Order of magnitude wall time improvement of variational methane inversions by physical parallelization: a demonstration using TM5-4DVAR

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Abstract. Atmospheric inversions are used to constrain the emissions of trace gases from using atmospheric mole fraction measurements. The four-dimensional variational variational (4DVAR) inversion approach allows optimization of the emissions at a much higher temporal and spatial resolution than the ensemble or analytical approaches but provides limited opportunities for scalable parallelization because it is an iterative optimization methodas the optimization is performed iteratively. Multidecadal variational inversions are needed used to optimally extract information from the long measurement records of long-lived atmospheric trace gases like carbon dioxide and methane. However, the wall elock time needed—up to months complicates these multidecadal inversions. The physical parallelization (PP) method introduced by Chevallier (2013) addresses this problem for carbon dioxide CO₂ inversions by splitting the time-period of the chemical transport model into blocks and running them that are run in parallel. Here we present a new implementation of the PP physical parallelization for variational inversion (PPVI) method approach that which is is suitable for methane inversions as it accounts for the chemical sink of methane's atmospheric lifetime. The performance of the PPVI method is tested in an 11-year inversion using a TM5-4DVAR inversion setup that assimilates surface observations to optimize methane emissions at grid-scale. Our PP implementation improves the wall time performance by a factor of 5We find that the PPVI inversion approach improves the wall clock time performance by a factor of 5 and shows excellent agreement with the posterior emissions of a full serial inversion with in an identical configuration (global mean emissions difference = 0.06 % with an interannual variation correlation R = 0.99%; regional mean emission difference < 5 % and interannual variation R > 0.945). The wall elock time improvement of using the PPVI method increases with the size of the inversion period. The PPVI approach method is planned to be used in future releases of the CAMS (Copernicus Atmosphere Monitoring Service (CAMS)) multidecadal methane reanalysis.

30 1 Introduction

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Methane (CH₄) is the second_-most important greenhouse gas after carbon dioxide (CO₂), and its atmospheric abundance has increased by more than a factor of 2.5250 % since preindustrial times. Due to its strong global warming potential, Methaneit is responsible for 25 % of the anthropogenic radiative forcing in spite of despite its 200 times lower abundance than CO₂ due to its strong global warming potential (Myhre et al., 2013). Unlike the relatively steady increase in CO₂, mainly due to fossil fuel emissions, the methane observational record shows remarkable variability in growth rate. The causes of these variations are still debated (Rigby et al., 2017; Schaefer et al., 2016, Worden et al., 2017; Pandey et al., 2017).

Atmospheric inversions provide ealculate

Reducing anthropogenic methane emissions has been recognized as an important requirement for achieving the 2015 Paris Agreement target of limiting global temperature rise to below 2° C relative to pre-industrial times (Ganesan et al., 2019; Nisbet et al., 2018). Climate change mitigation and adaptation strategies require reliable knowledge of the methane budget. The mmethane emission estimatess have been estimated using multidecadal inversions, which by optimally combininge the information in atmospheric observations and bottom-up emissions- emission estimates (estimates using processbased models and inventories) along with corresponding error characteristics. Inversions useing a CTM (Cehemical transport models (CTM's) + simulate the spatiotemporal distribution of the methane concentrations mole fractions in the atmosphere for a given set of emissions while also accounting for its atmospheric sink, Inversions use CTM's are used to disentangleing the influences of atmospheric transport from the influences of and sourcesemissions and sinks on the observed mole fractions (Naus et al., 2019, Pandey et al., 2019). Inversions have been performed on multidecadal scales to assess the information content of long records of methane mole fractions. For example, "The Global Methane Budget 2000–2017" (Saunois et al., 2020) presents regional emission estimates from nine different inversion setups. The methane emissions reanalysis project under the Copernicus Atmosphere Monitoring Service (CAMS) performs multidecadal inversions using the TM5-4DVAR variational approach to provide regularly updated gridded methane emissions (Segers and Houweling, 2020). Such multidecadal inversions have been performed, for example, for the "The Global Methane Budget 2000-2017" that was published recently by the Saunois et al. (2020). This study made methane emissions available from nine different inversion setups. The methane emissions reanalysis project under the Copernicus Atmosphere Monitoring Service (CAMS) performs multidecadal inversions using the TM5 4DVAR variational approach to provide regularly updated gridded methane emissions (Segers and Houweling, 2020).

Trace gas Emission

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Atmospheric <u>linversions</u> inversions that estimate CH₄ emissions adjust a state vector, <u>which includes</u> (consisting of <u>gridded</u> emissions or <u>emission correction factors</u> (and sometimes also the initial mole fraction field and other parameters in some <u>inversions</u>), to improve the agreement between model simulations and observations. <u>These inversions use a CTM to simulate</u>

the spatiotemporal distribution of the tracer in the atmosphere for a given set of emissions while also accounting for its atmospheric sink. They inversions A minimize a Bayesian cost function that eost function is defined based on the difference between the modelled and observed mole fractions as well as the magnitude of the emission adjustments, weighted with respective error covariances. The solution of the inverse problem is posterior emission vector, which minimizes the cost function. There are three main minimization approaches used in atmospheric inverse modelling: analytical, ensemble and variational. The analytical approach is based on a closed-form solution of Bayes' theorem (Gurney et al., 2002). It requires the calculation of observation-sensitivities of each of the state vector elements separately. Their leads to a large computational cost involved and restricts the approach'sits usage application to inversion problems with small sized state vectors. The ensemble approach improves the computational performance by representing parameterizing the state vector sensitivities using by a statistical ensemble (Peters et al., 2005). Still only a relatively small sized state vector can currently be afforded using this approach.

75 The variational <u>inversion</u> approach was introduced to lift the state vector size restriction_, using the adjoint of the CTM (Chevallier et al., 2005).

In_the variational_this approach, the minimum of a the cost function minimum is computed using an iterative procedure, with each iteration that comprisinges of a forward and an adjoint CTM run. The method has the advantage over the analytical approach in that it can be applied to non-linear inverse problems. Truncated posterior uncertainties can be obtained for from variational inversions using the conjugate gradient minimizer for linear inverse problems (Meirink et al., 2008). A more robust, but computationally expensive, estimate of posterior uncertainties can be obtained using a Monte Carlo method (Chevallier et al., 2007, Pandey et al., 2016). However, aAs each iteration of a variational inversion uses the output of the previous iteration, there are limited opportunities for scalable parallelization in variational inversions, and these the calculations can take months depending on the spatial and temporal resolution of the inversion. Thise long wall_elock_time limits the resolution, the duration maximum time range, and or the number of iterations that can be used in multidecadal variational inversions.

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To improve reduce this longe wall timecomputational efficiency for of multidecadal variational CO₂ inversions carbon dioxide (CO₂) inversions, Chevallier (2013) introduced the physical parallelization (PP) method. In this method, which the timeseries full inversion period is of forward and adjoint CTM runs within each iteration are split divided into a number of blocks, and the CTM runs for the blocks and that are performed run in parallel within each iteration and. a. tmospheric mass efforteetions Corrections factors are added to the simulated CO₂ tracer mole fractions in a block applied after the CTM block runs are finished to account for changes in the background mole fractions due to net for emissions adjustments (iteration minus prior emissions) changes released in earlier blocks. This method reduceds the wall-clock time by an order of magnitude (seven-

fold improvement for a 32-year inversion) while keeping the inversion-derived emission adjustments statistically consistent with a serial inversion. However, However, the original implementation of the PPtheir method cannot be used for a cannot be applied directly to reactive trace gas like methane as the methodit does not account for atmospheric chemical sink.

the limited chemical lifetime of methane of about 10 years, due to oxidation by the OH radicals in the atmosphere. Here we report present an extension-improved PP of the method that accounts for the limited atmospheric lifetime of reactive trace gases such as methane, which has an atmospheric lifetime of about 9 years (mainly due to oxidation by the OH radicals). the atmospheric lifetime. The intention is to use this new PP implementation for the Copernicus Atmosphere Monitoring Service (CAMS) methane flux reanalysis, which aims to provide every year-annually an-updated multi-decadal emission estimates inversion, within a production cycle window of only a few months. The method is referred to as PPVI (physical parallelization for variational inversion) from here on.

In the next section, we present our the PPVI method. In Section 3, we The method's test the performance is tested of the PPVI inversion method using an 11-year test-inversions setup presented in Section 3.- The wall time and optimized emissions of a PP inversion are compared to a serial inversion in an identical configuration. We compare the wall clock time and optimized emissions of a serial inversion with a PPVI inversion. In Section 4, we discuss possible future improvements and applications of the PP method. We discuss the current CAMS methane inversion setup, and possible improvements and applications of the PPVI method in Section 4. Our conclusions are summarized in Section 5.

2 Physical parallelization for methane inversions for variational inversions

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An In the 4D var approach, inversion of an atmospheric trace gas The the solution of a atmospheric methane inverse problems of a trace gas is calculated by minimizesing the a Bayesian cost function of the state vector x:

Here In here, y is the observation vector, and, x^a is the priori state vector. B and R are the error covariance matrices of the prior emissions and the observations, respectively. For methane emission inversions, The vector m constitutes the modelled mole fractions corresponding to

125 yThe the observation operator H consists of the a CTM run that simulates methane mole fractions at time and location of y. given

and **R** are the error covariance matrices of the prior state a priori emissions and the observations, respectively. It is computed using a CTM operator H, which simulates the mole fractions given the emissions in the state x and the initial mole fraction field c_0 .

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$$m = H(c_0, x)$$
.....(2).

In a variational inversion setup, the posterior solution x^p of Equation. (1) is found obtained by minimizing J using an iterative procedure that computes a estimates new emission update a new x^{i+1} in -in-each iteration i using the gradient of J:

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$$\nabla J(\mathbf{x}^i) = \mathbf{B}^{-1}[\mathbf{x}^i \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^a] \frac{(\mathbf{x}^i - \mathbf{x}^a)}{(\mathbf{x}^i - \mathbf{x}^a)} + H^{*T}(\mathbf{R}^{-1}[\mathbf{m}^i - \mathbf{y}]) \frac{(H(\mathbf{x}^i) - \mathbf{y})}{(H(\mathbf{x}^i) - \mathbf{y})} \dots (\underline{32})$$

where, H^{*T} represents the adjoint <u>CTM</u> operator, which is implemented using the adjoint code of the CTM. The inversion finishes when a predefined convergence criterion is met, such as a desired gradient norm reduction or simply a maximum number of iterations.

In a serial variational inversion the observation operator iteration i, the CTM H_{\cdot} simulates a mole fraction vector \boldsymbol{m}^{i} with mole fractions representing the observations for observation vector $\boldsymbol{y}_{\cdot 1}$ based on using the initial mole fraction field \boldsymbol{c}_{0} and emission estimates \boldsymbol{x}^{i} of iteration i:

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$$m_{\star}^{i} = H_{\star}(x_{\star}^{i})$$
 (SP1)

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In the PPVI method presented in Chevallier (2013), the full period period of the CTM-inversion is split is broken into r overlapping time blocksblocks, which can be are run in parallel. Figure 1-shows a schematically represents diagram of the main steps in of the PPVI method used in the forward mode to calculate m^i . At the start of the inversion, a serial CTM run is performed serially (without blockssegmentation) is performed first in order to calculate initial mole fraction fields c_k^a for each block k using the a-priori emissions x^a . This CTM run can be performed at coarser resolution than the main inversion to save time. In an iteration, mole fractions for the iteration CTMA mole fraction vector m_k^i is then-computed using the block observation operator H_k , computes the mole fraction vector m_k^i with based on the latest emission estimate from the previous iterations x_k^i , and the initial mole fraction for this block,

The overlaps between consecutive blocks is kept, where modelled modeled mole fraction from are needed for methane perturbations to uniformly distribute over the spatial domain of the CTM, such that each perturbation could be diagnosed by at least some observation sites. The mole fraction vector m_k^i for the observations y_k could now be calculated by using the

small CTM block H_k with emissions x_k^i and a mole fraction a correction factor vector n_k^i , which accounts for the state vector innovation in the preceding block.

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$$\mathbf{m}_{k}^{i} = H_{k}(\mathbf{c}_{k}^{a}, \mathbf{x}_{k}^{i}) + n_{k}^{i} \dots (4)_{\underline{.}}$$

Here the scalar The correction n_k^i accounts for the impact of emission differences between the prior and the iteration in the time period from preceding the to preceblock on the simulated observations within the block. The error due to this simplification is further reduced by using an overlap period between consecutive blocks, where modelled mole fractions from the succeeding block are discarded. The overlap period CTM run distributes the emission differences uniformly through the Earth's atmosphere. The PP method by Chevallier (2013) was applied to CO_2 inversions, where n_k^i was simply calculated as the sum of the emission differences from each preceding block:

$$n_k^i = \sum_{l=1}^{k-1} f[|\mathbf{x}_l^i - \mathbf{x}_l^a|] \qquad ... \tag{5}.$$

Here |x| denotes the global sum over elements of x. f is a scalar used to convert emissions to mole fractions. f is calculated for a tracer by, assuming a uniform distribution of the emitted trace gas throughout the Earth's atmosphere. f is calculated simply as the ratio between the number of moles in a unit emission and the number of moles of air in the atmosphere.

Methane has an atmospheric lifetime of about 9 years. Unlike CO₂, a large fraction of methane emission differences will be chemically removed within the duration of a multidecadal inversion as well as within a PP inversion block. Therefore, in our new implementation of the PP, we use a mole fraction correction vector The correction $-\mathbf{n}_k^i$ (with size of \mathbf{m}_k^i)- instead of the scaler n_k^i to apply separate corrections to each observation. We account for the also-limited lifetime of methane by implementing an atmospheric sink operator S. In addition, we use we implement a CTM block sensitivity vector $\mathbf{h}_{k\bar{1}}$ is implemented, distribute global emission changes more precisely, as per taking into account the full 3D atmospheric transport and the sink rather than assuming a globally uniform distribution. \mathbf{h}_k is computed at the start of the inversion by running H_k in forward mode with a unit initial mole fraction field and zero emissions, i.e., $\mathbf{h}_k = H_k$ ($\mathbf{c}_k = 1, \mathbf{x}_k = 0$) is calculated using an emission to mole fraction conversion factor $\mathbf{r}_k = \mathbf{r}_k =$

$$\mathbf{n}_{k}^{i} = \mathbf{h} \mathbf{H}_{k} \sum_{l=1}^{k-1} S_{l,k}(f[|\mathbf{x}_{l}^{i} - \mathbf{x}_{l}^{a}|])_{\underline{}}, \dots (\underline{65})_{\underline{}}$$

The scalar In here, \mathbf{H}_{k} is the CTM block sensitivity to a uniform initial mole fraction field perturbation, which is calculated at the start of the inversion by running each block with an initial unit mole fraction field and a zero emissions field. $S_{l,k}$ accounts for the impact of atmospheric sinks on the global uniform concentration change at the start of block k, induced by emission perturbations differences during the within block l till the start of the block k. Thereafter Within block k itselfon, the impact of atmospheric sinks, as well as atmospheric transport, is accounted for by- $\mathbf{h}_k\mathbf{H}_k$. We parameterize $\mathbf{S}_{l,k}$ with an e-folding decay function with atmospheric lifetime of methane of 9 years, which was found to be sufficient for our test inversion (Section 3).

<u>In-Ee</u>ach iteration of a variational inversion computes a departures vector δm :

difference between observations and the modelled mole fractions scaled with the respective errors. Thereafter, The adjoint CTM H^* is run with δm uses these departures to compute -calculate the local gradient of the cost function (Equation under 2). In the PPVI method, H^* , the adjoint CTM is split into blocks of covering the same periods blocks are kept the same as used for the forward CTM simulation blocks and Equation 2 is applied in adjoint mode. In an iteration, First, each adjoint block is first run with the respective departures. Then, the modelled adjoint sensitivities of a block δx_{kt}^i of block k are adjusted for the effects of departures of succeeding successive blocks by adding adjoint mole fraction correction scalars $g_k^i \delta n_t^i$ calculated using as follows:

$$g\delta n_k^i = f \sum_{l=k+1}^r S_{k,l}^{**} (-hH_l^{T*} - (\delta m_l^i))$$
 (86)

The correct <u>adjoint</u> implementation of the <u>adjoint part of the PPVI</u> method <u>was can be verified using the adjoint test (Meirink</u> et al., 2008). The test checks for the equality-

$$\langle M(\boldsymbol{a}), \boldsymbol{b} \rangle = \langle \boldsymbol{a}, M^*(\boldsymbol{b}) \rangle \dots (9),$$

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where M and M^* denote the forward and adjoint model operators, $\langle \ \rangle$ denotes the inner product. a and b are the arbitrary forward and adjoint model states.

In a PPVI inversion, the initial mole fraction field c_0 needs to be consistent with the observations as a discrepancy between the two leads to large emission adjustments-differences in the early months of the inversion period. This issue can easily be dealt with in a serial inversion using a spin-up period and rejecting this period from the posterior solution. However, in a PPVI inversion, the large emission differences adjustments may result in large mole fraction corrections factors, which increases the error in the PPVI approximation (see Equation 4 & 5). This can be avoided by taking a realistic c_0 from another inversion covering the period before the PPVI inversion.

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In summary, the main steps of a the PPVI methane inversion are as follows:

- 1. Construct an initial mole fraction field c_0 consistent with observations at the start of the inversion.
- 2. <u>Divide-Split</u> the full period of the inversion into *r* over-lapping time blocks.
- 3. To calculate Calculate the initial mole fraction fields $(c_k^{a\theta},)$ for each block by Calculate the initial mole fraction fields $(c_k^{a\theta})$ for each block by running the forward CTM serially with the prior a priori emissions x^a and saveing the simulated mole fraction fields at the start time of each block.
- 4. Calculate the CTM block sensitivities (hH_k) by running the CTM over each blocks with a <u>unity uniform</u> initial mole fraction field of 1 and zero emissions, and sampleing the model output at the observation time and locations.
- 5. Perform the inversion by iteratively minimizing the cost function until the convergence eriteriacondition is met using a forward and an adjoint run in each iteration:
 - a. Forward run:
 - i. Run <u>all the forward CTM for each blocks</u> in parallel with the initial mole fraction fields from the step
 3.
 - ii. Account for the emission differences changes relative to from the a-priori in preceding blocks, by applying adding the mole fraction corrections n_k^i (Equation 54).
 - b. Adjoint run:
 - i. Run the all adjoint CTM for each blocks in parallel to calculate the adjoint emissions sensitivities.s δx_1^i .
 - ii. Add Apply the adjoint corrections $g_k^i \delta n_i^i$ to account for the effect of departures in successive blocks (Equation 86).

The CTM runs in the steps 4, 5.a.i and 5.b.i are performed in parallel. The steps without CTM run (1, 2, 5.a.ii and 5.b.ii) require very little wall time. Step 3 is the most time-consuming because a full serial CTM run is performed in the step. To reduce the wall time, this run can be performed at a coarse CTM resolution. This will not have a major impact on the inversion's performance as the coarse resolution mole fraction fields would be consistent with the source, sink and large-scale atmospheric

transport patterns, and m is sampled after the coarse field is transported by a high-resolution CTM block runs during the overlap periods.

3 PP_VI-pPerformance test

In this section, Wwe evaluate the the performance of the PPVI method by comparing a PP inversion with against-a serial methane inversion. Both inversions are performed for an 11-year period (1999-2010) with identical observations and prior emissions. We we perform the inversions for a 11-year period (1999-2010) useing the TM5-4DVAR inversion system (Bergamaschi et al., 2010; Meirink et al., 2008, Krol et al., 2005), which consists of the TM5 (Transport Model version 5; Krol et al., 2005) with the settings used in Pandey et al. (2016). The TM5 CTM is run at 6° × 4° horizontal resolution and 25 vertical hybrid sigma-pressure levels from the surface to the top of the atmosphere. The meteorological fields for this offline model are taken from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) ERA-Interim reanalysis (Dee et al., 2011). We optimize a single category ('total') of methane emissions at 6° × 4° spatial resolution and monthly temporal resolution. The posterior emissions of the two inversions are compared after integrating over the TRANSCOM regions shown in Figure 2a.

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The inversion assimilates surface observations from the NOAA Earth System Research Laboratory (ESRL) global cooperative air sampling network at on- and off-shore sites (Dlugokencky et al., 2011; Dlugokencky et al., 2020). The locations of the observation sitess are shown in Figure 2b. The prior covariance matrix **B**_is constructed assuming relative emission uncertainties of 50_% per grid box per month. The emissions are assumed to be correlated temporally using an exponential correlation function with an e-folding time scale of 3 months, and spatially with a Gaussian correlation function using a length scale of 500 km (Houweling et al., 2014). Uncertainties of 1.4 ppb are assigned to the CH4methane_observations. Our system also assigns a modelling representation error based on simulated local mole fractions gradients (Basu et al., 2013). The prior emissions are taken from the same sources as in _same as in Pandey et al. (2016). The emissions of in 2008 are applied to every year in the inversion time-period, h_shence there is no interannual variability in the prior emissions. The cost function J is minimized using the conjugate gradient minimizer, which is based on the Lanczos algorithm (Fisher and Courtier, 1995). The inversions use the convergence criterion of gradient norm reduction by a factor 1000, which is achieved after 19 iterations in both inversions.

In the PPVI inversion, we divide split the inversion period of 1999-2010; into 11 blocks of of 21_months with 9 months overlap between successive blocks. Effectively, The first 9 months of each block is the overlap period used for uniformly mixing the emission changes within the atmosphere, while the last 12 months each block provides modelled mole fractions for assimilating the observations for one year. We parameterize the sink operator S (Equation 6) with an e-folding decay function

with a constant 9-year atmospheric lifetime of methane. sufficient for our test inversion (Section 3). The input emissions of TM5 are mass fluxes (Tg yr⁻¹) and the output is in mole fractions (ppb). The methane emission changes are converted in mole fractions using an f = 0.361 ppb/Tg. The Successful implementations of the PPVI method in the adjoint mode on this TM5-4DVAR setup was verified using the adjoint and gradient test (Equation 9)s. The next section (3.1) compares evaluates the observation-model mismatches and posterior emissions differences between the PP and serial two inversions, and the section thereafter (3.2) presents the wall elock time improvement by achieved of using by the PP VI method inversion.

3.1 Emission estimation errors

Here we compare examine the quality of the inversion-optimized fit to the observation the observation fit and the posterior emissions of the PPVI and serial inversions_. Figure 3 shows the time_series of the prior and posterior simulations and the observations for two background sites, representing one for each hemisphere: Barrow (Alaska) and the South Pole. The prior observation-prior model RMSDE (root mean square errordifference) for Barrow (78 ppb) is 3 times higher than for the South Pole (28 pbb). The Barrow observations shows a more larger high-frequency variations than the the South Pole as the Northern Hemisphere station is influenced by methane emissions from wetlands, closer to methane sources. The PPThe simulatedVI mole fractions simulated by from the PP inversion results are are in good agreement with the results obtained from the serial inversion: an the RMSDsE of between the two is 2 ppb and 1 pbbis obtained for Barrow, and the of 1 pbb respectively for Barrow and South pole, respectively, which are only 2.5-% and 3.2-% of the prior initial observation-prior RMSDmismatch. This shows that the PP inversion, starting from an identical prior, starting from an identical prior, the PPVI inversion is able to match the observations at these sites about as good as the serial inversion.

Figure 4 shows the average mole fraction differences at all observation sites. Figure 4 shows the probability density functions of the observation model mismatch weighted with the uncertainties used in the inversion. The <u>prior</u> observation-<u>prior</u> prior RMSD for all observations combined mismatch is 67 ppb. The mean- 6.7 ± 6 , with negative mean mismatch is -58 ppb because the 2008 bottom-up emissions used as <u>the prior</u> are larger than the mean posterior emission over 1999-2010. The <u>In the posterior solution of the serial inversion</u>, the mismatch is reduced to -0.06 ± 1.24 , average data- uncertainty (mean of the square root of the diagonal elements of **R**) is 19 ppb (not shown). For both inversions, a good model fit to the observations is achieved with a gradient norm reduction of 1000. The posterior simulation of both the serial and PP inversions reduce the RMSD to 20 ppb (mean = -2 ppb). PPVI mismatch The posterior (-0.06 ± 1.26) simulation is also very small and similar to the serial inversion. The minus mismatch RMSD between the PPVI and serial inversions is 1.9 ppb (mean = -0.1(0.005 ppb) \pm), which is 0.23 an is an order of magnitude smaller than the observation posterior minus prior RMSD of 62 ppb (mean = -55 ppb) mismatch. This, which shows that the implementation of the PPVI method has does not have a significant little impact

320 impact on the inversion-system's ability to fit the observations. For both inversions, the good fit to the observations also confirms that a gradient norm reduction of 1000 is sufficient.

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A good agreement between observations and posterior models does not guarantee necessary mean that the inversions have produced similar posterior emissions. The physically parallelized CTM used transport model in the PPVI inversion has lost some of the consistency of the full is a simplification of the "perfect" transport model CTM of used in the serial inversion. If the impact of this simplification is small, the posterior emissions of the two inversions should be in good agreement. Figure 5 shows the mean emissions estimates (averaged over 1999-2010) from the inversions integrated over the globe and over the TRANSCOM regions. The serial inversion adjusts the global mean prior emissions of 544 ± 11 Tg yr⁻¹ by -22 Tg yr⁻¹. The The mean global emissions of the PPVI inversion is and serial inversions are in in excellent agreement with the serial inversion in-with this respect. The two differ by with < 0.3 Tg yr⁻¹ -(0.065-%) difference, which is-1-% of the difference between prior and posterior emissions from the serial inversion. -The global methane emissions are in generally well constrained by the NOAA observations in a the serial inversion, and PPVI inversions meaning that the additional error introduced by in the PP methodVI approach does not seem to have a significant impact the constraint on the emissions at the global emissions scale. At regional scales, the serial inversion adjustment is the smallest for Australia: ± 0.4 Tg vr⁻¹ for a prior of 6.6 ± 0.4 Tg vr⁻¹. The PP inversion adjusts the prior here by 0.5 Tg yr⁻¹, implying that the difference with the serial inversion (0.1 Tg yr⁻¹) is well within the prior emission uncertainty. The serial inversion changes the Eurasian temperate emissions the most, by -58 Tg yr ¹, where prior emissions are 135 ± 8 Tg yr⁻¹. The PP inversion changes these emissions by -60 Tg yr⁻¹, i. e., a difference of 2 Tg yr⁻¹ and well within the prior uncertainty also. The South American temperate region has the largest difference between the serial and PP emission estimates of 2 Tg vr⁻¹. The serial emissions for this region are 6.5 Tg vr⁻¹ higher than the prior of $36 \pm$ 2.4 Tg yr¹. In summary, Themean -performance of PPVI in other TRANSCOM regions is also good for mean-PP emissions estimates for the TRANSCOM regions deviate within < 5 % deviation from the serial emissions inversion.

On average, the deviations are within 30% of the posterior uncertainty. Figure 6 shows the inter_annual variability of the emission estimates. Due to the large observational constraint, Tethe global emissions time series of the PP and serial two inversions show a very good the best-agreement with a correlation coefficient R = 0.99, explained by the large observational constraint. Over the TRANSCOM regions, the North American temperate region has the best agreement (R = 1.0). All other regions have an R betterhigher than 0.98 except for Australia (0.96) and Europe (0.94). Figure 7 shows the intra-annual variations of the emissions. At the global scale, the PP and serial time series match very well with R = 1.00, whereas R between prior and serial is 0.93. The agreement between PP and serial time series is also very good for all TRANSCOM regions (R > 0.98) despite low correlations between prior and serial emissions for some regions, for example, R = 0.13 for the South American temperate region. This shows that the PP inversion is able to reproduce the seasonal cycle of the emissions very well. In summary, the combination of small differences in the mean emissions, and the high correlations between intra- and

inter-annual time series, shows that the PP inversion can effectively reproduce results of the serial inversion. the agreements are also good with R > 0.95.

3.2 Computational cost Wall time

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Table 1 compares the wall elock-times used needed by for the PPVIPP and serial inversions. Our The TM5 model in our inversion setup runs-uses OpenMP parallelization and givesgave the best wall time clock performance on 4 CPUs on a single node. Using more CPUs reduces the performance as the communication overhead within the CPUs becomes the bottleneck. (Note that the TM5-MP version -described in Williams et al., 2017, with improved parallel scaling, was not used in this study). In this configuration, a forward or adjoint TM5 CTM run of one year took takes about 15 minutes. Hence an iteration of the serial inversion, consisting of 11 years forward and adjoint runs, requireds 5 hours. The PPVIPP inversion iterations are were performed in 11 parallel blocks of 21 months each on 4 CPUs. A single PPVIPP iteration took-takes 55 mins, which is > 5 times faster than the serial inversion. Both inversions achieved a gradient norm reduction of 1000 in 19 iterations. The PPVI inversion runtime is given in Table 1, including the time needed for (1) a serial TM5 forward run for the initial mole fraction fields (2) a block run for the initial mole fraction sensitivities. The main steps of PP implementation are listed in Section 2. In our inversion test, the initial mole fraction fields c_0 (step 1) were taken from an inversion using surface measurements that was not performed in this study. Steps 1, 2, 5.a.ii and 6.a.ii took negligible time. Step 3 took 2.5 hours because it consists of a full serial TM5 forward run. Steps 4, 5.a.i and 6.a.i consisting of 11 21 month TM5 simulations run over blocks over of -21 months which were run in parallel and, took this-25 minutes each. Note that an iteration took longer than the sum of the forward and adjoint block runs because of a few minutes waiting time for the computer cores to become available again. Overall. In total, the PPVIPP inversion tooktakes 20 hours, or 5 times less than the serial inversion which took (101 hours). Note that although the PP inversion took a shorter wall time, it needed extra CPU core hours for the additional 9-month overlap, CTM block sensitivity and initial mole fraction computation runs. The PP inversion used a total of 700 CPU core hours, whereas the serial inversion used about 400 CPU core hours. Table 1 also provides a nestimate projection of the wall elock-time improvement of a hypothetical 35-year inversions (not performed in this study) based on the using the TM5-4DVAR inversion setup used in this study. For such a long period, An PPVIPP inversion would be 15 times faster for such a long period.

Overall, we find that the <u>PPVIPP</u> method, which accounts for the atmospheric lifetime of methane, is able to <u>effectively</u> reproduce the posterior emissions of a traditional 11_years serial inversion well within its uncertainties in 5 times_fasterless wall clock time.

4 Discussion

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The utility of the PP method for inversion of a trace gas -emissions depends on the time scale of the influence of emissions on observations within the spatial domain of the CTM. Therefore, PP is mainly useful in global inversions of trace gases that have atmospheric lifetime of a year or longer in the atmosphere. For a trace gas with a shorter lifetime, such as of carbon monoxide with 2 months lifetime, emission perturbations last for a short duration. A multidecadal inversion of such a trace gas can be broken into many short inversions. These short inversions can be performed in parallel, and the posterior emission can be combined thereafter. A similar approach can be used for regional inversions of short-and long-lived trace gases because emission perturbations are quickly advected out of the regional CTM domain and hence do not influence observations for a long period.

4.1 Current CAMS inversion setup

In the future, the PPVIPP method will be implemented in the CAMS -multidecadal methane emissions reanalysis setup. The European Commission has anticipated the need for reliable information about atmospheric composition of greenhouse gases through development of numerical systems that combine sophisticated physical models with measurements from a wide range of observing systems for an operational service, which is being implemented. The current CAMS methane flux reanalysis product (Segers and Houweling, 2020) uses the TM5-4DVAR inverse modelling system and provides measurement-informed monthly methane emission estimates. The product latest release has two sets of methane emissions: (1) release v19r1 for 1990-2019 using surface observation; (2) release v19r1s for 2010-2019 using surface and also GOSAT satellite observations. The surface observations are mainly from the NOAA network (Dlugokencky et al., 2011). Methane emissions are optimized at 3° × 2° spatial resolution and monthly temporal resolution using TM5 with 34 vertical layers. If performed in serial mode each iteration of the 1990-2019 inversion would take about 5-10 days, and the full inversion will require multiple months to finish. Segers and Houweling (2020) circumvent this issue by breaking the full inversion into smaller inversions of 3-year time windows that are performed in parallel. The target inversion on high resolution (3° × 2° degrees, 34 layers) is preceded by a coarse resolution inversion ($6^{\circ} \times 4^{\circ}$, 25 layers) that provides the initial mole fraction fields and is processed serially. The high-resolution inversion optimizes only the emissions and uses initial mole fractions for each 3-year block obtained from mole fraction fields of a coarse resolution inversion, which optimizes both emission and initial mole fractions. The 1990-2019 inversion using this approach still takes 3-4 months to finish, and requires about 40 smaller inversions to provide the end result. These numbers depend of course on the parallel efficiency of the model and the computing server, but even if these are improved, the need for a serial sequence of inversions to provide a times series of initial mole fractions imposes a limitation to the model resolution that can be used. With the implementation of the PPVIPP method presented in this study, the computational wall time performance of the CAMS reanalysis inversions will improve inif future.

4.2 Possible further improvements

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The In the PPVIPP method, the wall clock time of a CTM run in an inversion iteration is reduced by physical parallelization of the CTM into blocks. To accounts for changes in the background mole fractions due to emission changes in pervious preceding blocks using, the a sink operator S, a S, a CTM block_sensitivity hy BH:B, and the an overlaps between the consecutive blocks are is used. In our test experiment, S is assumed to be an e-folding decay function with an atmospheric lifetime of methane of 9 years, which we find is found to be sufficient for the annually-repeating OH field used in our 11-year CTM runs. This might not be the case for multi-decadal inversions, in which the methane lifetime within the duration of a longer multidecadal inversion will vary due to climatological influences, as well as possible trends and interannual variations in the hydroxyl radical abundance. In such cases, S can be defined as a function of an annual lifetime vector for the specific CTM run. The lifetime vector can be calculated as the ratio of the annual sink and mean global methane burden simulated by the a serial CTM run in step 3 of the PP method.

The overlap period between the consecutive blocks in the PPVIPP method allows a uniform mole fraction methane emission perturbations to mix within the CTM domain according to the atmospheric transport. We used a 9-month overlap in our test inversion experiment-setup. It was and found it to be sufficient for optimizing emissions from large TRANSCOM regions at annual scale (Figure 5 & 6) that are optimized using the surface observations. The 6-month overlap as used by Chevalier et al. (2013) for CO₂ inversions was found to be insufficient for a PP methane inversion, likely because of the differences between the source and sink distributions of methane and CO₂. Increasing the overlap period to 9-month and using CTM block sensitivity vector solved this issue. We expect that a 1-year overlap, equal to the interhemispheric mixing time, would be more than sufficient for all tracers irrespective of their source-sink distribution and lifetime. A shorter overlap, which would improve improves the computational efficience and wall time but reduces the accuracy of the physical CTM-parallelization of the CTM, could be used depending on the scales that are addressed by the inversion. The PP accuracy cancould be maintained with shorter overlap periods by using a mole fraction correction vector per hemisphere rather than the single global vector used in this study. Although However, the computational resources and wall elock time saved by this would be this are are partially offsetspent on by the additional block sensitivity ies runs. Our performance test inversions are performed at a relatively coarse resolution horizontal resolution of 6° × 4° horizontal resolution and with 25 vertical hybrid sigma-pressure levels. We do not expect the performance of the PP method to degrade significantly for higher resolution inversions if there is sufficient overlap between the blocks and the mole fraction massmixing ratio corrections are parameterized correctly. Furthermore, the performance gained by performing the inversions at higher resolution because of the improved computational performance will likely outweigh the accuracy loss due to the assumptions made in the PP method.

The PP method reduced the wall time of the CTM simulations in a variational inversion but introduces additional model errors because of the simplifyingsimplifications made assumptions madefor simulation over long time periodsto simulate long durations. For our test inversion setup, these PP-CTM model errors are minor as the posterior PP emission estimates are in good agreement with the serial estimates. In future PP implementations, these PP-CTM errors can be accounted for in the observation error matrix R. The PP-CTM error can be calculated as the difference between the model output of a PP and a serial forward CTM run with randomly perturbed prior emissions.

4.3 Methane sink optimization

The hydroxyl radical OH is the main sink of methane in the atmosphere. Zhang et al. (2018) showed that the satellite-observed atmospheric signature of the methane sink from oxidation by OH is sufficiently distinct from that of methane emissions, hence OH mole fractions can be optimized using synthetic shortwave infrared (SWIR) and thermal infrared (TIR) satellite observations. Following up on this, Maasakkers et al. (2019) and Zhang et al. (2021) used methane observations from the GOSAT satellite to optimize atmospheric OH fields along with methane emissions. These studies assume a quasi-linearity for the inversion asas the changes to the methane mole fractions are expected to remain small compared to the mean and OH are small in an inversion. Under a quasi-linear such conditions assumption,—OH can be optimized in a the PPVIPP methane inversion method by can also be implemented in inversions optimizing OH. In such a PPVI implementation, introducing annual OH scaling factors in the state vector and the the methane lifetimes in the sink S-operator can would be scaled in each iteration to reflect the corresponding OH adjustments to the OH mole fractions. Such an implementation can also be used in inversions optimizing OH using methyl chloroform (CH3CCl3) and a CTM(, as for example performed by, Naus et al., (2021).

5 Conclusions

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Regular surface observations of methane mole fractions started in the early 1984, and by now the measurement record spans more than 35 years (Dlugokencky et al., 2011). An atmospheric inversion with a very large state vector is needed to properly utilize the information in such long measurement records. The variational inversion approach allows for optimization of a much larger state vectors of a larger size than the ensemble or analytical approaches. However, each iteration step of a variational inversion uses the CTM output of the previous iteration, limiting the opportunity for scalable parallelization. At the same time, an increase in the spatio-temporal resolution of CTMs, which is needed to take full advantage of the rapidly improving precision and coverage of surface and satellite measurements, results in an exponential rapid increase in wall clock time.

We have developed the PPVIPP method for methane inversions which improves the wall elock-time of variational methane inversions by the application of physical CTM parallelization while accounting for the atmospheric lifetime in forward and adjoint variational modes. We have tested the performance of this method using an 11-year TM5-4DVAR inversion e-modeling setup that consists of a traditional serial inversion and a PPVIPP inversion integral inversion integral inversion performed for a period of 11 years. The PPVIPP method reduced the wall elock-time by a factor of 5 times and while still -showed showing excellent agreement with the posterior emissions of the from thean equivalent serial inversion. The wall elock-time improvement of using PPVIPP will be even larger for longer inversions, for example, by a factor of 15 times for a 35-years inversion. The PPVIPP method makes multi-decadal global inversions of long-lived atmospheric trace gases more feasible. It will be implemented in the CAMS reanalysis setup which provides regular updates of multidecadal emission estimates by assimilating surface and satellite observations.

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Data Availability. NOAA ESRL methane observations used in this study are available on Zenodo in the input folder of the TM5-4DVAR-PP code (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6326373, Pandey et al., 2022).

NOAA GMD ESRL methane mole fraction observations are available at https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/dv/data/. last access: 490 27-03-2021.

Code availability. The TM5-4DVAR-PP version 1.0-beta-1 code used in this study for the simulations can be downloaded from Zenodo (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6326373, Pandey et al., 2022). The TM5 model is described in detail onen http://tm5.sourceforge.net/. — and the source codes of the TM5 4DVAR inversion system are available at https://sourceforge.net/projects/tm5/.

Author contributions. The study was designed by SH and AJFC. SP and AJ developed the PPVIPP. SP implemented the PPVIPP method on TM5-4DVAR and did the performance test simulations. SP wrote the manuscript using contributions from all the co-authors.

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Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Table 1: Wall elock time comparison for the inversions performed in this study. Wall elock time projections for a

hypothetical 35-years inversion are also given.

Model runs	•	Serial	PPVI PP
One year forward or adjoint run		15 minutes	
1999-2010 inversion	1 iteration (forward + adjoint TM5 run)	5 hours	55 minutes
	Inversion with 19 iterations	101 hours	20 hours
1985-2020 inversion*	1 iteration (forward + adjoint TM5 run)	16 hours	55 minutes
	Inversion with 50 iterations	34 days	56 hours

^{*}Projection based on the 1999-2010 inversion

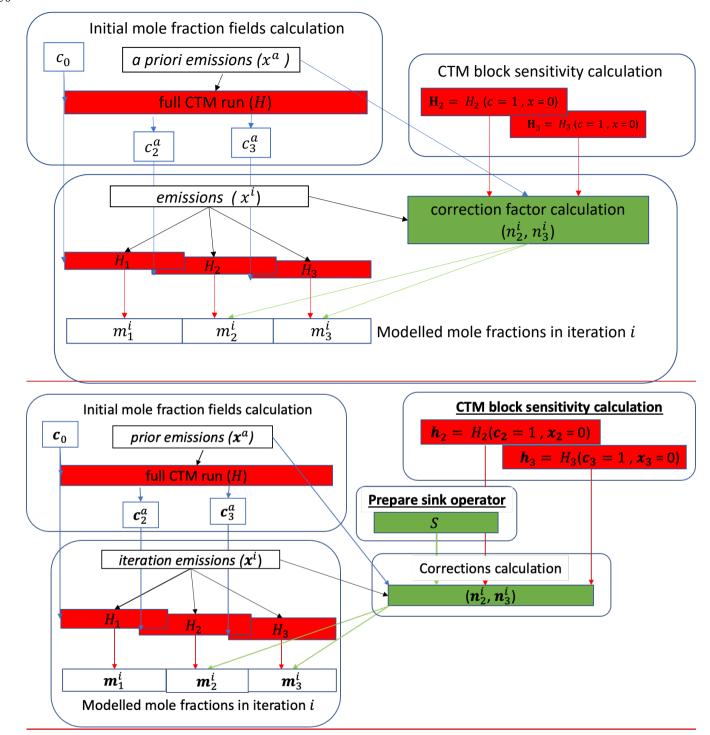
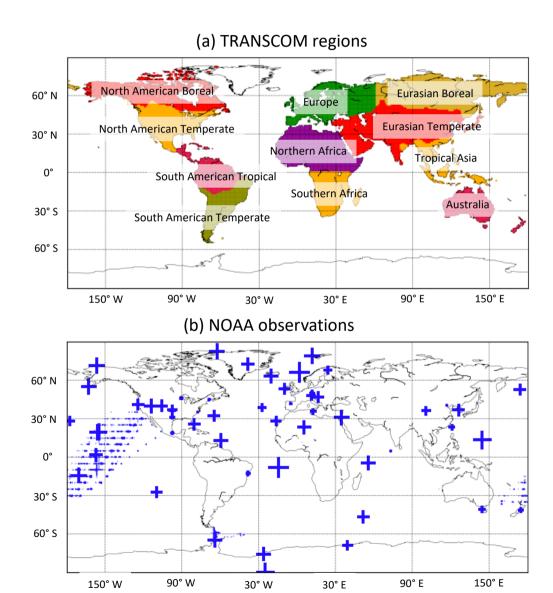


Figure -11: Schematic diagram of athe PPVI methane inversion's method in forward mode, which computes used to calculate modelled mole fractions m^i in fitteration i. The subscripts represent denote the time-block numbers (except for c_0 , which is the initial mole fraction field at the start of the inversion). For the block 1, the initial mole fraction field $e_1^a = e_0$; $e_1^a = e_0$ and mole fraction no correction factor vector e_1^a is not neededused. The overlap between the successive blocks $e_1^a = e_0$ block overlap verlap period period, where the modelled mole fractions from the preceding block are used in the inversioned in e_1^a . The "CTM block sensitivity calculation" and "Prepare sink operator" steps of the PP method are implemented in this study, whereas the rest are from Chevallier (2013).



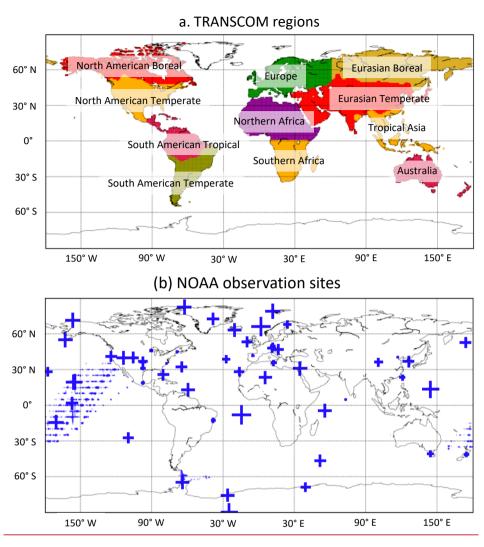
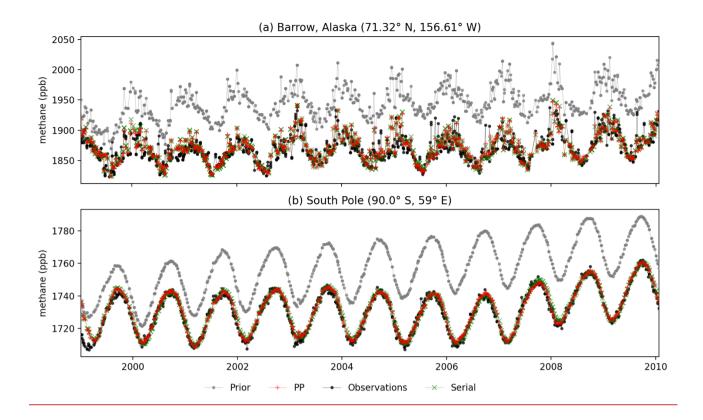


Figure 2: (a) Definition of the TRANSCOM regions (Gurney et al., 2002). (b) Locations of NOAA methane observation sites used in this study. The size of the symbol "+" is proportional to the number of observations assimilated from each site.



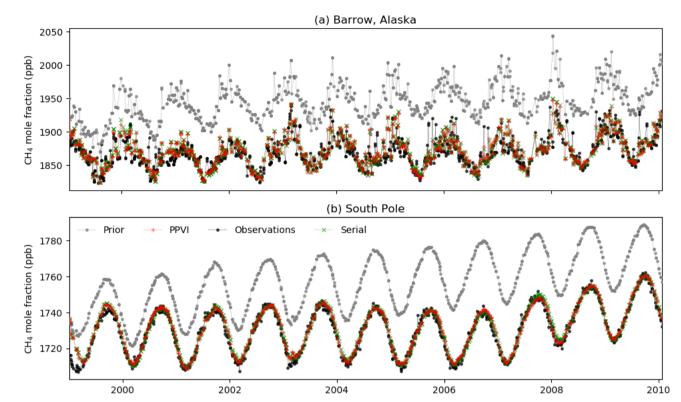


Figure 3: Modelled and observed methane mole fractions at the two remote background NOAA stations. Barrow, Alaska in the Northern is shown in panel (a), and the South Pole is shown in panel Southern (b) hemisphere.

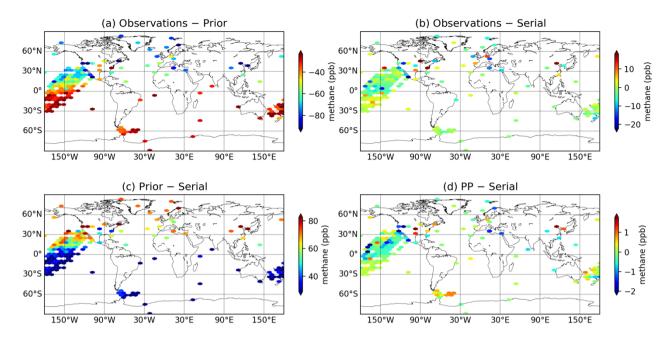


Figure 4 Methane mole fraction differences at the observation sites (see Figure 2.b). Panel (a), (b), (c) and (d) show the average difference between observations and prior, observation and serial, prior and serial, and PP and serial, respectively. The color scale range is set at mean ± 1 standard deviation of the plotted values.

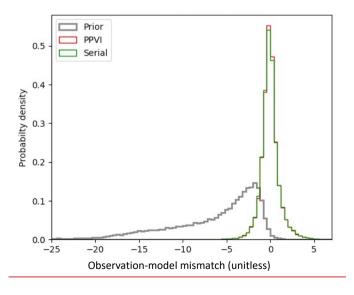
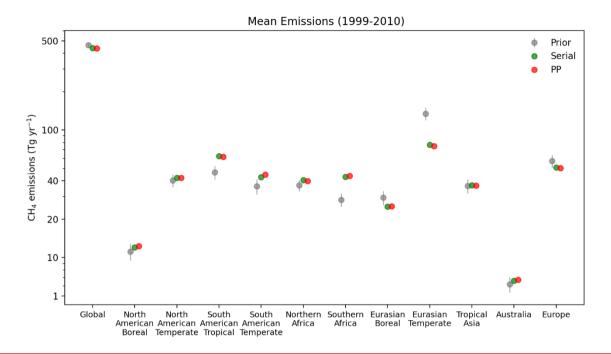


Figure 4: Probability density functions of the observation-model mismatches weighted with their uncertainties used in the inversions.



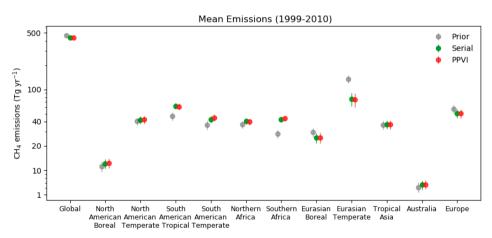
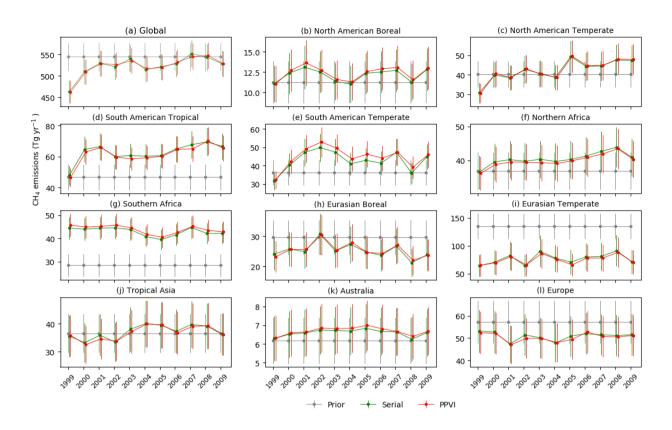


Figure 55: Total methane Mean emission estimates of estimates of the inversions for the globe and TRANSCOM regions (see Figure 1), averaged over 1999-2010 (see Figure 1). The vertical linesbars on the markers show the $\pm 2\sigma$ uncertainties of the prior emissions.



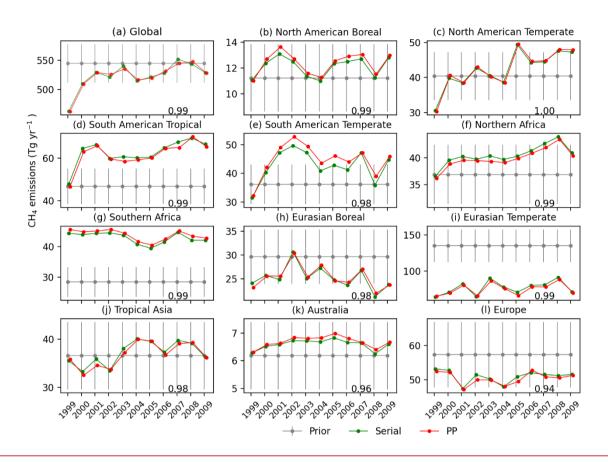


Figure 66: Annual methane eEmission estimates of the PPVIPP and serial inversions for the globe and the TRANSCOM regions. The vertical bars show the ±2σ- uncertainties of the prior emissions. The correlation coefficients of PP and serial time series are given at the bottom of each panel.

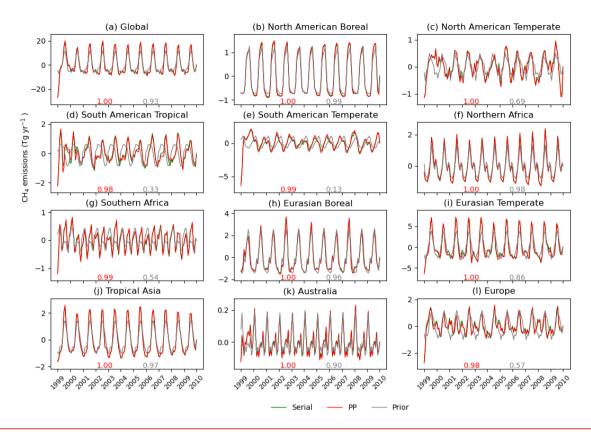


Figure 7 Intra-annual variation of the PP and serial emissions for the TRANSCOM regions. The correlation coefficients of the PP (red) and prior (grey) time series with the serial time series are given at the bottom of each panel.