

1 **Estimates of European emissions of methyl chloroform using a Bayesian**
2 **inversion method**

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Abstract

Methyl chloroform (MCF) is a man-made chlorinated solvent contributing to the destruction of stratospheric ozone and is controlled under the Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer and its amendments calling for its phase-out in 1996 in developed countries, and 2015 in developing countries. Long-term, high-frequency observations of MCF carried out at three European sites show a constant decline of the background mixing ratios of MCF. However, we observe persistent non-negligible mixing ratio enhancements of MCF in pollution episodes suggesting unexpectedly high ongoing emissions in Europe. In order to identify the source regions and to give an estimate of the magnitude of such emissions, we have used a Bayesian inversion method and a point source analysis, based on high-frequency long-term observations at the three European sites.

The inversion identified south-eastern France (SEF) as a region with enhanced MCF emissions. This estimate was confirmed by the point source analysis. We performed this analysis using an eleven-year data set, from January 2002 to December 2012. Overall emissions estimated for the European study domain decreased nearly exponentially from 1.1 Gg yr⁻¹ in 2002 to 0.32 Gg yr⁻¹ in 2012, of which the estimated emissions from the SEF region accounted for 0.49 Gg yr⁻¹ in 2002 and 0.20 Gg yr⁻¹ in 2012. The European estimates are a significant fraction of the total semi-hemisphere (30-90 N) emissions, contributing a minimum of 9.8% in 2004 and a maximum of 33.7% in 2011, of which on average 50% are from the SEF region. On the global scale, the SEF region is thus responsible from a minimum of 2.6% (in 2003) to a maximum of 10.3 % (in 2009) of the global MCF emissions.

1 Introduction

1,1,1, trichloroethane, commonly known as methyl chloroform (MCF), is a man-made chlorinated compound widely used in the second half of the 20th century for metal cleaning, precision cleaning of mechanical assemblies and as a solvent in adhesives (McCulloch and Midgley, 2001). After consumption, MCF is released into the atmosphere, where the main sink is the reaction with the OH radical. This, together with the stratospheric loss and oceanic hydrolysis, gives a global lifetime of 5 years (Rigby et al., 2013). The fraction of emissions transported to the stratosphere and destroyed there by ultraviolet radiation, contributes to reactive stratospheric chlorine concentrations and stratospheric ozone destruction. For this reason MCF was included in the 1990 amendment to the Montreal Protocol, requiring for its complete phase out in 2005 and 2015 in non-Article 5 parties and Article 5 parties, respectively. The phase out in non Article 5 parties was significantly accelerated (from 2005 to 1996) by the 1992 amendment of the Protocol (UNEP, 2009). Due to the relatively short lifetime of MCF and its past use primarily in fast-release applications, the implementation of the Montreal Protocol allowed, starting from 1998, a near-constant exponential-rate decline of the global background concentrations of MCF (Rigby et al., 2013, Montzka et al., 2011a). Currently, the global average background mixing ratio of MCF is around 5 ppt, which can be compared to the maximum value of ca. 130 ppt reached in the mid nineties (Montzka et al., 2011b). However, latitudinal and vertical mixing ratio gradients, as reported by Montzka et al. (2000) on the basis of analysis of flask samples collected across the globe, still persist, consistent with continued northern hemispheric emissions or an asymmetry in MCF loss in the northern vs southern hemispheres (data update to Montzka et al., 2000 available at: ftp://ftp.cmdl.noaa.gov/hats/solvents/CH3CCl3/flasks/GCMS/CH3CCl3_GCMS_flask.txt).

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2 Based on our understanding that OH is the main removal mechanism for MCF in the troposphere,
3 long-term global measurements of MCF, combined with emission estimates, have been used to
4 infer both hemispheric and global average mole fractions and trends, and variability of the OH
5 radical on annual timescales (see e.g. Montzka et al., 2000; Prinn et al., 2001; Prinn et al., 2005;
6 Montzka et al., 2011a). This is otherwise difficult because no globally representative
7 measurements of OH exist, although OH plays a key role in atmospheric chemistry, due to its
8 capability of removing many other radiatively important trace gases and atmospheric pollutants
9 (Montzka et al. 2011a).

10
11 A correct quantification of MCF emissions is crucial for evaluating hemispheric and global mean
12 OH concentrations. In recent years, this has stimulated a scientific debate concerning the actual
13 extent of emissions, in particular on a regional (European) scale. According to Krol et al. (2003),
14 who used data from a short-term tropospheric measurement campaign, annual European
15 emissions in 2000 were greater than 20 Gg, whereas Reimann et al. (2005), based on four years
16 (2000-2004) of high-frequency data from two European stations (Mace Head, Ireland, and
17 Jungfraujoch, Switzerland), have derived considerably lower annual emissions, ranging from 0.3 to
18 3.4 Gg yr⁻¹.

19
20 Long-term high-frequency observations of MCF are regularly conducted at four sites in Europe
21 that are part of the former SOGE (System for Observations of halogenated Greenhouse gases in
22 Europe) network: Mace Head (MHD, Ireland), Jungfraujoch (JFJ, Switzerland), Zeppelin mountain
23 near Ny Ålesund (ZEP, Norway) and Mt. Cimone (CMN, Italy). The network was established in
24 2001, though measurements at MHD were started many years earlier (Prinn et al., 2000), and has
25 as its aim the creation of a European infrastructure for the evaluation of long-term trends and
26 European emissions of halogenated gases. In fact, long-term high frequency observations
27 combined with inverse modelling (top-down approaches) have proved to be a powerful and
28 important tool for the quantification of emissions and the verification of bottom-up inventories
29 for many trace gases (Nisbet and Weiss, 2010).

30
31 The time series of MCF mixing ratios from the European stations show a constant decline that is
32 consistent with the global trends in atmospheric mixing ratio. However, the persisting occurrence
33 of non-negligible mixing ratio enhancements during pollution episodes, especially at CMN and JFJ,
34 suggests unexpectedly high ongoing emissions somewhere in Europe. In order to identify the
35 source region and estimate the magnitude of such emissions, we have used a Bayesian inversion
36 method developed by Seibert (2000; 2001) and improved by Eckhardt et al. (2008) and Stohl et al.
37 (2009; 2010) and a point source analysis method developed by Keller et al. (2011), in combination
38 with long-term high frequency observations at the three European stations CMN, JFJ and MHD.
39 The estimates provided by this analysis are relevant for constraining the atmospheric budget of
40 MCF on a regional scale, improving the accuracy of MCF emissions quantification on a global scale,
41 and, ultimately, improving our understanding of atmospheric hydroxyl.

42 43 **2 Method**

44 45 **2.1 Measurement sites**

46
47 The measurement sites CMN (2165 m above sea level, asl) and JFJ (3580 m asl) are continental
48 stations located in the Northern Apennines in Italy and in the Central Swiss Alps, respectively.

1 MHD is a marine station located on the western coast of Ireland (Grant et al., 2010). The three
2 stations are remote measurement sites episodically influenced by emissions from the European
3 continent (Fischer et al., 2003; Henne et al., 2010), and are connected to the international
4 measurement network AGAGE (Advanced Global Atmospheric Gases Experiment). Furthermore,
5 they are classified as WMO GAW (World Meteorological Organisation Global Atmosphere Watch)
6 global stations.
7 Time series from ZEP have not been included in the analysis because tests performed on one year
8 of data (2008) showed that the inclusion of this remote station, where no MCF enhancements are
9 observed, did not substantially alter the emission magnitudes we derive here (derived fluxes
10 differed by <2% with the inclusion of ZEP).

11

12

13 **2.2 Analytical method**

14

15 At CMN, bi-hourly observations of MCF in ambient air are conducted via gas chromatography–
16 mass spectrometry (GC–MS) preceded by on-line sample enrichment using adsorbent material. A
17 GC–MS Agilent 6850–5975 has been equipped with auto-sampling/pre-concentration device
18 (Markes International, UNITY2-Air Server2) to enrich the halocarbons on a focussing trap filled
19 with four different adsorbing materials. The details of the analytical procedure are reported in
20 Maione et al. (2013). The MS detector is operating in selective ion mode (SIM), and m/z values of 97
21 and 61 are selected for detection and quantification of MCF. Typical repeatability evaluated from the
22 repeated working standard measurements for MCF is 1.8% and 1.3% (Relative Standard Deviation,
23 RSD over 1 year), referring to the period before and after 2008, respectively, i.e. before and after
24 the analytical instrumentation (mass spectrometer and pre-concentration unit) was upgraded so
25 as to improve the quality of data, with a clear decrease of instrumental noise. The relatively lower
26 precision in the first half of the data set does not affect data reliability. Limit of detection, LOD
27 (Signal to Noise, $S/N > 3$) and limit of quantitation, LOQ ($S/N > 10$) have been indirectly estimated on
28 the chromatogram of the working standard run with typical background concentrations. The
29 obtained values are: LOD 0.40 and 0.30 ppt and LOQ 1.4 and 0.9 ppt, before and after 2008,
30 respectively.

31 The JFJ and MHD MCF time series used in this paper are based on ADS (Adsorbition Desorbition
32 System, Simmonds et al., 1995) and MEDUSA (Miller et al., 2008) measurements. At JFJ,
33 measurements started in January 2000 using the ADS, and in 2008 this sampling device was
34 replaced with a MEDUSA system; while at MHD measurements started in 1998 by ADS, and in
35 2004 was replaced by a MEDUSA system. Typical repeatability for the AGAGE MEDUSA systems is
36 well below 1.5% for both stations (RSD over 1 year).

37

38 **2.3 Calibration**

39

40 Ambient air samples are analysed every two hours and are bracketed by working standard
41 analyses, in order to detect and correct for short-term instrumental drift. These working standards
42 are air samples which are pumped during relatively clean-background conditions into 35-l electro-
43 polished stainless steel canisters (Essex Cryogenics, Missouri, USA) using a modified oil-free
44 compressor (SA-3 or SA-6 Rix, California, USA) up to ~60 bar. The tanks are humidified with
45 purified water during the pumping process in order to improve the stability of the compounds
46 (Miller et al, 2008) and to ensure a close similarity in composition between the ambient air
47 samples and the reference standard. This with the aim of minimising analytical artefacts and the
48 nonlinearity of the method. The working standards are calibrated at least monthly against a

1 tertiary standard prepared with the same procedure at the baseline station of MHD. For JFJ and
2 MHD, transfer standard from SIO (Scripps Institution for Oceanography, La Jolla, CA, USA) are used
3 for this purpose. The calibration scale for MCF used here is the SIO-2005 scale. The GC-MS systems
4 at the three stations are fully automated via the Linux-based chromatography software (GCWerks,
5 gcwerks.com) adopted by the AGAGE programme.
6

7 **2.4 Determination of concentrations in the background atmosphere**

8

9 A careful evaluation of MCF mixing ratios in the background atmosphere reaching our
10 measurement locations is crucial not only for estimating atmospheric trends and, consequently,
11 annual growth rates, but also for emission evaluation, because back attribution techniques used
12 for assessing emissions are based on the clear identification and quantification of mixing ratio
13 enhancements above background values. In the case of a station like CMN, surrounded by
14 complex topography and emission fields, the determination of the baseline is not trivial. Here we
15 apply a statistical method based on a two-step procedure (Giostra et al., 2011) that we have
16 developed specifically for CMN and applied also to mixing ratio histories acquired at JFJ and MHD.
17 The first step consists of detrending the measurement data record using an appropriate time
18 interval. The second step is aimed at estimating the uncertainty in the determination of the
19 baseline, which includes instrumental error and natural background variability, assuming that such
20 errors follow a Gaussian distribution. The overall observed probability distribution function (PDF)
21 can be decomposed into the sum of a Gaussian and a Gamma distribution with the Gaussian
22 distribution corresponding to the well-mixed background atmosphere state and the Gamma
23 distribution corresponding to a non-well-mixed state, i.e. data containing recent emission inputs
24 that will be used to derive information about regional emission rates and their spatial distribution.
25 If the number of available data points is large enough, then the decomposition of the global PDF
26 for the observations as the sum of a Gaussian plus a Gamma becomes stable and reliable. Data
27 belonging to the obtained Gaussian distribution are regarded as baseline data.
28

29 **2.5 Dispersion modelling and Bayesian inversion**

30

31 The inversion procedure is based on 20-day backward simulations with the Lagrangian particle
32 dispersion model FLEXPART (Stohl et al., 1998; 2005; Seibert and Frank, 2004). FLEXPART is a
33 stochastic model with detailed treatment of turbulence and convection and uses meteorological
34 analyses from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF). In this study
35 we used the ECMWF analyses at $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ resolution for the period 2002-2012, over the domain
36 reported in Figure 1. In addition, over a two-year period (2008-2009) we used nested
37 meteorological data with a resolution of $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ in the European domain (from 12° W to 28° E
38 and from 35° to 65° N), called ECMWF_nest. FLEXPART was run backward in time from the
39 measurement stations at three-hourly intervals, using 40000 particles for each backward run.
40

41 The FLEXPART output is an emission sensitivity, also called source receptor relationship (SRR). The
42 SRR in a particular grid cell, expressed in unit s kg^{-1} , is proportional to the particle residence time
43 in that cell and measures the simulated mixing ratio at the receptor that a source of unit strength
44 (1 kg s^{-1}) in the cell would produce for a given air sample. Multiplying the footprint emission
45 sensitivity (i.e. the emission sensitivity in the lowest model layer) with the emission flux taken
46 from an appropriate emission inventory gives the simulated mixing ratio at the receptor, which
47 can be compared with a coincident measurement. Figure 1 shows the average footprint emission
48 sensitivity for the three stations (CMN, JFJ, MHD) for the period January 2008-December 2009.

1 Hereinafter, we will refer to the area with sensitivity $>2 \text{ ps kg}^{-1}$ as the study domain.

2
3 The FLEXPART output can be ingested directly by the inversion algorithm based on the inversion
4 method developed by Seibert (2000; 2001) and improved by Eckhardt et al (2008) to allow i) an *a*
5 *priori* emission estimate for the unknown magnitude and location of sources; ii) a Bayesian
6 formulation considering uncertainties for the *a priori* emissions and the observations and iii) an
7 iterative algorithm for ensuring a solution with only positive values.

8
9 A further improvement was introduced by Stohl et al. (2009; 2010) considering a baseline in the
10 observations that is adjusted as part of the inversion process, and more detailed quantification of
11 errors. The model setup and the inversion method used for this study is the same as in Stohl et al.
12 (2009; 2010), where additional mathematical details can be found.

13
14 The basic idea is to find an *a posteriori* emission distribution leading to the best fit between the
15 measurements and the model results while keeping the solution within the given error bounds of
16 the *a priori* emissions. The “best” agreement is measured as the sum of the squared errors,
17 inversely weighted with the uncertainty variances. The method used also identifies “outliers” in
18 the model-simulated mixing ratios and assigns them large uncertainties to prevent the solution
19 being strongly influenced by large measurement and/or model errors (Stohl et al. 2009).

20
21 The *a priori* MCF emissions used for this study are based on the E-PRTR (European Pollutant
22 Release and Transfer Register) inventory, a European-wide register that provides environmental
23 data from industrial facilities in EU member states and in Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway, Serbia
24 and Switzerland, reporting MCF atmospheric emissions, higher than 100 kg yr^{-1} , from 2007 to
25 2011. For those years in which emission data are not available (i.e. 2002-2006 and 2012), we used
26 the average emission values over 2007-2011. An alternative homogeneous emission field was
27 used with aim to test model performance. Results are shown in Appendix B. The size of the
28 inversion problem is defined by the number of grid cells for which emissions shall be determined.
29 In order to reduce the number of unknowns we used a variable-resolution emission grid, with grid
30 sizes ranging from $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ lat long to $2^\circ \times 2^\circ$ lat long (Spain, Portugal and Norway). The resolution
31 was controlled by the product of *a priori* emission flux and average emission sensitivity, as
32 described by Stohl et al. (2009) who used $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ as the finest resolution. SRR values are high in the
33 vicinity of the observation sites and they decrease with the distance from the sites (see Fig. 1),
34 since emissions at large distances from the measurement locations cannot be resolved at high
35 spatial resolution. Since MCF emissions predominantly occur over continents, in the inversion we
36 excluded boxes that are covered by water or ice by more than 99%, a higher value with respect to
37 the 95% value used in a recent study (Keller et al., 2012). The number of grid cells used for the
38 annual inversions is 4400.

39 40 **2.6 Point source analysis**

41
42 The point source analysis (PSA) is based on the approach developed by Keller et al. (2011) called
43 “(time variable) point source analysis” that attributes excess concentrations, not explained by the
44 *a priori* emission field, to a source area whose location and extension is assumed to be known and
45 that appears to be responsible of the enhancements. Given the emission sensitivity in the source
46 area as obtained from the dispersion model, the source region emission magnitudes can be
47 directly determined for each individual excess concentration event. This has the advantage that
48 time-varying emissions can be retrieved, whereas for the inverse modelling the emissions are

1 assumed to be constant during the course of a year. In the case of the point source analysis, Keller
2 (2011) defines the sensitivity as the residence time of the particles below 100 m within a $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$
3 cell, above the model ground, divided by air density, hereinafter defined SRR_v ($SSR_v = SRR \cdot \text{volume}$;
4 $\text{volume} = 1^\circ \times 1^\circ \times 100 \text{ m}$). In this study, the volume is $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ \times 100 \text{ m}$
5 When the emission sensitivity in the source region is low, spurious high emission values can occur
6 with this method. Several tests were therefore performed in order to assess, for the identified
7 source area, a SRR_v threshold above which these noise problems are largely avoided.
8 The PSA method takes each individual measurement above the baseline, not explained by *a priori*
9 emission field, and determines the emission that is needed in a predefined source region to
10 reproduce this measurement exactly. Due to inaccuracies in transport and other numerical errors,
11 this normally results in a noisy emission time series that, upon averaging in time, provides an
12 estimate of the emission in predefined region. The method is particularly suited for cases when
13 source region emissions are variable and also when it is not certain that emissions are constant.

14

15 **3 Results and Discussion**

16

17 **3.1 Time series**

18

19 The statistical filter as in Giostra et al. (2011) for the identification of baseline mole fractions has
20 been applied to the time series data available at the three stations. The resulting time series are
21 reported in Figure 2 where the black dots represent baseline data and the red dots represent air
22 samples with mixing ratios above the baseline. The monthly mean baseline mole fractions of MCF
23 at the three stations have been used for the evaluation of the trends and the changes in the trend,
24 using the empirical model as reported by Simmonds et al. (2004), whose results are reported in
25 Table 1.

26 MCF average baseline mole fractions show a significant and consistent decrease over the study
27 period at all the three stations as a consequence of a strong decrease in global emissions following
28 the implementation of the Montreal Protocol in a manner consistent with data obtained at other
29 sites around the globe (Montzka et al, 2011a). However, the percentage of enhancements above
30 the baseline, as well as their intensity, is noticeably lower at MHD compared to the other two
31 stations, suggesting the persisting occurrence of recent emissions, which continue to influence the
32 continental stations more strongly than MHD. It is thus likely that the MCF source region is located
33 closer and more upstream to CMN and JFJ than to MHD.

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35 **3.2 Source localisation and quantification**

36

37 **3.2.1 Bayesian inversion set up**

38

39 In order to identify MCF source regions and quantify the magnitude of emissions responsible for
40 the observed mixing ratio enhancements above background levels, the Bayesian inversion method
41 was applied to the MCF data from the three sites. The *a priori* emission field was based on the
42 atmospheric emissions from the E-PRTR dataset, reported in Figure 3. The E-PRTR database also
43 includes MCF emissions to the soil and water, which have not been included in the *a priori* field.

44 Initially the simulations have been performed using observations from January to December 2008,
45 for which nested meteorological data with a resolution of $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ are available.

46 The uncertainties of the emissions, σ_x , need to be specified for every grid cell. As there is no
47 information about uncertainties, we used the uncertainty in the matrix diagonal elements as

1 defined in Stohl (2009) i.e., for inversion box j , $\sigma_x^j = \max \{ p * x_j, 2 * p * x_{surf} \}$, with p being a properly
2 chosen scaling factor and x_j the *a priori* emission flux in the inversion box j , x_{surf} the global emission
3 value, as estimated by Rigby et al., (2013), homogeneously distributed in the grid cells
4 corresponding to land areas. This σ formulation allows us to assign a high uncertainty also to those
5 boxes with zero *a priori* emissions. We tested p values ranging from 50% to 500% of the prior
6 emission estimate, balancing between (i) enough flexibility in emissions to allow adjustments that
7 better fit the observations and (ii) not too high flexibility that might lead to over-fitting of the
8 observations and to noisy and unrealistic emissions. The *a posteriori* flux assigned to the inverted
9 box is distributed according to the population density.

10
11 However, the improvement of the measurement-model correlation was largest in the p value
12 range from 0.5 to 1, with much smaller improvements for further increases of p . Furthermore, the
13 retrieved emission field subjectively appeared too noisy for the highest p values. We therefore set
14 $p = 1$ as a compromise, as this produced a reasonably low noise level in the *a posteriori* emissions
15 while still obtaining a good correlation between observed and *a posteriori* modelled data.
16 Sensitivity tests performed in order to investigate how the *a priori* emission intensity and the
17 station network geometry affect the *a posteriori* emission field are reported in Appendix 1.

18 19 **3.2.2 Inversion results**

20
21 The E-PRTR emission map and the resulting *a posteriori* emission field for 2008 are shown in Figure
22 4, proving that the Bayesian inversion is able to: i) to confirm the localisation of the majority of the
23 sources declared in the E-PRTR inventory as atmospheric emissions; ii) localise sources not
24 included in the *a priori* field, but included in the E-PRTR inventory as release to soil/water, e.g. in
25 Norway; iii) identify additional emissions sources not reported by E-PRTR, e.g. in Northern Italy,
26 where a large waste water treatment plant is present; iv) confirm that the strongest sources of
27 MCF in Europe are located in southeastern France, hereafter named (SEF). We define the SEF as
28 the area including the two French sources declared in the E-PRTR inventory and that shows an
29 emission more than 1000% higher than adjacent cells. Noteworthy, SEF includes the two strongest
30 MCF sources in Europe, as declared by E-PRTR (landfill and waste disposal or recovery of hazard
31 waste and halogen chemical plant). Due to the importance of the SEF area within the study
32 domain, we performed the inversions for the whole study period, isolating SEF as a separate
33 region.

34
35 As shown by the sensitivity tests (see Appendix A), the $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ resolution and the nested $0.25^\circ \times$
36 0.25° meteorological data produce comparable emission estimates. Therefore, we extend the
37 proposed analysis to the whole period, January 2002 to December 2012, for which only the
38 coarser-resolution ECMWF data were available. The detailed 2002-2012 *a posteriori* emission
39 estimates, and the related uncertainties (calculated as described in Appendix A1, Sensitivity tests)
40 for different European areas are given in Table 2, where the *a priori* emissions are reported as
41 well. These results confirm the importance of the SEF area, but they suggest an MCF emission
42 roughly five times higher than the E-PRTR inventory estimate and up to one tenth (in 2009) of the
43 total semi-hemispheric (30°N - 90°N) emissions for the same years reported by Rigby et al (2013).
44 All other sources in Europe together contribute only about 50% to the total European emissions.

45
46 In Figure 5 (top panel), the trends in emission estimates from SEF, from different groups of
47 countries and from the whole European study domain are reported. Although the study domain
48 and the SEF area both show a decrease in emissions over the whole study period, the decrease is

1 less rapid for SEF and the estimated emissions from the SEF region are remarkably large. The
2 extent of such estimates can be further appreciated by comparing our estimates from SEF (red
3 curve) with the E-PRTR data for SEF used for the *a priori* (light blue) and the global (green) and
4 semi-hemispheric (30°N-90°N) (purple) emissions provided by Rigby et al. (2013), reported in the
5 bottom panel in Fig. 5. The fraction of global emissions coming from the SEF region ranges from
6 2.6% in 2003 to 10.3% in 2009, with an average of 6% over the whole period (black line in the
7 bottom panel of Fig. 5). There also appears to be an upward trend in the fraction of global MCF
8 emissions coming from SEF, indicating that MCF emissions in SEF decrease more slowly than in the
9 rest of the world. These results confirm the relevance of the SEF region that accounts for the
10 majority of the emissions in the study domain. The European study domain emissions are a
11 significant fraction of the total semi-hemisphere emissions, including also Article 5 countries
12 (Rigby et al., 2013) going from 9.8% in 2004 to 33.7% in 2011, of which on average 50% are from
13 the SEF region. The plot also shows that, as discussed in Appendix A, the *a posteriori* emission
14 estimate is not severely impacted by the substantially different emission magnitude reported
15 during 2010 for SEF in the E-PRTR inventory.

16

17 **3.2.3 Meteorological filter**

18

19 Since SEF has been identified as the strongest MCF source region in the study domain, a further
20 analysis has been performed in order to highlight how emissions from this region are recorded at
21 the receptors or sampling locations. Using the FLEXPART model output, the measurement data
22 were categorized into cases with zero emission sensitivity in the SEF region (SRR_{SEF}), and in cases
23 with $SRR_{SEF} > 0$.

24 The data series reported in Figure 6 show that at CMN and JFJ, nearly all mixing ratio
25 enhancements are associated with $SRR_{SEF} > 0$, and most data on the high side of the background
26 distribution also have $SRR_{SEF} > 0$. Even at MHD, which is a considerable distance away from SEF, all
27 samples with $SRR_{SEF} > 0$ are on the high side of the baseline distribution. This suggests that the SEF
28 region is the dominant source contributing to mixing ratio enhancements at CMN and JFJ. Results
29 from MHD are not inconsistent with this conclusion. However, since not all data at the high end of
30 the baseline distribution are explained by non-zero SRR_{SEF} , is likely to be a contribution of weaker
31 sources within the study domain.

32

33 The detrended dataset is reported in Figure 7 in the form of probability density function (PDF)
34 distributions, where the data pertaining to $SRR_{SEF} = 0$ follow a Gaussian distribution, corresponding
35 to a well mixed state (baseline) and the data pertaining to $SRR_{SEF} > 0$ (having non-zero sensitivity to
36 the SEF region) follow a Gamma distribution with a long tail towards high values, corresponding to
37 the influence of recent emissions. The sigma (σ) value of the distribution decreases with the
38 increase of the extent of mixing, converging towards the instrumental error in the limit of
39 “perfect” mixing. Here, σ values are 0.16 ppt at CMN, 0.17 ppt at JFJ and 0.15 ppt at MHD. The
40 instrumental error at these different sites is 0.13 ppt, 0.15 ppt and 0.15 ppt, respectively, during
41 2008-2009. The slightly higher σ values at CMN and at JFJ confirm that a spatial gradient for MCF is
42 still occurring, confirming the occurrence of fresh emissions in continental Europe. For more
43 details on the influence of the spatial gradient on the PDF, see Giostra et al., 2011.

44

45 **3.3.4 Source quantification: point source analysis**

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47 In order to verify the emission magnitudes derived with the Bayesian inversion, we used an
48 alternative method, called point source analysis introduced by Keller et al. (2011), which is

1 suitable once an emission point (or an emission area, in our case the SEF area) is identified. The
2 advantage of this method, hereinafter called PSA, is that it does not rely on the assumption of
3 constant emissions over a certain period. Another interesting feature of the application of the PSA
4 is that independent estimates of emissions for the area can be derived with this analysis for each
5 of the observing stations. The analysis has been conducted for the two-year period (January 2008-
6 December 2009) when the high-resolution meteorological data were available.
7

8 For the PSA, data have been selected when the sampled air was influenced by the SEF area. We
9 set a threshold when the SRR_v in that area was above $1500 \text{ s m}^3\text{kg}^{-1}$. During those periods, excess
10 concentrations that cannot be explained by the *a priori* emission field are assumed to originate
11 exclusively from the SEF area. For every measurement point with a sensitivity above $1500 \text{ s m}^3\text{kg}^{-1}$,
12 a SEF emission flux is derived that will bring the modelled mixing ratio (given the simulated SRR_v
13 values) in perfect agreement with the measurements. The use of a minimum threshold is
14 necessary to avoid the greater uncertainties associated with sampling events characterized by
15 very small sensitivities in the SEF region.
16

17 The SRR_v threshold ($1500 \text{ s m}^3\text{kg}^{-1}$) is identified as the value for which the annual emission flux
18 converges towards a limit value. The plots in Figure 8 (top panels) report the average annual
19 emission fluxes together the 95% confidence interval of the annual average as obtained by three-
20 hourly estimates of the three stations. The bottom panels report the number of measurements
21 per year above the identified threshold. The emission estimates from the SEF region are 0.5 ± 0.1
22 and $0.5 \pm 0.2 \text{ Gg yr}^{-1}$ in 2008 and 2009, respectively. The obtained estimates using the PSA method
23 are almost a factor 2 larger than those obtained from the inverse modelling, as reported in Table
24 2. This is expected as the inversion results are bound towards *a priori* emissions that are clearly
25 too low for the SEF area. This leads to a low bias also in the obtained *a posteriori* emissions.
26

27 **3.4 Additional analysis**

28
29 Our results suggest that the SEF area is responsible for a large fraction of semi-hemispheric MCF
30 emissions. To further assess this hypothesis, we consider additional measurements during a
31 sampling campaign carried out at four sites located in the vicinity of the Marseille urban area (well
32 inside the SEF region) in June and July 2001. The obtained time series is reported in Figure 9, along
33 with the MHD baseline time series for the same period (grey dots). Comparing MCF mixing ratios
34 measured in the Marseille area with the MHD record, it is possible to appreciate the magnitude of
35 the enhancements above the northern-hemisphere baseline (represented by the MHD record).
36 MCF mixing ratios show a large variability with about 6% of the data above 50 ppt and about 2% of
37 data above 100 ppt. Such large anomalies indicate the presence of a strong MCF source. Indeed,
38 MCF data from several urban areas taken from Barletta et al. (2006) and reported in Table 3 show
39 that the mean MCF mixing ratios in Marseille are among the highest during these years and,
40 particularly, that the standard deviation of the data is by far the largest of all the sampled cities.
41 This must be attributed to fresh emissions from nearby sources.
42

43 The number of available data in this short localized sampling campaign is not large enough to
44 allow a precise localisation of the MCF source. However, we produced numerical simulations with
45 a simple dispersion model, which was based on local wind data at Marseille. We used a source
46 strength that was extrapolated to 2001 from our 2002-2012 emission estimates from the SEF area
47 (i.e. 1.1 Gg yr^{-1}) and tested various source locations in the Marseille area. The results obtained,
48 albeit qualitative, confirm that the enhancements measured in the Marseille area in 2001 are

1 compatible with a strong source of the magnitude obtained from our PSA located within some few
2 tens of kilometres from the sampling sites.

3 4 **5 Discussion and Conclusions**

5
6 MCF measurements carried out at three European sites (CMN, JFJ and MHD) from January 2002
7 through December 2012, show a number of regular and surprisingly persistent enhancements
8 above the baseline levels. In order to identify and quantify potential European source regions for
9 MCF, we set up a Bayesian inversion methodology initially tested over a two-year period (2008-
10 2009), for which high resolution (0.25°x 0.25°) meteorological data were available, and then was
11 subsequently extended to the full eleven-year record with lower resolution meteorological
12 information.

13
14 The *a priori* emission field was based on the E-PRTR inventory but the regions identified as
15 strongest sources also were apparent with a less accurate *a priori* field (homogeneous, see
16 Appendix B). Most of the sources declared in the E-PRTR inventory are landfills and disposal or
17 recovery sites of hazardous waste. However, there is a strong inhomogeneity among the number
18 of sources declared by the European countries reporting to E-PRTR, with the U.K. declaring more
19 than 30 sources out of a total of 54, while several countries (e.g. Italy) do not report any emission.
20 Since most of the sources declared in U.K. are not linked to industrial processes but to population,
21 it seems that the information from other countries is lacking. The methodology used allowed us to
22 localise not only the source regions included in the *a priori* field, but also additional sources like,
23 e.g., sources in northern Italy, and highlights the model performance throughout the study
24 domain. Furthermore, the method allowed us to identify sites where MCF is released to soil and
25 water but the loss into the atmosphere is not given. Therefore they have not been included in our
26 *a priori* emission field. This could suggest that these releases to water and soil ultimately, at least
27 partly, also end up as emissions into the atmosphere. However, since these source regions are far
28 away from the receptors and are probably not particularly intense, the method is not able to give
29 a quantitative estimation of the emissions.

30
31 Our results confirm that the strongest sources of MCF in Europe covered by our study domain are
32 located in South East France, where landfill and waste disposal and halogen chemical plants are
33 present. The quantification of low intensity emissions, outside the SEF region, includes an
34 uncertainty of around 100%, and so these results cannot be used to suggest that the declared
35 emissions are in error. However, the main European source region, the SEF area, is well defined
36 with a 30% uncertainty, and these estimated emissions are five times larger than the value
37 declared in the E-PRTR inventory.

38 Such estimate was validated by a point source analysis applied to the same two-year record,
39 whose results provide emission estimates higher than the Bayesian inversion, confirming that the
40 E-PRTR database underestimates emissions from the SEF region.

41
42 The estimated emissions, even though showing a strong decay over the whole study period (2002-
43 2012), represents a large fraction of global emissions during this period, ranging between 2.6% in
44 2003 to 10.3% in 2009 of the MCF global emission estimates. MCF levels measured during a
45 campaign carried out within the SEF area in 2001, confirmed the presence of a strong source in
46 the area.

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APPENDIX A.

A1 Sensitivity tests

Following Stohl et al (2009, 2010) various sensitivity tests have been performed throughout the entire study period (2002-2012), in order to investigate how the *a priori* emission intensity and the station network geometry affect the *a posteriori* emission field. In addition, for the years 2008-2009, for which an alternative meteorological data is available, we investigated the influence of the meteorological data resolution. These tests provided a set of estimates, whose average is our best estimate, which is affected by an uncertainty corresponding to the maximum error. The maximum error is defined as the semi-difference between the maximum and minimum value of the *a posteriori* emission fluxes. In addition, we derived the percentage ratio (Rp) between the maximum error and average emission values.

A1.1 A priori emission field modulation

We scaled the *a priori* emission field with four different values: 0.5, 1, 1.5, and 2. Despite the factor 4 differences in the emissions, the *a posteriori* SEF emissions remained nearly constant, with an Rp between 0.6-16 % (see Table A1). Emission estimates from areas other than SEF, however, show higher variations, with Rp going from 20% to more than 100%. This is due to very low emission in those areas that are not well constraint using this approach. The histogram in Figure A1 shows the ratio between the maximum difference among the *a posteriori* emissions obtained for the four different test cases and their average value, for the year 2008. For all the investigated period (2002-2012) the average Rp is only 9% for the SEF area, suggesting a high reliability of the emission estimate, whereas for areas other than SEF the average values are much larger, reaching almost 100%, thus indicating uncertainties on the same order of the retrieved emissions. The 2008 and 2009 Rp values for the SEF region are reported in Table A1.

A1.2 Station network geometry

The effect of the station network geometry on the inversion results has been tested by removing one station at a time, rerunning the inversion and comparing it to the reference inversion. In this case the SEF region shows an averaged (2002-2012) Rp of 18%, suggesting that the inversion results, with our testing, are more affected by the geometry of the station network rather than the *a priori* field modulation. For the other regions the averaged Rp is around 40%. Rp values for all regions and for 2008 are shown in in Table A2.

A1.3 Meteorological data resolution

Finally, the relative differences between *a posteriori* emissions were calculated for the inversions based on FLEXPART model runs using meteorological input data from ECMWF with different spatial resolutions, 1°x1° and 0.25°x0.25°. The Rp values obtained with two different wind field spatial resolution for 2008 and 2009 relative to the SEF area were 3 and 2 % respectively (Table A1). The overall uncertainty associated to the estimated emission values are calculated from the overall relative uncertainty derived from above described sensitivity tests. The errors associated with the emission estimates for each region considered in this study are reported in Table 2 (main paper). In particular, the tests showed that the emission estimates for the SEF region can be considered accurate within 22% whereas for the remaining regions the uncertainties are comparable to the emission estimates obtained.

A1.4 Single Station parameters

1 Another way for evaluating the inversion performances is to analyse the time series statistical
2 parameters for each station. As in Stohl et al. (2009), the station-specific error statistics were
3 evaluated by comparing the *a posteriori* and *a priori* errors at different stations. The relative error
4 reduction $1 - E_a/E_b$ (see Table A2) for CMN and JFJ were -0.18 and -0.17 , respectively, and for MHD
5 was -0.42 , showing that the error reduction for the mountain stations is significantly lower than
6 for MHD, being related to transport episodes associated to local-scale wind systems that cannot
7 be captured by the model. During such episodes, model errors cannot be reduced by improved
8 emission data, yielding to lower overall error reductions. As shown in Stohl et al. (2009) the two
9 mountain station are affected by incurable errors due to the complex topography, while the
10 dispersion model shows the best performance in flat areas, where the meteorology is well
11 described by the ECMWF data.

12
13 A substantial part of the MCF signal observed at the stations are explained by the variability and
14 trend of the baseline, expressed as the squared Pearson correlation coefficient r^2_{ba} between the *a*
15 *priori* baseline and the observed concentration (Table A2). As the *a priori* and *a posteriori*
16 baselines are quite similar, the statistical results for both are nearly identical. As shown in Stohl et
17 al., (2009) r^2_{ba} is higher for remote stations where events with transport from source regions on
18 the time scale of 20 d are rare (e.g., $r^2_{ba}=0.91$ for MHD) and intermediate at stations not too far
19 from source regions (e.g., $r^2_{ba}=0.74$ and $r^2_{ba}=0.55$ for JFJ CMN respectively) where the short-term
20 variability is large.

21
22 The variability of values above the baseline reflects the occurrence of pollution events affecting
23 the measurement sites. The model capability to capture these events is described by the
24 correlation analysis of the polluted events with the simulated emission contributions from the last
25 20 d, using either the *a priori* (r^2_{ea}) or the *a posteriori* model results (r^2_{eb}) (see Table A2).

26 The three stations used for the inversion present rather low r^2_{ea} r^2_{eb} values, the two mountain
27 stations because of the incurable errors reported above, and MHD because it is far away from the
28 main source region, located in SEF and because measuring values that are typical also for remote
29 stations such as Samoa (see e.g. Stohl et al., 2009). However, for all the stations r^2_{eb} values are
30 increased compared to r^2_{ea} values, suggesting that the *a posteriori* emission field is closer to the
31 *real* emission field than the *a priori* emission field.

32 33 **APPENDIX B.**

34 In order to investigate the algorithm performance, we run the inversion without any information
35 on source distribution in the *a priori* emission field. A detailed description of this test is reported in
36 Graziosi (2013). An *a priori* homogeneous emission field was chosen, based on the semi-
37 hemispheric (30°N - 90°N) emission values reported in the study by Rigby et al. (2013) providing
38 global and semi-hemispheric emission data for the period 1951-2013 derived from atmospheric
39 concentration data from the NOAA and AGAGE networks. The Bayesian inversion method was
40 applied to the MCF time series available at the three sites. The simulations were performed using
41 data from January 2008 to December 2008, when nested meteorological data with a resolution of
42 $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ were available. The uncertainty of the emissions, σ_x , specified for every grid cells, $\sigma_x^j =$
43 $\square \text{px}_j$, is set using $p=1$, corresponding to an uncertainty of 100%. We refer to this setting as
44 Bayesian Inversion 1 (BI-1).

1 The resulting *a posteriori* emission field for 2008 is reported in Figure B1. A clear hot spot is
2 highlighted in southeastern France (SEF), in a region that is some 250 km X 250 km large,
3 corresponding to the main source declared on E-PRTR inventory. Additional small and intense
4 source regions are present in northern Norway, southern U.K. and in BENELUX, as well as in
5 northern Italy. All these sources have a small intensity compared with the SEF area. Most of them
6 are reported in the E-PRTR inventory, while sources in northern Italy are not declared but are in
7 correspondence of wastewater treatment plants. Emission estimates referred to different
8 European regions and from the SEF area are reported in Table B1.

9 Running the inversion for each year of study period, an analogous source pattern is obtained. On
10 the base of this result we extrapolated the E-PRTR figures to those years in which emission data
11 were not available. The identification of the SEF region as the dominant source area in the study
12 domain, suggested a further analysis aimed at improving the emissions intensity estimate in the
13 SEF area. An uncertainty of 100% assumed for the *a priori* emissions used in previous test, could
14 indeed be insufficient to quantify emissions from a source much stronger with respect to the *a*
15 *priori* emission field, as the SEF region. Therefore, we repeated the inversion but with a
16 dramatically increased uncertainty of 500% in the SEF region. In the rest of the domain the
17 uncertainty was maintained at 100%. Hereinafter, we refer to this improved Bayesian inversion as
18 BI-2. The emission map reported in Figure B2 clearly confirms the SEF region as an emission hot
19 spot responsible for the majority of the MCF emissions from the study domain.

20 The emission estimates for different European regions and from the SEF area as derived from the
21 BI-2 analyses are reported in Table B1. For the sake of comparison, the emissions estimates
22 obtained using E-PRTR *a priori* field (reference inversion, RI) are reported as well. Noteworthy, the
23 results obtained running the inversion with an homogeneous *a priori* emission field (BI-2) and with
24 an *a priori* emission field based on the E-PRTR inventory (RI) differ by 18%, suggesting a high
25 model robustness.

26

1
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Table 1

Station	Trend (% y^{-1})	Acceleration in the trend (ppt yr^{-2})	R^2
CMN	-16.6 ± 0.4	0.42 ± 0.04	0.98
JFJ	-16.7 ± 0.3	0.43 ± 0.03	0.98
MHD	-16.8 ± 0.3	0.43 ± 0.03	0.98

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Table 2

Gg/ yr	SEF		FR (excluding SEF)		IT-CH		UK-IE		AT-HU-SI-HR		DE-BE-NL-LU-DK		ES-PT		PL-CZ-SL		N-SE	
	Post	Prior	Post	Prior	Post	Prior	Post	Prior	Post	Prior	Post	Prior	Post	Prior	Post	Prior	Post	Prior
2002	0.49 (±0.05)	0.048	0.08 (±0.06)	0.0	0.14 (±0.10)	0.0	0.10 (±0.05)	4.7E-03	0.04 (±0.03)	0.0	0.05 (±0.03)	4.9E-05	0.08 (±0.05)	1.0E-03	0.02 (±0.02)	0.0	0.08 (±0.05)	0.080
2003	0.35 (±0.04)	0.048	0.07 (±0.05)	0.0	0.13 (±0.04)	0.0	0.09 (±0.05)	4.7E-03	0.01 (±0.02)	0.0	0.16 (±0.11)	4.9E-05	0.20 (±0.12)	1.0E-03	0.05 (±0.04)	0.0	0.16 (±0.08)	0.080
2004	0.36 (±0.13)	0.048	0.08 (±0.07)	0.0	0.12 (±0.06)	0.0	0.08 (±0.04)	4.7E-03	0.02 (±0.02)	0.0	0.07 (±0.04)	4.9E-05	0.06 (±0.06)	1.0E-03	0.03 (±0.02)	0.0	0.11 (±0.04)	0.080
2005	0.32 (±0.03)	0.048	0.04 (±0.04)	0.0	0.07 (±0.05)	0.0	0.04 (±0.02)	4.7E-03	0.01 (±0.01)	0.0	0.03 (±0.02)	4.9E-05	0.02 (±0.02)	1.0E-03	0.01 (±0.01)	0.0	0.03 (±0.01)	0.080
2006	0.33 (±0.08)	0.048	0.03 (±0.03)	0.0	0.04 (±0.03)	0.0	0.05 (±0.04)	4.7E-03	0.01 (±0.01)	0.0	0.01 (±0.01)	4.9E-05	0.01 (±0.02)	1.0E-03	0.00 (±0.00)	0.0	0.04 (±0.02)	0.080
2007	0.28 (±0.10)	0.084	0.03 (±0.03)	0.0	0.04 (±0.04)	0.0	0.05 (±0.03)	2.9E-03	0.01 (±0.01)	0.0	0.02 (±0.02)	0	0.07 (±0.05)	5.1E-03	0.01 (±0.01)	0.0	0.05 (±0.02)	0.398
2008	0.27 (±0.04)	0.061	0.03 (±0.03)	0.0	0.05 (±0.04)	0.0	0.07 (±0.04)	5.1E-03	0.01 (±0.01)	0.0	0.03 (±0.02)	0	0.01 (±0.02)	0	0.01 (±0.01)	0.0	0.03 (±0.02)	0
2009	0.25 (±0.04)	0.047	0.01 (±0.01)	0.0	0.02 (±0.02)	0.0	0.04 (±0.03)	5.7E-03	0.00 (±0.00)	0.0	0.01 (±0.01)	1.4E-04	0.01 (±0.01)	0	0.00 (±0.00)	0.0	0.01 (±0.01)	0
2010	0.19 (±0.03)	0.005	0.03 (±0.02)	0.0	0.03 (±0.02)	0.0	0.05 (±0.03)	5.1E-03	0.01 (±0.01)	0.0	0.02 (±0.02)	0	0.01 (±0.01)	0	0.01 (±0.01)	0.0	0.03 (±0.01)	0
2011	0.18 (±0.06)	0.044	0.07 (±0.05)	0.0	0.08 (±0.04)	0.0	0.06 (±0.02)	4.5E-03	0.01 (±0.01)	0.0	0.08 (±0.06)	1.0E-04	0.01 (±0.01)	1.0E-04	0.03 (±0.02)	0.0	0.05 (±0.03)	0
2012	0.20 (±0.06)	0.048	0.01 (±0.01)	0.0	0.01 (±0.01)	0.0	0.03 (±0.02)	4.7E-03	0.00 (±0.00)	0.0	0.01 (±0.01)	4.9E-05	0.00 (±0.00)	1.0E-03	0.00 (±0.00)	0.0	0.01 (±0.01)	0.080

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Table 3

Sampling site	Mixing ratio (ppt)	one-sigma standard deviation (ppt)	Study period
China ^a	49	5	January–February 2001
Shanghai (city)	54	9	January–February 2001
Shanghai(plume)	51	10	March 2001
Bristol (UK)	54	6	August–September 2000
Philadelphia (USA)	50	7	February 2001
Las Vegas (USA)	46	5	February 2001
Marseille (FR)	54	49	June–July 2001
Background [*]	40	0.6	March 2001

^{*} Lowest 25th percentile of airborne TRACE-P data collected below 1500m

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Table A1

Year	Geometry	Intensity	Wind field
2008	4.9%	3.7%	3.0%
2009	8.9%	8.2%	2.0%

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Table A2

2008- nest	Mean (ppt)	Sd (ppt)	N	E_a (ppt ²)	E_b (ppt ²)	$1 - E_b/E_a$	E_b^n	r_a^2	r_b^2	r_{ba}^2	r_{bb}^2	r_{ea}^2	r_{eb}^2
CMN	11,19	0,92	1799	0,69	0,59	0,15	0,64	0,58	0,62	0,55	0,55	0,12	0,14
JFJ	11,17	0,72	1813	0,46	0,39	0,15	0,54	0,75	0,75	0,74	0,74	0,05	0,07
MHD	10,99	0,66	2384	0,27	0,19	0,30	0,28	0,92	0,92	0,91	0,92	0,06	0,10

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Table B1

Gg/ Yr	SEF		FR (excluding SEF)		IT-CH		UK-IE		AT-HU-SI-HR		DE-BE-NL-LU-DK		ES-PT		PL-CZ-SL		N-SE	
	<i>Post</i>	<i>Prior</i>	<i>Post</i>	<i>Prior</i>	<i>Post</i>	<i>Prior</i>	<i>Post</i>	<i>Prior</i>	<i>Post</i>	<i>Prior</i>	<i>Post</i>	<i>Prior</i>	<i>Post</i>	<i>Prior</i>	<i>Post</i>	<i>Prior</i>	<i>Post</i>	<i>Pr</i>
BI-1	0.04	0.005	0.071	0.02	0.088	0.032	0.055	0.022	0.016	0.012	0.048	0.021	0.052	0.023	0.025	0.019	0.10	0.
BI-2	0.34	0.005	0.05	0.02	0.032	0.032	0.022	0.022	0.01	0.012	0.03	0.021	0.023	0.023	0.02	0.019	0.049	0.
RI	0.27	0.061	0.03	0.0	0.05	0.0	0.07	5.1E-03	0.01	0.0	0.03	0	0.01	0	0.01	0.0	0.03	0

1 **Table captions**

2

3 Table1. MCF atmospheric trends (%) and acceleration in the trend at the three stations from Jan
4 2002 to Dec 2012.

5

6 Table 2: 2002-2012 MCF emission estimates expressed in Gg yr⁻¹. In parenthesis the errors are
7 given.

8

9 Table 3. MCF levels measured in various cities worldwide (adapted from Barletta et al., 2006.

10

11 Table A1. Rp values for the SEF region, reference years 2008 and 2009. Geometry: Station network
12 geometry; Intensity: *A priori* emission field modulation; Wind field: Meteorological data
13 resolution.

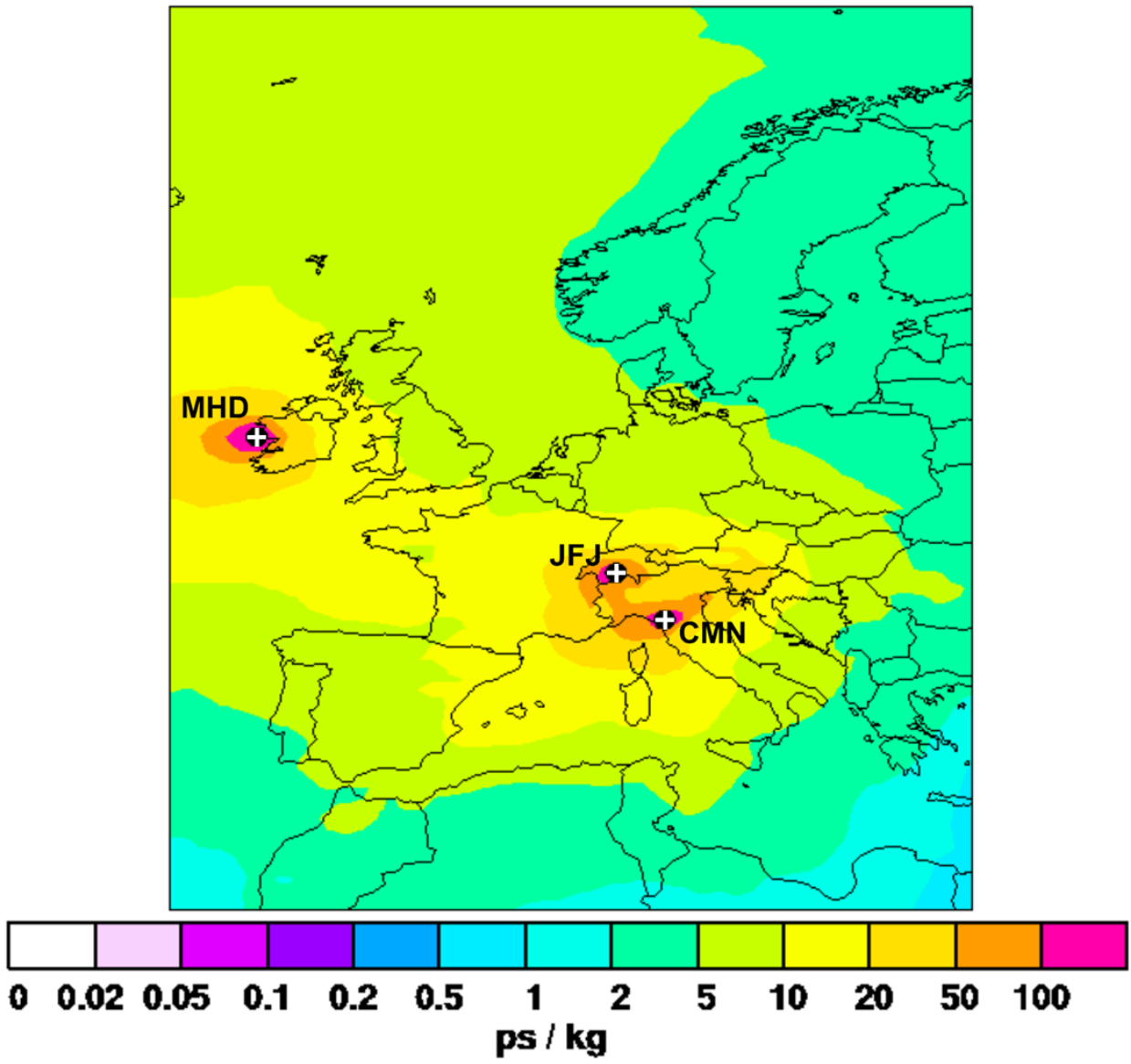
14

15 Table A2. Single station parameters. Mean,; *sd*, standard deviation; N, number of observation;
16 E_a , RMS error *priori*; E_b , RMS error *posteriori*; $1 - E_a/E_b$, relative error reduction; E_b^n , *a posteriori*
17 error normalized with the standard deviation of the observed concentration minus baseline; $r_{a,}^2$,
18 squared Pearson correlation coefficients between the observations and the total *a priori*; $r_{b,}^2$,
19 squared Pearson correlation coefficients between the observations and the total *a posteriori*; $r_{ba,}^2$,
20 the squared Pearson correlation coefficients between the observations and the *a priori* baseline;
21 $r_{bb,}^2$, the squared Pearson correlation coefficients between the observations and the *a posteriori*
22 baseline; $r_{ea,}^2$, squared Pearson correlation coefficients between the observation minus the *a priori*
23 baseline and the modelled *a priori*; $r_{eb,}^2$, squared Pearson correlation coefficients between the
24 observation minus the *a posteriori* baseline and the modelled *a posteriori*

25 Table B1. MCF emission estimates obtained through BI-1, BI-2 and RI.

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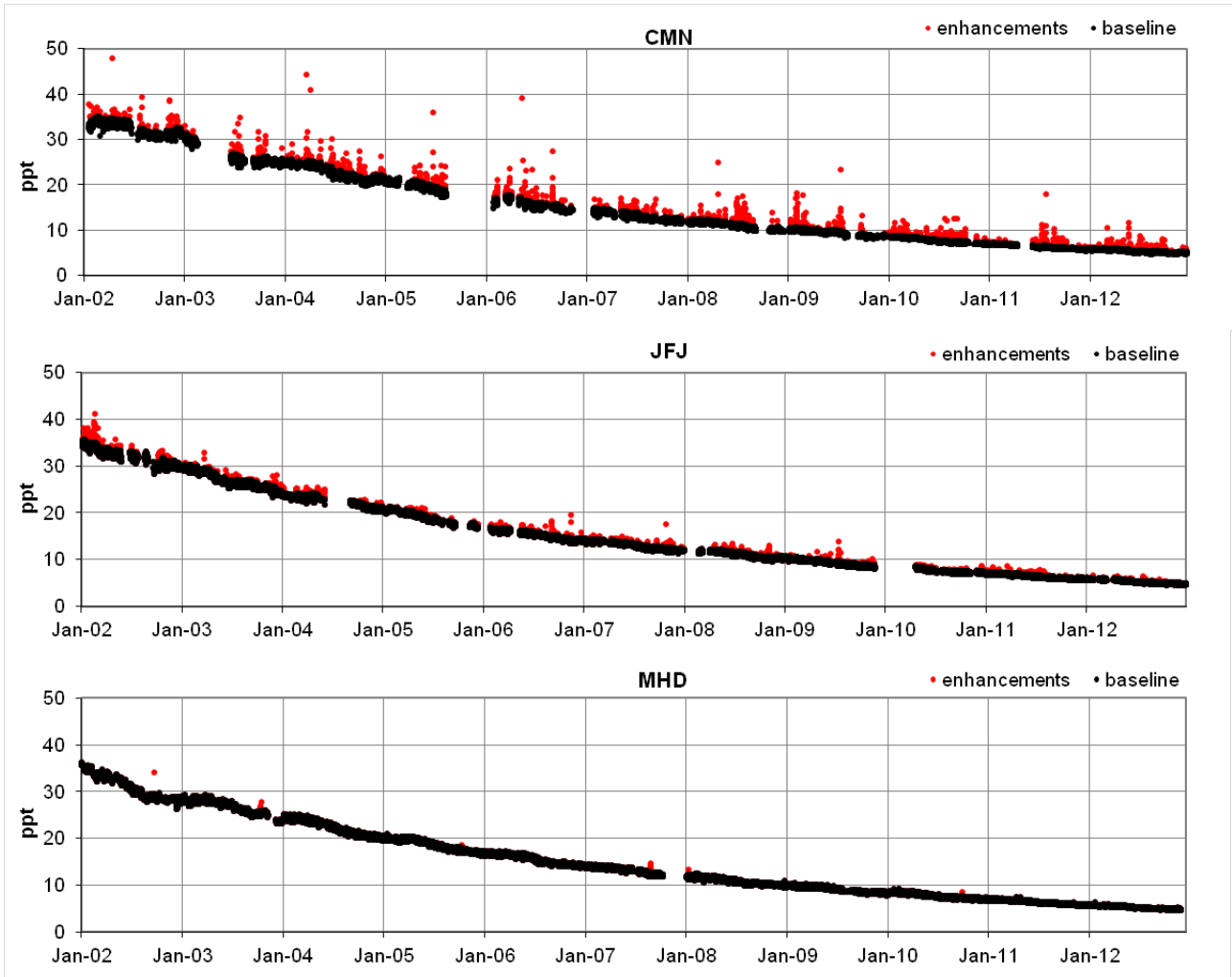
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2 **Figure 1**
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1 **Figure 2**

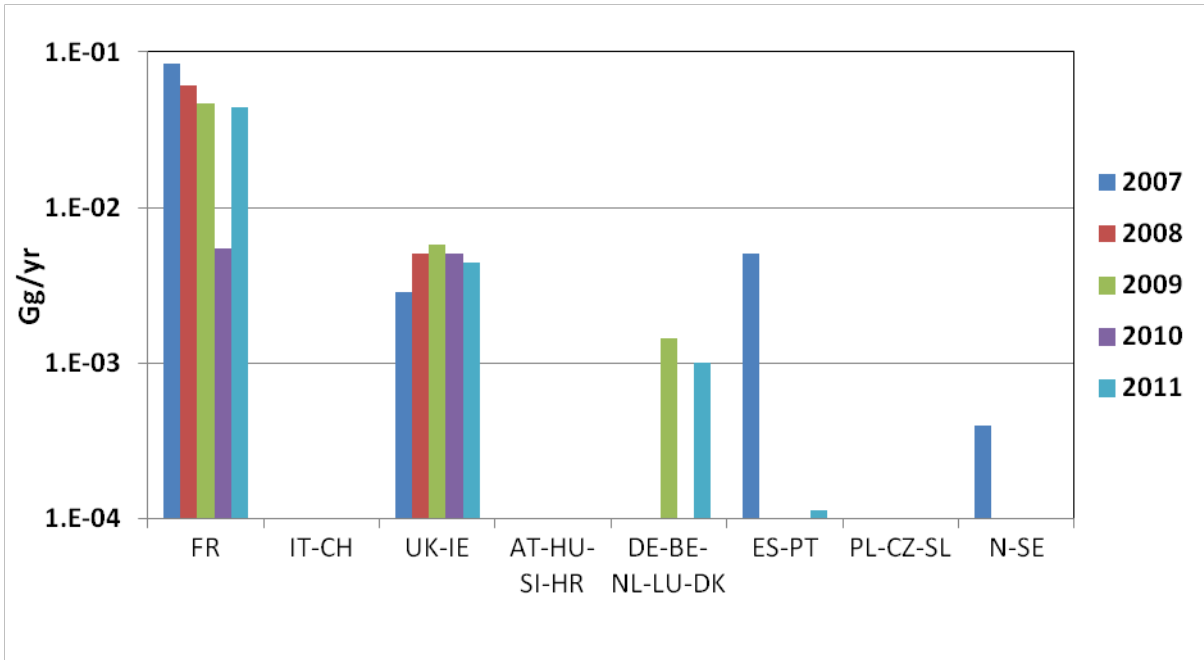
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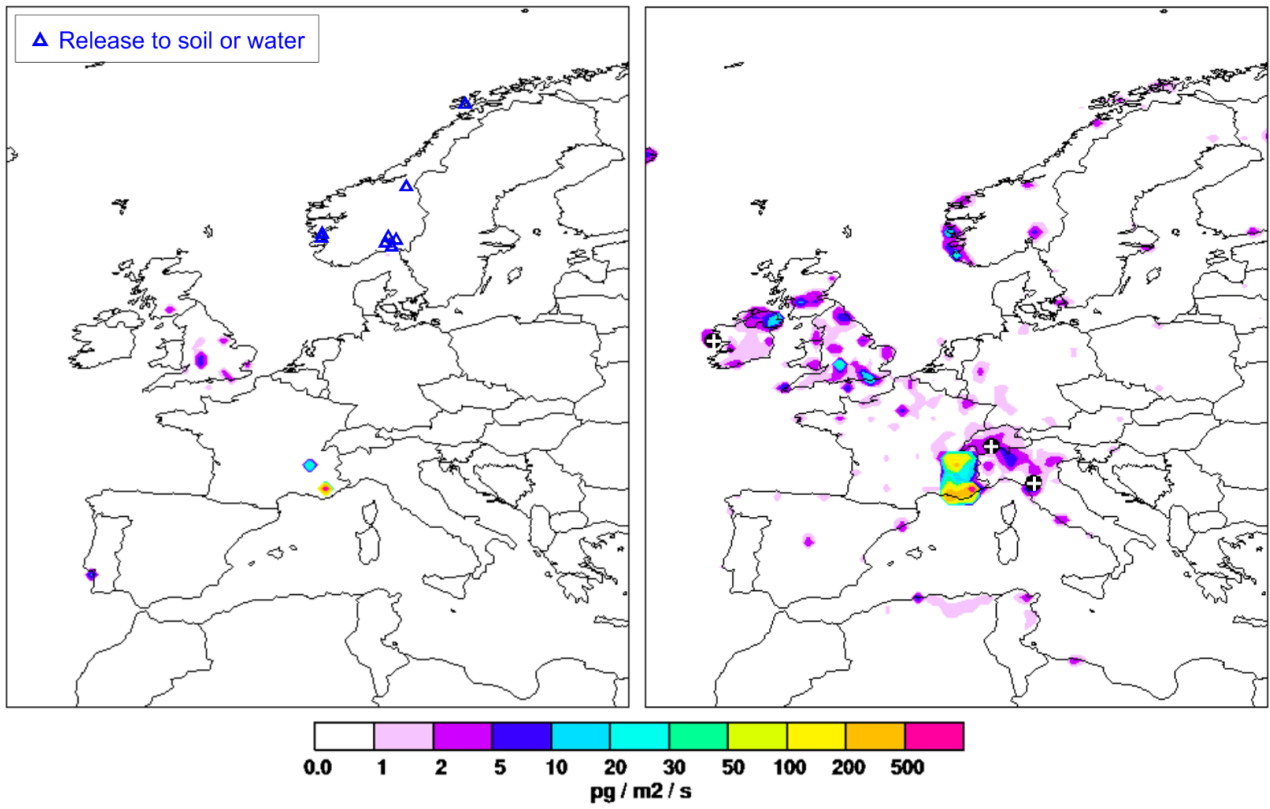
1 **Figure 3**

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1 **Figure 4**

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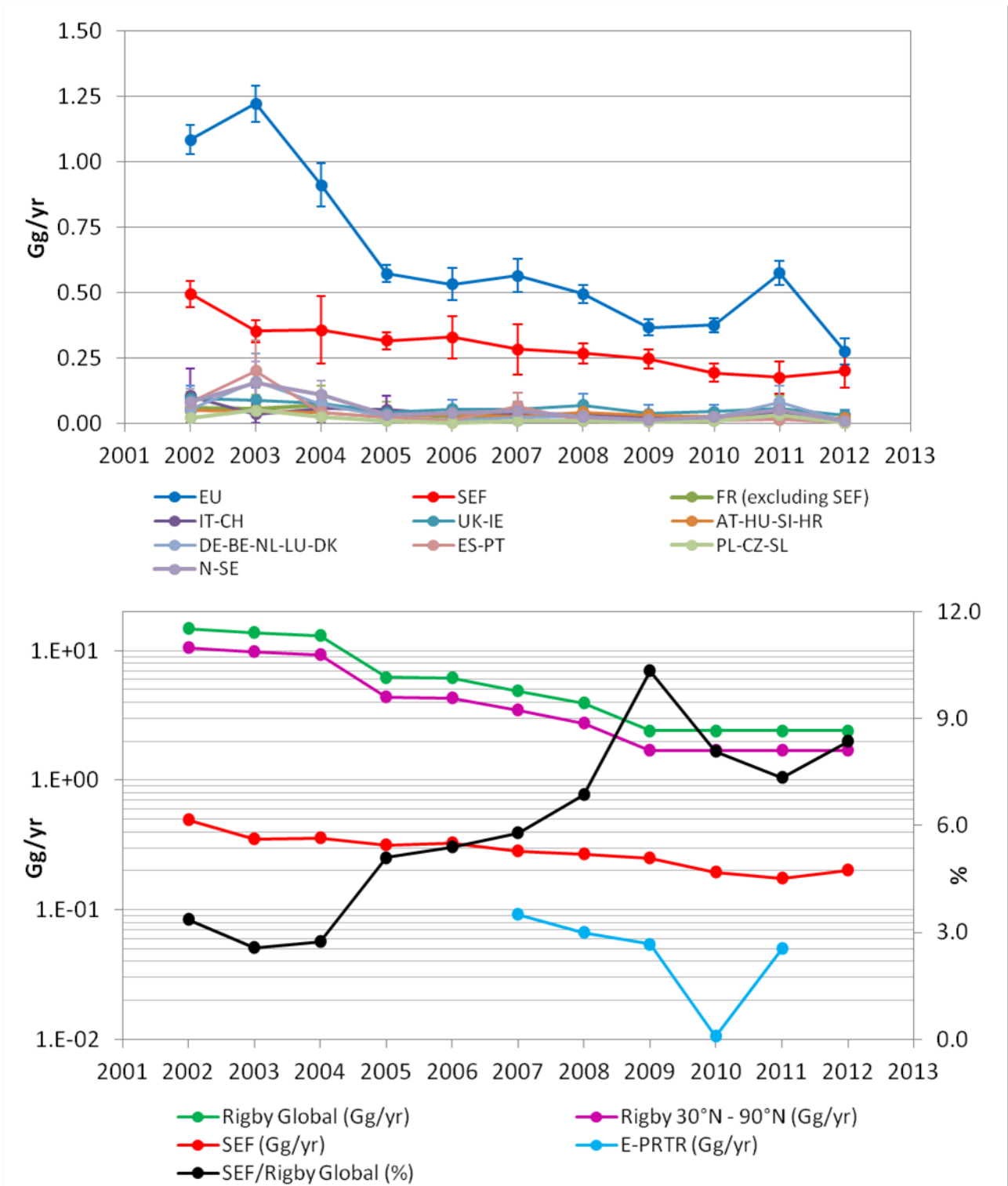
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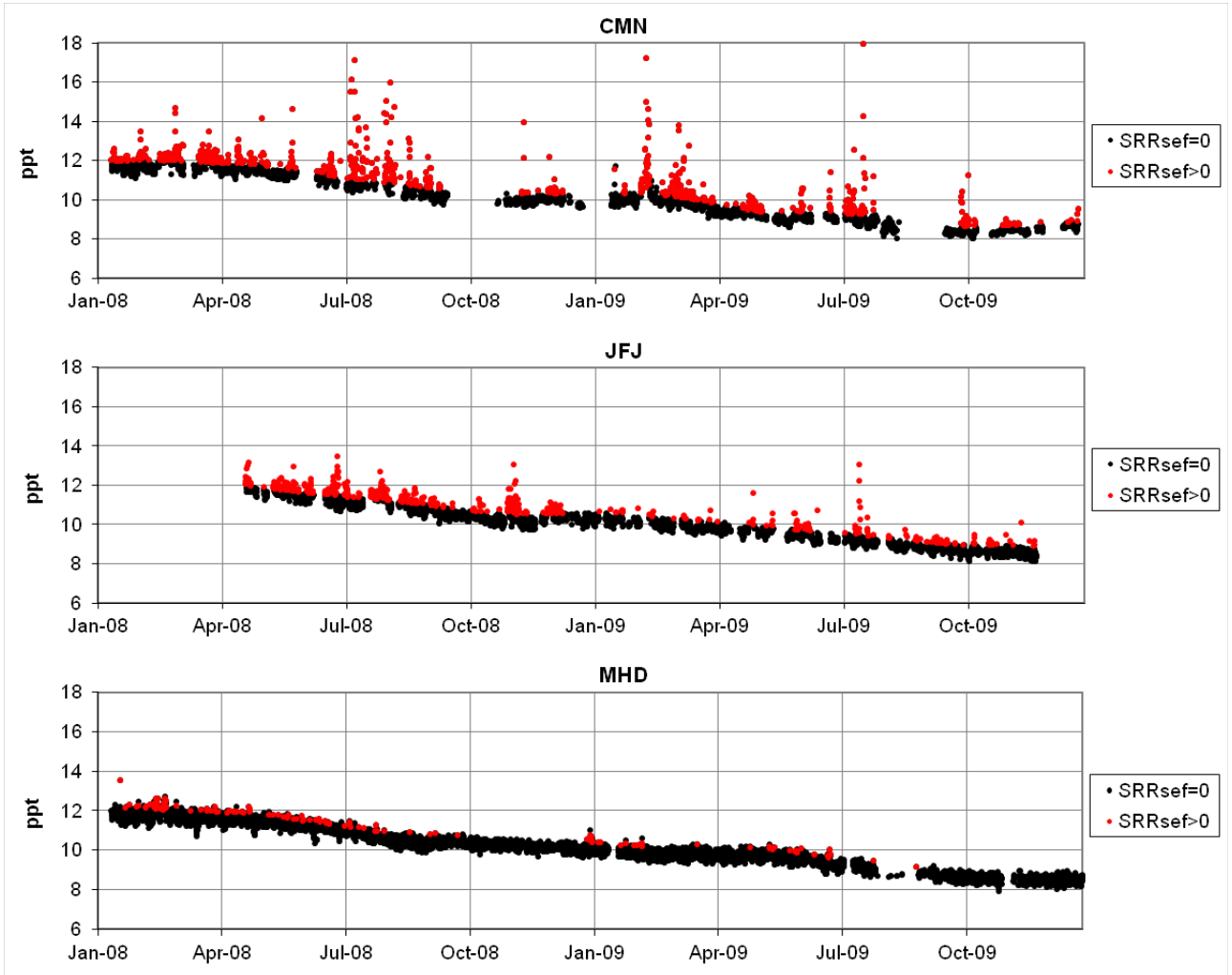
Figure 5



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1 **Figure 6**

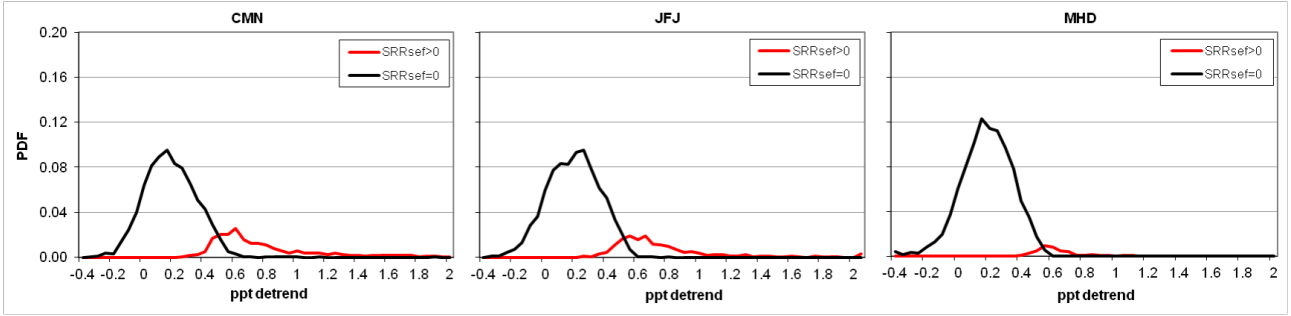
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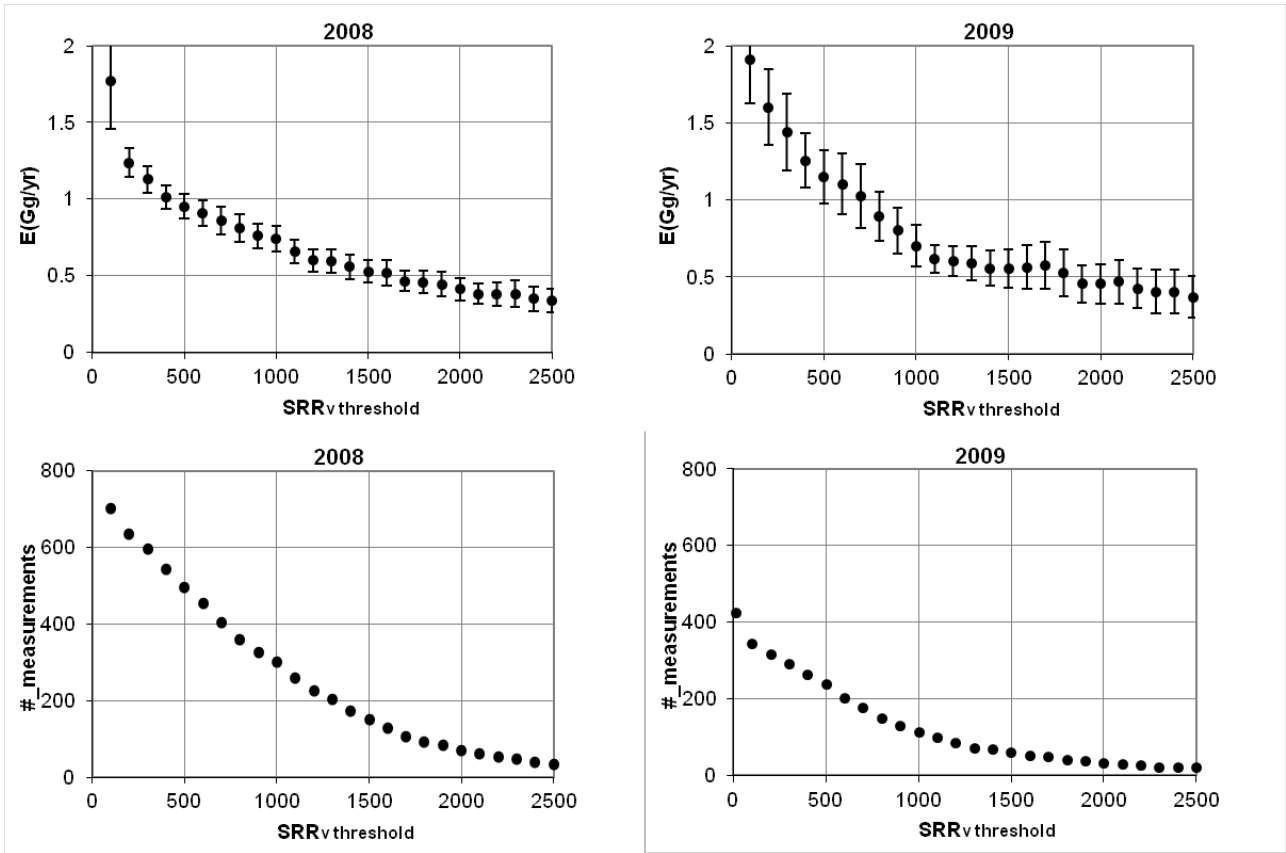
Figure 7



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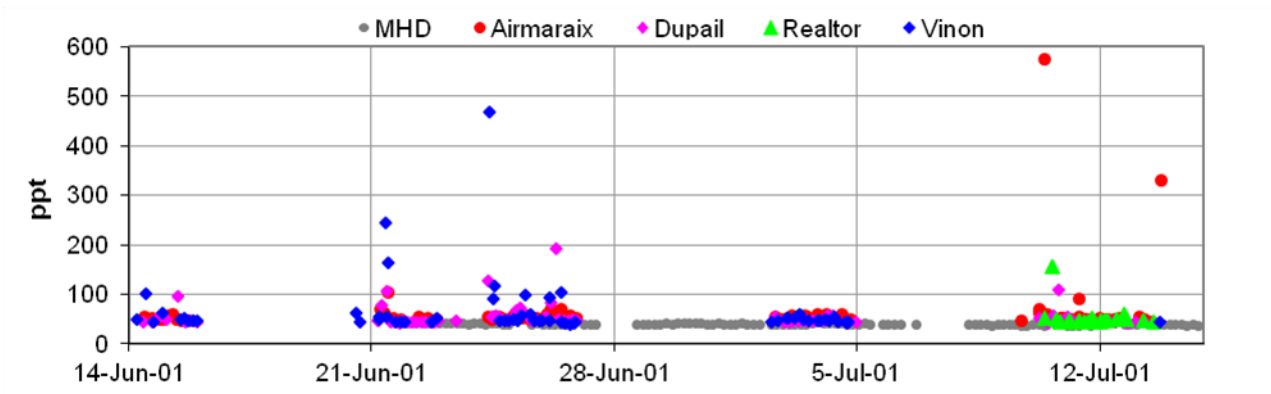
Figure 8



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1 **Figure 9**

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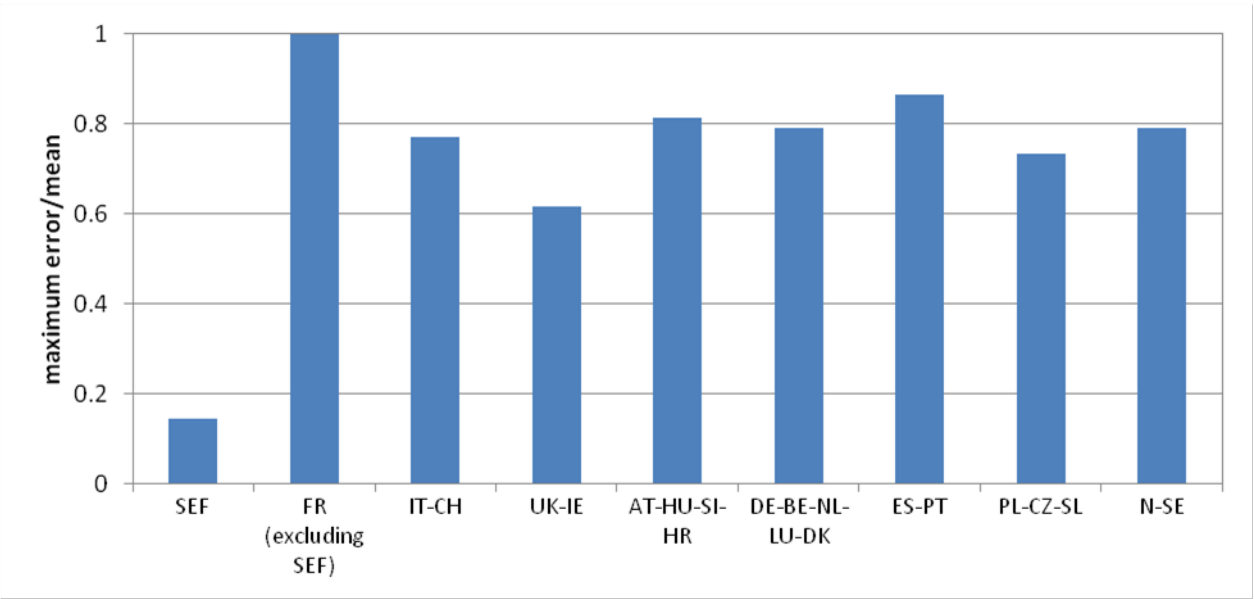


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2 **Figure A1**

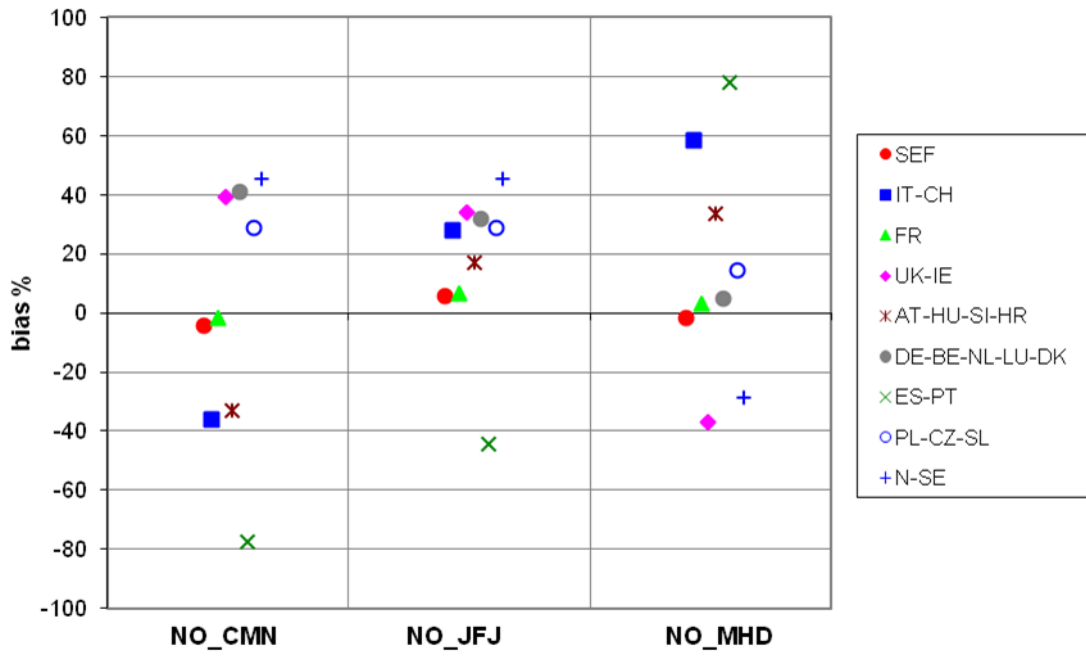


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2 **Figure A2**

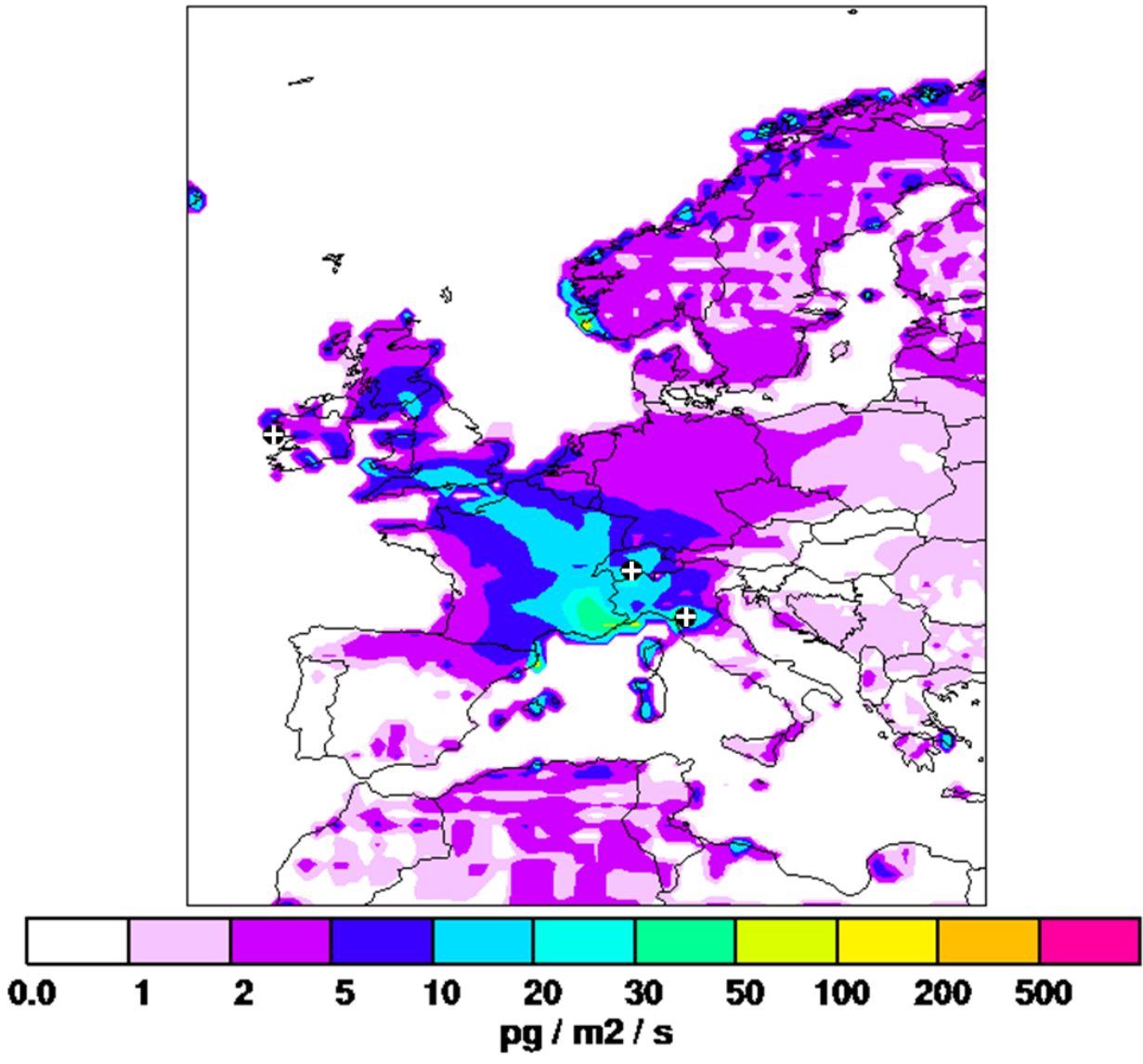


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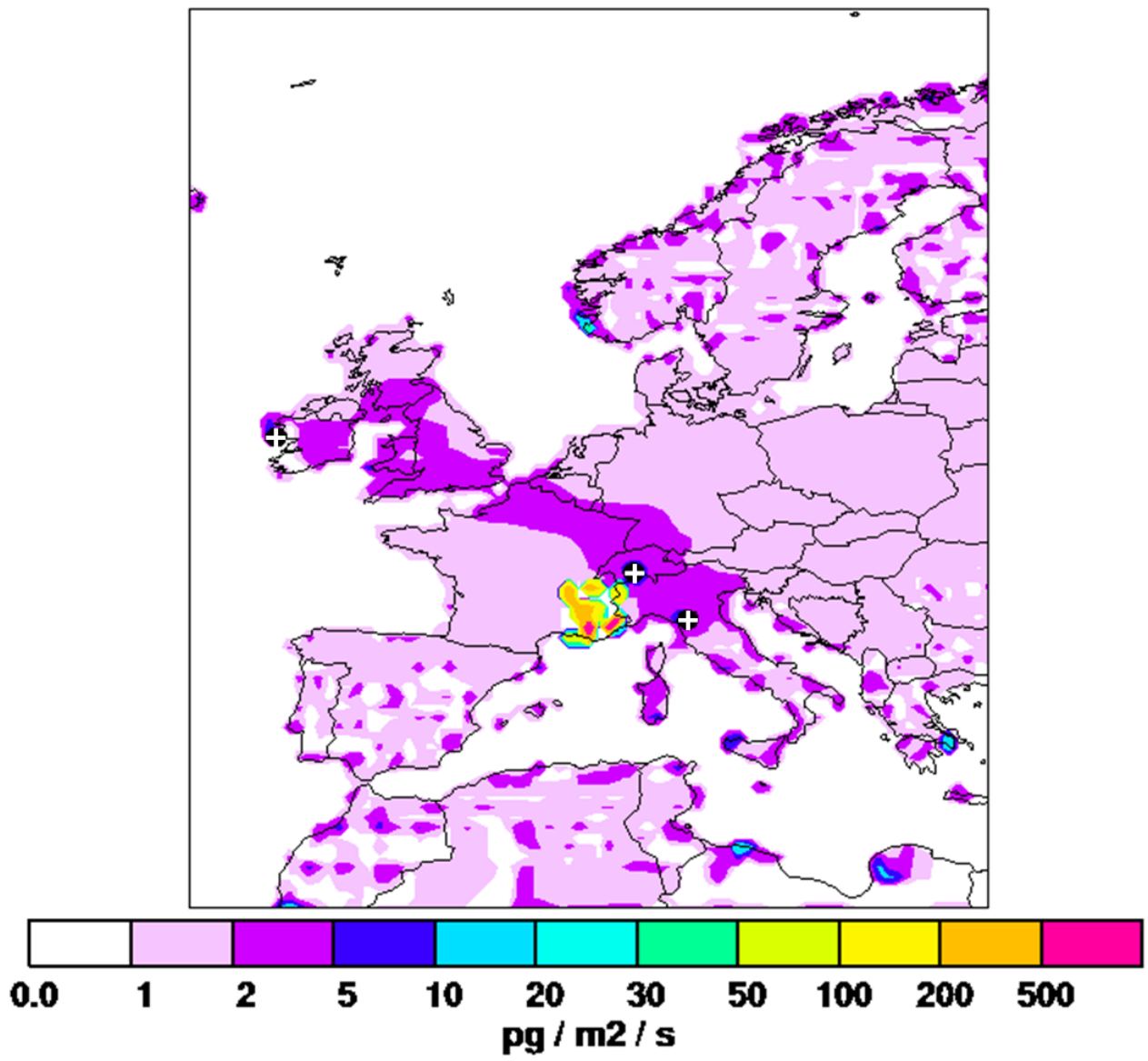
Figure B1



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Figure captions

Figure 1. Footprint emission sensitivity in picoseconds per kilogram (ps kg^{-1}) obtained from FLEXPART 20 d backward calculations averaged over all model calculations for three stations (CMN, JFJ, MHD) over two years (Jan 2008- Dec 2009). Measurement sites are marked with a white cross on black dots.

Figure 2. 2002-2013 time series of MCF at CMN (top panel) JFJ (middle panel) and MHD (lower panel). Black dots: baseline data; red dots: enhancements above the baseline. Baseline derived through the statistical method as in Giostra et al. (2011).

Figure 3. European atmospheric emissions of MCF as reported by E-PRTR. FR, France; UK, United Kingdom; IE, Republic of Ireland; DE, Germany; BE, Belgium; NL, The Netherlands; LU, Luxembourg; DK, Denmark; ES, Spain; PT, Portugal; N, Norway; SE, Sweden.

Figure 4. Left, red dots represent 2008 MCF emissions as reported by the E-PRTR database. The blue triangles correspond to declared release to soils and water not included in our *a priori* emission field; Right, *a posteriori* study domain emission in $\text{pg m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ of MCF based on measurements at three European sites. Reference period January 2008-December 2008. White crosses over black dots indicate the locations of the measurements sites.

Figure 5. Top: trends in MCF estimated emissions over the whole study period derived from the Bayesian inversion. The blue curve (EU) represents total emissions from the study domain, i.e. the sum of emissions from SEF region and other European group of countries. Bottom: comparison of our estimated emissions from the SEF region (red) with the E-PRTR data for SEF (light blue), global (green) and semi-hemispheric (purple) emissions as reported in Rigby et al. (2013). The black curve is the fraction with respect to the global emissions represented by the emissions derived from the inversion for the SEF region (right axis).

Figure 6. MCF time series at CMN, JFJ and MHD (January 2008-December 2009). Black and red dots represent times when, at the receptor sites, sensitivity to the SEF region (SRR_{SEF}) is $=0$ and >0 , respectively.

Figure 7. Probability density function (PDF) distribution of the MCF detrended time series measured at the three sites (left: CMN, middle: JFJ, right: MHD) in the years 2008-2009. Black lines, sensitivity to the SEF region, $\text{SRR}_{\text{SEF}} = 0$; red lines $\text{SRR}_{\text{SEF}} > 0$.

Figure 8: Inferred MCF emissions from the SEF region for SRR_v threshold between 0 and 2500 $\text{s m}^3\text{kg}^{-1}$ for the years 2008 and 2009 (top panels). The associated uncertainty is represented by 95% confidence interval. Only data with $\text{SRR}_v > 1500$ have been used for the estimation of the fluxes in the rest of the paper. In the bottom panels, the number of measurements for each SRR_v threshold -value are reported.

Figure 9. MCF mixing ratios measured at four sites in the vicinity of the Marseille urban area. Details on the sampling campaign can be found in Coll et al. (2010). The grey dots represent the MHD time series.

1
2 Figure A1. Maximum relative difference between the *a posteriori* emissions obtained from the
3 inversions using four different scaling factors applied to the *a priori* emission field for the year
4 2008. SEF, South East France; FR, France; IT, Italy; CH, Switzerland; UK, United Kingdom; IE,
5 Republic of Ireland; AT, Austria; HU, Hungary; SI, Slovenia; HR, Croatia; DE, Germany; Be, Belgium;
6 NL, The Netherlands; LU, Luxembourg; DK, Denmark; ES, Spain; PT, Portugal; PL, Poland; CZ, Check
7 Republic; SL, Slovakia; N, Norway; SE, Sweden.
8
9 Figure A2. Relative differences in the *a posteriori* emissions to the reference inversion (in %) when
10 removing one station at a time. Results are shown with CMN (NO_CMN), JFJ (NO_JFJ) and MHD
11 (NO_MHD) removed and for nine different regions.
12
13 Figure B1. *A posteriori* study domain emission in $\text{pg m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ of MCF based on measurements at three
14 European sites. Reference period January-December 2008 a) and January-December 2002 b).
15 White crosses over black dots indicate the locations of the measurements sites.
16 Figure B2. *A posteriori* emissions obtained with BI-2.
17