CO anthropogenic emissions for 7-day and at a $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ (longitude, latitude)
413 resolution \times 8 vertical levels, i.e. $101 \times 85 \times 8$ grid cells,
- 414 ■ the CO 3D initial conditions at a $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ (longitude, latitude) resolution \times 17 vertical
415 levels,
- 416 ■ the CO lateral and top boundary conditions for 7-day at a $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ (longitude, latitude)
417 resolution, i.e. $(2 \times 101 + 2 \times 85) \times 17$ vertical levels.

418 Considering its short lifetime, there is no boundary conditions for NO_2 . For the NO_x inversion, the
419 control vector \mathbf{x} contains:

- 420 ■ the NO and NO_2 anthropogenic emissions for 1-day and at a $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ (longitude, latitude)
421 resolution \times 8 vertical levels, i.e. $101 \times 85 \times 8$ grid cells,
- 422 ■ the NO and NO_2 3D initial conditions at a $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ (longitude, latitude) resolution \times 17
423 vertical levels.

425 4.2.2. Covariance matrices \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{R}

426 We hardly have sources of estimates of the uncertainties in bottom-up emission inventories at the
427 0.5° resolution. The characterization of their statistics in the inversion configuration is consequently
428 often linked with crude assumptions from the inverse modelers. In the NO_x inversions, for both the
429 prior NO and NO_2 emissions at 1-day and 0.5° resolution, the prior error standard deviations is
430 assigned to 30% of the prior estimate of the emissions. As indicated in Section 3.3 and in Table 1, it
431 is possible to use correlations in \mathbf{B} , as in Broquet et al., [2011], in Broquet et al., [2013] and in
432 Kadygrov et al., [2015]. For this NO_x illustration, spatial correlations are defined by an e-folding
433 length of 50km over land and over the sea.

434 Even though annual CO emissions in Western Europe may be well known, with uncertainties of 6%
435 according to Super et al., [2020], larger uncertainties could affect Eastern Europe. Moreover, large
436 uncertainties still affect bottom-up emission inventories at the 0.5° resolution: spatial
437 disaggregation of the national scale estimates to provide such gridded estimates causes a significant
438 increase in the uncertainty for CO [Super et al., 2020]. For the inversion of CO emissions, the error
439 standard deviations assigned to the prior CO emissions at 7-day and 0.5° resolution are 100%. For
440 this CO illustration, the covariance matrix \mathbf{B} of the prior errors is defined as diagonal (i.e. only
441 variances in the individual control variables listed in 4.2.1 are taken into account). With such a set-
442 up, in theory, we could obtain negative posterior emissions since the inversion system does not
443 impose a constraint of positivity in the results. Nevertheless, even 100% of uncertainty lead to a
444 prior distribution mostly (>80%) on the positive side. The assimilation of data showing an increase

445 above the background (at the edges of the domain; not shown) further drive the inversion towards
446 positive emissions for both CO and NO_x inversions. In practice, our inversion does not lead to
447 negative posterior emissions (Figure 7b). Spatial and temporal correlations in **B** would further limit
448 the probability to get negative emissions locally by smoothing the posterior emissions at a spatial
449 scale at which the “aggregated” prior uncertainty is smaller than 100%. However, a positivity
450 constraint should be implemented in future versions of the system.

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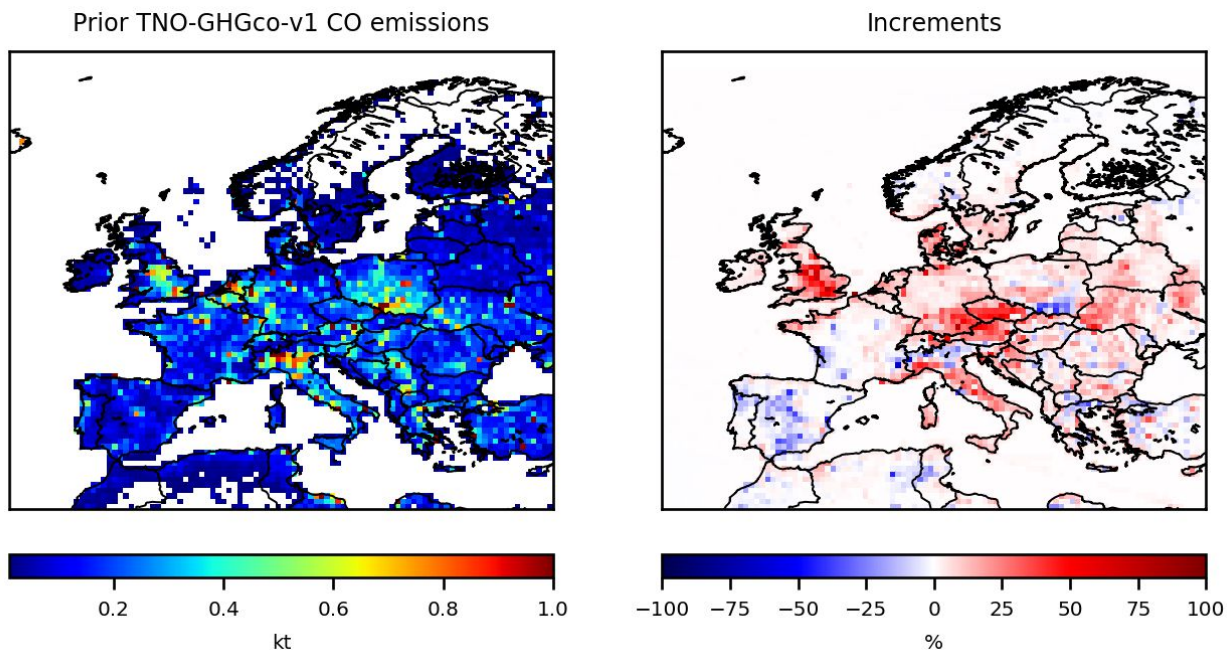
452 Based on the sensitivity test in Figure 5, the errors assigned to the CO lateral boundary conditions
453 and to their initial conditions are set at 15%. As these relative errors are significantly lower than
454 those for the emissions and as variations in the CO surface concentrations are mainly driven by
455 emissions (Figure 4), we assume a small relative influence of the correction of initial and boundary
456 conditions on our results. The variance of the individual observation errors in **R** is defined as the
457 quadratic sum of the measurement error reported in the MOPITT and the OMI data sets, and of the
458 CTM errors (including chemistry and transport errors and representativity errors) set at 20% of the
459 retrieval values. The representativity errors could have been reduced with the choice of a finer CTM
460 resolution (e.g., with a resolution closer to the size of the satellite pixel). Error correlations between
461 the super-observations are neglected, so that the covariance matrix **R** of the observation errors is
462 diagonal.

463

4.2.3 Inversion of CO emissions

464

465 Ten iterations are needed to reduce the norm of the gradient of J by 90% with the minimization
466 algorithm M1QN3 and obtain the increments, i.e. the corrections provided by the inversion. The
467 prior CO emissions over Europe for the first week of March 2015 and their increments are shown in
468 Figure 7. As expected from the large differences between the prior surface concentrations (Figure
469 6a) and the MOPITT observations (Figure 6b), local increments can reach more than +50% (Figure
470 8b). CO emissions are increased over Central and Eastern Europe, except in the south of Poland. On
471 the contrary, CO emissions are decreased over Spain and Portugal. The analyzed concentrations are
472 the concentrations simulated by CHIMERE with the posterior fluxes: as expected, the optimization
473 of the fluxes improves the fit of the simulated concentrations to the observations (Figure 6c),
474 particularly over Central and Eastern Europe. Over this area (see the grey box in Figure 6), the
475 mean bias between the simulation and the observations has been reduced by about 27% when using
476 the posterior emissions (mean bias of 11.6 ppbv) instead of the prior emissions (mean bias of 15.9
477 ppbv).

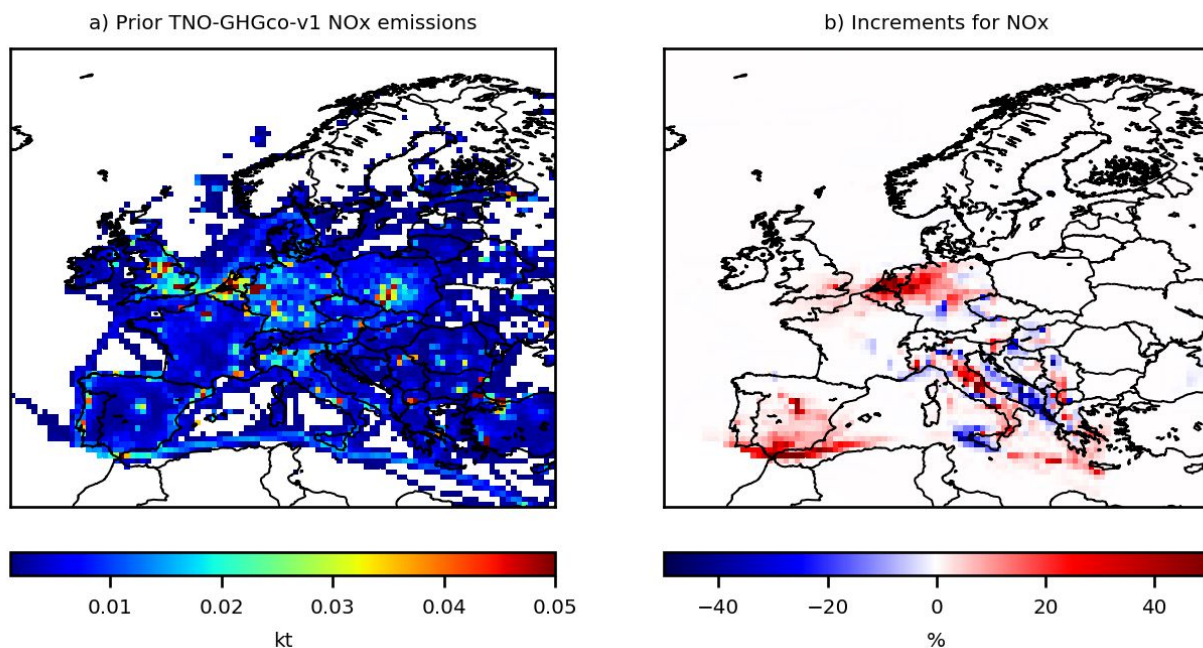


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 479 **Figure 8.** a) TNO-GHGco-v1 CO anthropogenic prior emissions, in ktCO/grid-cell and b)
 480 increments provided by the inversion with constraints from MOPITTv8-NIR-TIR from the 1st to the
 481 7th, March 2015, in %.

482

4.2.4. Inversion of NO_x emissions

483 The prior NO_x emissions are shown in Figure 9a. Three iterations are needed to reduce the norm of
 484 the gradient of J by 90% with the minimization algorithm M1QN3 and obtain the increments shown
 485 in Figure 9b. As expected from the underestimation of the prior tropospheric columns in Figure 7,
 486 local increments may be large, for example over industrial areas (e.g., over the Po Valley) and over
 487 the Netherlands, with increments of more than +30% (Figure 9b). The analyzed NO₂ tropospheric
 488 columns in Figure 7c are the columns simulated by CHIMERE with the NO₂ posterior fluxes: as
 489 expected, the optimization of the fluxes improves the fit of the simulated concentrations to the
 490 observations, particularly over the Netherlands. Over this area (see the grey box in Figure 7), the
 491 mean bias between the simulation and the observations has been reduced by about 24% when using
 492 the posterior emissions (mean bias of $1.4e^{+15}$ molec.cm⁻²) instead of the prior emissions (mean bias
 493 of $1.8e^{+15}$ molec.cm⁻²). The posterior emissions and their uncertainties will have to be evaluated and
 494 may bring hints to the cause of the discrepancies.



495

496 **Figure 9.** a) TNO-GHGco-v1 NOx anthropogenic prior emissions, in ktNO₂/grid-cell and b)
497 increments provided by the inversion with constraints from OMI the 19th, February 2015, in %.

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5. Conclusion/Discussion

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This paper presents the Bayesian variational inverse system PYVAR-CHIMERE, which has been adapted to the inversion of reactive species such as CO and NO_x, taking advantage of the previous developments for long-lived species such as CO₂ [Broquet et al., 2011] and CH₄ [Pison et al., 2018]. We show the potential of PYVAR-CHIMERE, with inversions for CO and NO_x illustrated over Europe. PYVAR-CHIMERE will now be used to infer CO and NO_x emissions over long periods, e.g. first for a whole season or year and then for the recent decade 2005-2015 in the framework of the H2020 VERIFY project over Europe, and in the framework of the ANR PolEASIA over China, to quantify their trend and their spatio-temporal variability.

The PYVAR-CHIMERE system can handle any large number of both control parameters and observations. It will be able to cope with the dramatic increase in the number of data in the near future with, for example, the high-resolution imaging (pixel of 7x3.5 km²) of the new Sentinel-5P/TROPOMI program, launched in October 2017. These new space missions with high-resolution imaging have indeed the ambition to monitor atmospheric chemical composition for the quantification of anthropogenic emissions. Moreover, a step forward in the joint assimilation of co-emitted pollutants will soon be possible with the PYVAR-CHIMERE system and the availability of TROPOMI co-localized images of CO and NO₂. This should improve the consistency of the inversion results and can be used to inform inventory compilers, and subsequently improve

517 emission inventories. Moreover, this development will help in further understanding air quality
518 problems and addressing air quality related emissions at the national to subnational scales.

519

520 **Author Contribution**

521 All authors have contributed to the manuscript writing (main authors: AFC, GB, IP and GD) and to
522 the development of the present version of the PYVAR-CHIMERE system (main developer: IP). IP
523 and GD have parallelized the adjoint version from Menut et al., [2000], Menut et al., [2003] and
524 Pison et al., [2007]. IP has complemented the adjoint of new parameterizations since the CHIMERE
525 release in 2011 and the tangent-linear model.

526

527 **Code and Data Availability**

528 OMI QA4ECV NO₂ product can be found here: <http://temis.nl/qa4ecv/no2.html>.

529 MOPITTv8-NIR-TIR CO product can be found here: <ftp://15ftl01.larc.nasa.gov/MOPITT/>

530 The CHIMERE code is available here: www.lmd.polytechnique.fr/chimere/.

531

532 The associated documentation of PYVAR-CHIMERE is available on the website
533 <https://pyvar.lsce.ipsl.fr/doku.php/3chimere:headpage>. The documentation includes a whole
534 description of PYVAR-CHIMERE and several tutorials on how to run a first PYVAR-CHIMERE
535 simulation or how to run an inversion.

536

537 **Competing interests**

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

539

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544 emissions over Europe. We also acknowledge the free use of tropospheric NO₂ column data from
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553

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