Responses to the comments of anonymous referee #1.

(Referee's comments are shown with italic fonts and our responses are shown with normal font.)

Authors have compared measured black carbon (BC) measurements conducted at a site in Southern India with model simulations that use three different emission inventories. A key finding is that these inventories tend to underestimate BC fluxes from biomass burning. The manuscript is well written and gives new insights into the sources of BC in the atmosphere.

I recommend the manuscript for publication in Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics after the authors have addressed the following two minor comments.

We thank referee for evaluating our manuscript, providing suggestion to improve it and recommending as suitable for publication in ACP. In following part, we provide point by point responses to the referee's comments.

(1) The authors define one key quantity, potential emission sensitivity (PES), at the end of the first paragraph of the section 3.2 as follows: "When the PES field is multiplied by emission fluxes, the volume integral of this product gives the simulated concentration at the receptor point." This is a rather indirect and vague way to define PES, I'd propose that the authors define it in more straightforward fashion using an equation (if needed) to make the definition more concise.

We thank referee for this suggestion. We have included following information in the revised the manuscript.

Potential emission sensitivity (PES) fields or the source-receptor (s-r) relationship describe sensitivity of receptors y to sources x. A detailed description about FLEXPART based s-r relationship can be found in Seibert and Frank (2004). In the present case, the receptors are 24 hour average black carbon concentrations at measurement location and sources are area averaged black carbon emissions in different grid boxes at different time intervals. In case of FLEXPART based s-r relationship, it is a matrix M whose elements m_{il} are defined by $m_{il} = \frac{y_l}{x_i}$ (i=1,.., *I* for the sources and l=1,.., *L* for the

receptors ; Seibert and Frank, 2004). Once, the matrix M is known, for a given source vector (emission inventory), receptor values (BC concentrations at measurement site) can be obtained by a simple matrix-vector multiplication.

See First paragraph of Section 3.2 and the first paragraph of Section 4.3 of the revised manuscript.

(2) A second key quantity, fire radiative power (FRP), is not explicitly defined, but the authors only provide references where this can be found (second paragraph of Section 2). I'd propose that the authors include a explicit definition of FRP in the manuscript.

We thank reviewer for this suggestion. In the revised manuscript we have included the FRP definition and description as follows.

Fire radiative power (FRP) is a measure of radiative energy emitted per unit time in a fire event. Its value is proportional to amount of material being burnt in the fire event. Fires detected using MODIS satellite sensor are characterised by FRP values using an empirical formula based on difference in brightness temperature at 4 μ m with respect to non-fire pixels in the vicinity (Giglio et al., 2003; Justice et al., 2006; Davies et al., 2009).

See second paragraph of Section 2 of the revised manuscript.

References

Seibert, P. and Frank, A.: Source-receptor matrix calculation with a Lagrangian particle dispersion model in backward mode, Atmos. Chem. Phys., 4, 51-63, 2004.

Responses to the comments of anonymous referee #2

(Referee's comments are shown in italics and our responses are shown in normal fonts)

The manuscript by Gadhavi et al. presents a comparison of observed and model simulated equivalent black carbon (BC) concentrations. The observations were obtained with an aethalometer at a rural site in Southern India (Gadanki) during 2008 to 2012. The model simulations are based on a Lagrangian dispersion model (FLEXPART with NCEP Global Forecast Systems Final meteorological analysis data). For each day, a potential emission sensitivity (PES) field is obtained by a 10-day backward model run initialized from the receptor point. Model BC concentrations at the observation site are then calculated based on the PES using three different emission inventories. It is reported that the model simulates well the seasonal cycle of BC measurements, with highest concentrations in winter and lowest in summer. However, the model results are biased low in winter, spring, and summer. The biases appear to be correlated to fire radiative power observed by satellites. It is thus concluded that all three BC emission inventories may have underestimated BC fluxes from open biomass burning over the Southern India. The manuscript is very interesting and well written. The work is very important for understanding the role of Indian sources of BC aerosol in global climate and regional hydrological cycle, and is suitable for publication in ACP.

We thank referee for evaluating our manuscript, providing constructive comments and considering our work interesting and suitable for publication in ACP. In following part, we are providing point by point responses to referee's comments.

Major Comments:

(1) Page 26911, lines 14-16. "The PES values in the bottom most layer (socalled footprint layer; 0-100 m a.g.l.) were multiplied by the emission fluxes to calculate the BC concentration at the receptor." This method is given without an explanation or evaluation. It may be argued that the entire planetary boundary layer (PBL) should be considered the footprint layer, because PBL height-based PES would be less sensitive to model uncertainties in surface layer mixing and dry deposition. Rapid vertical mixing of BC through the PBL is caused by turbulence in the day. Mean PBL depth retrieved by the CALIPSO satellite over India varies from 1000-1500 m in winter (DJF) to 2500-3000 m in summer (JJA) (McGrath- Spangler and Denning, 2013; Figure 3). A stable surface layer prevents vertical mixing in the night. However, this effect is often too large in models lacking a "background mixing" (intermittent mixing events are often observed at night). The PBL-based PES would be larger than estimated for 0-100 m if the model predicts a large decrease of tracer towards the surface.

It appears to us that the referee has confused our method (to multiply 0-100 PES layer with emission fluxes to get concentration) with vertical mixing of aerosol in boundary layer, probably because of insufficient details about PES (potential emission sensitivity) and the procedure in the manuscript.

Our method to multiply emission fluxes in a given grid cell to the bottom most 0-100 meter PES layer is related to assumptions about spatial distribution of emission sources within a grid box. For example, emissions from a car exhaust will take place near surface whereas emission from a factory chimney may take place at higher altitudes and the emissions from an aircraft will take place well above the boundary layer. In our case, we are assuming that the emission sources are uniformly distributed horizontally and vertically in a grid box of 100 meter height. While we know that often emission fluxes are clustered horizontally and they are far more common close to ground than at higher altitudes, however in view of other contextual information which are described next our assumption may not be major cause of concern.

- (a) BC emissions are associated with burning processes and co-emitted with hot gases. The hot gases can lift BC particles at higher altitudes in very short time. Since the model does not simulate micrometeorology associated with fire temperatures and hot-gas-exhausts it is reasonable to assume 100 meter apriori vertical mixing.
- (b)The model explicitly simulates the boundary layer height variation and the information is used for calculating vertical mixing of aerosols (Section 3 of Stohl et al., 2005). In other words boundary layer height variation is implicit in the PES values.
- (c) Large part of BC load at the observation site is long-range transported. With the long-range transport, error due to inhomogeneities in emission fluxes in a grid-boxes is decreased.
- (d) For a surface source, the height of the footprint layer should ideally be as small as possible. However, a very shallow footprint layer is not ideal from a statistical point of view, as the PES is calculated based on the mass (and, thus, approximately the number) of particles in the footprint layer. With a very shallow height (say, 10 m), one would need to release 10 times more particles than with a 100 m height of the footprint layer, to arrive at the same statistical error for the footprint PES (this assumes that the particles are well mixed over the lowest 100 m).
- (e) In the sensitivity analysis carried out for two months where we varied the foot-print PES height from 100 meter to 300 meter, we have found that the simulated BC concentration at the observation site varied on average by less than 5% (Fig. 1). This indicates that very often the PBL height is higher than 300 m and particles are relatively well mixed in the PBL.

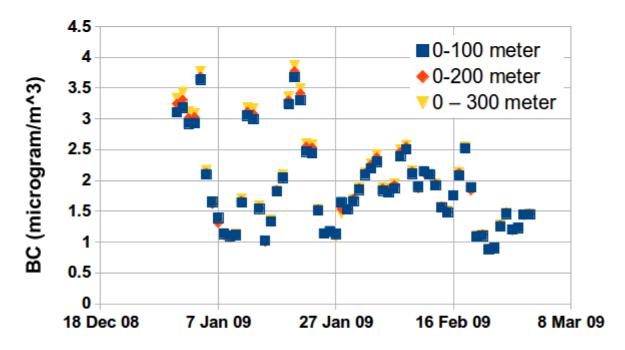


Fig. 1: Sensitivity of simulated BC concentration toward thickness of footprint layer

We have now included more details on PES and procedure to calculate concentration at receptor site. See the first paragraphs of Section 3.2 and Section 4.3 in the revised manuscript.

(2) Table 1. Wet deposition parameters. Wet scavenging is proportional to rain fall rate in the model, with a pre-factor A=2.E-7 per second per 1 mm/h of rain fall. This coefficient is typical for below-cloud scavenging of accumulation mode aerosols (Jung and Shao, 2006; Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006). However, incloud droplet nucleation occurs with hydrophilic aerosols. It is much more efficient for wet removal, and may be responsible for most of the loss of atmospheric BC aerosol (cf. Liu et al. 2011; Table 2).

We regret that we missed to mention in the manuscript that FLEXPART includes both the in-cloud and the below-cloud scavenging parametrisation. However, in-cloud scavenging parametrisation is fixed and not part of end-user settings hence they are not listed in Table 1. Indeed, in-cloud scavenging is typically more efficient than below-cloud scavenging in FLEXPART.

As noted in Table 1 the below-cloud scavenging is simulated as $\Lambda = A * I^B$ where I is precipitation rate, $A = 2x10^{-7} \sec^{-1}$ and B=0.62. In-cloud scavenging is simulated as $\Lambda = (1.25 * I^0.64)/H$ where "H" is cloud thickness. Wet-deposition is further modified by a parametrisation of subgrid scale variability of precipitation.

As shown with an example (Fig.5e and 5f of manuscript) wet-scavenging is not underestimated as process in the model. However, unique meteorology and geography of the place viz. proximity to sources during rainy season, relatively small PES area (cf. Fig. 6c) during South-West Monsoon and short rainy season over Northern and Western India makes the wet-deposition less important process for removal of the black carbon in our case. Wilcox and Ramanathan (2004) also reported similar conclusions based on differences in numerical simulations with and without wet-scavenging for Northern Indian Ocean.

We have now included the details of in-cloud scavenging. Please see the last paragraph of Section 3.2 of the revised manuscript.

(3) Combining above comments, is it possible that the model has underestimated both the PES and the rate of wet deposition, with (incomplete) compensating effects?

There exists a possibility that wet deposition may be overestimated since no special parametrisation is included for hydrophobic nature of BC particles, but as mentioned in reply to previous comment, it is not a major cause of concern since we are dealing with the place where wet-deposition plays a small role. While our assumptions about thickness of foot-print PES layer have their share uncertainties, it cannot be said it will result necessarily in underestimation of BC mass. It is argued in the manuscript using sensitivity analysis and age-spectra that "process" related uncertainties are unlikely to outweigh the uncertainties in emission inventories.

(4) Previously, Zhang et al. (2008) estimated the mass absorption coefficient for dust to be 1.3 m²/g on average, at the wavelength (880 nm) used by the aethalometer. Are dust aerosol concentrations high enough to cause significant interference to BC measurements at Gadanki, especially when BC concentration is low and wind speed is high (in summer)?

This is an interesting observations by referee, which we have missed to discuss in the manuscript. During summer, model bias is of the order of -0.5 μ g/m³ which is nearly 50% of the observed BC mass concentration. Large region surrounding the observation site has good vegetation cover but since during summer wind speeds are high (a conducive condition for lifting dust particles) air parcel will have higher dust loading and can bring dust from medium to long-range distances to observation site. Unfortunately, we do not have concurrent measurements of dust amount in aerosol particles. However, there are other observations which we can look into to qualitatively evaluate the role of the dust.

Zhang et al. (2008) reports that BC particles have $1/\lambda$ wavelength dependence in absorption coefficient whereas absorption by the dust particles do not show significant wavelength dependence. We can characterise wavelength dependence of absorption coefficient (C) measured by aethalometer at seven wavelengths with the equation $C = \beta \lambda^{-\alpha}$ (similar to Angstrom's well-known equation for wavelength dependence of aerosol optical depth). Value of α is 1 for BC particles and 0 for dust particles according to Zhang et al. (2008). Value of α is reported greater than one for mixture of BC particles with organic carbon material (Bergstrom et al., 2004; Kirchstetter et al., 2004; Bergstrom et al., 2007; Clarke et al., 2007). In a mixture of BC and dust particles, as amount of dust particles increases values of alpha should decrease.

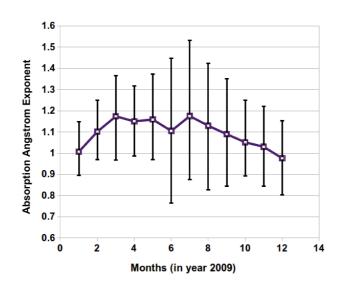


Fig. 2: Monthly median absorption Angstrom exponent for year 2009. Vertical bars are interquartile range.

Monthly median α values along with its interquartile range are shown in Fig. 2. During spring and summer there is an increase in α values, which we expect when BC particles originate from biomass burning. However, though median α values have increased during summer, the interquartile range is also extended toward both higher and smaller α values indicative of increase in episodic dust events. This suggests that though dust particles may have increased during summer but they may have small role in creating systematic bias such as seen between model and observations.

We have now included a small discussion on potential interference from dust particles in measuring black carbon concentration during summer. Please see the fifth paragraph of Section 4.3 (page 14 and 15) in the revised manuscript. We have also included the figure of wavelength exponent in supporting material.

Minor Comments

(1) Page 26912, line 24. "due to decent" is confusing. Do you mean "due to ascent of air mass as it moves backwards (in time) from Gadanki to Arabia".

Thank you for drawing our attention to this. The phrase "due to decent" is dropped. The revised statement reads "In such circumstances, simple air back-trajectory analysis may ascribe observed concentration to emissions over Arabia whereas in reality it is not being influenced by surface emissions over that region ." (see the first paragraph of Section 4.2)

(2) Figure 5. (I) The shaded circles indicating altitude is barely visible. Suggest keep the circles to indicate latitude and longitude location of the mean trajectory, and add panels to indicate altitude as a function of days before measurements. (II) The heading "Sensitivity at footprint m.a.g.l." above each panel implies that the PES is estimated for the indicated altitude, which is inconsistent with stated in the text (see above, Major comment #1).

We thank for drawing our attention to confusing title on the Figure. Since, PES fields are three dimension fields, we have used word "Footprint" to indicate that the values shown in the figures pertain to the bottom most layer (0 - 100 m.a.g.l.). In the revised manuscript, the word "Footprint" is replaced with "0 - 100 m.a.g.l.". (See Fig 5 and pes maps in supporting material).

Regarding altitude of mean trajectories shown with shaded black dots, we agree with the reviewer that it is difficult to view them in the figures in the main manuscript. However, we have referred to the height of mean trajectory only once in the main manuscript. Adding independent plot for height variation of the trajectories will not add further value to the text presented in the manuscript. We plan to retain dots as-it-is in the revised manuscript since they will be visible clearly in the individual day plots provided in the supporting material and the description in the manuscript will serve to explain the details in figures in supporting material.

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Follows manuscript with differences highlighted

1 Evaluation of black carbon emission inventories using a

2 Lagrangian dispersion model- a case study over Southern

3 India

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13

14 Abstract

We evaluated three emission inventories of black carbon (BC) using Lagrangian particle 15 dispersion model simulations and BC observations from a rural site in Southern India 16 17 (Gadanki; 13.48° N, 79.18° E) from 2008 to 2012. We found that 93% to 95% of the BC load at the observation site originated from emissions in India and the rest from the neighbouring 18 countries and shipping. A substantial fraction (33% to 43%) of the BC was transported from 19 20 Northern India. Wet deposition is found to play a minor role in reducing BC mass at the site 21 because of its proximity to BC sources during rainy season and relatively short rainy season 22 over western and northern parts of India. Seasonally, the highest BC concentration (approx. 23 3.3 μ g/m³) is observed during winter, followed by spring (approx. 2.8 μ g/m³). While the 24 model reproduced well the seasonal cycle, the modelled BC concentrations are significantly lower than observed values, especially in spring. The model bias is correlated to fire radiative 25 26 power – a proxy of open biomass burning activity. Using potential emission sensitivity maps derived using the model, we suggest that underestimation of BC mass in the model during spring is due to the underestimation of BC fluxes over Southern India (possibly from openbiomass-burning/forest-fires). The overall performance of the model simulations using three different emission inventories (SAFAR-India, ECLIPSE and RETRO) is similar, with ECLIPSE and SAFAR-India performing marginally better as both have about 30% higher emissions for India than RETRO. The ratio of observed to modelled annual mean BC concentration was estimated as 1.5 for SAFAR, 1.7 for ECLIPSE and 2.4 for RETRO.

8

9 1 Introduction

Black carbon (BC) is a component of soot, which is responsible for the absorption of visible light (Yasa et al., 1979). It is emitted into the atmosphere as a consequence of incomplete combustion processes like biofuel burning, running of inefficient diesel engines, forest fires, etc. Unlike other aerosols, BC aerosols are responsible for positive radiative forcing which is comparable to forcing by major greenhouse gases (Haywood and Ramaswamy, 1998; Jacobson, 2001; Bond et al., 2013). Presence of BC in the atmosphere also affects the hydrological cycle of Earth and regional climate (Ackerman et al., 2000).

17 Understanding the sources of BC, their geographical distribution and future changes is therefore important to improve climate modelling and would support development of policies 18 19 exploring climate co-benefits of air pollution regulation controlling sources of BC. However, 20 global BC emissions estimates are highly uncertain. Dickerson et al. (2002) estimated BC 21 emissions of South Asia between 2 and 3 Tg in year 1999 using BC/CO ratio which were 22 factor of 2 to 3 higher than bottom-up BC inventories suggesting significant underestimation 23 of BC sources in South Asia. The range of global BC emissions has been reported as 4 to 13 Tg/yr (Bond et al., 2013). Emissions from India contribute 7% to 14% of global BC emissions 24 25 (Bond et al., 2004; Schultz and Rast, 2007; Klimont et al., 2009; Klimont et al., 201<u>5a, b)</u> 4) 26 and observed BC concentrations over India are significantly higher than in other regions 27 (Suresh Babu and Moorthy, 2002; Suresh Babu et al., 2002; Ganguly et al., 2005; Ganguly et al., 2006a, b; Jayaraman et al., 2006; Ramachandran and Rajesh, 2007; Beegum et al., 2009; 28 Gadhavi and Jayaraman, 2010; Ramachandran and Kedia, 2010; Vinoj et al., 2010; 29 30 Raghavendra Kumar et al., 2011). Model predicted BC concentrations over India are 1 generally found to be factor of two to six lower than those observed (Ganguly et al., 2009;

2 Nair et al., 2012; Bond et al., 2013; Moorthy et al., 2013). This raises the question whether the

3 observed high BC concentrations over India are the result of transport from other places,

4 relatively inefficient removal of BC compared to elsewhere, or underestimation of emissions5 from India.

In this article we examine the emission inventories RETRO (Schultz et al., 2007; Schultz and Rast, 2007), ECLIPSE (Klimont et al., 2013; Klimont et al., 2015a, b) 4) and SAFAR-India
(Sahu et al., 2008) using the particle dispersion model FLEXPART (Stohl et al., 1998; Stohl et al., 2005) driven by observed meteorological fields and suggest possible causes of the underestimation of BC concentrations by models over India.

11 **2** Site Description

Observations of BC have been carried out at the climate observatory of the National 12 Atmospheric Research Laboratory in Gadanki. Gadanki (13.48° N and 79.18° E, 365 m above 13 mean-sea-level) is a typical rural site in southern India, with no major industrial activities in 14 the near vicinity. Gadanki has tropical wet climate and experiences a prolonged rainy season 15 from both south-west and north-east monsoons unlike the northern and western parts of India. 16 Monthly rainfall patterns over Gadanki for the years 2009 and 2011 are shown in Fig. 1. 17 18 February to May is mostly dry. The rainy season starts in June and goes on until December 19 with short lulls in between. The maximum rainfall over Gadanki in the year 2009 was 20 observed during November whereas in the year 2011 it occurred during August with a comparable rain amount in November. The year 2009 was officially declared as a drought 21 22 <u>vear</u>declared as a drought year officially for the state of Andhra Pradesh (in which Gadanki is 23 located), whereas 2011 was a normal year.

24 Open biomass burning has a well characterized seasonal cycle over India (Joseph et al., 2009).

25 Fire radiative power (FRP) is a measure of radiative energy emitted per unit time in a fire

26 event. Its value is proportional to amount of material being burnt in the fire event. Fires

27 detected using MODIS satellite sensor are characterised by FRP values using an empirical

28 formula based on difference in brightness temperature at 4 µm with respect to non-fire pixels

29 in the vicinity (Giglio et al., 2003; Justice et al., 2006; Davies et al., 2009). In Figure 2, long-

30 term (2000-2013) monthly median FRP values In Figure 2, long-term (2000-2013) monthly

1 median fire radiative power (FRP) values (Giglio et al., 2003; Justice et al., 2006; Davies et 2 al., 2009) over the southern part of India (south of 18° N latitude; henceforth referred as 3 Peninsular India) and over whole of India are shown. FRP is high during February to May and low during June to September. The largest differences in the seasonal variation of FRP 4 5 between Peninsular India and whole India occur during October to November. As mentioned before, Peninsular India where the observations are carried out experiences two rainy-seasons 6 7 whereas North, West and Central India experiences only one rainy-season. The North-East monsoon brings rain over Peninsular India during winter and reduces the number of fire 8 9 events and hence FRP whereas absence of rain results in high FRP over other parts of India.

10 **3** Instrumentation and Data

Equivalent BC (EBC) concentrations are measured using an aethalometer (Model AE31; 11 12 Magee-Scientific, USA), which has 7 wavelength channels centred at 370, 470, 520, 590, 660, 13 880 and 950 nm. In this study, we report EBC values based on 880 nm channel data as it has minimum interference from other species and is considered to be the standard channel for BC 14 15 measurement with this technology (Hansen, 2005). Details of the instrument and the typical set-up used at Gadanki are reported in an earlier study (Gadhavi and Jayaraman, 2010). The 16 ambient air is drawn with a typical flow rate of 2.9 litres per minute for five minutes and 17 passes through a quartz fibre filter fitted in an optical chamber. Changes in transmission of 18 19 light through filter paper is monitored which is affected by accumulated deposition of light 20 absorbing particles on the filter paper. The changes in absorption coefficient of filter paper are 21 converted to equivalent BC mass by dividing it with mass absorption cross-section 0.166 22 $cm^2/\mu g$ (at 880 nm). Assuming that most of light absorption is due to BC at 880 nm, for the 23 convenience of comparisons with the model simulations, we refer to these measurements as 24 BC. The error in estimating BC concentration is expected to be less than 10% (Hansen, 2005; 25 Gadhavi and Jayaraman, 2010 and references therein Gadhavi and Jayaraman, 2010).

26 3.1 Emission Inventory Data

We have considered three emission inventories namely ECLIPSE, RETRO and SAFAR-India.
The ECLIPSE (Evaluating the CLimate and air quality ImPacts of Short-livEd pollutants)
global emission inventory has been developed using the GAINS Model (Greenhouse gas – Air

1 pollution Interactions and Synergies Model; Amann et al. (2011)). The sources considered 2 range from wick lamps to thermal power stations, including residential combustion, transport, 3 shipping, large combustion installations, industrial processes, waste and open burning of agricultural residues. This inventory does not include emissions from open biomass burning 4 5 other than agricultural waste burning. Hence forest-fire emissions are included from GFEDv3 (Global Fire Emissions Database; van der Werf et al. (2010)). ECLIPSE emission dataset has 6 7 been developed for the period from 1990 to 2050; the inventory extends to 2010 while the baseline projection until 2050 assumes implementation of existing environmental legislation 8 9 and draws on the energy projection of IEA (International Energy Agency's Energy Technology Perspective - 2012 (ETP2012))(Klimont et al., 2015a, b). In this work, emission values for 10 the year 2010 from version 5 of the inventory are used. Version 5 was recently released and 11 12 has about 44% higher emissions than version 4a inventory over India, mainly due to addition of sources which are not previously considered (e.g. wick lamps). The original data-set is 13 available at 0.5° x 0.5° resolution including monthly resolution for several key source 14 sectorETP 2012) (Klimont et al., 2014). In this work, emission values for the year 2010 from 15 version 5 of the inventory are used. Version 5 was recently released and has about 44% higher 16 emissions than version 4a inventory over India, mainly due to addition of sources which are 17 not previously considered (e.g. wick lamps). The original data-set is available at 0.5° x 0.5° 18 resolution including monthly resolution for several key source sections; however in this study, 19 the grid resolution has been reduced to 1° x 1°. Emission fluxes from the ECLIPSE + GFED 20 21 inventory are shown in Fig. 3a. Hereafter, if not specifically mentioned, reference to 22 ECLIPSE inventory implies ECLIPSE + GFED. The total BC emissions of India in 2010 are 23 estimated at 1233 Gg/yr of which 52 Gg/yr are from forest fire emissions based on GFED. Major contribution originates from the Indo-Gangetic Basin (IGB) in the north and in a few 24 25 pockets on the western coast of India. In contrast, in South and Central India BC emissions are relatively low. Within IGB, emissions are higher in Bihar, West Bengal and Haryana states 26 of India and Bangladesh (a map of India with state names is provided in supporting material). 27

The RETRO emission inventory is the outcome of the project REanalysis of the TROpospheric (RETRO) chemical composition over the past 40 years. The emission inventory for BC has two parts – one for anthropogenic emissions which includes biofuel burning, industrial combustion and agricultural residue burning. BC emissions from forest

1 fires over India are accounted for separately based on the Reg-FIRM model (Schultz et al., 2 2008). Schultz et al. (2008) had to reduce the literature values for carbon emissions per unit 3 area over India to achieve consistency with reported emissions from the subcontinent which 4 highlights inherent problems in the bottom-up inventory approach for emissions from biomass burning. The emission fluxes are monthly averages of BC in kg/m²/s for each grid box. 5 Annual total BC emissions of India based on this inventory for the year 2010 are 697 Gg/yr 6 7 out of which 31 Gg/yr are from forest fires. In Figure 3b, differences between ECLIPSE and RETRO (ECLIPSE - RETRO)ver India based on this inventory for the year 2010 are 697 8 9 Gg/yr out of which 31 Gg/yr are from forest fires. In Figure 3b, differences between ECLIPSE and RETRO (ECLIPSE - RETRO) are shown, i.e. RETRO emission fluxes are 10 lower than ECLIPSE emissions in all of South Asia. The difference is particularly high over 11 12 the Bihar, West Bengal states of India, and Bangladesh and Myanmar.

13 Finally, we have considered the regional emission inventory SAFAR (System of Air quality Forecasting and Research)-India (Sahu et al., 2008). The SAFAR-India includes only 14 15 anthropogenic emissions from fossil fuel, fuel wood, dung combustion and agricultural waste burning using district level statistics on activities, population, farming, etc. In preparation of 16 17 the inventory, Sahu et al. (2008) have used emission factors for bio-fuel combustion from 18 Venkataraman et al. (2005), and emission factors for fossil fuel combustion are based on 19 Cooke et al. (1999) for their "under-developed-countries" category. The inventory was updated after publication of Sahu et al. (2008). The latest inventory contains annual emissions 20 for the years 1991, 2001 and 2011 at a spatial resolution of 1° x 1°. In this work, we have 21 used emission values for 2011. Total BC emissions of India based on this inventory are 1119 22 23 Gg/yr. Though ECLIPSE and SAFAR inventory have comparable total emissions for India, their spatial and source distribution are significantly different. In Figure 3c, spatial allocation 24 25 differences between ECLIPSE and SAFAR (ECLIPSE - SAFAR) are shown. SAFAR 26 inventory has comparable or marginally higher emissions in central, southern and western part 27 of India. Regions close to big cities like Mumbai, Delhi, Ahmedabad and Kolkata have 28 significantly higher emissions in SAFAR compared to ECLIPSE. The opposite is true over 29 Bihar, West Bengal and North Eastern parts of India, where the ECLIPSE inventory is 30 significantly higher than SAFAR. With respect to source distribution, the key difference is between large combustion plants (power plants and industrial boilers) and residential sector. 31

1 SAFAR estimates large BC emissions from power plant boilers while this source is very small 2 in ECLIPSE. This is linked to the used emission factors, i.e. SAFAR uses values from Cooke 3 et al. (1999) who suggested high emission factors for large industrial boilers but Bond et al. (2004) concluded that there is no evidence for so high values. ECLIPSE relies on smaller 4 5 values as discussed in Bond et al. (2004) and Kupiainen and Klimont (2007). For residential sector, ECLIPSE includes specific calculation of emissions from diesel generators and wick 6 7 lamps; particularly inclusion of the latter source resulted in additional BC emissions leading to higher estimates in the version 5 of ECLIPSE. 8

9 3.2 Model Description

10 We have used the Lagrangian particle dispersion model (LPDM) FLEXPART v9.0 (Stohl et 11 al., 1998; Stohl et al., 2005). The LPDM computes the trajectories of a large number of 12 particles (infinitesimally small air parcels). Unlike ordinary air back trajectory models, 13 FLEXPART includes several processes important for aerosol dispersion and removal like 14 diffusion by turbulence in the boundary layer and aloft, deep convective mixing, dry deposition and wet deposition. The representation of narrow plumes is not possible in 15 16 Eulerian models whereas in LPDM, one can track the particles correctly at sub-grid scale. 17 Furthermore, FLEXPART can be run in both forward- and backward-in-time modes. The 18 output of the forward modelling from emission sources are simulated concentration fields, 19 whereas a backward run of the model initialized from a receptor point (typically, a 20 measurement location) provides source-receptor (S-R) relationships or potential emission sensitivity (PES) fields. A detailed description about FLEXPART based S-R relationship can 21 22 be found in Seibert and Frank (2004). It is related to residence time of particles in output grid cells. The S-R relationship describes sensitivity of receptor y to source x. In the present case, 23 the receptor y is a vector of 24 hour average black carbon concentrations at Gadanki for 24 different days and source x is vector of area averaged black carbon emissions in different 25 grid-boxes at different time intervals. In case of FLEXPART based S-R relationship, the S-R 26 relationship is a matrix *M* whose elements m_{il} are defined by $m_{il} = \frac{y_l}{x_i}$ (Seibert and Frank, 27 2004). Once the matrix *M* is known for a given source vector (emission inventory), receptor 28

values (BC concentrations at measurement site) can be obtained by a simple matrix-vector
multiplicationrelationships or potential emission sensitivity (PES) fields. When the PES field
is multiplied by emission fluxes, the volume integral of this product gives the simulated
concentration at the receptor point. The backward (also known as retroplume) runs are
particularly useful to understand the regional distribution of sources contributing to pollution
at the observation site and the corresponding transport pathways and for evaluating emission
inventories using point observations.

8 We have used NCEP Global Forecast Systems Final (GFS-FNL; NCEP [2000]; hereinafter 9 referred to as FNL data) meteorological analysis data to drive FLEXPART. GFS-FNL data are 10 available at 1° x 1° spatial resolution and at 6 hourly temporal resolution. Vertically, the data 11 are available at 26 pressure levels extending from the surface to 10 hPa.

12 We have used backward runs of FLEXPART to simulate the BC concentrations at Gadanki to 13 understand the relative merit of various inventories for the comparison of modelled values with observations. Various settings for the model runs are summarized in Table 1. In the 14 15 backward runs, BC particles were traced backward in time from the receptor site (Gadanki) for 10 days. The simulations were carried out for every day of the years 2009 and 2011. Since 16 17 the FNL data do not include precipitation values for the year 2009, the model particles were subjected to only dry deposition in the year 2009 whereas the particles were subjected to both, 18 19 dry and wet deposition in the year 2011. To calculate dry deposition, particle density, aerodynamic diameter and standard deviation of a log-normal distribution were assumed to be 20 1400 kg/m³, 0.25 µm and 1.25, respectively following Stohl et al. (2013). Below-cloud 21 22 scavenging is modelled using wet scavenging coefficient defined as $\lambda = AI^{B}$, where A is wet scavenging coefficient at precipitation rate (I) equal to 1 mm/hour, and B is factor dependency 23 (McMahon and Denison, 1979). We have set values of A equal to $2x10^{-7}$ s⁻¹ and B equal to 24 0.62 following Stohl et al. (2013). The in-cloud scavenging is simulated using scavenging 25 coefficient defined as $\lambda = (1.25 \text{ I}^{0.64})/\text{H}$, where H is cloud thickness in meters (Hertel et al., 26 1995The wet seavenging coefficient was defined as $\lambda = AI^{B}$, where A is wet seavenging 27 eoefficient at precipitation rate (I) equal to 1 mm/hour, and B is factor dependency. We have 28 set values of A equal to 2x10⁻⁷ s⁻¹ and B equal to 0.62 following Stohl et al. (2013). The PES 29

- 1 values in the bottom most layer (so-called footprint layer; 0-100 m agl) were multiplied by the
- 2 emission fluxes to calculate the BC concentration at the receptor.

3 4 Results and discussion

4 4.1 Observations

5 Daily mean measured BC concentrations at Gadanki from April 2008 to October 2012 are 6 shown in Fig. 4. BC concentrations at over Gadanki from April 2008 to October 2012 are 7 shown in Fig. 4. BC concentrations over Gadanki vary strongly with season, with high values during late winter and spring and low values during monsoon months. The daily mean values 8 varied from 6.8 \pm 3.1 µg/m³ (February) to 0.3 \pm 0.2 µg/m³ (November). Though the data period 9 10 is not sufficient to do a thorough trend analysis, for the available data, no trend is observed. 11 Also, there are no major differences in seasonal peak and low concentrations from 2008 to 12 2012. Hence, keeping computational time constraints in mind, the numerical simulations were 13 carried out only for the relatively dry year 2009 and the normally wet year 2011.

14 **4.2 Potential Emission Sensitivity**

The model output is PES values on a three dimensional grid. Since BC is mainly emitted near 15 surface, we focus here only on the PES of the bottom most layer from 0 to 100 m above 16 17 ground level, the so-called footprint layer and refer to this simply as PES. PES maps for five 18 different days representing different meteorological situations are shown in Fig. 5(a-f). PES maps for all the days during 2009 are provided in the supporting material. PES values are 19 represented in a logarithmic colour scale defined on the side of figure. The median height of 20 21 the retroplume in daily intervals is shown using gray-shaded dots. Depending on the season, 22 Gadanki receives air coming from different regions. Generally, during winter air parcels are either from the Indo-Gangetic Basin (northern India) or Central Bay of Bengal (e.g. Fig. 5a 23 and 5b). During summer or South West Monsoon period the air comes from the Northern 24 Indian Ocean and Arabian Sea (e.g. Fig. 5c). During the transition period, the air travels over 25 Western and Central India before reaching Gadanki (e.g. Fig. 5d). It is rare that significant 26 27 PES values occur over South East Asian countries or China, though in few instances trajectories came from Myanmar, South East Asian countries and South China (e.g. Fig. 5b). 28

1 The advantage of a dispersion model vis-a-vis a simple air trajectory model can be seen in 2 Fig. 5c. The median trajectory shown with grey dots is found to pass over the Arabian 3 Peninsula, though surface PES values are not significant over the Arabian Peninsula, but are substantial over the Northern Indian Ocean. In such circumstances, simple air back-trajectory 4 analysis may ascribe observed concentration to emissions over Arabia whereas in reality it is 5 not being influenced by surface emissions over that regiondel layer from 0 to 100 m above 6 7 ground level, the so-called footprint layer and refer to this simply as PES. PES maps for five different days representing different meteorological situations are shown in Fig. 5(a-f). PES 8 maps for all the days during 2009 are provided in the supporting material. PES values are 9 represented in a logarithmic colour scale defined on the side of figure. The median height of 10 the retroplume in daily intervals is shown using gray-shaded dots. Depending on the season, 11 12 Gadanki receives air coming from different regions. Generally, during winter air parcels are 13 either from the Indo-Gangetic Basin (northern India) or Central Bay of Bengal (e.g. Fig. 5a 14 and 5b). During summer or South West Monsoon period the air comes from the Northern Indian Ocean and Arabian Sea (e.g. Fig. 5c). During the transition period, the air travels over 15 Western and Central India before reaching Gadanki (e.g. Fig. 5d). It is rare that significant 16 PES values occur over South East Asian countries or China, though in few instances 17 18 trajectories came from Myanmar, South East Asian countries and South China (e.g. Fig. 5b). The advantage of a dispersion model vis-a-vis a simple air trajectory model can be seen in 19 20 Fig. 5c. The median trajectory shown with grey dots is found to pass over the Arabian 21 Peninsula, though surface PES values are not significant over the Arabian Peninsula, but are 22 substantial over the Northern Indian Ocean. In such circumstances, simple air back-trajectory analysis may ascribe observed concentration to emissions over Arabia whereas in reality it is 23 not being influenced by surface emissions over that region due to descent. To demonstrate the 24 25 effect of wet-deposition on PES, PES maps for 14 October 2011 are shown with and without wet-deposition in Fig. 5e and 5f respectively. The week preceding 14 October 2011 had large 26 rainfall over Southern India and Bay of Bengal. Precipitation maps for 6 days from TRMM 27 satellite are provided in the supporting material. Wet-deposition is generally the most 28 29 important removal process for aerosol and its effect on PES can be seen by the reduction of 30 the high PES area especially over the ocean. However, the highest PES values over India 31 close to the observation site remain almost unaffected by precipitation. Simulated BC

1 concentrations for this case with and without precipitation are 1.0 μ g/m³ and 1.4 μ g/m³, 2 respectively.

3 4.3 Modelled BC Concentrations

4 BC concentrations are determined by multiplying the footprint PES values with emission 5 fluxes from the various inventories for every grid-point and then integrating over the whole globe. The method implies that BC emissions are uniformly distributed in grid-cell of height 6 7 100 m (height of footprint PES layer). For a surface source, the footprint PES layer should be 8 as small as possible. However, a very shallow footprint layer is not ideal from statistical point 9 of view, as the PES is calculated based on the mass (and, thus, approximately the number) of particles in the footprint layer. With a very shallow height (say, 10 m), one would need to 10 release 10 times more particles (number of trajectories) than with a 100 m height of the 11 12 footprint layer to arrive at the same statistical error for the footprint PES. Whereas increasing the height of PES layer will not introduce significant error as long as the boundary layer 13 14 height is higher than the footprint PES layer. BC concentrations are calculated with the three emission inventories ECLIPSE, RETRO, and SAFAR-India. The SAFAR-India emission 15 inventory is available only for the Indian region, hence inventory values outside India are set 16 17 to zero. In case of ECLIPSE inventory, emissions outside India including shipping are found 18 to contribute on average 6% of the total modelled BC concentrations over Gadanki. There 19 were only 36 days in the year 2009 that had more than 15% of the BC originating from emissions outside India. Note that for the year 2009, wet-deposition was not simulated. In 20 case of 2011, for which wet deposition was simulated, emissions outside India contributed 5% 21 22 on average and there were only 24 days when their contribution was more than 15%. In Figure 6, seasonal and annual averages of source contribution maps are shown. During winter 23 24 the emissions from IGB region (North India) dominate the BC concentrations at Gadanki, 25 whereas during spring, emissions from Southern India dominate. During summer, the source 26 region is very small resulting in low concentration of BC as shown later. Autumn is a transition period from south-west monsoon to north-east monsoon and hence BC 27 concentrations at Gadanki are due to both Northern and Southern India emissions. On 28 29 average, India north of 18° N latitude contributes 43% of simulated BC mass and the part 30 north of 22° N latitude contribute 33% at Gadanki. The contribution increases to 67% and

1 57% during winter from BC concentrations are calculated with the three emission inventories 2 ECLIPSE, RETRO, and SAFAR-India. The SAFAR-India emission inventory is available 3 only for the Indian region, hence inventory values outside India are set to zero. In case of ECLIPSE inventory, emissions outside India including shipping are found to contribute on 4 average 6% of the total modelled BC concentrations over Gadanki. There were only 36 days 5 in the year 2009 that had more than 15% of the BC originating from emissions outside India. 6 7 Note that for the year 2009, wet-deposition was not simulated. In case of 2011, for which wet deposition was simulated, emissions outside India contributed 5% on average and there were 8 9 only 24 days when their contribution was more than 15%. In Figure 6, seasonal and annual averages of source contribution maps are shown. During winter the emissions from IGB 10 region (North India) dominate the BC concentrations at Gadanki, whereas during spring, 11 12 emissions from Southern India dominate. During summer, the source region is very small 13 resulting in low concentration of BC as shown later. Autumn is a transition period from south-14 west monsoon to north-east monsoon and hence BC concentrations at Gadanki are due to both Northern and Southern India emissions. On average, India north of 18° N latitude contributes 15 16 43% of simulated BC mass and the part north of 22° N latitude contribute 33% at Gadanki. The contribution increases to 67% and 57% during winter for the two regions, respectively. 17

18 A comparison of observed and model estimated BC concentration for the year 2009 is shown 19 in Fig. 7a. There are no big differences between the three emission inventories. BC estimates based on RETRO are a little lower than for the other inventories, as expected, since total BC 20 21 emissions of India (6976 Gg/yr) in RETRO are significantly lower than in the other two 22 inventories. Overall, the seasonal pattern is well reproduced in the model runs. Several sub-23 monthly scale variations of observed BC concentrations are also well reproduced by the 24 model, confirming its ability to simulate the influence of short-term changes in the 25 meteorological conditions. During autumn and winter, the observed values are reproduced by 26 the model within around 30% but the model underestimates the observed BC concentrations 27 during spring and summer quite substantially. In Table 2, values of annual and seasonal 28 averages, observation to model ratio, mean biases, root mean square differences (RMSD) and 29 correlation coefficients (R) between observation and model for different inventories are shown. Overall, SAFAR has the smallest bias (0.8 μ g/m³) and least RMSD (1.4 μ g/m³ in 2009) 30 and 1.1 μ g/m³ in 2011) with comparable values for ECLIPSE. The bias is small during autumn 31

1 in general. In fact, with the SAFAR inventory, the model overestimates the observed 2 concentrations during autumn of 2009 by a small amount (0.104 μ g/m³). The largest bias and 3 RMSD are found during spring. Note, that seasonal variations in model values are purely due to meteorology and transport as emission fluxes are constant within a month in the ECLIPSE 4 5 and RETRO inventories and throughout the year for SAFAR inventory. Though the SAFAR inventory has seasonally fixed emission fluxes, the model's performance using the SAFAR 6 7 inventory is not very different compared to using the ECLIPSE inventory. This is because BC 8 emissions in ECLIPSE inventory has very small seasonal variation. Monthly BC emissions of 9 India in ECLIPSE (excluding GFED) inventory vary from 93.7 Gg in September to maximum 10 104.2 Gg in July mainly due to seasonal variation of agricultural waste burning, which varies from 1.2 Gg to 10.5 Gg. Together with GFED, there is less than 4.1% monthly variation of 11 12 total BC emissions in a year in India.

13 As mentioned before, simulations for the year 2009 were carried out without including the wet-deposition process. When including wet-deposition for the year 2009, the 14 15 underestimation during July-August may even be larger than that reported here. However, in Figure 7b and 7c, we show a comparison for the year 2011 without and with wet deposition, 16 17 respectively. It can be seen that the wet-deposition has very little effect and hardly produces 18 perceptible differences between Figures 7b and 7c. Overall, wet-deposition reduces modelled 19 BC values by only 8% when using the ECLIPSE inventory. Seasonally, the wet-deposition is found to be reducing modelled BC values by 5% in winter, 6% in spring, 14% in summer and 20 21 15% in autumn. Such seasonal influence is expected as the maximum rain over Gadanki is 22 received during summer and autumn (cf. Fig. 1). There were about 76 days in the year 2011, 23 when wet-deposition reduced the BC concentrations by more than 15%. In summary, wet-24 deposition is not a major factor that causes underestimation of model BC values over 25 Gadanki. This is a result of relative short rainy season over major parts of India and the short 26 transport times during the rainy season for a major fraction of the BC between its emission 27 and the arrival at Gadanki, rendering precipitation scavenging an ineffective process for this 28 particular site. This result is site-specific and does not imply that wet deposition is globally of 29 minor importance. On the contrary, it is the main removal mechanism for BC in the model.

1 In Figure 8, the average age spectra (measuring the time between BC emission and BC arrival 2 at Gadanki) of modelled BC values estimated using the ECLIPSE inventory are shown for the 3 full year as well as for the four seasons. One can see that on average about 30% to 40% of BC mass is of age 4 days or more. During winter this value increases to 65%. In other words, a 4 5 large fraction of BC mass during winter is due to long-range transport of BC particles from Northern India. If the dry deposition process is the reason for underestimation then one may 6 7 expect larger model biases in winter. Instead, during winter, the comparison between model and observations is better. Hence, dry deposition may also not be an important factor for 8 9 causing the underestimation.

10 The differences between observation and model are in fact correlated to biomass burning 11 activity (cf. Fig. 2; Also, see seasonal maps of fire hotspots overlaid on PES in supporting 12 material). Since, SAFAR-India inventory considers only anthropogenic emissions and do not 13 include forest-fire emissions, such underestimation during spring (open biomass burning season) is expected for it. The RETRO inventory has BC emissions from forest-fires and in 14 15 case of ECLIPSE inventory, forest-fire emissions are included from GFEDv3. In-spite of this ECLIPSE and RETRO inventories have similar underestimation like SAFAR-India during 16 17 spring. The modelled BC values using ECLIPSE and RETRO are about a factor 2.1 and 3.5 lower than the observed BC concentration (2.8 μ g/m³) respectively. The variation of monthly 18 19 BC emissions from forest-fires in GFED and RETRO are similar to the monthly variations of FRP shown in Fig. 2 with maximum emissions of 45 Gg in case of GFED and 24 Gg in case 20 21 of RETRO during March. However, BC emissions from forest fires over India in GFED and 22 RETRO are lower than anthropogenic emissions by a factor 23 annually and by a factor of 2.2 23 to 2.8 during March (peak biomass burning season). The year 2009 was a drought year and 24 had a higher number of forest-fire events. This is reflected in higher observed BC 25 concentrations during spring of 2009 compared to the spring of 2011 (cf. Fig. 4 and 7). In 26 spite of the low BC values during spring of 2011 (being a normal year from drought or forest-27 fire events perspective), all the three inventories still significantly underestimate the 28 observations (cf. Table 2). The fraction of BC particles of age less than 4 days is 61% in the 29 year 2009 and 70% in the year 2011 (cf. Fig. 8). In other words, freshly emitted particles over 30 Southern India form a major part of the total BC load during summer and spring (cf. Fig. 6). Hence, our analysis suggests that underestimation is due to underestimation of emissions over 31

1 Southern India, however it is difficult to pin-point sectors that are being underestimated for 2 BC emissions. Contextual information such as underestimation being correlated to FRP 3 suggests that BC emissions from open-biomass-burning may be the main sector responsible for underestimation of BC concentration at Gadanki. Gustafsson et al. (2009) and Sheesley et 4 5 al. (2012) apportioned carbonaceous aerosols using radiocarbon technique over two locations influenced by air-masses from India and found biomass burning contributing to the extent of 6 7 70% of total mass of carbonaceous aerosols. Pavuluri et al. (2011) studied correlation of black carbon with levoglucosan and non-sea-salt K⁺ at Chennai (a major city in Southern India) and 8 9 found that biomass burning is the major source of them during winter and summer. Lelieveld 10 et al. (2001) estimated contribution of biomass burning in CO in range of 60% to 90% using 11 correlation with CH₃CN and radiocarbon technique during Indian Ocean Experiment 12 (INDOEX). However, underestimation of open biomass burning as source cannot explain 13 fully the underestimation of BC concentration by the model during summer when biomass 14 burning activity is low. A possibility exists that aethalometer may overestimate BC concentration during summer. Aethalometer relates absorption by particles on filter paper to 15 16 BC mass. During summer when wind speeds and direction are conducive for dust aerosol, atmosphere may have high level of dust amount. Dust is a weakly absorbing type of aerosol. 17 18 Mass absorption cross-section of dust is 9 times lower than BC mass absorption cross-section 19 (Zhang et al., 2008). However, during summer, when BC concentrations are low, absorption 20 by dust particles can be significant part of total absorption by the particles on the filter paper and may be wrongly attributed to BC mass. In absence of chemical analysis, we rely on 21 22 spectral signature of absorption coefficient for qualitative information on aerosol type. Zhang et al. (2008) have found inverse wavelength (λ^{-1}) dependence of the absorption coefficient for 23 black carbon particles and no significant wavelength dependence for dust particles observed 24 in China. Exponent of wavelength (in power-law form of relation between absorption 25 coefficient and wavelength) is reported between -1.5 and -3 for BC particles emitted in 26 biomass burning (Bergstrom et al., 2004; Kirchstetter et al., 2004; Bergstrom et al., 2007; 27 28 Clarke et al., 2007). Spectral characteristics of dust particles vary from place to place and the wavelength exponent is reported between -2 and -3 for some of the places in Asia and Africa 29 (Bergstrom et al., 2004; Fialho et al., 2005; Bergstrom et al., 2007). Monthly median values of 30 wavelength exponent based on seven wavelengths of aethalometer at Gadanki are found to 31

1 vary between -0.98 to -1.18 for year 2009 (Figure absorption alpha 2009.png in supporting 2 material). However, the variability as indicated by interquartile range is found to have 3 increased significantly during summer, indicative of increase in heterogeneity of absorbing aerosol types during summer. Hence, dust aerosols may be a factor but it may not account for 4 all the difference between model and observation during summer. Observed BC concentration 5 and biases between model and observation are low during summer, ratios of observed to 6 7 model BC concentrations are high. This suggests not only biomass burning but other anthropogenic emissions in South India are also underestimated. BC emission ratios vary 8 9 within a country due to different stages of economic development (power plant and automobile technology, environmental regulations enforcement). Changes, particularly 10 environmental regulations and their implementation can be highly region/place specific. 11 12 Moreover, the changes can be non-linear in time. Southern states in India are comparatively more industrialised than northern states but have lower population growth. If emission ratios 13 14 are generalised for whole country or linear growth is assumed based on population, it may introduce errors in emission inventory. In addition, small scale anthropogenic biomass 15 16 burning can be significant. While satellite based fire detection are low during summer, radiocarbon based and levoglucosan based BC apportionment suggest significant contribution 17 18 of BC from biomass burning during summer (Pavuluri et al., 2011; Sheesley et al., 2012). Indoor biomass burning and small scale agricultural waste burning will go unnoticed in 19 20 satellite data due to increased eloudiness during summer. When overall BC concentrations are low, underestimation of these sources may cause significant fractional error in the estimated 21 22 BC concentrations.

23 This suggests not only biomass burning but other anthropogenic emissions in South India are also underestimated. BC emission ratios vary within a country due to different stages of 24 25 economic development (power plant and auto-mobile technology, environmental regulations enforcement). Changes, particularly environmental regulations and their implementation can 26 be highly region/place specific. Moreover, the changes can be non-linear in time. Southern 27 states in India are comparatively more industrialised than northern states but have lower 28 29 population growth. If emission ratios are generalised for whole country or linear growth is 30 assumed based on population, it may introduce errors in emission inventory. In addition, small scale anthropogenic biomass burning can be significant. While satellite based fire detection 31

1 are low during summer, radiocarbon based and levoglucosan based BC apportionment suggest

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4 go unnoticed in satellite data due to increased cloudiness during summer. When overall BC

5 <u>concentrations are low, underestimation of these sources may cause significant fractional error</u>

6 in the estimated BC concentrations.

7 Overall, though underestimation of anthropogenic emissions cannot be ruled out,

8 <u>underestimation of BC concentration at Gadanki is likely related to underestimation of BC</u>

9 emission fluxes from forest fires and/or agricultural waste burning over Southern India,

10 particularly during spring.

11 Hence, though underestimation of anthropogenic emissions cannot be ruled out,

12 underestimation of BC concentration at Gadanki is likely related to underestimation of BC

13 emission fluxes from forest fires and/or agricultural waste burning over Southern India.

14 | Case studies

Since, emission inventories for the years 2009 and 2011 are kept the same, the difference in model values between these two years is purely due to meteorology. In the rest of the article, we focus on the year 2009. As noted in the previous section, the model underestimates BC values during spring and summer. The underestimation of BC concentrations may be related to underestimation of biomass burning activity during the dry season and sub-regionally incorrect anthropogenic emission fluxes. Here we discuss a few cases from the year 2009 which provide insight into these aspects.

22 In Figure 9, a comparison of modelled and observed BC concentration over Gadanki for the year 2009 is shown. It is similar to Fig. 7(a), but zoomed-in for three different periods. Note 23 the sudden decrease in BC concentration for both observation and model on 8th January in Fig. 24 9(a). From 1st January to 6th January, high PES extended along the east coast of India and 25 Indo-Gangetic Basin (IGB) region. However, from 7th January onward PES region started 26 shifting away from the coastline towards the central Bay of Bengal (BoB). On 8th January, 27 28 high PES region was a narrow region stretching eastward up to Andaman Nicobar Island and 29 then turned northward up to Bangladesh. Oceanic regions do not have many black carbon 30 sources except for exhaust from ships plying in the region. Simultaneous decrease in observed

1 and modelled values in this case is indicative of the fact that large part of BC observed over 2 Gadanki is transported rather than of local origin. Notice that in the model, BC variations are 3 mainly due to changes in air mass transport (and precipitation in case of year 2011) because the emissions are kept constant for at least one month. From 9th January onward, the high PES 4 region moves again closer to the east coast of India but does not penetrate deep into land. 5 However, on 13th January, high PES region was found to be covering whole of Bangladesh, 6 and Bihar and West Bengal states of India. On 13th January, a BC peak is found in 7 observations and in the model. Again on 16th January, high PES region moved toward central 8 9 BoB and away from East Coast of India (cf. Fig. 5b). However, unlike 8th January event, in this case, high PES region is a little further north and east in BoB and touches Southern 10 Myanmar. The decrease in case of models is higher than it was found for 8th January but 11 decrease in observed BC concentration is not as big as for 8th January. This is possible if 12 emission fluxes over high PES region are underestimated. 13

From 16th January onward, PES region moves toward India systematically and deep in-land over IGB region. On 21st January PES region covers whole of West Bengal, Bihar and Delhi, and large parts of Orissa, Uttarpradesh and Haryana states of India in and around IGB. On 21st January both model and observation have high concentration close to 4 microgram and there are relatively small differences between model and observations. This is indicative that the inventory values are realistic for this region, although perhaps still underestimate true emissions.

During February to middle of March, observed BC concentrations are increasing whereas 21 22 model values are systematically decreasing. During this period high PES region has moved 23 away from India towards BoB, whereas PES region in immediate vicinity of Gadanki has 24 moved southward over Tamil Nadu state of India. Large divergence between observation and 25 model is an indication that the inventoried emission fluxes are significantly underestimated 26 over Southern India. This is also a period of high biomass burning activity in the region of the high PES (cf. Fig. 2). Hence, under-estimation may be related specifically to under-estimation 27 of open biomass burning in southern India. 28

From 22nd April, the high PES region has moved to the west of the observation site, over Karnataka state of India and the Arabian Sea (cf. Fig. 5d) and occasionally moving south of the observation site over entire Tamil Nadu. During later part of May, and June and July months, the high PES region is mostly over the Arabian Sea with very small region over land due to strong winds (cf. Fig 5c). Both model and observations have low values during this period, however the model systematically underestimates the observations by factor of 2 to 3 (cf. Fig. 9b).

6 From 5th September onward PES region covers Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Gujarat states of India. On 22nd September, the model significantly over estimates the observation and 7 8 for some days it remains higher than observations (cf. Fig. 9c). High PES region during this 9 period lay over Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu border and over southern Karnataka. From 16th October onward PES pattern moves entirely north of the observation site. In beginning 10 the pattern covers Central and Western India but on 1st November, the PES pattern is similar 11 12 to that found during January-February and extends all the way up to North West border of 13 India covering the entire Indo-Gangetic region (cf. Fig. 5a). On this day, the concentration is the highest in model with similar values in observations. During September to December, 14 15 differences between observation and model estimates are small.

Summarising the above description, observed and modelled BC values are high when winds 16 17 are from Northern and Western India, with relatively small differences between model and 18 observations, indicative of relatively small errors in the emission inventories over this region. 19 When winds are from South or South Central India, the observed values are high but the 20 model values are substantially lower. Coincidently this is also the period of high biomass burning activity over Southern India. The differences between the model and observation thus 21 22 suggest that open biomass burning emissions over Southern India have been underestimated in all the three inventories. 23

24 5 Conclusions

Several field studies over India and in adjoining oceans have found high amount of absorbing aerosols. However, models are found to under-predict the observed high concentrations of absorbing aerosols. Using the Lagrangian particle dispersion model FLEXPART and three emission inventories, we compared the simulated BC concentrations with BC measurements at a rural site in southern India. As for the other models, FLEXPART underestimates the observed BC concentrations. We found that 93% to 95% of the model BC concentration is the 1 result of emissions from India. Northern India is a major source of anthropogenic BC 2 particles, but Southern India also has significant BC emissions. This study identifies 3 potentially significant underestimate of emissions in Southern India, which is reflected in a 4 large difference in the observed and modelled BC values in Gadanki during spring when the 5 winds are predominantly from the south. We suggest that the key source for which the 6 emission fluxes may be underestimated is open biomass burning. This is not to rule out 7 possibility that anthropogenic emissions may also be underestimated.

8 In the three emission inventories that we evaluated, ECLIPSE inventory has the highest 9 emissions (1.2 Tg/yr), with similar emissions in the SAFAR-India inventory (1.1 Tg/yr). It is 10 also reflected in the comparison between the modelled and observed BC concentration over 11 Gadanki. Modelled BC values based on ECLIPSE and SAFAR-India are higher than the 12 values based on the RETRO inventory. However, they are not high enough to resolve 13 underestimation in most of the seasons. Overall ratio of observation to model is found to be 1.5 for SAFAR inventory, 1.7 for ECLIPSE inventory and 2.4 for RETRO inventory. Though 14 15 ECLIPSE inventory has the highest emissions over India, it is SAFAR-India inventory that 16 has the lowest ratio because of differences in spatial distribution in emission fluxes. SAFAR-17 India inventory has higher emission fluxes over Southern India compared to ECLIPSE.

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1 time Capability for EOS) system operated by ESDIS (the NASA/GSFC/Earth Science Data 2 and Information System) with funding provided by NASA/HQ. Authors acknowledge the use 3 of rainfall estimates obtained from TRMM satellite through GIOVANNI online data system, developed and maintained by the NASA GES DISC to provide rainfall maps in supporting 4 5 material. Authors acknowledge T. N. Rao and his team members for providing weather station data. KR and HG thank Sabine Eckhardt and Rona Thompson for helping in running of the 6 7 FLEXPART model. KR thanks European Science Foundation (ESF) Research Network TTORCH for supporting her participation in FLEXPART training course. Authors thank 8 9 Department of Space, Government of India for funding the climate observatory operational at NARL, Gadanki, A. Stohl and Z. Klimont were supported by the European Union Seventh 10 Framework Programme (FP7/2007-2013) under grant agreement no 282688 – ECLIPSE. 11

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Input Meteorological data	NCEP-GFS data at 1° x 1° global
Tracer	Black Carbon aerosol
Point of origin for retroplume	Gadanki (13.48° N, 79.18° E, 365 m above mean sea level), altitude: 0 – 100 meter.
Output grid	Horizontal: 1° X 1° global; Vertical: 0-100, 100-3000, 3000-5000 meters above ground.
Mode	Backward runs
Number of days backward for each release	<u>10 days</u>
Dry Deposition	Enabled for 2009 and 2011
Convection	Enabled for 2009 and 2011
Wet deposition	Enabled only for year 2011
Dry deposition parameters	$\frac{\text{Density (rho)} = 1400 \text{ kg/m}^3}{\text{Mean Diameter (d_p)} = 0.25 \mu\text{m}}$ Sigma of log-normal distribution (dsig) = 1.25
Below-cloud scavenging parameters	Scavenging coefficient at rain fall rate 1mm/hr (A) = $2x10^{-7} \text{ s}^{-1}$ Dependency factor (B) = 0.62
Input Meteorological data	NCEP-GFS data at 1° x 1° global
Tracer	Black Carbon acrosol
Point of origin for retroplume	Gadanki (13.48° N, 79.18° E, 365 m above mean sea- level), altitude: 0 – 100 meter.
Output grid	Horizontal: 1° X 1° global; Vertical: 0-100, 100-3000, 3000-5000 meters above ground.
Output grid Mode	e <i>i i i i i i i i i i</i>
	3000-5000 meters above ground.
Mode Number of days backward for each	3000-5000 meters above ground. Backward runs
Mode Number of days backward for each- release	3000-5000 meters above ground. Backward runs 10 days
Mode Number of days backward for each- release Dry Deposition	3000-5000 meters above ground. Backward runs 10 days Enabled for 2009 and 2011
Mode Number of days backward for each- release Dry Deposition Convection	3000-5000 meters above ground. Backward runs 10 days Enabled for 2009 and 2011 Enabled for 2009 and 2011

1 Table 1: FLEXPART model set-up for retroplume runs from Gadanki

$(A) = 2x10^{-7} \cdot s^{-1}$
Dependency factor (B) = 0.62

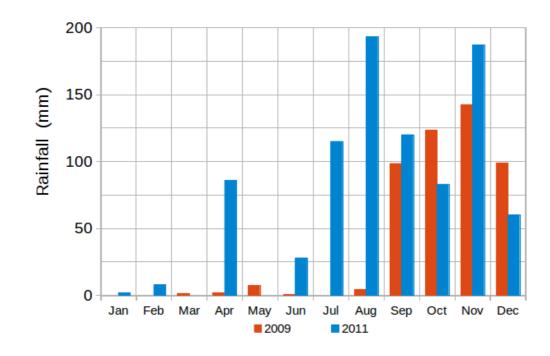
Table 2: Average, ratio, bias, RMSD and correlation coefficient between modelled and
observed BC concentrations when using different inventories for the years 2009 and 2011.

		<u>2009*</u>				<u>2011*</u>				
		<u>Obs.</u>	SAFAR	ECLIPSE	<u>RETRO</u>	<u>Obs.</u>	<u>SAFAR</u>	ECLIPSE	<u>RETRO</u>	
	All	<u>2.308</u>	<u>1.494</u>	<u>1.378</u>	<u>0.936</u>	<u>2.279</u>	<u>1.483</u>	<u>1.454</u>	<u>1.05</u>	
	<u>Winter</u>	<u>3.405</u>	<u>2.179</u>	<u>2.182</u>	<u>1.643</u>	<u>3.213</u>	<u>2.367</u>	<u>2.624</u>	<u>2.103</u>	
<u>Mean</u> (μg/m ³)	<u>Spring</u>	<u>2.998</u>	<u>1.452</u>	<u>1.366</u>	<u>0.835</u>	<u>2.591</u>	<u>1.345</u>	<u>1.242</u>	<u>0.800</u>	
	<u>Summer</u>	<u>1.181</u>	<u>0.595</u>	<u>0.496</u>	<u>0.232</u>	<u>1.234</u>	<u>0.595</u>	<u>0.467</u>	<u>0.229</u>	
	<u>Autumn</u>	<u>1.700</u>	<u>1.805</u>	<u>1.525</u>	<u>1.087</u>	<u>2.110</u>	<u>1.653</u>	<u>1.518</u>	<u>1.118</u>	
	All	<u>1</u>	<u>1.545</u>	<u>1.675</u>	<u>2.465</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.537</u>	<u>1.568</u>	<u>2.162</u>	
	<u>Winter</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.563</u>	<u>1.561</u>	<u>2.072</u>	1	<u>1.357</u>	<u>1.225</u>	<u>1.528</u>	
<u>Ratio</u> (Obs/Model)	<u>Spring</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2.065</u>	<u>2.196</u>	<u>3.593</u>	1	<u>1.926</u>	<u>2.086</u>	<u>3.239</u>	
	<u>Summer</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1.986</u>	<u>2.38</u>	<u>5.098</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2.075</u>	<u>2.641</u>	<u>5.396</u>	
	<u>Autumn</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.942</u>	<u>1.115</u>	<u>1.564</u>	1	<u>1.277</u>	<u>1.390</u>	<u>1.888</u>	
	All		<u>-0.814</u>	<u>-0.930</u>	<u>-1.372</u>		<u>-0.796</u>	<u>-0.825</u>	<u>-1.225</u>	
Bias (μg/m ³)	<u>Winter</u>		<u>-1.226</u>	-1.224	<u>-1.762</u>		<u>-0.846</u>	<u>-0.589</u>	<u>-1.110</u>	
(Model-Obs)	<u>Spring</u>		<u>-1.547</u>	<u>-1.633</u>	<u>-2.164</u>		<u>-1.246</u>	<u>-1.349</u>	<u>-1.791</u>	
	<u>Summer</u>		<u>-0.586</u>	<u>-0.684</u>	<u>-0.949</u>		<u>-0.639</u>	<u>-0.767</u>	<u>-1.006</u>	
	<u>Autumn</u>		<u>0.104</u>	<u>-0.175</u>	<u>-0.613</u>		<u>-0.458</u>	<u>-0.592</u>	<u>-0.992</u>	
	All		<u>1.401</u>	<u>1.419</u>	<u>1.726</u>		<u>1.082</u>	<u>1.254</u>	<u>1.448</u>	
	<u>Winter</u>		<u>1.637</u>	<u>1.691</u>	<u>2.006</u>		<u>1.216</u>	<u>1.536</u>	<u>1.498</u>	
$\frac{\mathbf{RMSD}}{(\mathbf{\mu g}/\mathbf{m}^3)}$	<u>Spring</u>		<u>2.017</u>	<u>2.031</u>	<u>2.457</u>		<u>1.426</u>	<u>1.495</u>	<u>1.917</u>	
Correlation Coefficient (R)	<u>Summer</u>		<u>0.669</u>	<u>0.752</u>	<u>0.992</u>		<u>0.709</u>	<u>0.826</u>	<u>1.053</u>	
	<u>Autumn</u>		<u>0.809</u>	<u>0.710</u>	<u>0.936</u>		<u>0.821</u>	<u>1.015</u>	<u>1.163</u>	
	All		<u>0.483</u>	<u>0.542</u>	<u>0.543</u>		<u>0.726</u>	<u>0.661</u>	<u>0.690</u>	
	Winter	<u></u>	<u>0.138</u>	<u>0.036</u>	<u>0.021</u>		<u>0.473</u>	<u>0.334</u>	<u>0.375</u>	
	<u>Spring</u>		<u>0.063</u>	<u>0.249</u>	<u>0.422</u>		<u>0.501</u>	<u>0.605</u>	<u>0.560</u>	

	<u>Summer</u>		0.483	0.439	0.431		<u>0.587</u>	<u>0.545</u>	0.561
	<u>Autumn</u>		0.616	0.646	0.547		0.738	0.709	0.729
2 <u>Calculat</u>	rch to Ma ine to Aug eptember f	y g <u>ust</u> to Nover quare de 011 are 1 009 are	<u>y</u> <u>nber</u> <u>viation</u> with we without	t deposition	on sition	 3 and Sh			
			24	009 *			20	41 *	
		Obs.	SAFAR	ECLIPSE	RETRO	Obs.	SAFAR	ECLIPSE	RETRO
	All	2.308	1.494	1.378	0.936	2.279	1.483	1.454	1.05
	Winter	3.405	2.179	2.182	1.643	3.213	2.367	2.624	2.103
Mean	Spring	2.998	1.452	1.366	0.835	2.591	1.345	1.242	0.800
	Summer	1.181	0.595	0.496	0.232	1.234	0.595	0.467	0.229
	Autumn	1.700	1.805	1.525	1.087	2.110	1.653	1.518	1.118
	All	1	1.545	1.675	2.465	1	1.537	1.568	2.162
	Winter	+	1.563	1.561	2.072	+	1.357	1.225	1.528
Ratio (Obs/Model)	Spring	4	2.065	2.196	3.593	+	1.926	2.086	3.239
	Summer	+	1.986	2.38	5.098	+	2.075	2.641	5.396
	Autumn	+	0.942	1.115	1.564	+	1.277	1.390	1.888
	All		-0.814	-0.930	-1.372		-0.796	-0.825	-1.225
	Winter		-1.226	-1.224	-1.762		-0.846	-0.589	-1.110
Bias (Model-Obs)	Spring		-1.547	-1.633	-2.164		-1.246	-1.349	-1.791
	Summer		-0.586	-0.684	-0.949		-0.639	-0.767	-1.006
	Autumn		0.104	-0.175	-0.613		-0.458	-0.592	-0.992
	All		1.401	1.419	1.726		1.082	1.254	1.448
RMSD	Winter		1.637	1.691	2.006		1.216	1.536	1.498
	Spring		2.017	2.031	2.457		1.426	1.495	1.917
	Summer		0.669	0.752	0.992		0.709	0.826	1.053
	Autumn		0.809	0.710	0.936		0.821	1.015	1.163
Correlation-	All		0.483	0.542	0.543		0.726	0.661	0.690

	Winter		0.138	0.036	0.021	 0.473	0.334	0.375
Coefficient	Spring		0.063	0.249	0.422	 0.501	0.605	0.560
(R)	Summer		0.483	0.439	0.431	 0.587	0.545	0.561
	Autumn		0.616	0.646	0.547	 0.738	0.709	0.729
Winter - December to FebruarySpring - March to MaySummer - June to AugustAutumn - September to NovemberRMSD - Root mean square deviation*Note:4 Calculations for 2011 are with wet deposition5 Calculations for 2009 are without wet deposition6 ECLIPSE inventory includes ECLIPSE v5, GFED v3 and Shipping emissions								

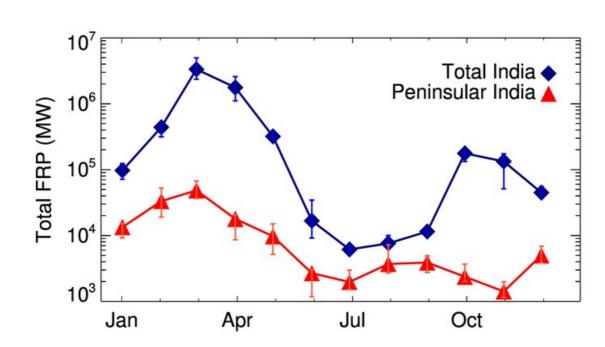
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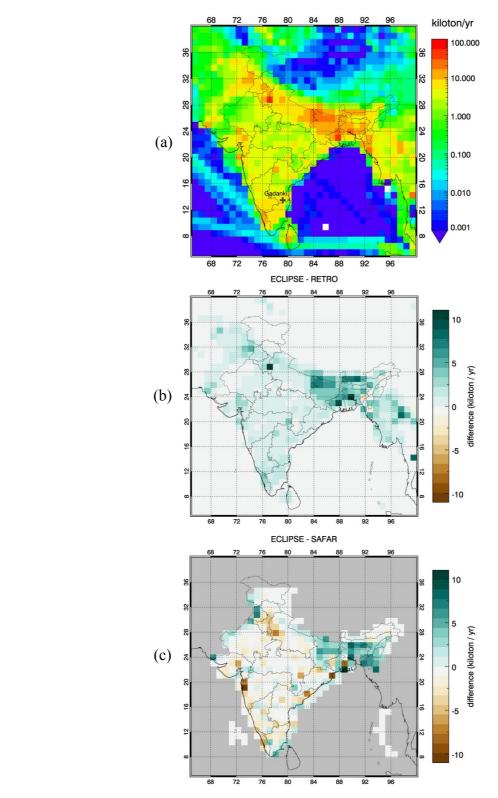
3 Figure 1: Monthly precipitation amounts over Gadanki during 2009 and 2011.





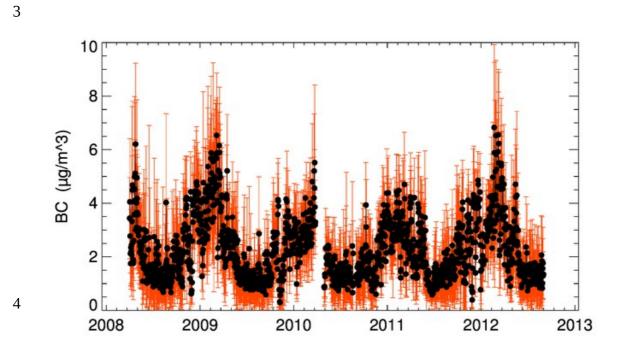
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6 Figure 2: Monthly median fire radiative power values obtained from MODIS satellite for
7 whole India and peninsular India (south of 18° N latitude).



4 Figure 3: (a) ECLIPSE (ECLIPSE v5 + GFED v3) black carbon emission inventory over
5 South Asia. (b) Difference between the ECLIPSE and RETRO emissions (ECLIPSE 6 RETRO). (c) difference between ECLIPSE and SAFAR India emissions (ECLIPSE -

SAFAR). Here and in rest of the article political borders are shown for cursory region
 identification and may not be accurate.



5 Figure 4: Daily mean black carbon concentration observed at Gadanki (black dots) and their
6 ±1σ standard deviation (orange vertical bars).

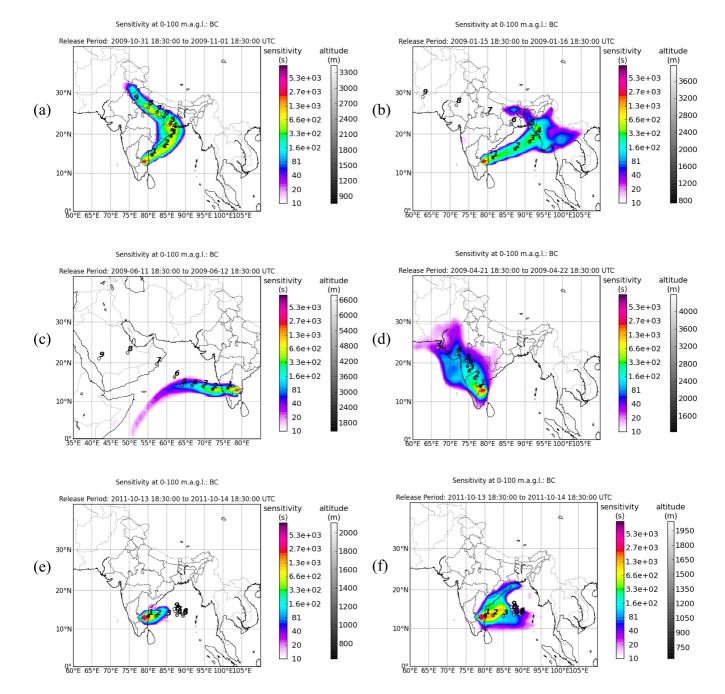
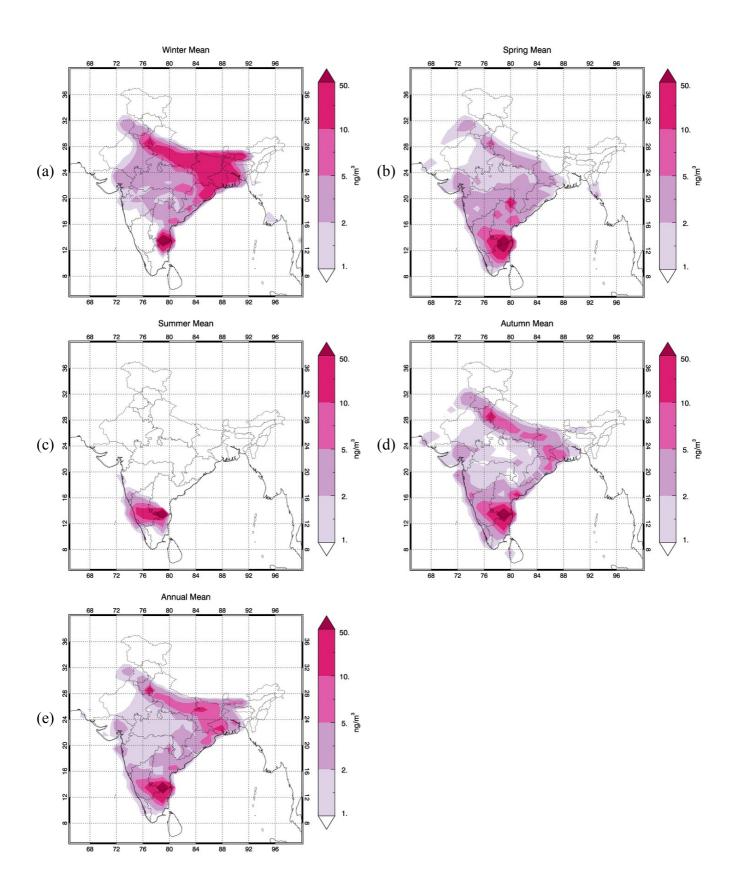


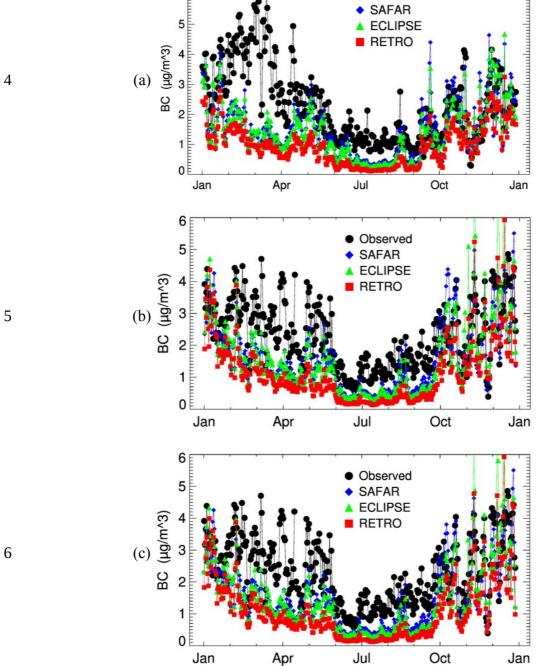
Figure 5: Selected examples of footprint potential emission sensitivity (PES) maps (also
known as source-receptor relationships) using 10 days of backward runs (retroplumes) of
FLEXPART from Gadanki. Figures (e) and (f) are PES maps of 14 Oct 2011 local time with
and without wet-deposition respectively. See supporting material for the PES maps for other
days.



- Figure 6: Black carbon source contribution (per 1°x1° grid-cell) maps based on FLEXPART 1
- 2 retroplume calculations and the ECLIPSE inventory. Values are for seasonal averages i.e. (a)

Observed

3 winter, (b) spring, (c) summer, (d) autumn, and (e) annual average for year 2009.



7 Figure 7: Comparison of observed and model estimated BC concentration. (a) 2009 without 8 wet deposition (b) 2011 without wet deposition (c) 2011 with wet deposition.

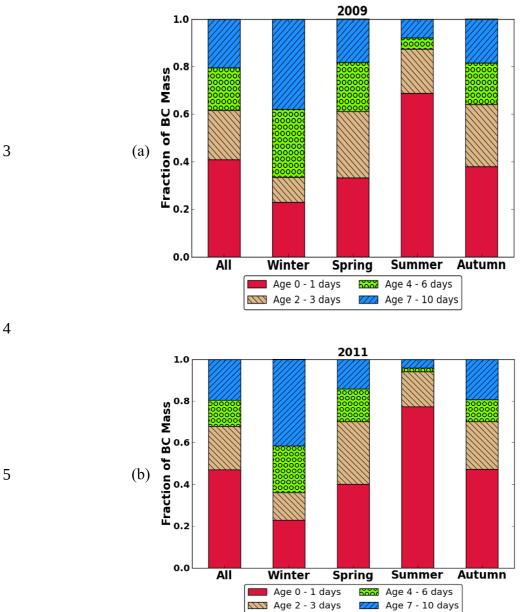
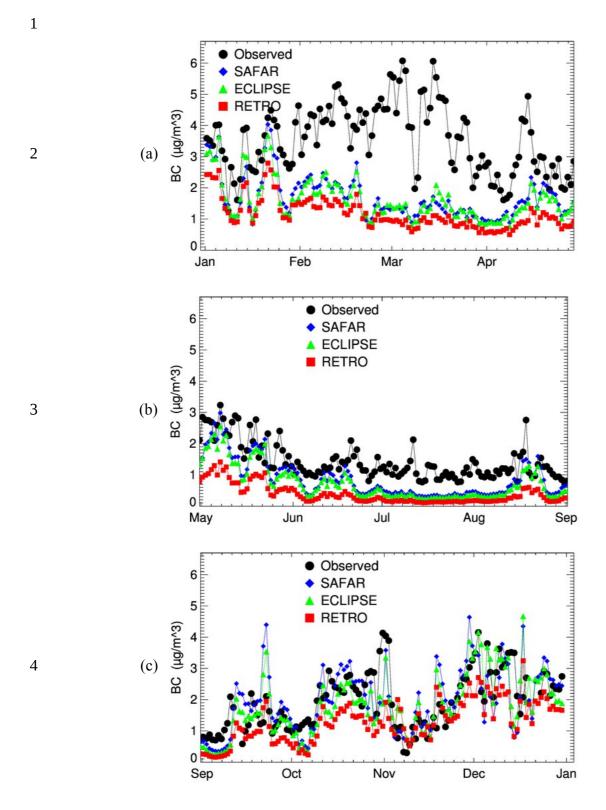


Figure 8: Fraction of simulated BC mass at Gadanki with particles of different age for year (a) 2009 and (b) 2011. Age 0-1 days represents contribution from day1 for the backward simulation. Age 2-3 days represents day2 and day3 contribution, Age 4-6 days represents day4 to day6 and Age 7-10 represents day 7 to day 10. Note that 2009 simulations are without wet-deposition whereas 2011 simulations are with wet-deposition.



5 Figure 9: Same as Fig. 7a but zoomed-in for period (a) January to April (b) May to August
6 and (c) September to December

1	
2	Supporting material contains
3	(1) PES (Potential Emission Sensitivity) maps for each day of the year 2009.
4	(pes maps/PREFIX BC fp YYYYMMDD.png)
5	(2) Map of India showing state names. (map of india with statenames.tif)
6	(3) Annual and seasonal average maps of fire hot spots overlaid on PES
7	(fire_hotspot_map_averaging-period_2009.png where averaging-period is seasons and
8	annual).
9	(4) Precipitation maps from TRMM satellite for dates 9 th October 2011 to 14 th October
10	2011. (rain_trmm_YYYYMMDD.png)
11	(5) Plot of (negative of) exponent of wavelength of power law relating absorption
12	coefficient to wavelength. (absorption_alpha_2009.png)
13	(6) <u>README file</u>
14	
15	Supporting material can also be downloaded from following link.
16	http://goo.gl/OixUpN
17	