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Constraining Black Carbon Aerosol over Asia using OMI Aerosol Absorption Optical Depth and the Adjoint of GEOS-Chem

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1 **Abstract**

2 Accurate estimates of the emissions and distribution of black carbon (BC) in the
3 region referred to here as Southeastern Asia (70°E–150°E, 11°S–55°N) are critical to
4 studies of the atmospheric environment and climate change. Analysis of modeled BC
5 concentrations compared to in situ observations indicates levels are underestimated
6 over most of Southeast Asia when using any of four different emission inventories.
7 We thus attempt to reduce uncertainties in BC emissions and improve BC model
8 simulations by developing top-down, spatially resolved, estimates of BC emissions
9 through assimilation of OMI observations of aerosol absorption optical depth
10 (AAOD) with the GEOS-Chem model and its adjoint for April and October of 2006.
11 Overwhelming enhancements, up to 500%, in anthropogenic BC emissions are shown
12 after optimization over broad areas of Southeast Asia in April. In October, the
13 optimization of anthropogenic emissions yields a slight reduction (1~5%) over India
14 and parts of southern China, while emissions increase by 10~50% over eastern China.
15 Observational data from in situ measurements and AERONET observations are used
16 to evaluate the BC inversions and assess the bias between OMI and AERONET
17 AAOD. Low biases in BC concentrations are improved or corrected in most eastern
18 and central sites over China after optimization, while the constrained model still
19 underestimates concentrations in Indian sites in both April and October, possibly as a
20 consequence of low prior emissions. Model resolution errors may contribute up to a
21 factor of 2.5 to the underestimate of surface BC concentrations over northern India.
22 We also compare the optimized results using different anthropogenic emission
23 inventories and discuss the sensitivity of top-down constraints on anthropogenic
24 emissions with respect to biomass burning emissions. In addition, the impacts of
25 different observation operators and a priori constraints on the optimization are
26 investigated. Overall, despite these limitations and uncertainties, using OMI AAOD to
27 constrain BC sources improves model representation of BC distributions, particularly
28 over China.
29

1 **1. Introduction**

2 Black carbon (BC) is a product of incomplete combustion of carbonaceous fuels,
3 enhanced concentrations of which have led to a present-day overall positive radiative
4 forcing and climate warming [Charlson and Pilat, 1969; Satheesh and Ramanathan,
5 2000; Bond et al., 2013]. More than ten years ago, Jacobson [2000] and Hansen et al.
6 [2000] recognized that preindustrial to present increases in BC might warm the
7 atmosphere about one third as much as CO₂. Recently, an assessment report by Bond
8 et al. [2013] indicates that the global average preindustrial to present radiative forcing
9 from BC is +1.1 W/m² with 90% uncertainty bounds of +0.17 to +2.1 W/m², which is
10 more than two thirds that of CO₂ (+1.56 W/m²). Additionally, BC aerosols constitute
11 up to 10-15% of the mass concentration of fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) over
12 continental regions, exposure to which is known to adversely effect human health
13 [e.g., Janssen et al., 2005; Schwartz et al., 2008; Janssen et al., 2011]. Given the
14 magnitude of BC climate effects and health impacts, a number of studies have
15 investigated its direct effect [Forster 2007; Ramanathan and Carmichael, 2008], semi-
16 direct effect [Ackeman et al., 2000; Johnson et al., 2004], indirect effect [Cozic et al.,
17 2007; Liu et al., 2009; Oshima et al., 2009], and the albedo effect when deposited on
18 snow [Hansen and Nazarenko, 2004; Hansen et al., 2005; Flanner et al., 2007; Qian et
19 al., 2009] using various numerical models and observations.

20 Central estimates of global annual emissions of BC are 8.0 Tg, of which 38% comes
21 from fossil fuel, 20% from biofuel and 42% from open burning [Bond et al., 2004].
22 At the same time, estimates of BC emissions are recognized as having large
23 uncertainties -- 50% at global scales and a factor of two to five at regional scales

1 [Bond et al., 2004; Ramanathan and Carmichael, 2008]. The Asian region referred to
2 here as Southeast Asia (70°E–150°E, 11°S–55°N) is the major anthropogenic BC
3 source region in the world, with growth in BC emissions of 21% over China and 41%
4 over India from 1996 to 2010 associated with rapid economic and industrial
5 development [Lu et al., 2011]. BC emissions from both energy-related combustion
6 and biomass burning that occur largely in Asia and Africa currently appear
7 underestimated [Bond et al., 2013]. A global top-down estimate of BC emission using
8 AERONET observation by Cohen and Wang [2014] indicated that commonly used
9 global BC emissions datasets may be underestimated by a factor of two or more.
10 Sixteen models from the AeroCom aerosol model intercomparisons underestimated
11 the Southeast Asian BC surface concentrations by a factor of 2~3 [Koch et al., 2009].
12 The GEOS-Chem model also underestimated monthly BC concentrations at almost all
13 rural sites in China, particularly in January 2006, which indicated a regional
14 underprediction of carbonaceous aerosol sources associated with anthropogenic
15 activities [Fu et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2013]. In addition, the global atmospheric
16 absorption attributable to BC is too low in many global aerosol models by a factor of
17 almost three on a global mean basis, which can be attributed to the models lacking
18 treatment of enhanced absorption caused by mixing of BC with other constituents and
19 the amount of BC in the atmosphere [Koch et al., 2009; Bond et al., 2013]. On the
20 other hand, a typical fresh particle mass absorption cross section (MABS, essentially
21 the column BC absorption divided by the load) of about $7.5 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ recommended by
22 Bond and Bergstrom [2006] is not represented in most models, which should

1 probably increase as particles age [Koch et al., 2009]. This bias would also impact
2 simulated AAOD, and inferences about emissions based on such comparisons would
3 likewise be biased.

4 To reduce uncertainties in BC emissions and improve poor representation of BC in
5 model simulations, different top-down approaches have been used to constrain bottom
6 up BC emissions, such as the linear constraints between concentrations and emissions
7 [Park et al., 2003; Kondo et al., 2011; Fu et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2013], inverse
8 modeling using the decoupled direct method [Hu et al., 2009a; Hu et al., 2009b], the
9 Kalman filter technique [Cohen and Wang 2014], and the adjoint based 4D variational
10 approach [Hakami et al., 2005]. These studies have exclusively used in situ
11 measurements or airborne observations, which can provide accurate observations of
12 aerosol properties. However, they are often incomplete in their spatial or temporal
13 coverage. Satellite measurements of aerosol optical depth (AOD) have much broader
14 temporal and spatial coverage, and have also been used to constrain BC sources
15 [Huneeus et al., 2003; Xu et al., 2013]. However, AOD reflects the contribution from
16 all aerosol components, making it difficult to distinguish and quantify different
17 aerosol species, especially their relative fractions.

18 The OMI aerosol absorption optical depth (AAOD), the non-scattering part of the
19 AOD, is an atmospheric column measurement of absorbing aerosol particles, i.e.,
20 absorbing carbon and mineral dust, which provides a different perspective to
21 constrain BC sources [Torres et al., 1998; Koch et al., 2009]. In this study, the
22 GEOS-Chem adjoint model and satellite observations of OMI AAOD are used to

1 constrain spatially resolved BC emissions. Our study will focus on April and October
2 to compare times when the dust loading is relatively large and small over Southeast
3 Asia. Section 2 describes the observations, emissions, and forward and inverse model
4 used in this study. Then we quantify discrepancies between observations and model
5 estimates based on different BC anthropogenic emissions in Section 3. Section 4
6 describes how formulation of the inverse problem affects the results; evaluation of the
7 inversion results with different prior emission inventories and independent
8 observations are presented in Section 5, and we end with discussion and conclusions
9 in Section 6.

10

11 **2. Data and Models**

12 **2.1 Observations**

13 **2.1.1 OMI AAOD**

14 The Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) aboard Aura is a nadir-viewing, wide-swath
15 hyper-spectral imaging spectrometer that provides daily global coverage with high
16 spectral resolutions and spatial resolution of $13 \times 24 \text{ km}^2$ at nadir [Levelt et al.,
17 2006a]. It detects backscattered solar radiance in the ultraviolet-visible wavelengths
18 (0.27 to 0.5 μm) to measure aerosols, clouds, surface UV irradiance, and trace gases
19 [Levelt et al., 2006b]. OMI takes advantage of the greater sensitivity of radiances
20 measured at the top-of-atmosphere in the near-UV region to the varying load and type
21 of aerosols to derive extinction AOD, single scattering albedo (SSA), and AAOD
22 using an inversion procedure at 354, 388 and 500 nm generated by the near-UV

1 (OMAERUV) algorithm [Torres et al., 2007]. The optical depths at 388 nm are
2 inverted from radiance observations while the 354 and 500 nm results are obtained by
3 conversion of the 388 nm retrievals. The OMAERUV retrieval algorithm is
4 particularly sensitive to carbonaceous and mineral aerosols. It assumes that the
5 column aerosol load can be represented by one of three types of aerosols and uses a
6 set of aerosol models to account for the presence of these aerosols: carbonaceous
7 aerosol from biomass burning, desert dust, and weakly absorbing sulfate-based
8 aerosols. Each aerosol type is represented by seven aerosol models of varying single
9 scattering albedo, for a total of twenty-one models. The twenty-one aerosol models
10 used by OMAERUV are based on long-term statistics of ground-based observations
11 by the AERONET. The major factor affecting the quality of aerosol products is sub-
12 pixel cloud contamination, while AAOD is probably less affected by cloud
13 contamination due to a partial cancellation of cloud effects on the retrieved AOD
14 and SSA co-albedo. Due to the large sensitivity of the OMI near UV observations to
15 particle absorption, the AAOD is the most reliable quantitative OMAERUV aerosol
16 parameter, especially over land. The root-mean-square error for AAOD is estimated to
17 be $\sim 0.01^1$. In this study, we used the OMAERUV Level-2 aerosol data product that
18 includes the quality assurance flag, thus only the most reliable retrievals minimally
19 affected by sub-pixel cloud contamination are used [Ahn et al., 2014]. Important
20 algorithm improvements have been implemented in the current OMAERUV
21 algorithm. The carbonaceous aerosol model was replaced with a new model that

¹daac.gsfc.nasa.gov/Aura/data-holdings/OMI/documents/v003/OMAERUV_README_V003.doc

1 accounts for the presence of OC while the previous aerosol model only assumed black
2 carbon as the absorbing component [Jethva and Torres, 2011]. In the revised
3 algorithm, the identification of aerosol type has been improved by taking advantage
4 of the Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS) carbon monoxide (CO) observations in
5 conjunction with OMI UV-AI. The aerosol layer height (ALH) value is taken from a
6 climatology derived from CALIOP (Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal
7 Polarization) observations specifically produced for this purpose [Torres et al., 2013].
8 The Level 2 OMI AAOD data reports a set of retrieved parameters for different
9 assumptions of the altitude of the aerosol center of mass: at the surface, and at 1.5,
10 3.0, 6.0 and 10.0 km above the surface [Torres et al., 2005]. A best-guess set of
11 retrieved values of AOD, AAOD and SSA associated with the climatological ALH
12 value from the CALIOP-based climatology is reported as the standard OMAERUV
13 aerosol product. When the aerosol layer height is not available from CALIOP
14 climatology, the height is obtained as in the previous version of the algorithm based
15 on a climatology of GOCART model simulated aerosol heights. For carbonaceous and
16 desert dust particles, the aerosol load is assumed to be vertically distributed following
17 a Gaussian function characterized by peak (aerosol layer height) and half-width
18 (aerosol layer geometric thickness) values [Torres et al., 2005; Torres et al., 2013].
19 The retrieval values of AAOD are much larger if using the aerosol layer altitude
20 where more absorbing aerosols are loaded. In general, when comparing satellite
21 retrievals of trace gases with other measurements or model simulations, it is essential
22 to take into account the different sensitivities of the instruments by applying

1 averaging kernels [Luo et al., 2007; Worden et al., 2007]. However, there is no
2 averaging kernel for OMI AOD/AAOD retrievals. It is thus important to consider
3 differences in aerosol properties and distributions used in the retrieval algorithm with
4 those in the assimilation model (e.g., GEOS-Chem). The retrieval “Final AAOD”
5 products (OMI_Final) are interpolated values using the aerosol layer height value
6 given by the CALIOP climatology [Torres et al., 2013].

7 OMAERUV retrievals of AOD and SSA have been evaluated by comparison to
8 independent ground-based observations provided by the world-wide Aerosol Robotic
9 Network (AERONET). OMAERUV AOD retrievals at 380 nm were compared to
10 AERONET observations [Ahn et al., 2014]. Over 10,000 matched OMAERUV-
11 AERONET AOD pairs at 44 globally distributed land-locations were analyzed. The
12 AERONET-OMAERUV analysis reported a high level of agreement between the two
13 datasets, yielding a correlation coefficient of 0.81, y-intercept of 0.1, and slope of
14 0.79. Sixty five percent of the analyzed OMAERUV AOD data agreed with
15 AERONET measurements within OMAERUV’s stated uncertainty (largest of 0.1 or
16 30%). The OMAERUV SSA product has also been evaluated using AERONET
17 retrievals. Jethva et al [2014] compared OMAERUV and AERONET SSA retrievals
18 using all available AERONET data at 269 sites for the 2005-2013 period. After
19 accounting for the wavelength difference (AERONET’s 440 nm versus OMAERUV’s
20 388 nm), it was shown that 50% of the satellite SSA retrievals agree with
21 AERONET’s values within 0.03, whereas 75% of the matched pairs agree within 0.05
22 for all aerosol types. The most important source of uncertainty is the effect of sub-

1 pixel cloud contamination, related to the sensor's coarse spatial resolution, that causes
2 AOD and SSA overestimates for cases of low aerosol load, and severely limits the
3 overall retrieval yield of the algorithm.

4 In order to obtain a consistent vertical profile between the OMI retrieval and GEOS-
5 Chem, we use the GEOS-Chem simulated aerosol layer height instead of the
6 CALIOP-based aerosol layer height climatology to calculate a GEOS-Chem-based
7 observed AAOD (referred as OMI_GC AAOD) as a linear interpolation of the OMI
8 observed AAOD values corresponding to different assumed peak heights. Figure 1
9 shows the differences between OMI_Final and OMI_GC AAOD over Southeast Asia
10 for April and October 2006. In April, the enhancements from applying the GEOS-
11 Chem aerosol layer height are quite significant, with 30-50% increases over eastern
12 China and downwind areas while 20-30% increases over India and southeastern Asia,
13 since the simulated aerosol layer heights are much lower than those based on
14 CALIOP. The increases even exceed 60% across broad areas over the tropical ocean.
15 Some reductions are shown over parts of western China and northern Asia in the
16 OMI_GC AAOD. In October, the patterns of enhancement and reduction are similar
17 to those in April, with smaller changes (less than 20%) over broad continental areas.
18 The most significant differences occur near the major aerosol source regions, such as
19 eastern China and South Asia. We also evaluate the linearity of the relationship
20 between aerosol layer height and AAOD from OMI retrievals. We find (not shown)
21 that there is less than 30% error in linearly interpolating AAOD corresponding to a
22 specific aerosol layer height from the AAODs corresponding to two other aerosol

1 layer heights.

2 **2.1.2 AERONET AAOD**

3 The Aerosol Robotic Network (AERONET) is a ground-based instrument network
4 providing a long-term, continuous and readily accessible public domain database of
5 aerosol optical, microphysical and radiative properties [Holben et al., 1998].
6 AERONET inversion code provides aerosol optical properties (including size
7 distribution, refractive index, and single scattering albedo) in the total atmospheric
8 column derived from the direct and diffuse radiation measured by Cimel sun/sky-
9 radiometers [Dubovik and King, 2000; Dubovik et al., 2000, 2002a, 2002b; Dubovik
10 et al., 2006; Sinyuk et al., 2007].

11 We use Level 2.0 quality-assured AERONET aerosol inversions data of AAOD at 440
12 nm. The prefield and postfield calibrations have been applied in these measurements
13 and they were cloud cleared and manually inspected [Omar et al., 2013]. The total
14 uncertainty in the AERONET AOD for field instruments is ± 0.1 to ± 0.2 and is
15 spectrally dependent with the higher errors (± 0.2) in the UV spectral range [Eck et al.,
16 1999]. The retrieved single scattering albedo uncertainties were within 0.03,
17 estimated by Dubovik et al., [2000], with the exception of the 0.44 μm retrievals for
18 the desert dust case when they increased by ~ 0.09 and 0.07 for low and high aerosol
19 loadings, respectively [Sinyuk et al., 2007]. In this study, only the AAOD data
20 corresponding to AOD values greater than 0.4 are include.

21 **2.1.3 In situ measurements**

22 For the monthly surface BC observation over Southeast Asia, we combine the in situ

1 measurements of BC concentration based on several published studies [Zhang et al.,
2 2008; Beegum et al., 2009; Moorthy et al., 2013]. Over China, the monthly surface
3 BC concentrations are from 12 sites, including urban sites and rural sites for April and
4 October, 2006, which were based on results of Zhang et al. [2008]. The locations of
5 these 12 sites are shown in Fig. 2. The BC concentrations are analyzed using thermo-
6 chemical analysis from PM₁₀ aerosols, which were collected by air sample [Zhang et
7 al., 2008]. The daily BC measurements are only available at the site of Xi'an (XIA).
8 The PM_{2.5} BC concentrations were measured continuously as 5-min averages by
9 quartzfiber filter tape transmission at an 880 nm wavelength with an aethalometer
10 [Hansen et al., 1984]. More details about the measurement methods are described by
11 Cao et al. [2007; 2009].

12 The measurements of monthly surface BC concentrations for 2006 using
13 aethalometers over India were based on Beegum et al. [2009] and Moorthy et al.
14 [2013], which were carried out in eight sites (see Table 1) covering India and adjacent
15 oceanic regions. Locations of these sites are indicated in Fig. 2. More details about
16 the measurements and sites are described by Beegum et al. [2009]. DEL and KGP
17 represent urban and semi-urban sites in the Indo-Gangetic Plain (IGP). HYD and
18 PUN represent urban locations. TVM is a semi-urban coastal station in the south
19 India; NTL is a high altitude location in the central Himalayas, and MCY and PBR
20 are two island locations representing the Arabian Sea and Bay of Bengal, respectively.

21 **2.2 GEOS-Chem**

1 GEOS-Chem is a global three-dimension chemical transport model driven by
2 assimilated meteorological observations from the Goddard Earth Observing System
3 (GEOS) of the NASA Global Modeling and Assimilation Office (GMAO) [Bey et al.,
4 2001]. We use the nested-grid GEOS-Chem model [Wang et al., 2004; Chen et al.,
5 2009] driven by GEOS-5 meteorological fields with 6-hour temporal resolution (3-
6 hour for surface variables and mixing depths), 0.5° (latitude) \times 0.667° (longitude)
7 horizontal resolution over the window of Southeast Asia (70°E – 150°E , 11°S – 55°N),
8 and 47 vertical layers between the surface and 0.01 hPa. A global simulation with
9 lower resolution of 4° (latitude) \times 5° (longitude) provides the lateral boundary
10 conditions to the higher resolution nested-grid simulation every 3 hours.

11 The original carbonaceous aerosol simulation in GEOS-Chem was developed by Park
12 et al. [2003]. It assumes that 80% of BC and 50% of OC emitted from primary
13 sources are hydrophobic and that hydrophobic aerosols become hydrophilic with an e-
14 folding time of 1.15 days [Park et al., 2003; Chin et al., 2002; Cooke et al., 1999].
15 Dust in GEOS-Chem is distributed across four size bins (radii 0.1– 1.0, 1.0–1.8, 1.8–
16 3.0, and 3.0–6.0 μm) following Ginoux et al. [2004]. The smallest size bin is further
17 divided equally into four sub-micron size bins (with effective radii centered at 0.15,
18 0.25, 0.4 and 0.8 μm) for calculation of optical properties and heterogeneous
19 chemistry [Fairlie et al., 2010; Ridley et al., 2012]. Due to the significant positive
20 biases identified in GEOS-Chem dust simulations both in surface concentration and
21 dust AOD [Fairlie et al., 2010, Ku and Park, 2011; Ridley et al., 2012; Wang et al.,
22 2012], a new emitted dust particle size distribution (PSD) based upon scale-invariant

1 fragmentation theory [Kok, 2011] with constraints from in situ measurements [Zhao
2 et al., 2010] is implemented in GEOS-Chem to improve the dust simulation [Zhang et
3 al., 2013]. Large discrepancies are reduced between the simulated surface-level fine
4 dust concentration and measurements from the IMPROVE network in the western US
5 during March to May of 2006 [Zhang et al., 2013]. The new PSD also improves the
6 positive biases of AOD over the Asian and African dust source region in April 2006
7 (See Fig. S1 in supplemental). The wet deposition scheme [Liu et al., 2001] includes
8 scavenging in convective updrafts as well as in-cloud and below-cloud scavenging
9 from convective and large-scale precipitation. Dry deposition is based on the
10 resistance-in-series scheme of Wesely [1989] as implemented by Wang et al. [1998].
11 The aerosol optical depth at 400 nm is calculated online assuming log-normal size
12 distributions of externally mixed aerosols and is a function of the local relative
13 humidity to account for hygroscopic growth [Martin et al., 2003]. The AAOD of each
14 aerosol species is calculated as [Ma et al., 2012; Cohen and Wang, 2014; Cohen,
15 2014]

$$16 \quad \text{AAOD} = \text{AOD} * (1 - \text{SSA}) \quad (1),$$

17 where SSA is the single scattering albedo.

18 **2.3 BC Emission Inventories**

19 Emissions of BC from biomass burning sources are taken from version 2 of the GFED
20 8-day inventory [van der Werf et al., 2006; Randerson et al., 2006]. GFED v2 is
21 derived using satellite observations of active fire counts and burned areas in
22 conjunction with the Carnegie-Ames-Stanford-Approach (CASA) biogeochemical

1 model. Carbon emissions are calculated as the product of burned area, fuel load and
2 combustion completeness. Burned area is derived using the active fire and 500-meter
3 burned area datasets from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer
4 (MODIS) as described by Giglio et al. [2006]. We also use a newer version of GFED
5 v3 daily emissions for sensitivity analysis [van derWerf et al., 2010]. Compared to
6 GFED v2, the main update in GFED v3 is the spatial resolution of the global grid is
7 quadrupled from 1° to 0.5° , the native 500-m MODIS daily burned area maps are
8 applied [Giglio et al., 2010], the regional regression trees of GFEDv2 are replaced by
9 a local regression approach in producing the indirect, active-fire based estimates of
10 burned area, and a revised version of Carnegie-Ames Stanford Approach (CASA)
11 biogeochemical model is used.

12 Global anthropogenic emissions for carbonaceous aerosols (BC/OC) in GEOS-Chem
13 are originally from Bond et al. [2004, 2007], which contain both biofuel and fossil
14 fuel emissions. The estimated BC emissions uncertainties are -36% to 149% over
15 China and 38% to -119% for India [Bond et al., 2004; Lu et al., 2011]. In this study,
16 we evaluate three additional carbonaceous anthropogenic emission inventories over
17 Southeast Asia and China: the Streets regional inventory for Intercontinental
18 Chemical Transport Experiment - Phase B (INTEX-B), the Southeast Asia
19 Composition, Cloud, Climate Coupling Regional Study (SEAC⁴RS) emission
20 inventory, and the Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC,
21 <http://www.meicmodel.org/>). Anthropogenic emissions are all classified into four
22 major sectors: power generation, industry, residential and transport. The INTEX-B

1 inventory is based on 2006 and contains monthly variations with $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$
2 horizontal resolution over Southeast Asia (Zhang et al., 2009). The SEAC⁴RS
3 inventory is an annual, finer resolution inventory based on 2012, with $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$
4 horizontal resolution over Southeast Asia [Lu et al., 2011]. The average uncertainties
5 of BC are estimated to be -43% to 90% over China, which are much lower than those
6 of the INTEX-B between -68% to 308% [Zhang et al., 2009; Lu et al., 2011]. The
7 MEIC emission inventory over China also includes monthly variations and is
8 provided at the $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ horizontal resolution. These four anthropogenic emission
9 inventories are regridded to the GEOS-Chem resolution of $0.5^\circ \times 0.667^\circ$, and their
10 annual emissions are shown in Fig. 3. The differences in these inventories exceed
11 100% across broad areas, especially over India and eastern China. The anthropogenic
12 emission inventory of INTEX-B is comparable to that of MEIC over eastern China
13 while lower than that of Bond and SEAC⁴RS over western China and India. Both
14 Bond and SEAC⁴RS inventories are lower over central and eastern China compared to
15 those of INTEX-B and MEIC inventories. With much finer resolution, the SEAC⁴RS
16 emission inventory indicates more hot spots spread across eastern and central China
17 and the IGP and eastern India where rural population densities are high and residential
18 coal and biofuel combustion are prevalent [Lu et al., 2011].

19 **2.4 GEOS-Chem Adjoint and Inverse Modeling**

20 An adjoint model is a set of equations auxiliary to a forward model that are used to
21 efficiently calculate the gradient of a scalar model response function with respect to
22 all model parameters simultaneously [Lions, 1971]. The adjoint of GEOS-Chem was

1 developed specifically for inverse modeling including explicit treatment of gas-phase
 2 chemistry, heterogeneous chemistry, black and organic primary aerosol, as well as the
 3 treatment of the thermodynamic couplings of the sulfate-ammonium-nitrate-formation
 4 chemistry [Henze et al., 2007; 2009], with code updates following the relevant parts
 5 of the GEOS-Chem forward model up through version v9. The GEOS-Chem adjoint
 6 model has been developed and widely used to constrain sources of emission such as
 7 dust [Wang et al., 2012], ammonia [Zhu et al., 2013], CO [Kopacz et al., 2009;
 8 Kopacz et al., 2010; Jiang et al., 2011], CH₄ [Wecht et al., 2012; Wecht et al., 2014],
 9 and to investigate pollution transport [e.g., Zhang et al., 2009, Kopacz et al., 2011].

10 The 4D variational data assimilation technique is used with the GEOS-Chem
 11 adjoint model to combine observations and models to calculate an optimal estimate of
 12 emissions. A range of emissions are constructed using control variables, $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$, to adjust
 13 the vector of model emissions via application as scaling factors with elements $\sigma = \frac{E}{E_a}$,
 14 where E and E_a are posterior and prior BC emission vectors, respectively. This
 15 method of inverse modeling seeks $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ that minimizes the cost function, \mathcal{J} , presented
 16 by:

$$22 \quad \mathcal{J} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\mathbf{c} \in \Omega} (H\mathbf{c} - \mathbf{c}_{obs})^T \mathbf{S}_{obs}^{-1} (H\mathbf{c} - \mathbf{c}_{obs}) + \frac{1}{2} \gamma_r (\boldsymbol{\sigma} - \boldsymbol{\sigma}_a)^T \mathbf{S}_a^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\sigma} - \boldsymbol{\sigma}_a) \quad (2),$$

17 where \mathbf{c} is the vector of species concentrations mapped to the observation space by H ,
 18 the observation operator, \mathbf{c}_{obs} is the vector of species observations, $\boldsymbol{\sigma}_a$ is the prior
 19 estimate of the scaling factors, \mathbf{S}_{obs} and \mathbf{S}_a are error covariance estimates of the
 20 observations and scaling factors, respectively, and Ω is the domain over which
 21 observations are available. The first term of the cost function in Eq. (2) is the

1 observation term, which is the total prediction error incurred for departure of model
2 predictions from the observations. The second term, the a priori term or penalty
3 (background) term, is the penalty incurred for departure from the prior emissions.
4 Here \mathbf{S}_a is assumed to be diagonal, and the significance of the prior information is
5 more of a smoothness constraint than a rigorous estimate of prior uncertainty
6 [Rodgers, 2000]. γ_r is a regularization parameter, which used to balance the two terms
7 [Hansen 1998; Henze et al., 2009]. We will discuss the contributions of the penalty
8 term in Section 4.2.

9 Overall, the minimum value of the cost function balances the objectives of improving
10 model performance while ensuring the model itself remains within a reasonable range
11 (as dictated by \mathbf{S}_a^{-1}) of the initial model. The minimum of the cost function is sought
12 iteratively using the quasi-Newton L-BFGS-B algorithm [Zhu et al., 1994; Byrd et al.,
13 1995]. This approach requires the gradients of the cost function with respect to the
14 emission scaling factors at each iteration, which are calculated with the GEOS-Chem
15 adjoint model.

16 **2.5 Cost function and adjoint forcing**

17 OMI_GC AAOD column observations represent the combined absorption of all
18 aerosols species (dominated by BC, dust, and to a lesser extent OC). Similarly,
19 modeled total column AAOD, \mathbf{T}_{GC} , is the sum of modeled column absorption from
20 BC (\mathbf{T}_{GC_BC}), OC (\mathbf{T}_{GC_OC}) and dust (\mathbf{T}_{GC_Dust}):

$$21 \quad \mathbf{T}_{GC} = \mathbf{T}_{GC_BC} + \mathbf{T}_{GC_OC} + \mathbf{T}_{GC_Dust} \quad (3).$$

22 In order to use AAOD observations to develop constraints on BC alone, we must

1 formulate the observation term of the cost function to isolate the impacts of BC on the
2 difference between simulated and observed AAOD. Here we consider four
3 approaches: methods (a) – (d). The first two methods use modeled ratios of BC to
4 total absorption (either in each layer (a), or the total column (b)) to derive an
5 “observed” BC AAOD. Method (c) makes a direct comparison between total AAOD
6 in the model and measurements. Lastly, in method (d), we also consider using a
7 subset of the OMI data that has been flagged in the retrieval process as being
8 impacted by carbonaceous aerosol. These different approaches to constructing a cost
9 function, and the gradient of these cost functions with respect to the vertically
10 resolved modeled BC concentration (i.e., the adjoint forcing) are presented below.
11 Here we do not consider the penalty term in the cost function in order most clearly
12 assess how formulation of the observation term impacts the inversion. The
13 consequences of the different cost function formulations are described in Section 4.1.

14 (a): In this method, the observation term of the cost function can be written as:

$$15 \quad \mathcal{J} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i^N \sum_{l=1}^L (\tau_{GC_BC,l,i} - \tau_{OMI_BC,l,i})^2 * \mathbf{S}_{OMI,i}^{-2} \quad (4),$$

16 where L is the top of atmosphere, N is the total number of observations, and $\tau_{GC_BC,l,i}$
17 and $\tau_{OMI_BC,l,i}$ are the modeled and observed BC AAODs at layer l for the i^{th}
18 observation, respectively. The latter is calculated for any i from the OMI column
19 AAOD ($\mathbf{T}_{OMI,i}$) using the ratio of vertically resolved BC AAOD to column AAOD in
20 the prior model,

$$21 \quad \tau_{OMI_BC,l,i} = \mathbf{T}_{OMI,i} \frac{\tau_{GC_BC,l,i}^a}{\mathbf{T}_{GC,i}^a} \quad (5),$$

1 where superscript a indicates the prior model estimates. Since the ratio $\frac{\tau_{GC_BC,i}^a}{\mathbf{T}_{GC,i}^a}$ is a
 2 constant throughout the inversion, the i^{th} adjoint forcing is

$$3 \quad \frac{\partial \mathcal{J}}{\partial BC_1} = \frac{\partial \tau_{GC_BC,i}}{\partial BC_1} * \left(\tau_{GC_BC,i} - \mathbf{T}_{OMI,i} \frac{\tau_{GC_BC,i}^a}{\mathbf{T}_{GC,i}^a} \right) * \mathbf{S}_{OMI,i}^{-2} \quad (6).$$

4 (b) In this method, the cost function is based on BC AAOD column differences:

$$5 \quad \mathcal{J} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i^N (\mathbf{T}_{GC_BC,i} - \mathbf{T}_{OMI_BC,i})^2 * \mathbf{S}_{OMI,i}^{-2} \quad (7).$$

6 The observed BC AAOD column is calculated from the OMI_GC AAOD column and
 7 the ratio of modeled column BC AAOD to total column AAOD from the prior
 8 simulation:

$$9 \quad \mathbf{T}_{OMI_BC,i} = \mathbf{T}_{OMI,i} \frac{\tau_{GC_BC,i}^a}{\mathbf{T}_{GC,i}^a} \quad (8).$$

10 The i^{th} adjoint forcing is thus

$$11 \quad \frac{\partial \mathcal{J}}{\partial BC_1} = \frac{\partial \tau_{GC_BC,i}}{\partial BC_1} * \left(\mathbf{T}_{GC_BC,i} - \mathbf{T}_{OMI,i} \frac{\tau_{GC_BC,i}^a}{\mathbf{T}_{GC,i}^a} \right) * \mathbf{S}_{OMI,i}^{-2} \quad (9).$$

12 (c) The observation term of the cost function can be written in terms of total column
 13 absorption as:

$$14 \quad \mathcal{J} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i^N (\mathbf{T}_{GC,i} - \mathbf{T}_{OMI,i})^2 * \mathbf{S}_{OMI,i}^{-2} \quad (10).$$

15 In this case, the adjoint forcing is

$$16 \quad \frac{\partial \mathcal{J}}{\partial BC_1} = \frac{\partial \tau_{GC_BC,i}}{\partial BC_1} * (\mathbf{T}_{GC_BC,i} + \mathbf{T}_{GC_OC,i} + \mathbf{T}_{GC_Dust,i} - \mathbf{T}_{OMI,i}) * \mathbf{S}_{OMI,i}^{-2} \quad (11).$$

17 (d) The OMI OMAERUV retrievals algorithm also flags instances for which the
 18 retrieval algorithm relied upon the presence of carbonaceous aerosols. Using only
 19 these retrievals, the observation term of the cost function can be written in terms of
 20 the direct difference between simulated columns BC AAOD and BC flagged OMI
 21 AAOD observations:

$$J = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i^N (\mathbf{T}_{GC_BC,i} - \mathbf{T}_{OMI_BC_Flag,i})^2 * \mathbf{S}_{OMI_BC,i}^{-2} \quad (12).$$

where $\mathbf{T}_{OMI_BC_Flag}$ is the OMI AAOD flagged for the presence of carbonaceous aerosols (OMI_GC AAOD_BC, which is different than Eq. 5 or 8 which depend upon prior model ratios). In this case, the gradient of the cost function with respect to BC concentration at the layer l will be

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial BC_l} = \frac{\partial \tau_{GC_BC,l,i}}{\partial BC_l} * (\mathbf{T}_{GC_BC,i} - \mathbf{T}_{OMI_BC_Flag,i}) * \mathbf{S}_{OMI_BC,i}^{-2} \quad (13).$$

The implications of the different cost function formulations will be described in Section 4.1.

3 Impacts of BC anthropogenic emission uncertainties

In this section, we quantify the extent to which differences in anthropogenic emission inventories contribute to uncertainties in simulated surface BC and AAOD. Here, the SEAC⁴RS emission inventory is appended to the MEIC emission inventory outside of China for the Southeast Asian nested simulation (MEIC_SEAC⁴RS). Figure 4 shows the impact of different BC anthropogenic emission inventories on simulated surface BC concentrations and comparisons to in situ measurements over China [Zhang et al., 2008, Cao et al., 2009]. The monthly and daily ground-based measurements at sites representative of four different regions are shown: northern China (Gucheng, GUC), northeastern China (Longfengshan, LFS), southern China (Nanning, NAN), and midwestern China (XiAn, XIA). Generally, the modeled and observed BC concentrations are higher in winter than in summer. In addition to enhanced anthropogenic emissions during the winter [Fu et al., 2012], the Asian summer monsoon plays an important role in this seasonal cycle by reducing aerosol

1 concentrations in the summer over China [Zhang et al., 2010]. Though the model
2 simulation is able to capture the seasonal variability, it underestimates surface BC
3 concentration at the urban sites, such as GUC, NAN, and XIA, with all of these
4 anthropogenic emission inventories, except at NAN, where the SEAC⁴RS inventory
5 leads to values as high or higher than observed, but the seasonal variation has not yet
6 been reproduced. With the INTEX-B and MEICS inventory, though the surface BC
7 concentrations are underestimated at some background and rural sites [Fu et al., 2012;
8 Wang et al., 2013], the simulated BC surface concentrations at the rural site of LFS
9 are quite comparable to the observation, especially the seasonal variations. The
10 INTEX-B and MEIC inventories improve the BC concentrations in winter with the
11 inclusion of monthly variability over China compared to the inventories of Bond and
12 SEAC⁴RS.

13 The spatial distributions of simulated surface BC concentrations using
14 MEIC_SEAC⁴RS and INTEX-B inventories are compared to the in situ observation at
15 20 sites over Southeast Asia for April and October 2006 in Fig. 5. The east to west
16 gradient in China and the north to south gradient in India are not well reproduced by
17 the model, where the simulated BC concentrations are much lower over eastern China
18 and the IGP for both April and October, especially for the urban areas since the model
19 is unable to resolve individual urban hot spots [Fu et al., 2012].

20 Figure 6a shows the differences in monthly average AAOD between the model using
21 the MEIC_SEAC⁴RS inventory and OMI (former minus latter) for April and October
22 2006. GEOS-Chem underestimates AAOD compared to OMI across broad areas of

1 Southeast Asia in April, especially eastern China and the IGP. In October, AAOD is
2 underpredicted over northern China while it is over predicted over eastern China and
3 most of South Asia. Corresponding OMI data counts towards the monthly average at
4 each grid cell are shown in Fig. 6b. In general, more data are available over northern
5 China and India. We note that the data counts are much lower in October compared to
6 April over southern China and the Indo China Peninsular, where the observations are
7 overestimated. Sparse OMI observations over these areas may result in apparent high
8 or low biases. If we only take into account the OMI_GC AAOD_BC retrievals, the
9 differences and corresponding OMI data counts for April and October are shown in
10 Fig. 7. The spatial distributions are quite similar to those using all AAOD
11 observations shown in Fig. 6, but with much larger negative differences over Asia in
12 April and over northern China and IGP in October. The data counts are also smaller
13 when only considering the OMI_GC AAOD_BC observations, especially over the
14 dust source regions and downwind areas in April and broad areas over South Asia in
15 October.

16 We also compared the observed to simulated AAOD using different emission
17 inventories (figures not shown here). The simulated AAOD is comparable using
18 INTEX-B and MEIC emission inventories over eastern China, while it is much lower
19 than the OMI column retrieval using the inventories of Bond and SEAC⁴RS. With the
20 SEAC⁴RS inventories, the simulated AAOD over the IGP shows enhancements
21 compared to that using Bond and INTEX-B inventories.

22 **4. Uncertainties of observation and penalty terms**

1 **4.1 Adjoint forcing**

2 As described in Section 2.5, there are four methods to formulate the observation term
3 of the cost function owing to different approaches of deriving an “observed” BC
4 AAOD. We perform sensitivity experiments to quantify the impact of using these
5 different formulations. For these tests, only the observation term is considered in the
6 cost function (i.e., the penalty term is not included), and we use the same
7 anthropogenic emission inventory (MEIC_SEAC⁴RS) as the prior emissions for each
8 test. Figure 8 shows the results of the differences between optimized and prior
9 anthropogenic BC emissions based on the four approaches.

10 Qualitatively, there are many noticeable differences between the optimization results
11 using the different formulations of the observation operator. In April, enhanced
12 anthropogenic BC emissions are shown over broad areas using all four methods.
13 However, slight reductions appear over eastern China and southern India when using
14 method (b), (c) and (d). In particular, method (c) results in lower posterior emissions
15 over China. The results of methods (c) and (d) are quite consistent except the
16 enhancements of posterior emissions over southern India occur using method (d).
17 Similarly, although the four optimized patterns are quite consistent in October, much
18 larger areas of BC emissions reduction result from using method (c). The reductions
19 of method (d) are similar to that of method (c) over eastern China, while quite
20 different over India with significantly enhanced posterior emissions.

21 The differences in results are related to different assumptions implicit in the various
22 forms of the cost function considered. Both method (a) and method (b) depend on the

1 relative ratio of BC to other absorbing aerosol (e.g. dust, OC) in the model. Further,
2 method (a) introduces a stronger dependency on the GEOS-Chem prior vertical
3 distribution, since the observation operator includes three dimensions with all vertical
4 layers, compared to the column based method (b). Since there are more observations
5 over IGP and northeastern China in April, this stronger constraint may enhance the
6 negative forcing due to the model underestimation, which leads to increasing
7 emissions. Since, through the adjustment of the OMI data to generate the OMI_GC
8 product, we have already used the GEOS-Chem prior information on the aerosol
9 vertical distribution, it seems preferable to adopt a column-based approach for the
10 assimilation. Though both method (b) and method (c) are based on the column
11 AAOD, the former assumes that the relative contributions of BC to total AAOD in the
12 model is correct, while the latter assumes that absolute contributions of OC and dust
13 are correct. The simulated total AAOD might not be equivalent to the observed
14 AAOD after optimization in both method (a) and method (b) since the adjoint forcing
15 only accounts for the BC AAOD. In addition, the results would highly depend on the
16 model performance in simulating the ratio between BC and other absorbing aerosol.
17 There are no significant biases for the GEOS-Chem simulated fraction of coarse model
18 dust mass [Wang et al., 2012, Philip et al., 2014], which suggests that the simulated
19 dust AAOD fraction is likely unbiased. However the simulated mass of both BC and
20 OC in GEOS-Chem are biased low [Heald et al., 2005; Fu et al., 2012]. We thus
21 adopt method (c), since the strength of the adjoint forcing with respect to BC sources
22 depends upon the BC absolute contribution in AAOD rather than the relative

1 contribution of method (b), which may have less model dependency in simulating the
2 distribution of other aerosols. The major differences between method (c) and method
3 (d) are the available observation data counts, as the data counts of the latter are much
4 fewer than the former. In April, the pattern of optimized emissions using method (c)
5 and method (d) are quite consistent, suggesting that BC AAOD play a dominant role
6 in contributing to the total AAOD. We will adopt method (c) for the following
7 experiments and also discuss method (d) in section 5.4 for comparison.

8 **4.2 Penalty Term**

9 The inclusion of a penalty, or background term, in the cost function is a key factor for
10 inverse modeling. It is specified through the prior (background) error covariance
11 matrix, \mathbf{S}_a , and a regularization parameter γ_r . In the absence of rigorous statistical
12 information on the error covariance of the emissions, we assume the errors are
13 uncorrelated and use an L-curve selection criterion to identify an optimal value of γ_r
14 [Hansen, 1998; Henze et al., 2009]. The uncertainties of BC are assumed to be 100%
15 of the maximum BC emissions over the simulation domain. Thus, the optimal values
16 of γ_r are selected to be 0.5 for April and 1.0 for October based on the
17 MEIC_SEAC⁴RS emission and the cost function in Eq. (10). The contribution of the
18 penalty term results in smaller adjustments to emissions, as the regularized results
19 prefer smoother solutions than those of the unconstrained inversion tests in Fig. 8.
20 Here we assume a single constant value for \mathbf{S}_a along the diagonal and no off-diagonal
21 terms.

22

1 **5. Analysis of Optimizations**

2 We next proceed to constrain Southeast Asian BC sources using OMI_GC AAOD.
3 The OMI_GC AAOD observations are compared to model estimates from GEOS-
4 Chem nested simulation for April and October 2006 using the difference between
5 simulated total AAOD and observed OMI_GC AAOD (i.e., Eq. (10)). Tens of
6 thousands of OMI retrievals per month are available for the assimilation, but not all of
7 the retrievals are usable. In the presence of cirrus clouds, retrievals errors are
8 significant. The effect of optically thin cirrus is similar to that of subpixel cloud
9 contamination. As plumes of dust or smoke aerosol drift away from their source
10 regions, they become mixed with clouds. This problem is particularly evident over the
11 oceans, which are frequently covered with thin cirrus and fair-weather cumulus
12 clouds. Generally, the retrieved AAOD shows a reduced coverage especially over the
13 oceans due to cloud contamination and the effects of sun glint [Torres et al., 2007].
14 Thus, quality and diagnostic flags are defined to classify and filter the retrievals. In
15 October, only observations north of 5°N are included for data assimilation to
16 minimize contributions of biomass burning from Indonesian fires.

17 **5.1 Optimized emissions**

18 Considering the performances of the four emission inventories discussed in Section
19 2.3, the following optimized results will mainly focus on using the MEIC_SEAC⁴RS
20 and INTEX-B inventories. The prior and posterior (optimized) BC emissions from
21 anthropogenic sources are shown in Fig. 9. Overall, the results show an enhancement
22 in BC emissions over broad areas of Southeast Asia, with adjustments that are

1 seasonally and spatially heterogeneous. This is consistent with the top-down
2 constraints on BC emissions based on ground-base measurements by Fu et al., [2012],
3 which also show that the BC emissions are greatly enhanced across broad areas of
4 China, in particular northern and central China and the megacity clusters. In April,
5 either using MEIC_SEAC⁴RS or INTEX-B inventories, large increases of up to a
6 factor of 3-5 are shown after optimization. The largest enhancements occur sharply in
7 eastern China and the IGP in April by up to a factor of five (Fig. 9). Other large
8 increases are located in South Asia, northeastern and northwestern China. There is a
9 small decrease in anthropogenic BC in part of southwestern China. That is quite
10 different from the inversion results based on AOD by Xu et al. [2013], wherein the
11 optimized anthropogenic BC emissions are reduced by 9.1% over China, even though
12 the prior BC anthropogenic emissions that they used are from Bond et al., [2004,
13 2007], which much lower than what we used. The dust scheme had not yet been
14 updated and modified in Xu et al., [2013] following the revised particle size
15 distribution suggested in Zhang et al. [2013]. Thus it is possible that overestimated
16 dust and AOD projected a model bias onto adjustments of emissions of all type of
17 aerosols over dust regions and downwind areas, such as eastern China. Considering
18 the dust season in April, we also perform a sensitivity experiment to quantify the
19 uncertainty of dust impacts on the inversion results by doubling the dust emission in
20 April. The general pattern of the optimized anthropogenic BC emissions are
21 consistent with that of the standard inversion, with a maximum differences less than
22 20%.

1 However, the adjustments of anthropogenic BC emissions before and after
2 optimization in October are different than those in April (Fig. 10). The optimization of
3 anthropogenic emissions yields a slight reduction (1~5%) over central India and part
4 of southern China and an increase by 10~50% over eastern and northern China, as
5 well as northwestern India.

6 Though the adjusted patterns of optimized BC emission are basically comparable by
7 using MEIC_SEAC⁴RS and INTEX-B inventories, significant differences are located
8 over India and eastern China (Fig. 11). We also note that the differences in the
9 optimized results are almost the same as those of the prior emissions between
10 MEIC_SEAC⁴RS and INTEX-B inventories. The ratio between their posterior
11 differences and prior differences (see Fig. 11, right column) shows that the
12 optimization increases their differences, relative to the prior, over broad areas over
13 China and India up to a factor of three in April, with only slight decreases over south
14 India. In October, optimization decreases the posterior differences between
15 MEIC_SEAC⁴RS and INTEX-B emission inventories relative to the prior by 10-20%
16 over southern and most of India. Areas where prior differences are increased/reduced
17 are consistent with the areas where the emissions increase/decrease after optimization
18 (see Fig. 10). This suggests that absolute errors in the prior emissions may be larger
19 than the relative prior uncertainty percentages considered here.

20 In addition to reducing the bias of the emissions, it is important to consider how much
21 the inversion has reduced uncertainty in the emissions. A new method based on the
22 Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno (BFGS) algorithm is used to estimate the

1 posterior uncertainty [Bousserez et al., 2014]. The posterior error reductions are up to
2 30% and 15% in April and October over the IGP and eastern China, where the
3 anthropogenic emission enhancements were the largest (Figure 9 and 10). The prior
4 errors do not change across broad areas, where the changes of optimized emissions
5 are relatively smaller.

6 While the most substantial adjustments are made to anthropogenic emissions, biomass
7 burning emission are also adjusted. The most significant increases are over South
8 Asia and eastern Europe in April, especially, the indo-China peninsula and eastern
9 Russia (figures not shown). The optimized biomass burning emissions in October
10 have the largest enhancements are over south Borneo and Sumatra. Similar to the
11 optimized anthropogenic emission, there is also not much change for the optimized
12 biomass burning emission throughout India and and indo-China peninsula in October.
13 To examine the impacts of different prior anthropogenic inventories on optimized
14 biomass burning emissions, we consider the following ratios:

$$15 \quad \frac{\Delta MEIC_SEAC4RS_{GFED3} - \Delta MEIC_SEAC4RS_{GFED2}}{GFED3 - GFED2} \quad (14).$$

16 Eq. 14 shows how changes in anthropogenic emissions during the optimization
17 compare when using two different biomass burning inventories, relative to the
18 difference in these biomass burning inventories themselves. Large values of this ratio
19 indicate regions where our top-down constrains on anthropogenic emissions are more
20 sensitive to errors in the prior biomass burning inventories, such as over eastern China
21 and the southern IGP (Fig. 12).

22 **5.2 Optimized BC AAOD**

1 The largest uncertainty reductions are obtained over eastern China and the IGP, so
2 here we consider AAOD in these regions alone. Fig. 13 shows the observed and
3 simulated BC AAOD over eastern China (105° - 125° E, 20° - 45° N) before and after
4 optimization in green along with linear line slope equation and correlation R^2 . Here
5 the observed BC AAOD is derived from the OMI_GC AAOD and the prior ratio of
6 simulated BC AAOD versus total AAOD. The prior BC AAOD is misrepresented and
7 underestimated compared to observation over eastern China, especially in April. The
8 low biases of the prior slopes are improved after optimization in April and October by
9 132% and 11%, respectively. Similar to the optimized BC concentrations, the
10 improvements in October after optimization are less significant than in April. There
11 are only slight changes in correlation coefficients, which may due to the large number
12 of samples in both spatial and temporal dimensions across which variations are not in
13 the same directions. In the IGP area, which we define as (70° - 90° E, 23° - 32° N), the
14 low biases of prior BC AAOD are much larger than those in eastern China (Fig. 14).
15 The values of most observed BC AAOD are lower than 0.3 and the slopes are 0.22
16 and 0.28 in April and October. After optimization, the slope increase by 155% and the
17 correlation coefficients change from 0.2 to 0.25 in April. In October, there is a 32%
18 increase in slope and the correlation coefficient doubles but still remains small (from
19 0.06 to 0.12).

20 Though slopes improve after optimization for both eastern China and India, they still
21 show considerable lower biases. This results, in part, from constraints of the penalty
22 term. Additionally, we note that many prior AAOD values are very small and close to

1 zero. These are hard for the optimization routine to adjust significantly in the areas
 2 where the values of prior emission are very small or close to zero. Since the
 3 optimization scheme is based on the use of emissions scaling factors, large gradients
 4 with respect to BC concentrations will result in small gradients with respect to
 5 emissions scaling factors in locations with small emissions. To test how much this
 6 formulation restricts the inversion, a sensitivity experiment was performed assuming
 7 uniform prior emissions in all grid boxes. This facilitates adjustments to prior
 8 emissions throughout the domain, resulting in larger posterior AAOD after
 9 optimization. However, the resulting spatial distributions and gradients of
 10 anthropogenic emissions are not realistic (e.g., large emissions are not placed in
 11 known source areas). Alternatively, instead of adjusting emissions through application
 12 of scaling factors, σ , to the a priori emissions, the BC emissions themselves could be
 13 treated as the control variables in the cost function (Eq. 15). Another sensitivity
 14 experiment is performed for April 2006, inverting for the emissions themselves rather
 15 than the emissions scaling factors. Figure S2 in supplemental shows the total
 16 emissions (summed across sectors) after optimization using different inversion
 17 approaches. Fig. S2a is result based on the scaling factor as describe by Eq. 2 in
 18 Section 2.4 that the range of emissions are constructed using scaling factors as control
 19 variables to adjust the vector of model emissions. Fig. S2b shows the results when
 20 emissions are constrained directly as the control variables in the penalty term as:

$$21 \quad J = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\mathbf{c} \in \Omega} (H\mathbf{c} - \mathbf{c}_{obs})^T \mathbf{S}_{obs}^{-1} (H\mathbf{c} - \mathbf{c}_{obs}) + \frac{1}{2} \gamma_r (\mathbf{E} - \mathbf{E}_a)^T \mathbf{S}_a^{-1} (\mathbf{E} - \mathbf{E}_a) \quad (15).$$

22 This formulation allows the inversion to place significant emissions in areas where

1 the prior emissions are very small or close to zero. The optimized emissions over the
2 larger prior source areas, such as northeastern China and the middle IGP, are smaller
3 than when optimizing scaling factors. These sensitivity tests demonstrate the value of
4 using the prior emissions inventories, either explicitly or implicitly through scaling
5 factors, in terms of constraining the magnitude of known sources, and the downside in
6 terms of the difficulty in introducing new sources through the inversion.

7 We also evaluate (Fig. 15) the prior and posterior simulated AAOD against the OMI
8 and AERONET daily average AAOD at 4 sites where there are available
9 measurements during the periods of April and October, 2006 (see the red sites in Fig.
10 2): Beijing (BJ) in China, Kanpur (KP) and Gandhi_College (GH) in India, and
11 Mukdahan (MD) in Thailand. The daily average GEOS-Chem model results and
12 OMI_GC AAOD are sampled according to the AERONET observations at the
13 locations of the 4 sites. At the Beijing site, the prior model AAOD estimates driven
14 either by MEIC_SEAC⁴RS or INTEX-B inventories are underestimated by a factor of
15 ~2, while the posterior AAOD are more comparable to the observations in April. In
16 terms of temporal variability, the model is able to capture some features of peaks after
17 optimization. At the two sites in India, only a few measurements are available in late
18 April, but the magnitudes are close to OMI observation. The optimized results using
19 the MEIC_SEAC⁴RS inventory shows great improvements compared to the prior
20 AAOD. However, the optimized AAOD using the INTEX-B inventory still shows
21 negative biases. The differences in optimized AAOD between using INTEX-B and
22 MEIC_SEAC⁴RS come from their prior differences in AAOD. This again

1 demonstrates that the posterior optimization results are not independent of the prior
2 emission inventories, consistent with the estimated reduction in posterior error shown
3 in Fig 10. At the site of Gandhi_College (GH) and Mukdahan (MK) there are large
4 differences between the OMI and AERONET AAODs; the magnitudes of the
5 OMI_GC AAODs are much lower than those from AERONET, even close to zero on
6 some days. Koch et al. [2009] compared the AERONET and OMI retrievals of AAOD
7 at AERONET sites. The results showed that the two retrievals broadly agree with
8 each other, but that the OMI_GC AAOD is much smaller over Asia. In our study, only
9 a few OMI observed AAOD pixels are available in Thailand site (MK) (Fig. 6); these
10 limited and sparse observations do not provide enough information to robustly
11 constrain emissions in this region.

12 **5.3 Optimized surface BC concentrations**

13 As mentioned before, the prior surface BC concentrations are underestimated in most
14 of the urban and rural sites over China. Figure 16 shows the spatial distribution of
15 optimized surface BC concentrations compared to in situ measurements at 20 sites in
16 Southeast Asia. The largest in situ BC concentrations observed over eastern China
17 and the IGP, which are densely populated, industrialized areas, are now reproduced
18 well by the optimized simulation. After optimization, the spatial gradients of the
19 observed BC concentrations are captured by the model: high in the east and low in the
20 west for China, and high in the north and low in the south for India. Using the
21 MEIC_SEAC⁴RS inventory for the prior emissions, the optimized spatial distributions
22 are better simulated than when than using the INTEX-B inventory. In particular, the

1 simulated BC concentrations are much closer to the observations over the IGP after
2 optimization. The performance of simulated surface BC concentrations in the WRF-
3 Chem (Weather Research and Forecasting model coupled with Chemistry) model with
4 GOCART aerosol scheme using our optimized INTEX-B inventory has also been
5 tested (see supplemental Fig. S3). A low bias using the prior INTEX-B inventory
6 have been significantly reduced, and the simulated surface BC concentrations have
7 increased by a factor of 1.5-2. The scatter plots in Fig. 17 show the correlations of BC
8 concentrations from surface observations and GEOS-Chem before (blue) and after
9 (red) optimization. Initial negative biases are shown in both April and October. The
10 linear regression slope increases by more than a factor of four in April. However, the
11 modeled BC concentrations at most of the sites only slightly change after the
12 optimization in October, which result in a much smaller improvement in the
13 regression slope (21%). The correlation coefficients increase by 0.04 to 0.08 after
14 optimization, such small improvement may be owing to the sparse spatial
15 distributions of the observational sites.

16 More specific site-by-site comparisons between model and observations are shown in
17 Fig. 18. Although the optimized BC surface concentrations are enhanced in April,
18 overestimation occurs in some eastern sites over China. In October, the low biases are
19 corrected both in the urban sites and rural sites, especially the eastern rural sites in
20 China. However, there is a persistent negative bias in most sites after optimization in
21 October. Due to the very low prior emissions, the optimization has less impact on the
22 western sites over China. The GEOS-Chem prior simulation underestimates surface

1 BC concentrations in all the urban sites and coastal sites over India in April (Fig. 16).
2 While the optimization enhances the BC sources and surface concentration, it still
3 shows a negative bias in most of sites over India, especially the urban sites. The
4 smaller improvement in coastal sites is not only due to the low prior emissions but
5 also the large uncertainties of AAOD retrieval for low aerosol amounts over the
6 ocean.

7 Given the stark contrast between the inversion results in April and October, we also
8 conducted the optimization for two additional months in winter (January) and summer
9 (July) season using MEIC_SEAC⁴RS as the prior inventory. In January, the
10 anthropogenic emissions show enhancements over the IGP and parts of western and
11 northern China and slight decreases over southern India and eastern and southern
12 China (figures not shown here), which results in increasing the surface BC
13 concentrations in XIA and LFS sites while decreasing concentrations in the sites of
14 GUC and NAN (see Fig. 4). In July, there is no significantly change for the surface
15 BC concentrations after optimization owing to very sparse observation in July over
16 eastern China. From this seasonal comparison, it appears that the BC anthropogenic
17 emissions are not always underestimated during the year. The largest
18 underestimations across the whole region of Southeast Asia occur in April. The
19 underestimated regions are mainly over IGP and northern China in both January and
20 October. The slight overestimates are indicated over southern India and part of
21 eastern China in January as well as northern China in July.

22 Discrepancies versus surface observations might also relate to model representational

1 error incurred by comparing ~50 km gridded estimates to in situ BC measurements,
2 which likely have finer length-scales of variability [Wang et al., 2013; Cohen and
3 Prinn, 2011; Cohen et al., 2011]. Considering the coarse resolution of the model
4 when comprising with the ground-based measurements, we investigate the impacts of
5 model resolution by considering approaches for downscaling the model simulations.
6 One approach is to use high-resolution population datasets to redistribute primary
7 aerosol concentrations [e.g., Krol et al., 2005; UNEP, 2011; Silva et al., 2013]. Based
8 on a finer resolution population density dataset, a parameterization of the urban
9 increment for non-reactive primary emitted anthropogenic BC and organic matter has
10 been developed and tested for coarse resolution air quality model. This method does
11 not alter concentrations at rural sites since it assumes that results at coarse resolution
12 only represent the rural (background) sites. According to this method, we used a high-
13 resolution ($1/24^\circ \times 1/24^\circ$) population dataset of Gridded Population of the World,
14 Version 3 (GPWv3, [http://sedac.ciesin.columbia.edu/data/set/gpw-v3-population-](http://sedac.ciesin.columbia.edu/data/set/gpw-v3-population-density-future-estimates)
15 [density-future-estimates](http://sedac.ciesin.columbia.edu/data/set/gpw-v3-population-density-future-estimates)) to downscale and adjust the simulated BC concentration at
16 urban sites (defined locations where population density exceeding $600/\text{km}^2$). The
17 scatter plots (Fig. 17b) show that, on average, the application of population
18 downscaling improves the performance of the modeled results compared to the non-
19 adjusted BC concentrations in April for both the prior and posterior simulations,
20 although low biases remain in each. It does not make any change in the slope in
21 October after applying the population parameterization, and correlation is degraded.
22 Downscaled estimates at only two sites (LIA and NAN) show enhancements, the rest

1 are not impacted.

2 To more directly investigate the impact of model resolution, it would be ideal to
3 compare the results of the present simulations to higher resolution simulations with
4 the same model [e.g., Pungler and West, 2013]. While this is not currently an option
5 for this model version, we can conduct GEOS-Chem simulations at a coarser
6 resolution (2° latitude \times 2.5° longitude) and make inferences about the role of
7 resolution errors. Fig. 19 shows the resolution errors in estimated surface BC
8 concentrations in the coarse resolution results ($2^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$) with respect to fine
9 resolution simulations ($0.5^\circ \times 0.667^\circ$). The resolution error exceeds 20% across broad
10 areas, and even up to 300% over the IGP and part of Southeastern Asia. The surface
11 BC concentrations are much lower using coarse resolution over the major source
12 regions, in particular the IGP, where the resolution error is more than 3. This is likely
13 owing to coarse grid boxes not describing the sharp gradient between high
14 concentrations in the valley and low concentrations in the mountain. The optimized
15 surface BC concentrations from our $0.5^\circ \times 0.667^\circ$ simulations are underestimated by a
16 factor of 2-3 at the IGP sites compared to in situ measurements. Pungler and West
17 [2013] show that the percent difference between all-cause mortality estimates at 12
18 km resolution and at coarser resolutions of 36 km and 96 km for BC is ~9% and
19 ~23% respectively. Assuming that model skill at estimating variations in
20 concentrations at the scales of the in situ measurements is similar to that for
21 estimating exposure based on highly resolved populations distribution, we can
22 extrapolate from the results of Pungler and West [2013] that the resolution errors in the

1 0.5°x0.667° simulation, relative to the scale of the measurements, is a bit less than the
2 resolution error in the 2°x2.5° simulation relative to the 0.5°x0.667° simulation
3 Thus, the former may be as large as a factor of ~2.5 in individual grid cells.

4 **5.4. Comparisons using OMI_GC AAOD_BC**

5 A subset of the OMI retrievals (OMI_GC AAOD_BC) represents the presence of
6 carbonaceous aerosols. Using only these retrievals for the inversion, the differences
7 between prior and posterior (later minus former) BC anthropogenic emissions using
8 MEIC_SEAC⁴RS inventory are shown in Fig. 20. Compared to Fig. 9 and Fig. 10,
9 there are similar signs of emissions adjustments over most of Southeast Asia except in
10 October over India where reductions are not shown in the posterior emissions due to
11 fewer available observations in the OMI_AAOD_BC data subset. Moreover, the
12 magnitudes of enhanced emissions in April are much larger if we use only the
13 OMI_GC AAOD_BC retrievals. This also results in larger posterior surface BC
14 concentrations (figures not shown) in some area and AAOD that improve the
15 underestimates in a few sites when compared to the ground-base measurements and
16 AERONET observation. However, the differences are not obvious in October and the
17 improvements in April are neither significant nor widespread. Considering there are
18 less observations available using OMI_GC AAOD_BC, especially in October and
19 other summer month (e.g. July), and that it does not change the major conclusions
20 compared to using OMI_GC AAOD, using OMI_GC AAOD is recommended.

21

22 **6. Summary and Discussions**

1 In this study, we used space-based observations of absorbing aerosol optical depth
2 (AAOD) from the OMI instrument to constrain BC monthly average emissions for
3 April and October 2006, with the GEOS-Chem model and its adjoint. First, we
4 evaluated the model simulated BC concentrations using four different anthropogenic
5 emission inventories. The differences in these inventories exceeded 100% across
6 broad areas of Southeast Asia. For each of the four emission inventories, the
7 simulated surface BC concentrations had low biases compared to the available surface
8 observations in most urban sites in Southeast Asia.

9 The adjoint model was used to perform 4D-Var inverse modeling to constrain BC
10 emissions. After optimization, both anthropogenic and biomass burning emissions
11 were adjusted. Either using the MEIC_SEAC⁴RS or INTEX-B inventory, the
12 optimized anthropogenic emissions for BC were significantly enhanced over broad
13 areas of Southeast Asia in April compared to the prior emission, with the largest
14 enhancements in eastern China and India IGP of up to a factor of five. From analysis
15 of inversions using different prior biomass burning inventories it was shown that
16 optimized anthropogenic emissions was most sensitive to the prior biomass burning
17 over eastern China and southern IGP. The adjustments in October were smaller than
18 those in April. Inverse modeling in additional months indicated that BC
19 anthropogenic emissions were not always underestimated throughout the year. The
20 largest underestimates occurred in April throughout Southeast Asia. Only slight
21 overestimates were indicated over southern India and eastern China for both January
22 in July. Inversion results were in general similar using either all OMI observed

1 AAOD or just the OMI_GC AAOD_BC. In October, the posterior anthropogenic
2 emissions yielded a slight reduction (1~5%) over central India and part of southern
3 China while they increased by 10~50% over eastern and northern China, as well as
4 northwestern India. The uncertainty of the posterior emissions over the IGP and
5 eastern China were estimated to have reduced up to 30% and 15% in April and
6 October. Though April is the Asian dust season, the impact of doubling dust emissions
7 on the posterior anthropogenic emissions is less than 20%.

8 After optimization, the low model biases for BC AAOD improved by 132% and 11%
9 over Southeast Asia in April and October, respectively. In eastern China, these
10 improvements were more significant (143% and 30% in April and October). The
11 remaining residual error in the simulated AAOD, which was significant in October,
12 particularly in India, may be a consequence of the inverse modeling framework,
13 which had difficulty introducing emissions in locations where the prior emissions
14 were close to zero. This downside may be overcome by performing inversions
15 directly for the emissions, rather than emissions scaling factors.

16 Results of the inversion were also compared to remote and in situ measurements that
17 were not assimilated. The posterior AAOD were quite comparable to AERONET
18 AAOD observations in April in China; however, large discrepancies remained at the
19 sites over India and Thailand after data assimilation. These residual errors compared
20 to AERONET may be associated with the limited and sparse observations of OMI
21 observed AAOD in these regions, which themselves were not very consistent with the
22 AERONET AAOD. Jethva et al., [2014] also pointed out that much of the observed

1 inconsistency of SSA between OMI and AERONET is found to occur at moderate to
2 lower aerosol loading ($AOD_{440nm} < 0.7$) for which both inversion techniques might
3 have issues related to signal-to-noise ratio and algorithmic assumptions. Low biases
4 of surface BC concentrations were improved or corrected at urban sites and eastern
5 rural sites over China in April, with the linear regression slope between model and
6 observed values increasing by more than a factor of four. However, the adjustments
7 were not strong enough in most sites over India in April and October and over China
8 in October. Moreover, the optimization had less impact on the western sites over
9 China and coastal sites over India due to the very low prior emissions and the large
10 uncertainties in AAOD retrieval for low aerosol amounts over ocean. Model
11 resolution error was also an important factor contributing to discrepancies of BC
12 concentrations compared to in situ measurements. Comparison to coarser model
13 simulations and the results of Pungler and West [2013] indicates that the resolution
14 errors may be up to a factor of 2.5 in grid cells in regions such as the IGP and part of
15 southeastern Asia. Nevertheless, the results found here are not exclusively germane to
16 GEOS-Chem, as we find that implementing the optimized INTEX-B inventory in
17 WRF-Chem improved simulated surface BC concentrations by a factor of 1.5-2
18 relative to simulations with the prior INTEX-B inventory.

19 Overall, this work was the first attempt to formally use the absorbing aerosol products
20 from satellite observation for a BC emissions inversion. Both the simulated AAOD
21 and surface BC concentration showed significant improvements spatially and
22 temporally after data assimilation, especially in April. However, there were still

1 several sources of uncertainty and limitations of this work worth considering. Aspects
2 such as model error and assumptions made regarding the observations and
3 uncertainties in the observations and prior emissions inventories contributed greatly to
4 uncertainties in the optimization results.

5 Our estimate that the errors in the prior emissions were only 100% restricted the
6 magnitude of the emissions adjustments allowed by the inversion. One might
7 conclude that such restrictions were too strict; however, uncertainties in emissions
8 were also not likely the only source of the discrepancy between observed and
9 predicted BC concentrations and AAOD. Textor et al. [2007] noted that inter-model
10 differences were only partially explained by differences in emission inventories;
11 removal processes also play an important role in affecting the lifetime and
12 concentrations of BC in the free troposphere. Although the 1 day aging from
13 hydrophobic BC to hydrophilic BC in GEOS-Chem is typical for this type of model
14 [Koch et al., 2009], aerosol internal mixing that includes effects of various physical,
15 chemical, and meteorological processing can also significantly impact BC
16 concentrations and aerosol absorptions [Stier et al., 2006; Cohen and Prinn 2011;
17 Cohen et al., 2011; Buchard et al., 2014], in some cases even more so than
18 uncertainties in emissions [Shen et al., 2014]. The scheme used in our study for
19 aerosol scavenging was based on Liu et al., [2001], which did not distinguish between
20 rain and snow. The recent updates by Wang et al. [2011] included corrections to
21 below-cloud and in-cloud scavenging that improved the overestimation of integrated
22 scavenging [Dana and Hales, 1976]. Corresponding updates to the wet scavenging in

1 the GEOS-Chem adjoint might also be helpful for improving the optimized results.

2 The optimizations were sensitive to how model information was used to calculate BC
3 component of the measured AAOD, which alone provided only a constraint on the
4 column concentrations of all absorbing aerosol (i.e., including dust and OC). We
5 have adjusted the OMI observed AAOD by applying the GEOS-Chem simulated
6 aerosol layer height to reduce the differences in the vertical profiles between the
7 model and observation, referred to as OMI_GC AAOD. However, there could be
8 inconsistent treatment of microphysical and optical properties used in the AAOD
9 calculation between the model and OMI retrievals. The results of the optimization
10 may be biased by error in the model's vertical distribution of BC, which has been
11 adjusted in other studies [van Donkelaar et al., 2013]. To evaluate the magnitude of
12 this potential source of error, we also repeated the inversions using the OMI retrieval
13 "Final AAOD" products (OMI_Final) based on the CALIOP and GOCART aerosol
14 layer height. The difference in the optimized anthropogenic BC emissions are less
15 than 30% in April and 10% in October compared to inversions using OMI_GC
16 AAOD which is based on GEOS-Chem aerosol layer height.

17 It is important to realize that BC from most emission sources contained not only
18 elemental and organic fractions [Chow et al., 2009], but also non-soot OC, i.e., brown
19 carbon, that has a significant absorbing component at short wavelengths comparable
20 to elemental carbon absorption [Jacobson, 1999; Kirchstetter et al., 2004; Andreae
21 and Gelencser, 2006; Hoffer et al., 2006; Magi et al., 2009]. However, absorbing
22 aerosols in GEOS-Chem only include BC, OC and dust, while the brown carbon has

1 not yet been taken into account. While the attribution of ambient aerosol absorption to
2 BC may be a reasonable approximation in areas dominated by fresh soot emissions, it
3 may lead to misleading estimates of the AAOD when other light absorbing particles were
4 present since the brown carbon contributed 28% on average of the total absorption at the
5 wavelength of 440 nm [Bahadur et al., 2012]. It undoubtedly resulted in overestimation
6 of BC emissions after optimization in the areas where brown carbon and other
7 absorbing aerosols were considered in the observed AAOD.

8 Lastly, it is well known that the quality of the observation data plays the most
9 important role in data assimilation. Although the OMI observed AAOD retrieval
10 provided much better spatial and temporal coverage than the remote sensing
11 measurements, such as AERONET, we noted that there were large discrepancies
12 between OMI_GC AAOD and AERONET observation in some areas, especially in
13 October (See Fig. 15). Normally, the OMAERUV retrievals were more reliable over
14 land than over water since the ocean surface reflectance show distinct angular and
15 spectral variations. The major factor affecting the quality of the OMI aerosol product
16 was sub-pixel cloud contamination due to the relatively large footprint of the OMI
17 observations [Torres et al., 1998]. Satheesh et al. [2009] demonstrated the potential of
18 multisatellite analysis of A-train data to improve the accuracy of retrieved aerosol
19 products and suggested that a combined OMI-MODIS-CALIPSO retrieval had
20 potential to further improve assessments of aerosol absorption, which would possible
21 enhance the observation quality in data assimilation. Recently, other improvements
22 included the development of CALIOP-based aerosol layer height climatology and the

1 use of AIRS carbon monoxide real time observations to distinguish smoke from dust
 2 type aerosols, which improved the retrieval performance by 5-20% [Torres et al.,
 3 2013]. Using the updated OMAERUV when it becomes available will likely improve
 4 the optimization results in future work.

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 13 providing the data and establishing and maintaining the sites used in this study.

14

15 **Table and Figures**

16 Table 1 Comparison of BC anthropogenic emissions over eastern China (105°-125°E,
 17 20°-45°N) and IGP (70°-90°E, 23°-32°N), unit: Tg.

Domain	Prior emissions (MEIC_SEAC4RS)		Posterior emissions (with penalty term)		Posterior emissions (without penalty term)	
	April	October	April	October	April	October
Eastern China	0.11	0.11	0.30	0.11	0.22	0.12
IGP	0.04	0.04	0.14	0.04	0.11	0.05

18

19 **Figure captions.**

1
2 **Figure 1.** Absolute and relative differences in AAOD between OMI_Final and
3 OMI_GC AAOD for April and October, 2006.
4
5 **Figure 2.** Twenty sites of ground measurements (black dots) and four sites of
6 AERONET observation (red cross dots). Also shown are terrain heights (color shaded
7 contours, unit: m).
8
9 **Figure 3.** Annual anthropogenic emission of BC regridded into GEOS-Chem
10 resolution of $0.5^\circ \times 0.667^\circ$ from the inventories of (a) Bond, (b) INTEX-B, (c)
11 SEAC4RS, and (d) MEIC.
12
13 **Figure 4.** Comparison of the observed and simulated surface BC concentrations using
14 four emission inventories at the site of GUC, LFS, NAN, XIA. The orange dots are
15 the monthly mean posterior surface BC concentrations at these sites using MEIC
16 inventory over China.
17
18 **Figure 5.** Spatial distributions of prior surface BC concentrations using INTEX-B and
19 MEIC_SEAC⁴RS inventories overlaid with BC in situ measurements of 20 sites.
20
21 **Figure 6.** (a) Differences of monthly average AAOD between model using
22 MEIC_SEAC⁴RS inventory and the OMI observation (former minus latter) and (b)
23 corresponding OMI monthly data in each grid cell for April and October, 2006.
24
25 **Figure 7.** The same as Figure 6, but for OMI_AAOD_BC.
26
27 **Figure 8.** Differences between optimized and prior anthropogenic BC emissions
28 based on four methods of adjoint forcing (a) vertically resolved BC AAOD base on
29 model, (b) column BC AAOD based on model, (c) total OMI_GC AAOD and (d)
30 column OMI_GC AAOD_BC for April and October, 2006.
31
32 **Figure 9.** Anthropogenic BC emissions for April, 2006. The first column shows the
33 prior inventory, the second the optimized inventory, the third the differences between
34 the prior and optimization, and the last column the relative changes of posterior error,
35 based on the inventories of (a) INTEX-B and (b) MEIC_SEAC⁴RS.
36
37 **Figure 10.** The same as Figure 9, but for October 2006.
38
39 **Figure 11.** Differences of anthropogenic BC emissions between using the inventories
40 of MEIC_SEAC⁴RS and INTEX-B for April and October 2006. The left column
41 shows the prior inventory, the center the optimized inventory, and right column the
42 between their posterior differences and prior differences.
43
44 **Figure 12.** The sensitivities of optimized anthropogenic emission based on GFED2

1 and GFED3 relative to the differences between GFED2 and GFED3.
2
3 **Figure 13.** Comparison of BC AAOD over eastern China (105°-125°E, 20°-45°N)
4 from OMI measurements and GEOS-Chem before and after the assimilation for April
5 and October, 2006.
6
7 **Figure 14.** Comparison of BC AAOD over IGP (70°-90°E, 23°-32°N) from OMI
8 measurements and GEOS-Chem before and after the assimilation for April and
9 October, 2006.
10
11 **Figure 15.** Comparison of total daily AAOD from OMI, AERONET and GEOS-
12 Chem before and after the assimilation at the four AERONET sites for April and
13 October, 2006.
14
15 **Figure 16.** Spatial distributions of optimized surface BC concentrations using
16 INTEX-B and MEIC_SEAC⁴RS inventories overlaid with BC in situ measurements
17 of 20 sites.
18
19 **Figure 17.** Comparison of monthly surface BC concentration for April and October,
20 2006, from in situ measurements and GEOS-Chem before and after the assimilation
21 (a) without and (b) with population density downscaling.
22
23 **Figure 18.** Comparison of monthly surface BC concentration from in situ
24 measurements and GEOS-Chem over (a) China and (b) India before and after the
25 assimilation using the inventories of MEIC_SEAC⁴RS and INTEX-B for April and
26 October, 2006.
27
28 **Figure 19.** The resolution errors of surface BC between the simulations of coarse
29 resolution (2°x2.5°) and fine resolution (0.5°x0.667°).
30
31 **Figure 20.** The differences between the prior and posterior anthropogenic BC
32 emissions for April and October, 2006, using OMI_GC AAOD_BC as the
33 observation.
34
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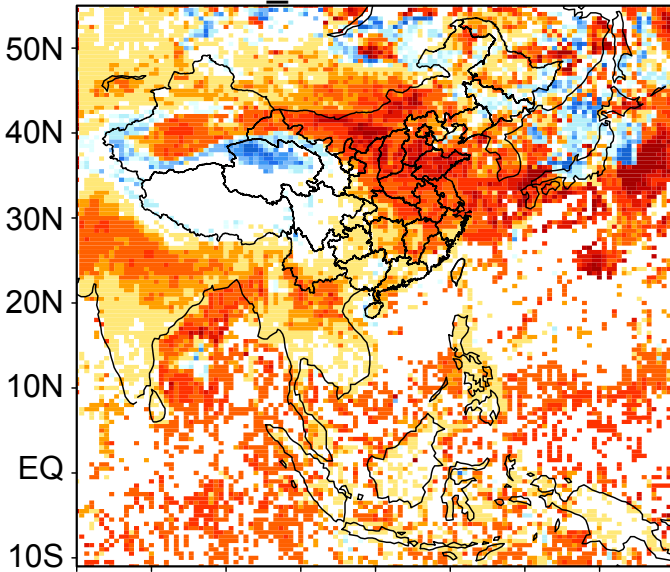
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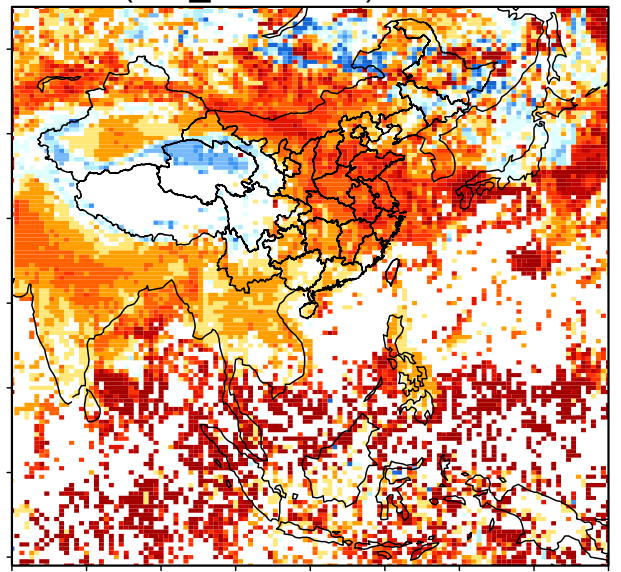
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44

April

GC_OMI minus OMI



(GC_OMI-OMI)/OMI %



October

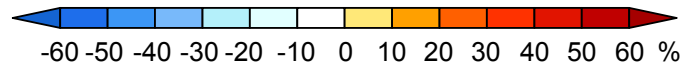
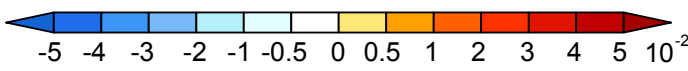
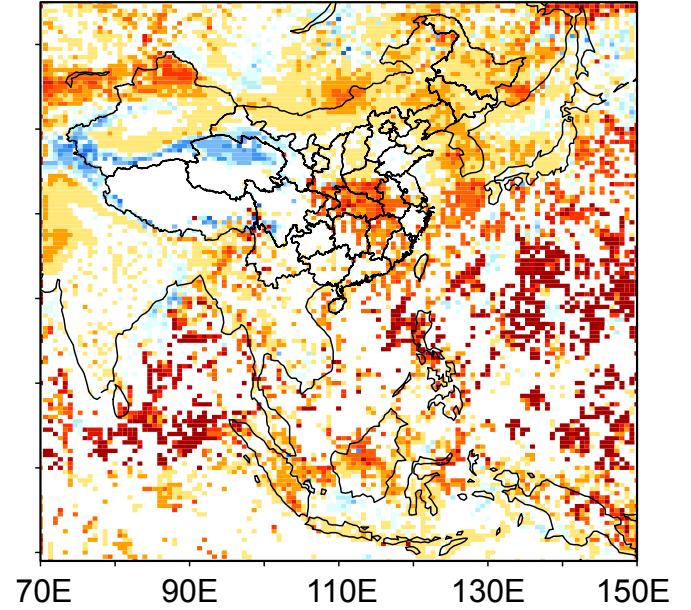
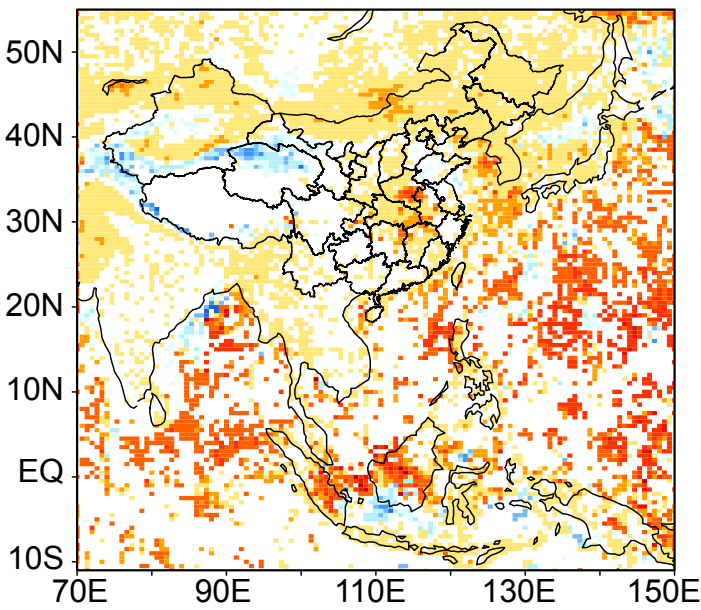


Fig. 1

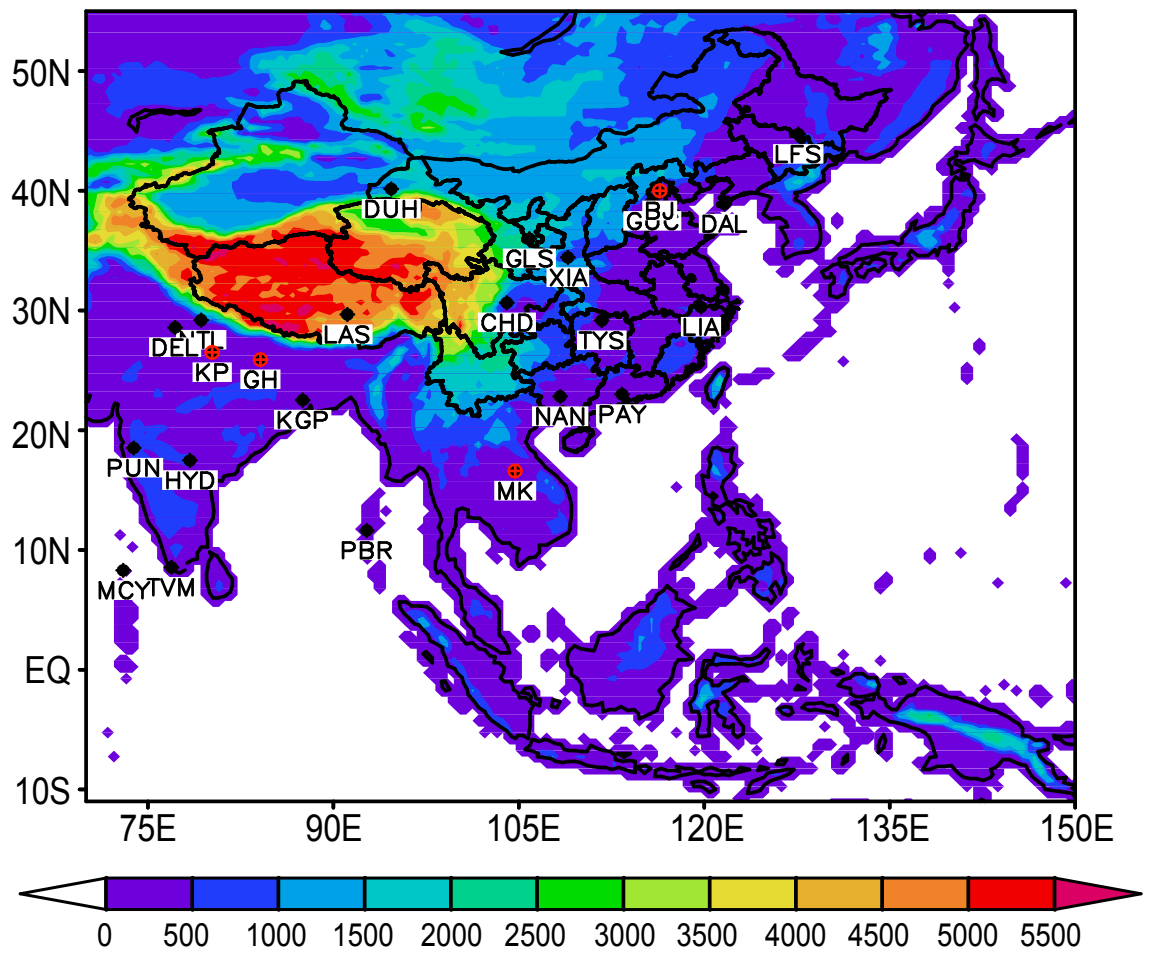


Fig. 2

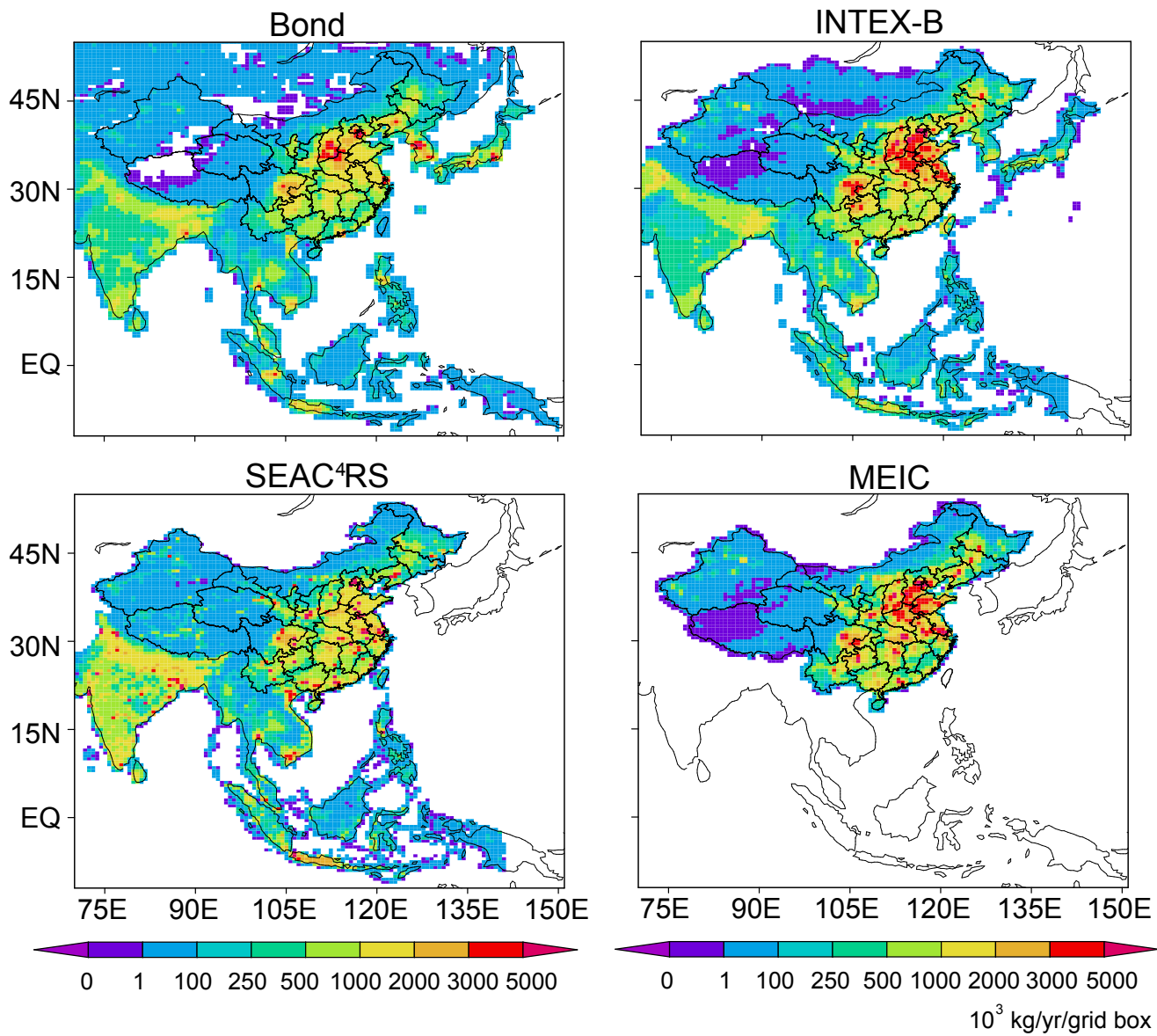


Fig. 3

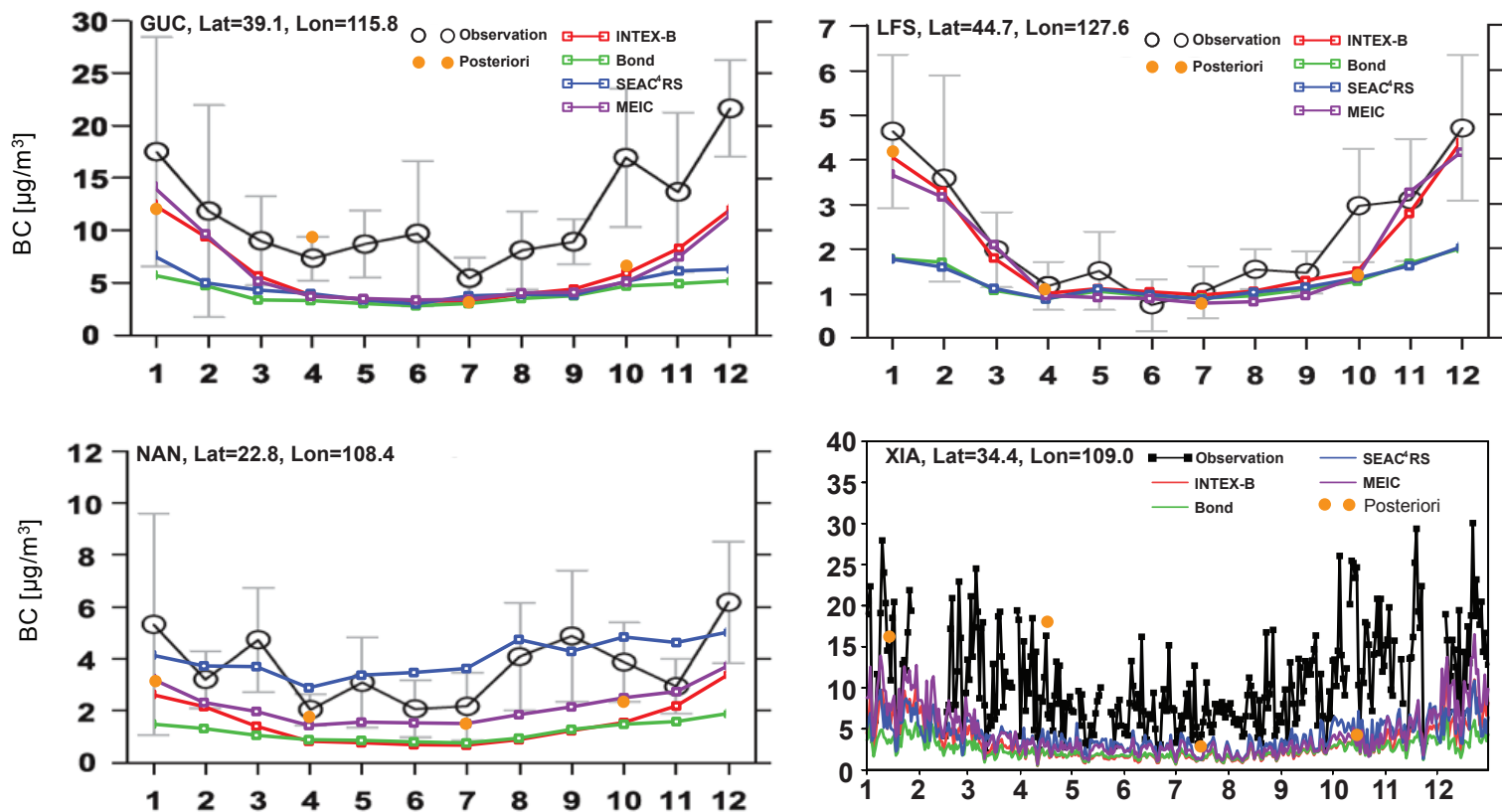
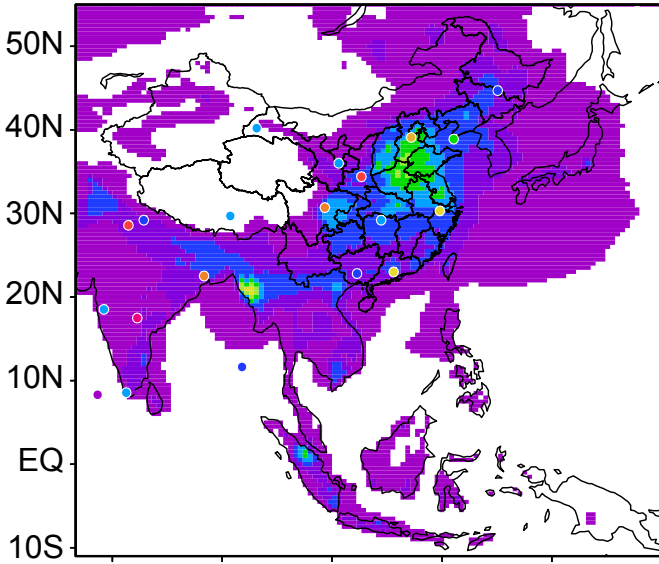


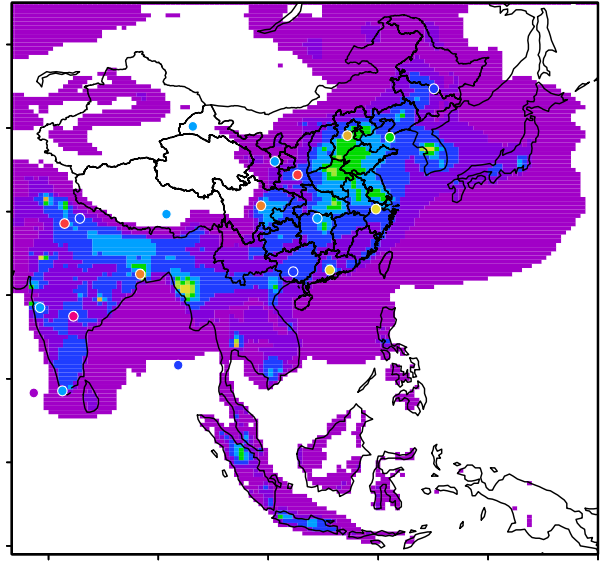
Fig. 4

April

INTEX-B



MEIC_SEAC⁴RS



October

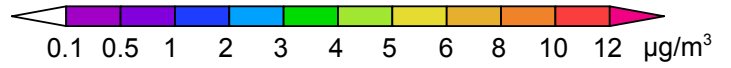
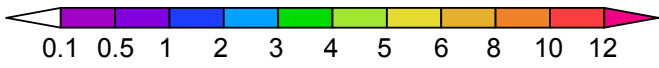
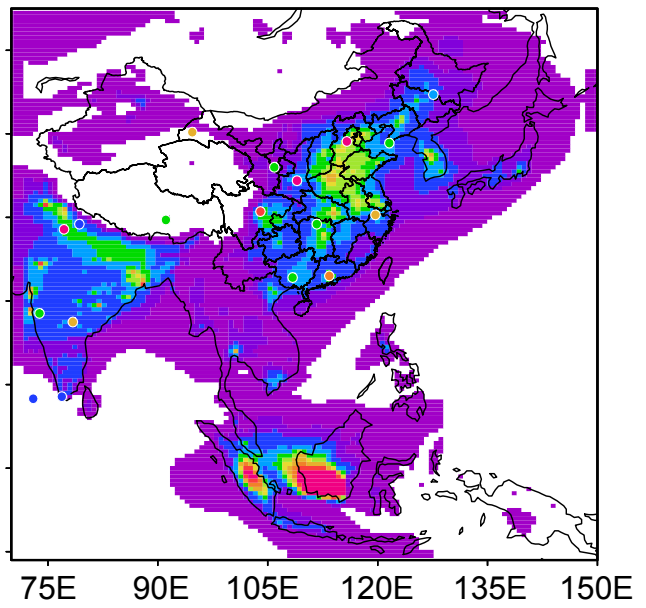
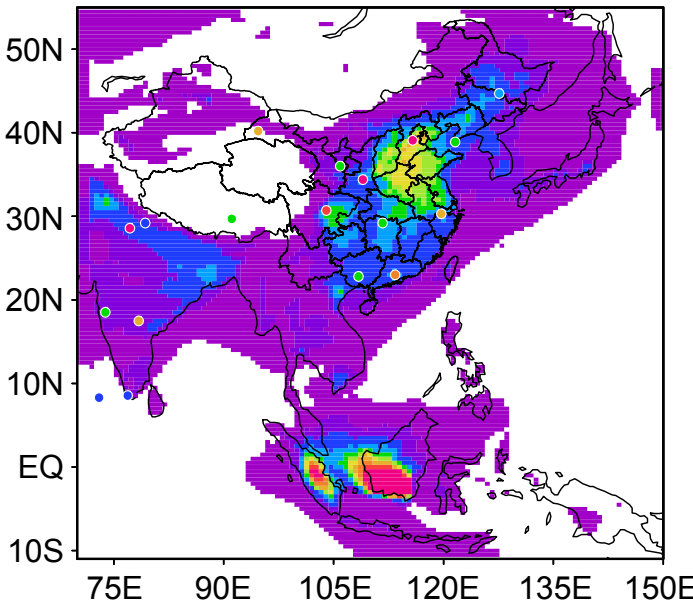


Fig. 5

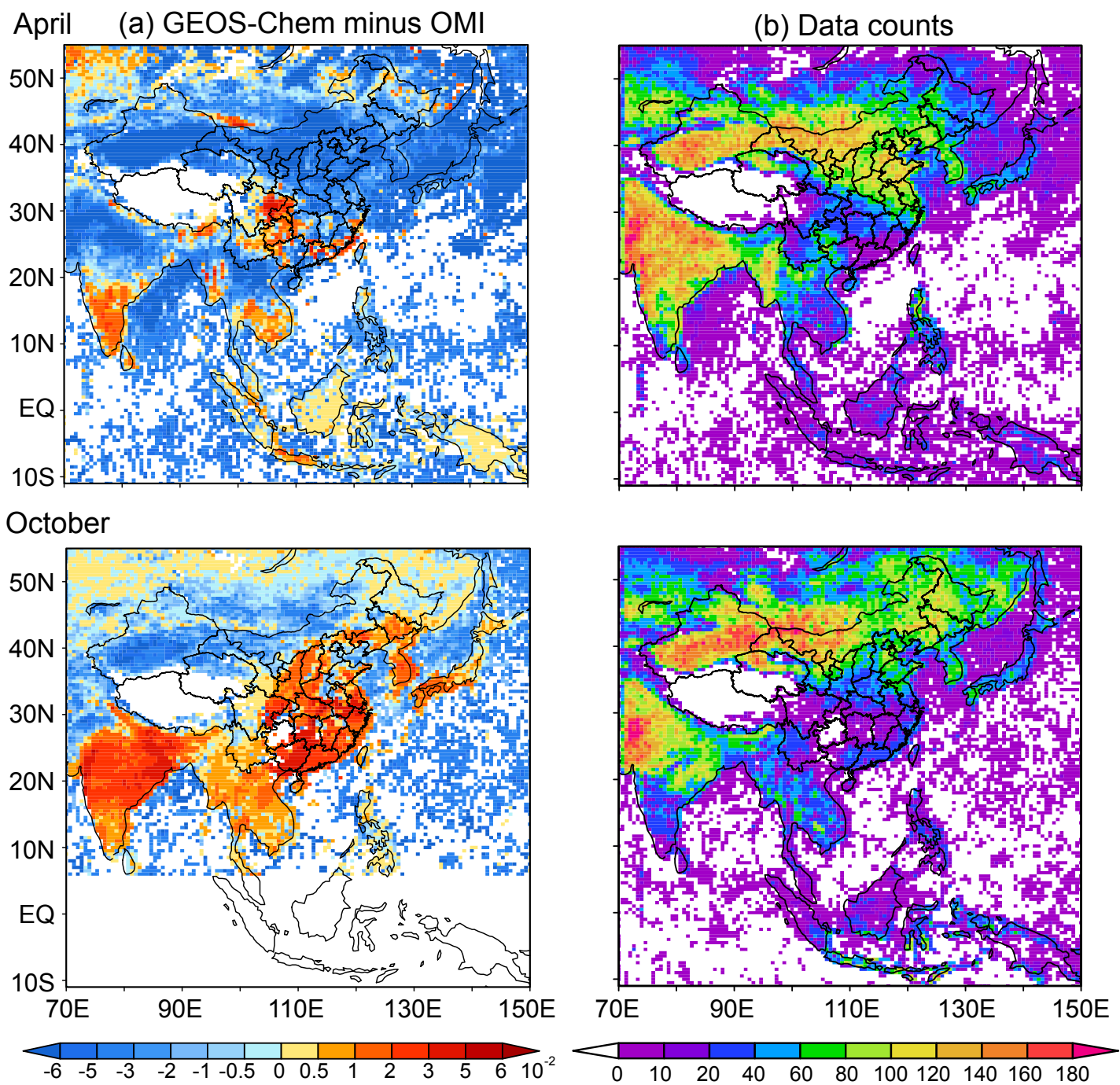


Fig. 6

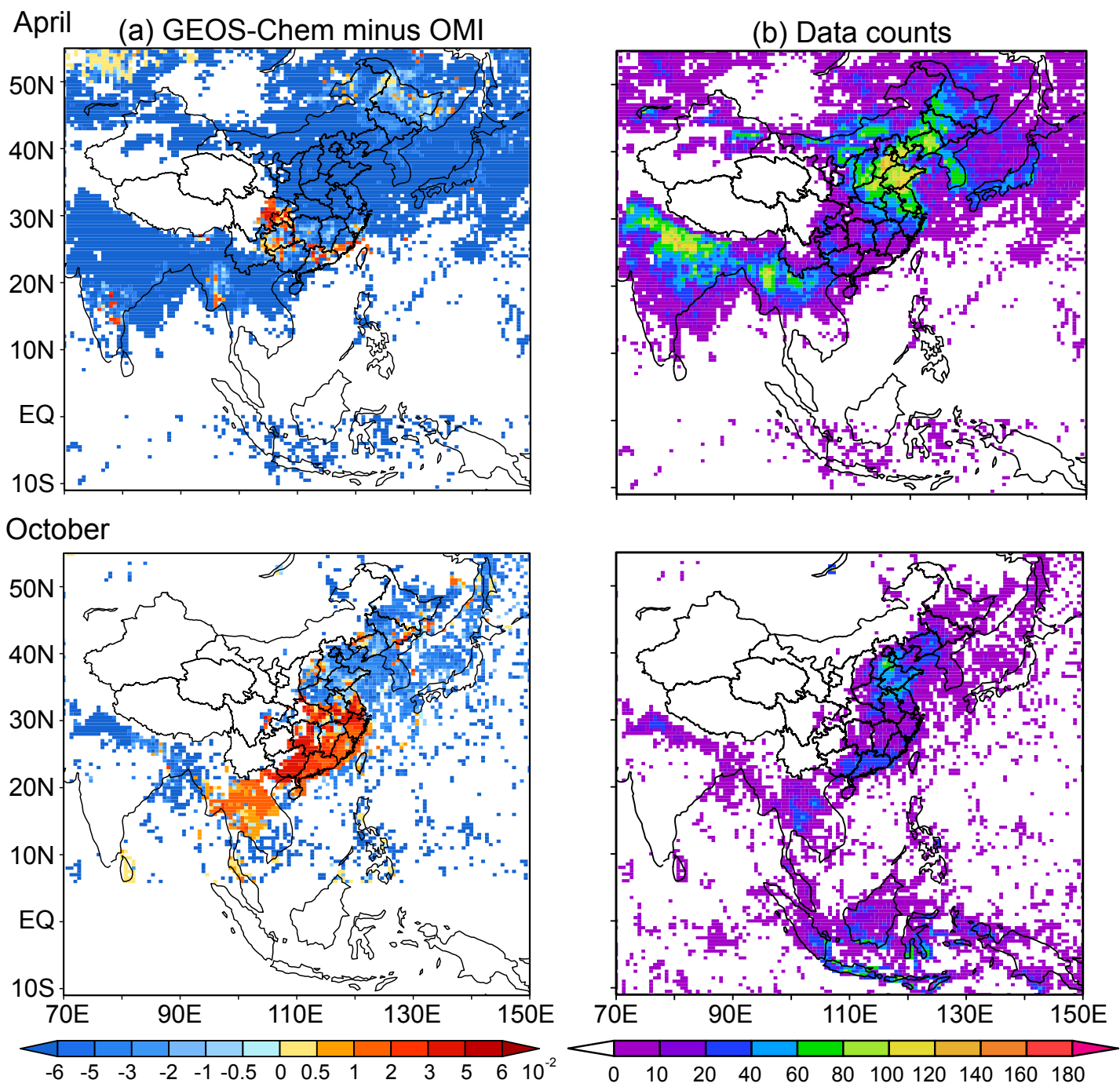


Fig. 7

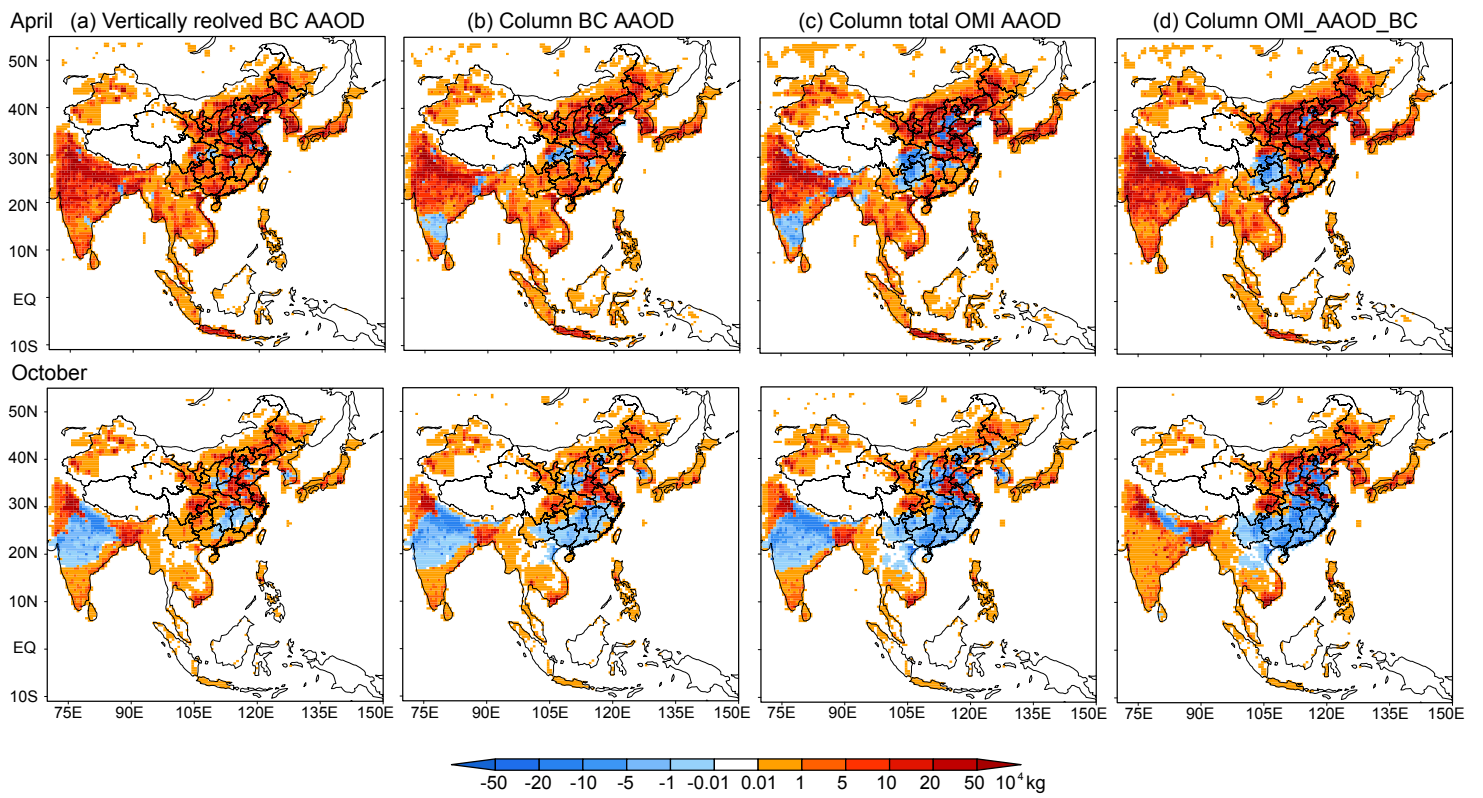


Fig. 8

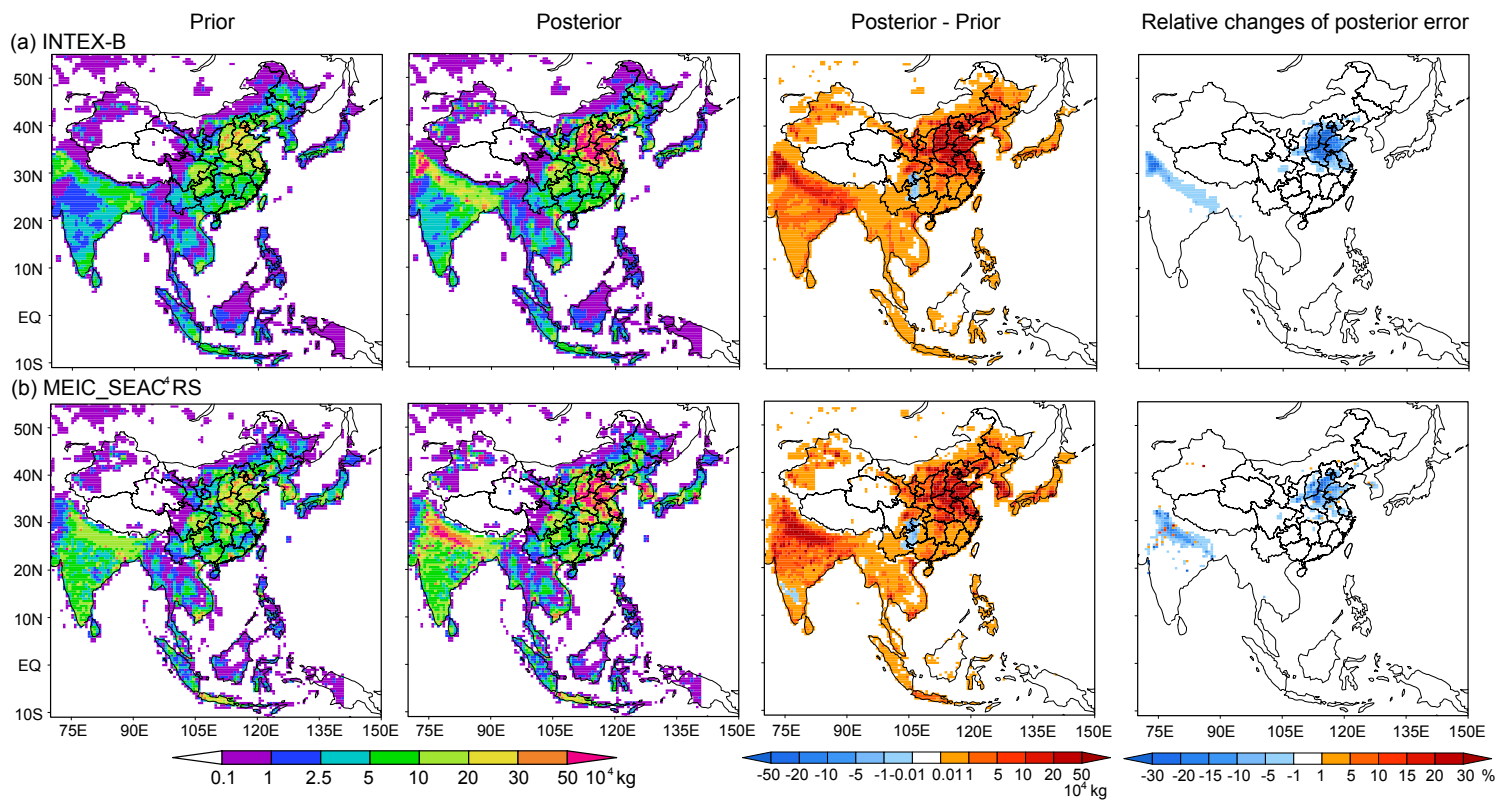


Fig. 9

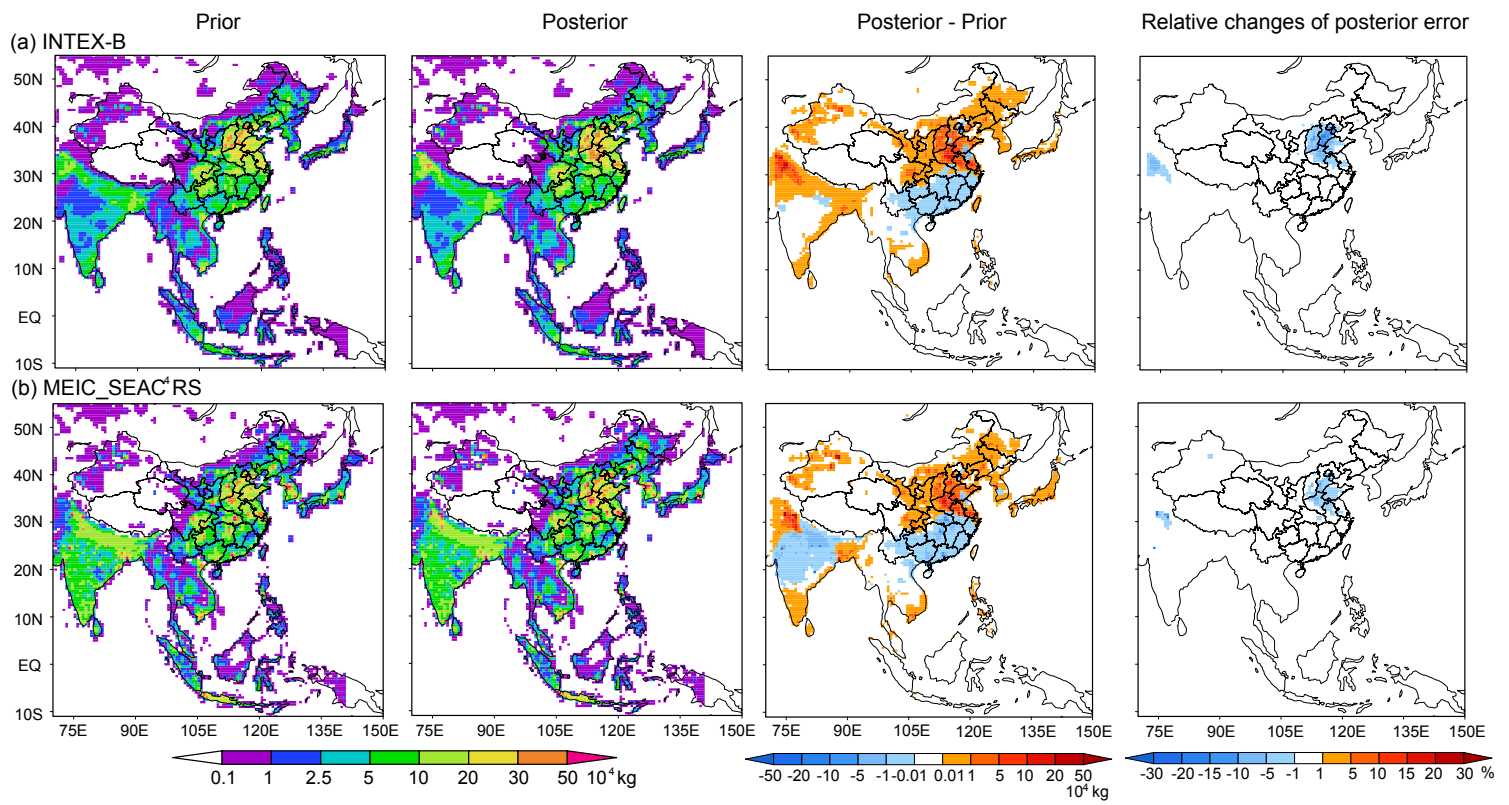


Fig. 10

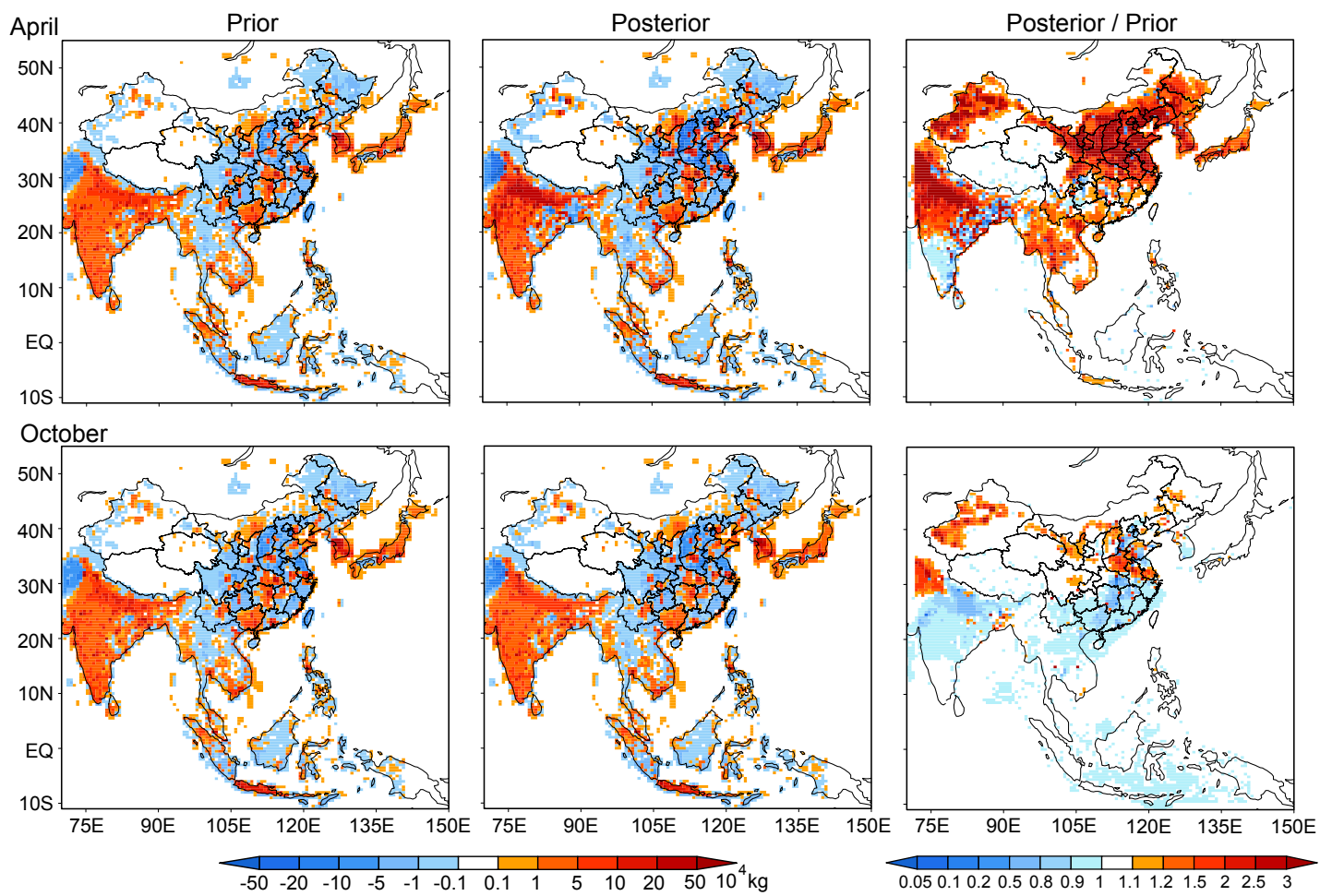


Fig. 11

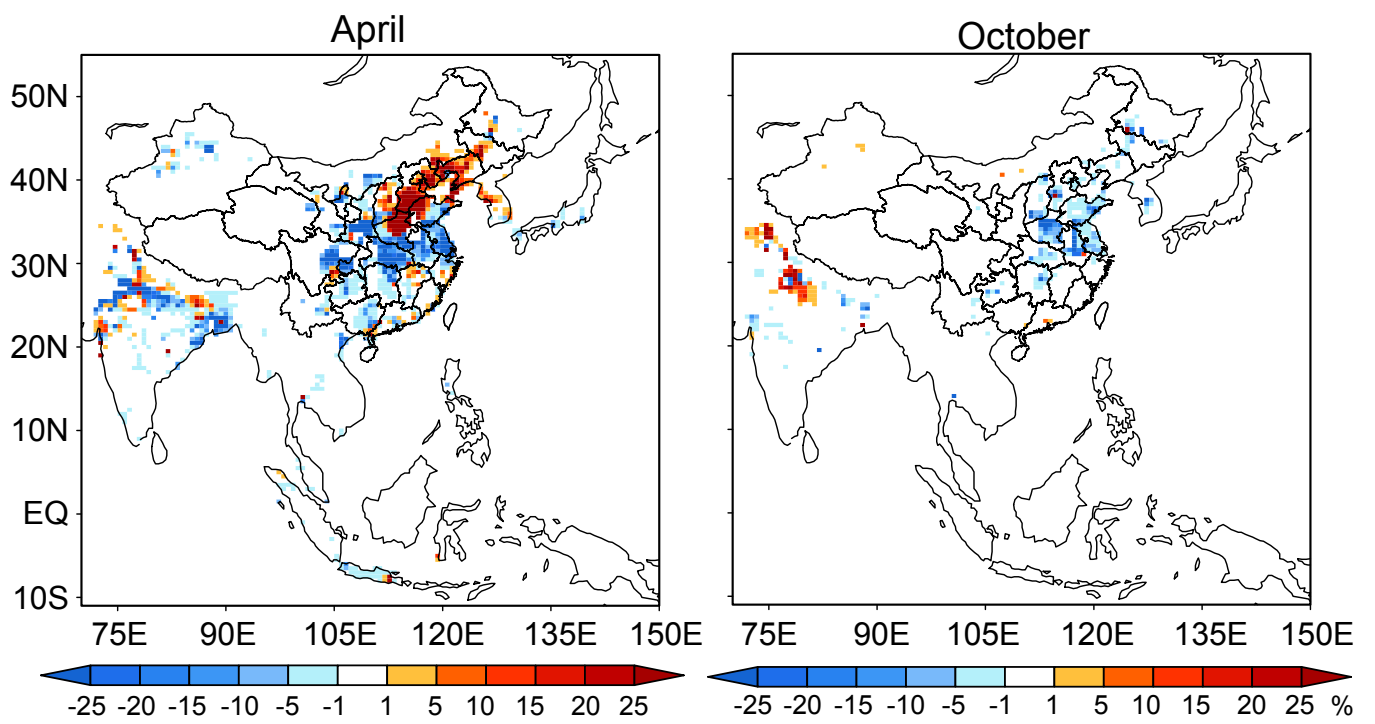
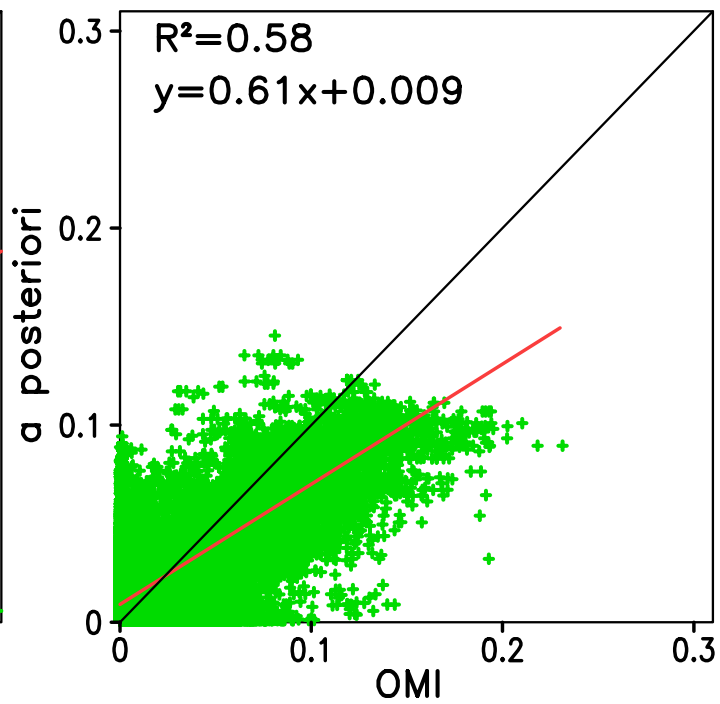
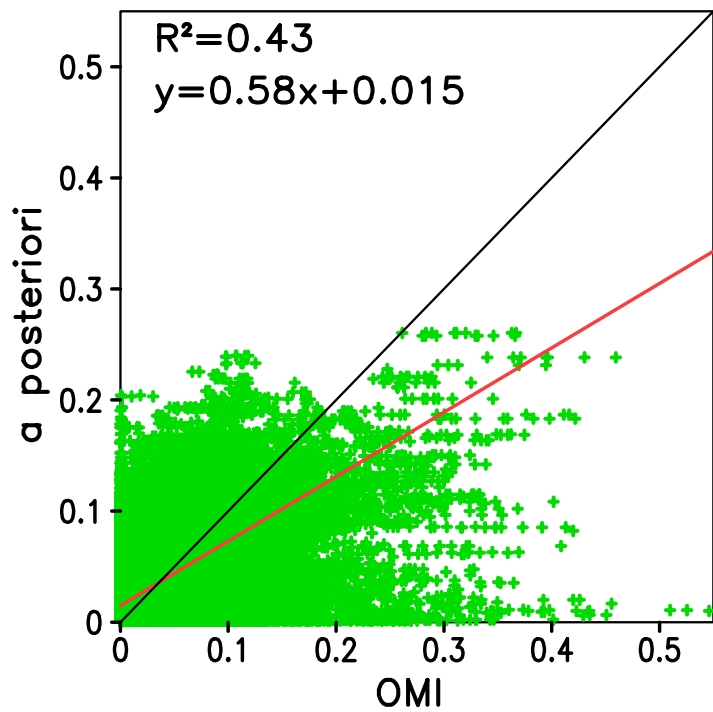
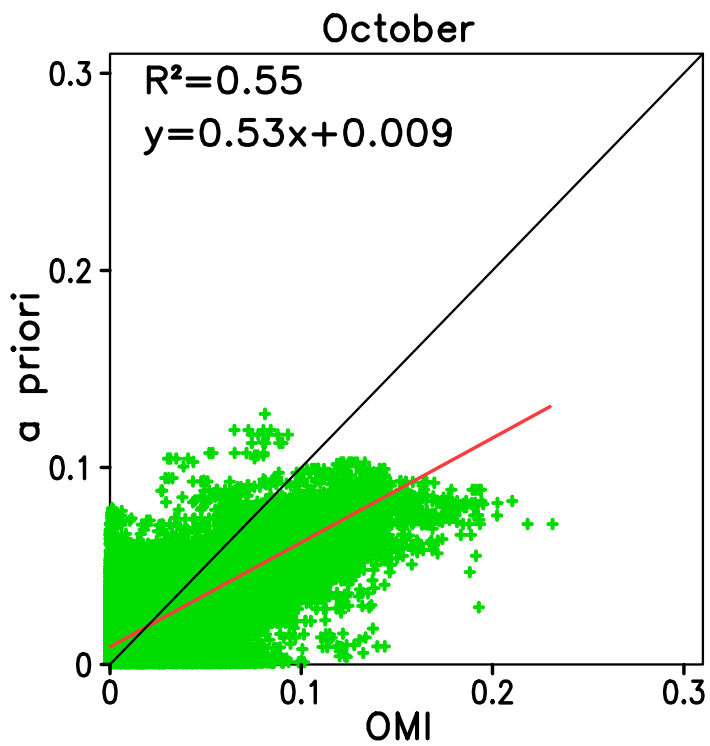
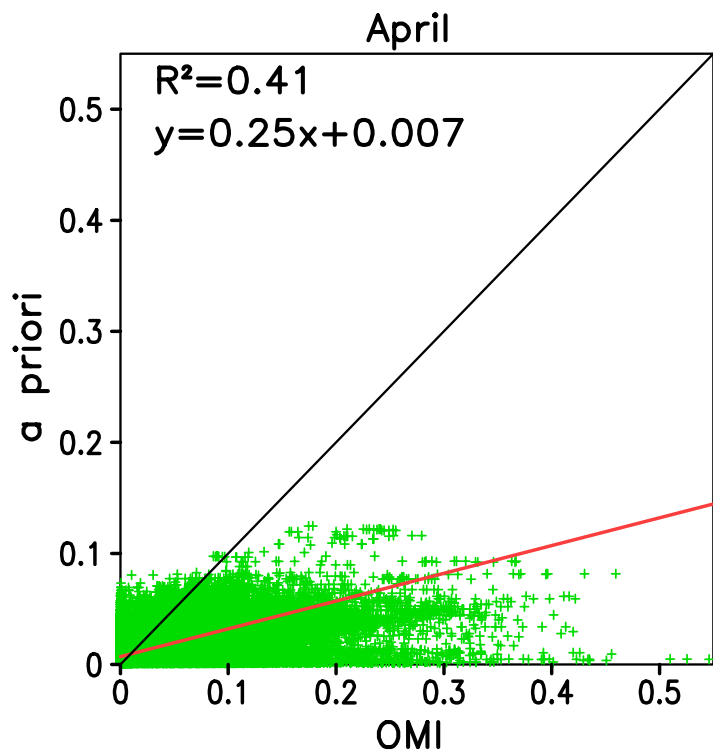
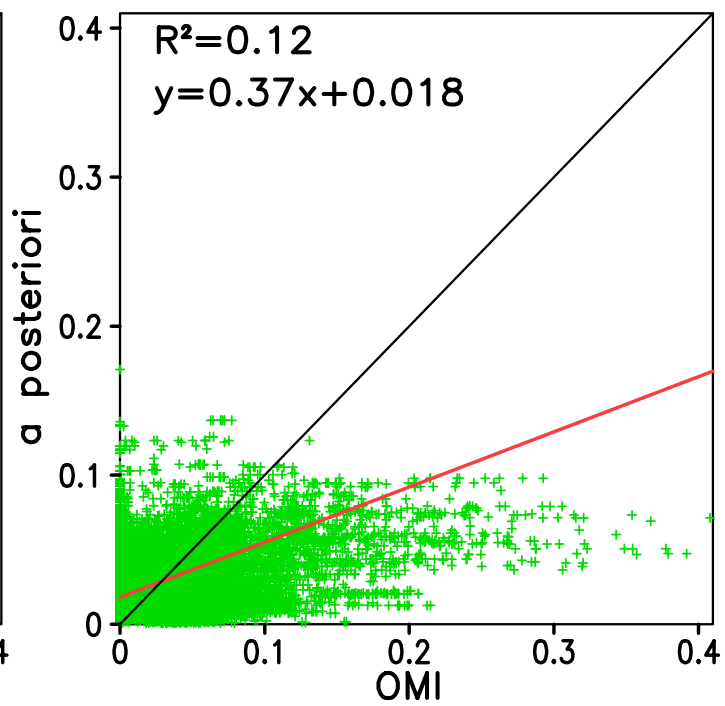
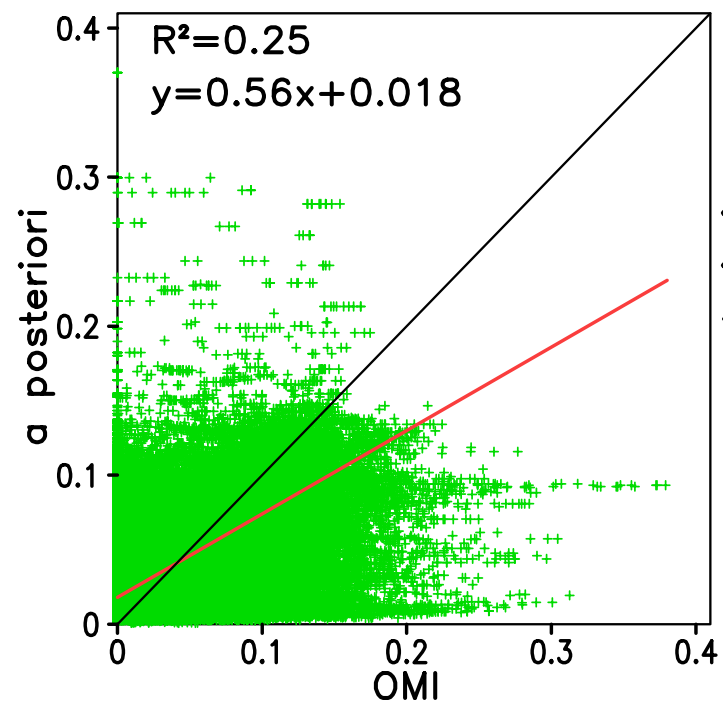
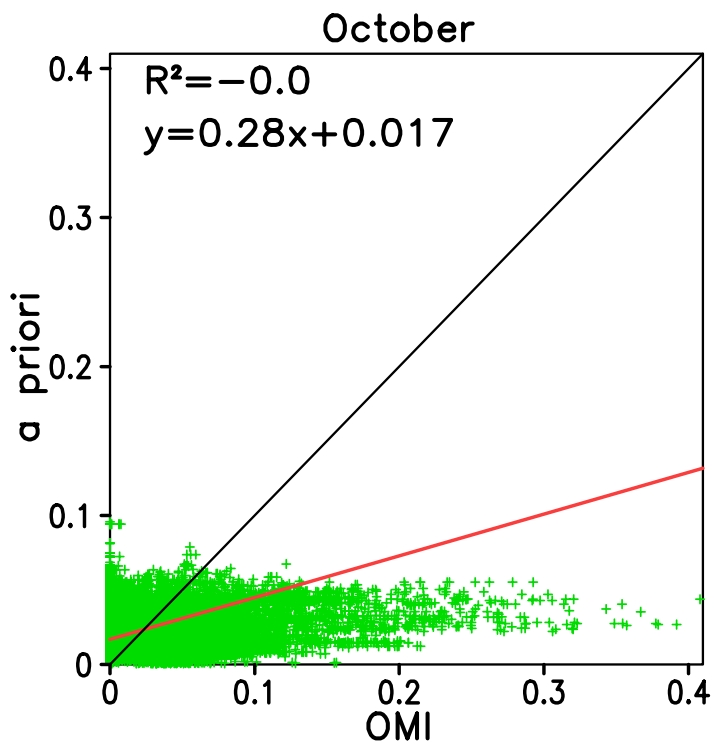
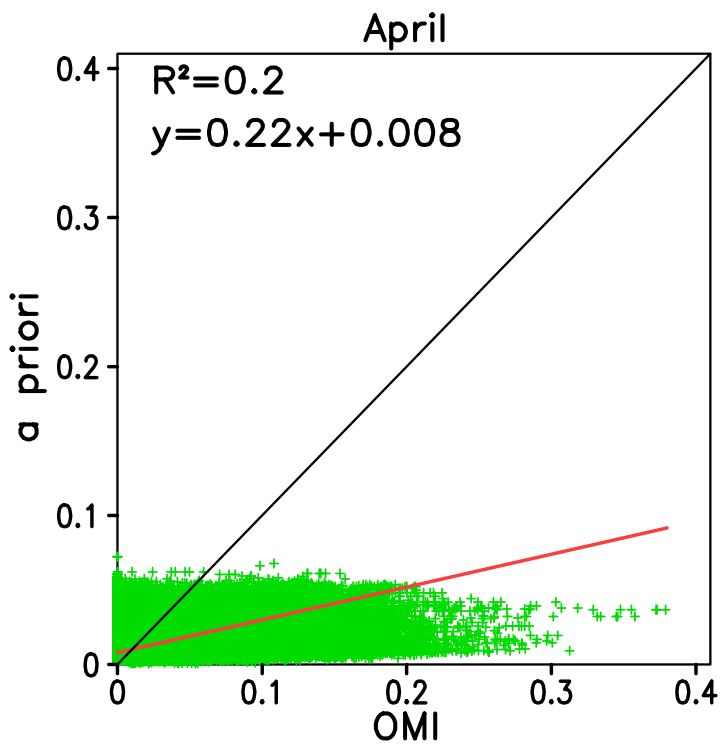


Fig. 12





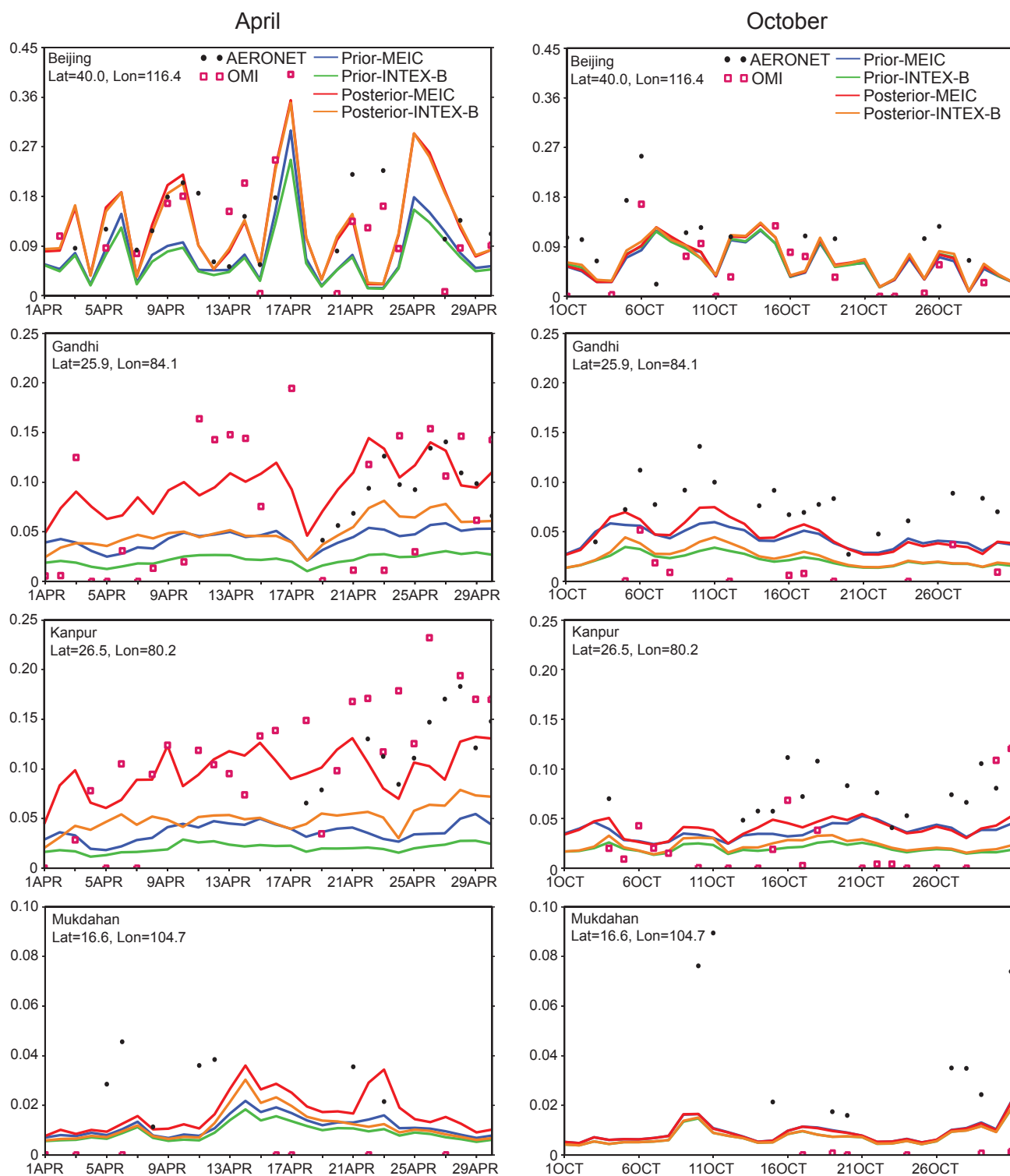
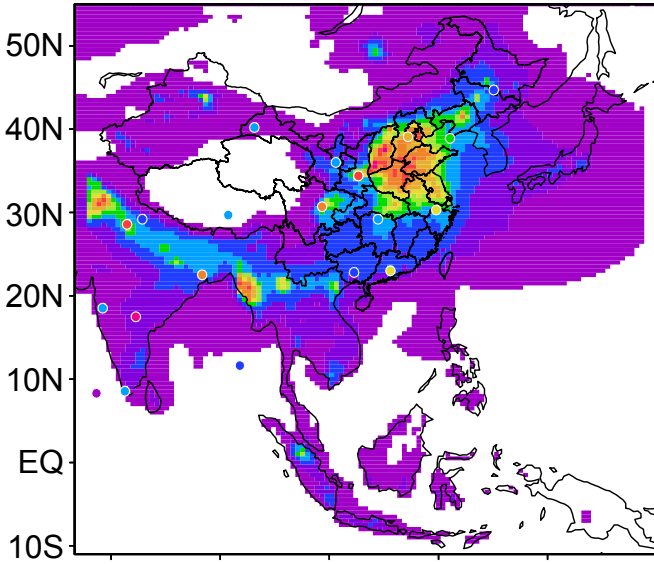


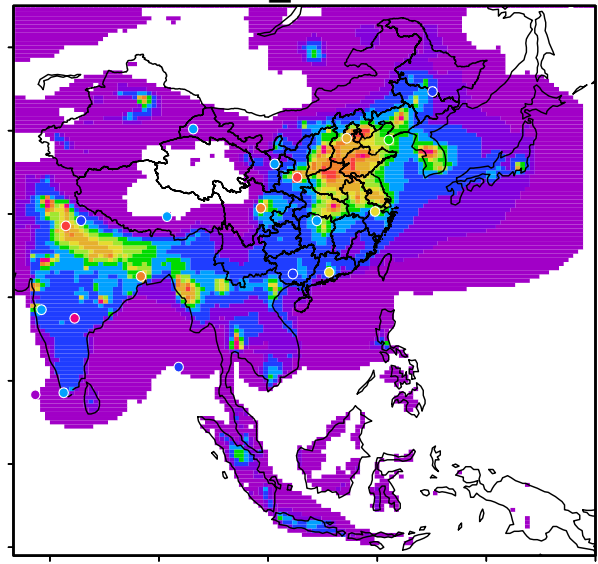
Fig. 15

April

INTEX-B



MEIC_SEAC⁴RS



October

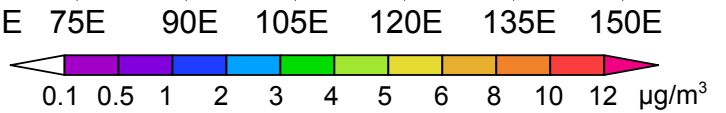
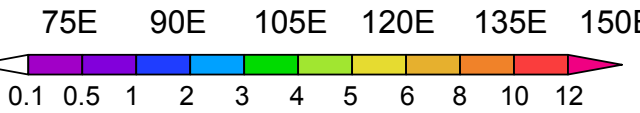
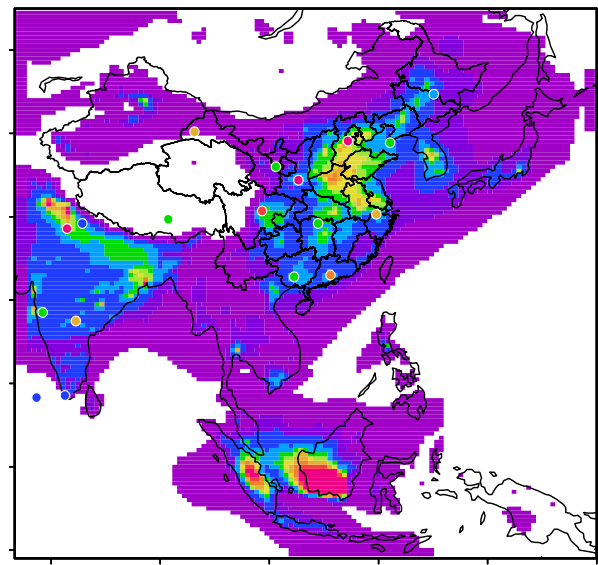
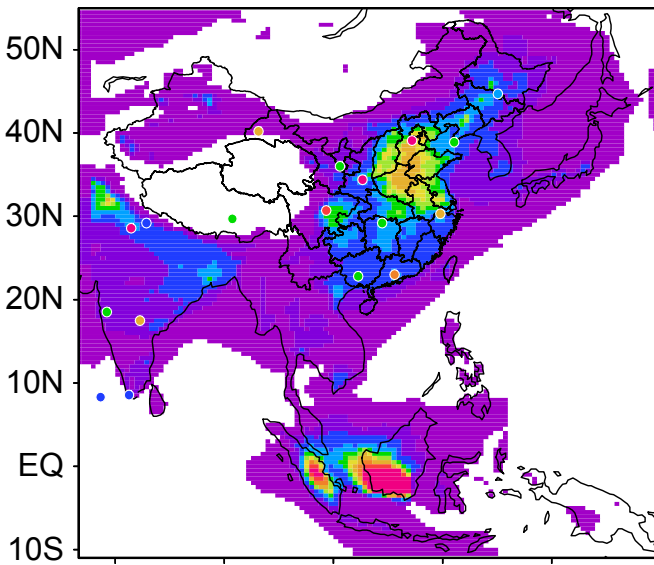


Fig. 16

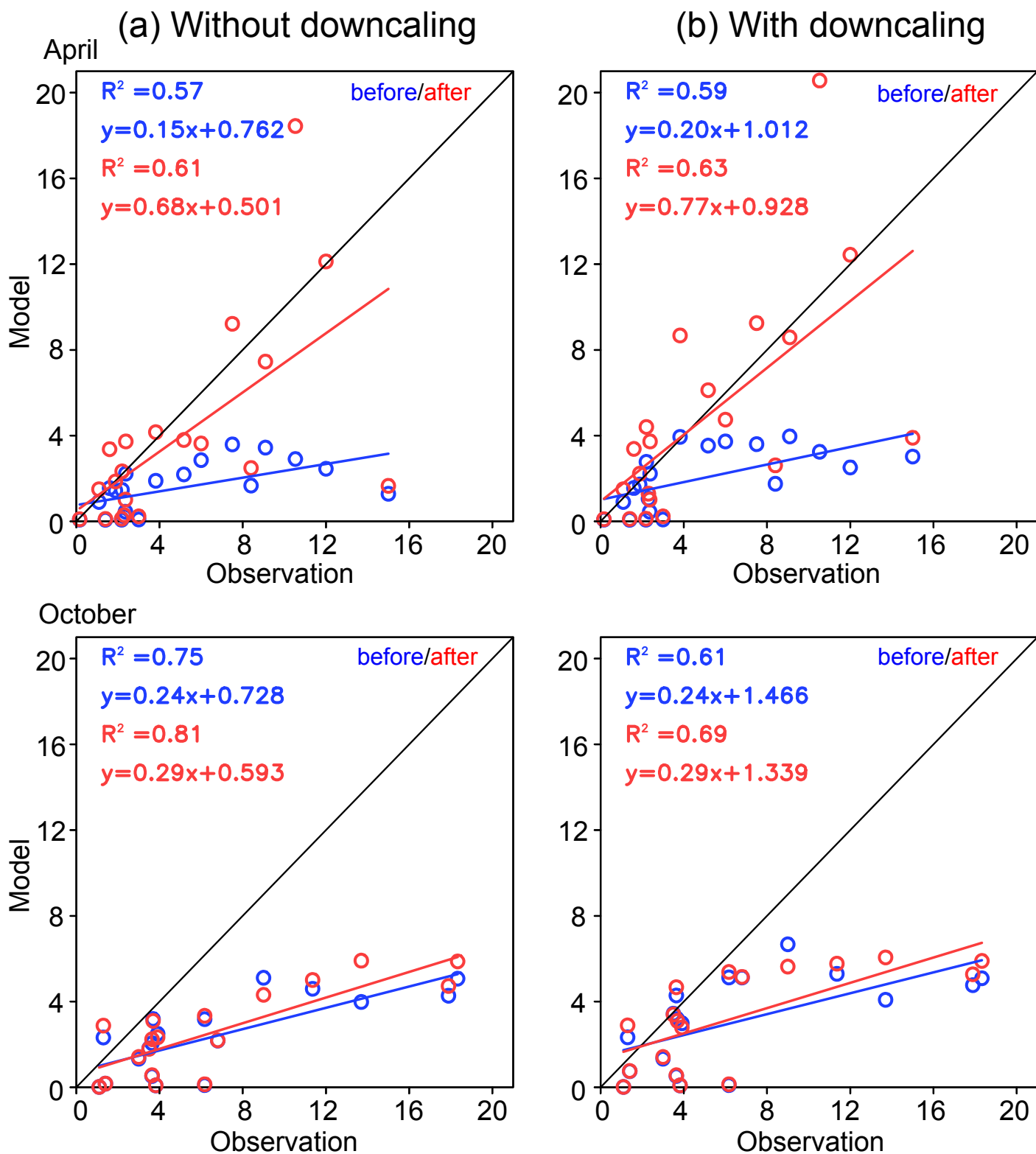


Fig. 17

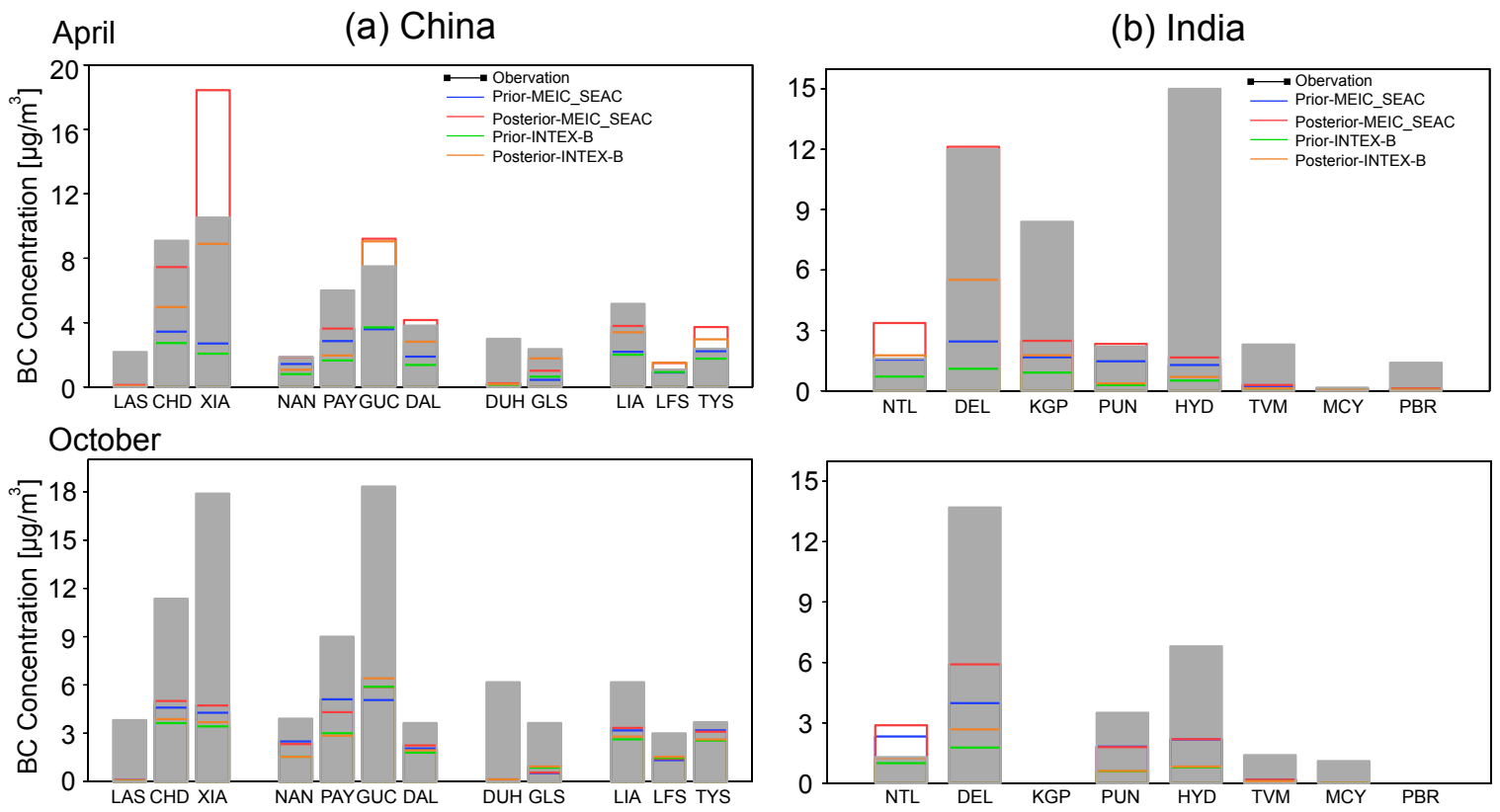


Fig. 18

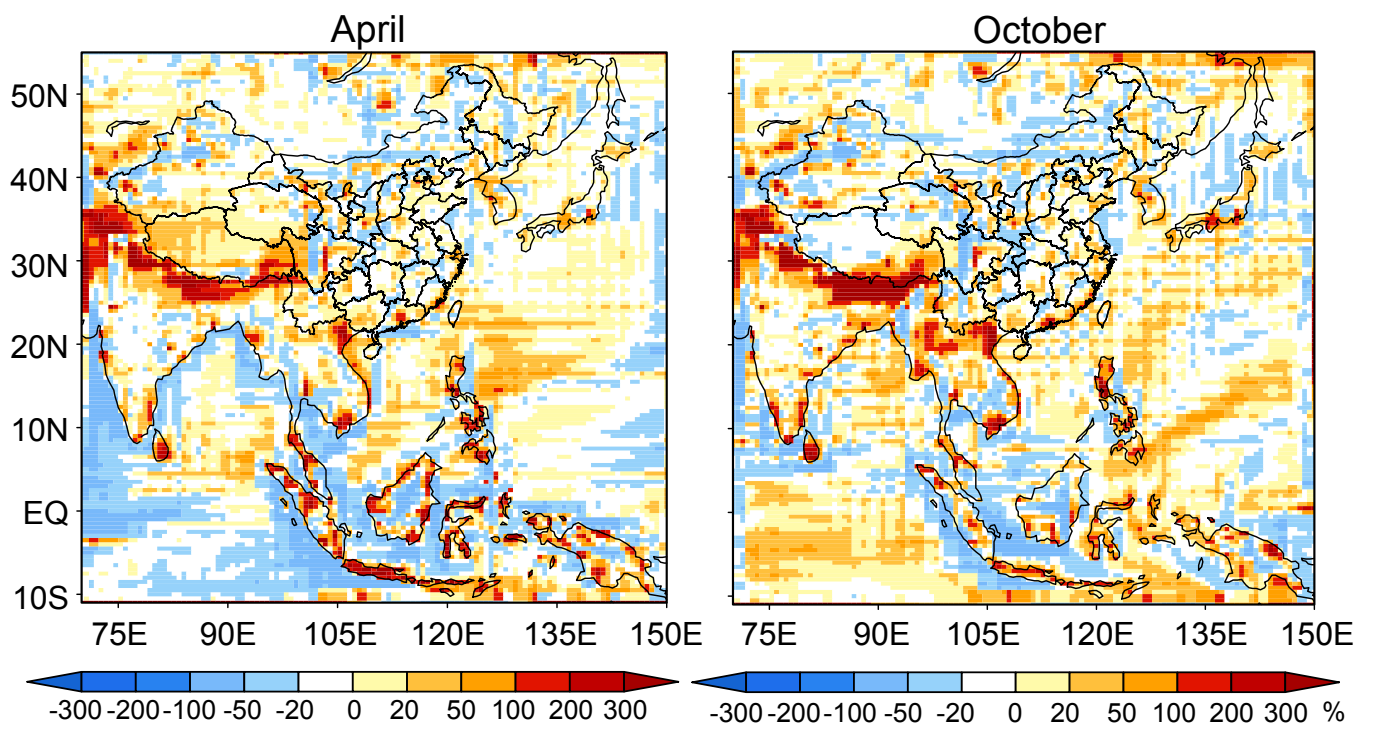


Fig. 19

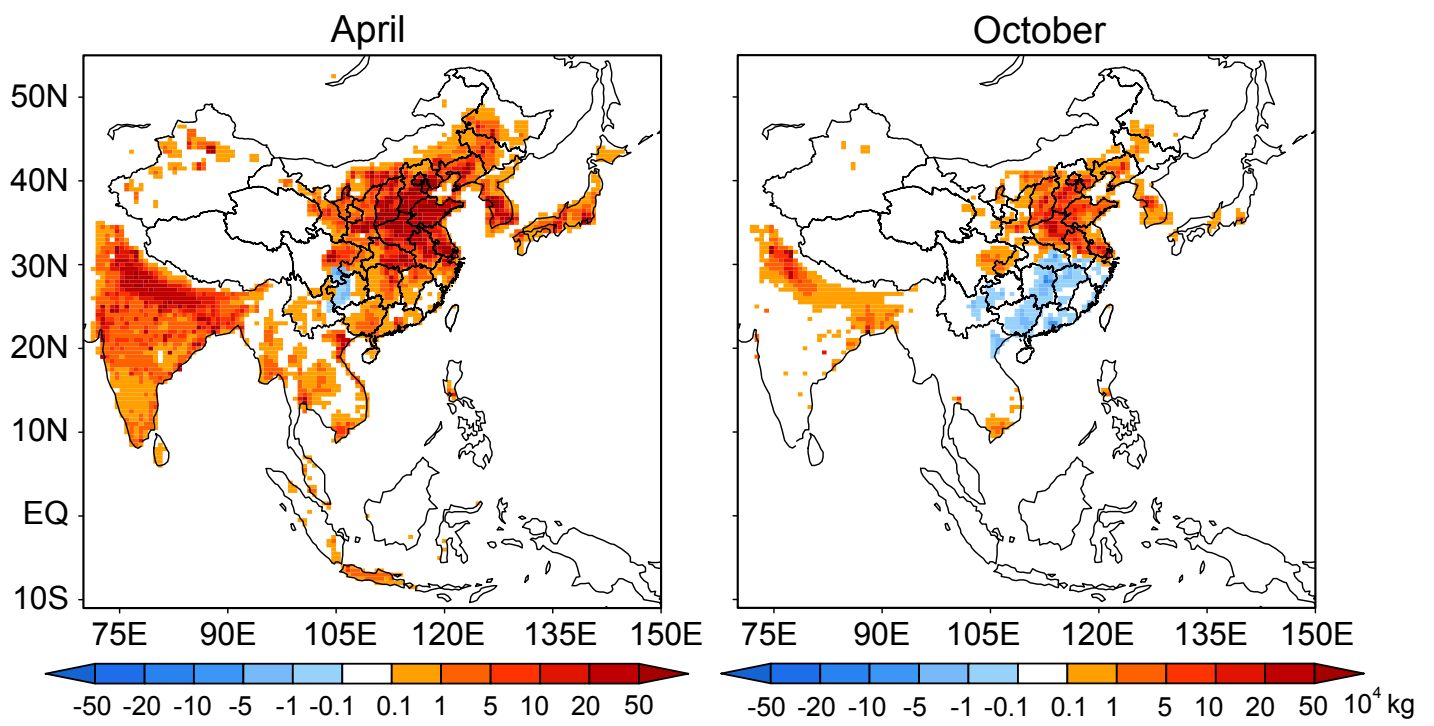


Fig. 20