

Discrepancy in assimilated atmospheric CO over East Asia in 2015-2020 by assimilating satellite and surface CO measurements

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Abstract

Satellite and surface carbon monoxide (CO) observations have been widely used to investigate the sources and variabilities of atmospheric CO. However, comparative analyses to explore the effects of satellite and surface measurements on atmospheric CO assimilations are still lacking.

Here we investigate the assimilated atmospheric CO over E. Asia in 2015-2020, via assimilating CO measurements from the Measurement of Pollution in the Troposphere (MOPITT) and China Ministry of Ecology and Environment (MEE) monitoring network. We

find noticeable inconsistencies in the assimilations: the adjusted CO columns (X_{CO}) are about 162, 173 and 172 ppb by assimilating surface CO measurements, in contrast to 138-144, 149-155 and 144-151 ppb by assimilating MOPITT CO observations over E. China, North China Plain (NCP) and Yangtze River Delta (YRD), respectively. These inconsistencies could be associated with possible representation errors due to differences between urban and regional

CO backgrounds. Furthermore, the adjusted surface CO concentrations are about 631, 806 and 657 ppb by assimilating surface CO measurements, in contrast to 418-427, 627-639 and 500-509 ppb by assimilating MOPITT CO observations over E. China, NCP and YRD, respectively;

assimilations of normalized surface CO measurements (to mitigate the influences of representation errors) indicate declines of CO columns (X_{CO}) by about 2.2, 2.1, and 1.8 ppb/y, in contrast to 0.63-0.86, 0.97-1.29, and 1.0-1.27 ppb/y by assimilating MOPITT CO measurements over E. China, South Korea and Japan, respectively. These discrepancies reflect

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52 the different vertical sensitivities of satellite and surface observations in the lower and free
53 troposphere. This work demonstrates the importance to integrate information from satellite and
54 surface measurements to provide a more accurate evaluation of atmospheric CO changes.

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56 1. Introduction

57 Atmospheric CO is one of the most important pollutants and plays a key role in
58 tropospheric chemistry. Sources of atmospheric CO include fossil fuel combustion, biomass
59 burning, and oxidation of hydrocarbons. The importance of atmospheric CO has made it an
60 essential target of global emission controls. Satellite measurements have been used to
61 investigate atmospheric CO changes (Han et al., 2018; Hedelius et al., 2021; Gaubert et al.,
62 2020). Inverse analyses based on satellite measurements further improved our understanding
63 of CO sources. For example, Jiang et al. (2017) constrained global CO emissions in 2001-2015
64 by assimilating MOPITT CO observations. Zheng et al. (2018a) constrained E. Asian CO
65 emissions in 2005-2016 using MOPITT CO observations. Müller et al. (2018) assimilated
66 Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI) CO observations to assess the impacts
67 of hydroxyl radical (OH) on derived CO emissions.

68 A major advantage of satellite measurements is the global covered observations. In
69 addition, the pixel-based observations allow convenient comparison with grid-based model
70 simulations. However, the limited vertical resolution implies that the retrieved lower
71 tropospheric CO is affected by free tropospheric CO (Jiang et al., 2013; Buchholz et al., 2017;
72 Hedelius et al., 2021), despite the joint retrieval of near-infrared (NIR) and thermal infrared
73 (TIR) spectral data can enhance the sensitivity to lower tropospheric CO (Worden et al., 2010;
74 Deeter et al., 2017). In contrast to lower tropospheric CO, free tropospheric CO is more
75 susceptible to influences from factors such as long-range transport. Consequently,
76 interpretation of satellite CO measurements requires disentangling the influences from local

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79 and non-local sources.

80 Besides satellite observations, surface in-situ CO measurements have been used to
81 analyze atmospheric CO variabilities (Bouarar et al., 2019; Kong et al., 2020; Squires et al.,
82 2020). There are also recent advances to assess CO sources via assimilating surface CO
83 measurements provided by air quality stations, particularly in China. For example, Peng et al.
84 (2018) assimilated surface CO observations to optimize CO emissions in October 2014. Ma et
85 al. (2019) assimilated surface CO observations to optimize CO emissions in September 2016.
86 Feng et al. (2020) constrained CO emissions in December 2013 and 2017. In contrast to satellite
87 measurements, surface CO observations have rapid responses to local CO emissions.
88 Consequently, the interpretation of surface CO observations is less affected by non-local
89 sources and sinks. However, the sparse distributions of surface stations dimmed the importance
90 of surface CO observations. In addition, it is challenging to match in-situ surface measurements
91 with grid-based model simulations because of noticeable representation errors (Schutgens et
92 al., 2017) and possible uncertainties in the planetary boundary layer (PBL) mixing (Castellanos
93 et al., 2011).

94 To sufficiently understand CO variabilities, people may take advantage of information
95 from both satellite and surface measurements. For example, Chen et al. (2020) found
96 decreasing trends of atmospheric CO concentrations from both MOPITT and surface CO
97 measurements over YRD. However, comparative analyses to investigate the effects of satellite
98 and surface CO measurements in data assimilation systems are still lacking, which poses a
99 significant barrier to integrating the information provided by satellite and surface
100 measurements in data assimilation applications. In this work, we investigate the assimilated
101 atmospheric CO over E. Asia in 2015-2020, via assimilating CO measurements from the
102 MOPITT and MEE surface observations, to explore the methodology of assimilating two types
103 of measurements, as well as the impacts of CO emission declines in China on atmospheric CO

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112 over E. Asia. This paper is organized as follows: In Section 2, we describe the CO observations,
113 GEOS-Chem model, and Kalman Filter approach used in this work. In Section 3, we investigate
114 the performances of satellite and surface measurements in Kalman Filter. Our conclusions
115 follow in Section 4.

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117 2. Data and Methodology

118 2.1 MOPITT CO measurements

119 The MOPITT instrument was launched on December 18, 1999 on the NASA/Terra
120 spacecraft. The satellite is in a sun-synchronous polar orbit of 705 km and crosses the equator
121 at 10:30 local time. The instrument makes measurements in a 612 km cross-track scan with a
122 footprint of 22 km x 22 km and provides global coverage every three days. The MOPITT data
123 used here were obtained from the joint retrieval (V8J) of CO from thermal infrared (TIR, 4.7 μ m)
124 and near-infrared (NIR, 2.3 μ m) radiances using an optimal estimation approach (Worden et
125 al., 2010; Deeter et al., 2017). The retrieved volume mixing ratios (VMR) are reported as layer
126 averages of 10 pressure levels (surface, 900, 800, 700, 600, 500, 400, 300, 200, and 100 hPa).
127 Following Jiang et al. (2017), we reject MOPITT data with CO column amounts less than
128 5×10^{17} molec/cm² and with low cloud observations. Since the NIR channel measures reflected
129 solar radiation, only daytime data are considered. As shown in Fig. 1a, CO columns provided
130 by MOPITT indicate decreasing trends over E. Asia in 2015-2020, consistent with reported
131 CO variability (Zheng et al., 2018a; Chen et al., 2020; Hedelius et al., 2021). In addition, the
132 vertical columns are converted to column-averaged dry-air mole fractions (Xco) in this work.

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134 2.2 MEE surface CO measurements

135 We use MEE surface in-situ hourly CO concentration data (<https://quotsoft.net/air/>) for
136 the period of 2015-2020. These real-time monitoring stations have the ability to report hourly

139 concentrations of critical pollutants from over 1670 sites in 2020, which have been widely used
140 to investigate the sources and changes of atmospheric CO in China (Peng et al., 2018; Ma et
141 al., 2019; Feng et al., 2020). Concentrations were reported by the MEE in units of mg/m³ with
142 a precision of 0.001mg/m³, under standard temperature (273 K) until 31 August 2018. This
143 reference state was changed on 1 September 2018 to 298 K. We converted CO concentrations
144 to ppb and rescaled post-August 2018 concentrations to standard temperature (273 K) to keep
145 the consistency in the trend analysis. To ensure the reliability of the data before assimilation,
146 we screened the data on the numerical range and time range. In the first step, we removed data
147 with CO concentrations larger than 6000 ppb (~7.5 mg/m³), and the selection of this empirical
148 value is relatively close to the 7 mg/m³ selected by Feng et al. (2020). In the second step, to
149 ensure the rationality of the daily variation of the assimilation results, we eliminated 327 sites
150 with missing data for more than 14 consecutive days, accounting for 19.5% of the total number
151 of sites. Fig. 1b shows the trends of surface CO concentrations provided by MEE. There are
152 high-density surface stations in E. China with significant decreasing trends of CO
153 concentrations from 2015 to 2020.

155 2.3 GEOS-Chem model simulations

156 The GEOS-Chem chemical transport model (<http://www.geos-chem.org>, version 12-8-1)
157 is driven by assimilated meteorological data of MERRA-2. Our analysis is conducted at a
158 horizontal resolution of nested 0.5°x0.625° and employs the CO-only simulation in GEOS-
159 Chem, which uses archived monthly OH fields from the full chemistry simulation (Fisher et
160 al., 2017). The CO boundary conditions are updated every 3-hour from a global simulation
161 with 4° × 5° resolution. Emissions in GEOS-Chem are computed by the Harvard-NASA
162 Emission Component (HEMCO). Global default anthropogenic emissions are from the CEDS
163 (Community Emissions Data System) (Hoesly et al., 2018). Regional emissions are replaced
164 by MEIC (Multiresolution Emission Inventory for China) in China and MIX in other regions
165 of Asia (Li et al., 2017). The total anthropogenic CO emissions in MEIC inventory are further
166 scaled with linear projections based on Zheng et al. (2018b). Open fire emissions are from the

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175 Quick Fire Emissions Dataset (QFED) (Darmenov and da Silva, 2015). The biogenic emissions
176 of VOCs are calculated according to the Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from
177 Nature (MEGAN v2.1) (Guenther et al., 2006).

178

179 **2.4 Kalman Filter approach**

180 We employ the sub-optimal Kalman Filter (Todling and Cohn, 1994) to assimilate
181 MOPITT and surface CO observations. As a brief description of the assimilation algorithm,
182 the forward model (M) predicts CO concentration (x_{at}) at time t :

$$183 \quad x_{at} = M_t x_{t-1} \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

184 The optimized CO concentrations can be expressed as:

$$185 \quad x_t = x_{at} + G_t(y_t - K_t x_{at}) \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

186 where y_t is observation, K_t represents operation operator which projects CO concentrations
187 from the model space to observation space. G_t is the Kalman Filter Gain matrix, which can
188 be described as:

$$189 \quad G_t = S_{at} K_t^T (K_t S_{at} K_t^T + S_\epsilon)^{-1} \quad (\text{Eq. 3})$$

190 where S_{at} and S_ϵ are model and observation covariance, respectively. The sub-optimal
191 Kalman Filter has been applied in previous studies to provide quick optimization for initial and
192 boundary atmospheric CO concentrations (Jiang et al., 2015; Jiang et al., 2017). Han et al.
193 (2022) further provided a comparative analysis between sub-optimal Kalman Filter and a
194 hybrid deep learning model to predict surface CO concentrations in China in 2015-2020, and
195 found the good performance of Kalman Filter in respect to independent observations. We note
196 that the optimization effect of sub-optimal Kalman Filter is expected to be weaker than more
197 complicated methods such as Ensemble Kalman Filter, particularly because the latter can
198 optimize CO emissions and concentrations simultaneously (Miyazaki et al., 2017; Feng et al.,
199 2020). for example, Ma et al. (2019) indicated that updated anthropogenic emissions led to
200 improved CO forecast by about 10% during the first 36 hour of forecasts.

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203 The assimilations were started on July 1 2014 by assimilating MOPITT or MEE CO
 204 observations to produce optimized initial conditions on Jan 1 2015. The modeled CO
 205 concentrations are compared with observations and updated hourly, based on Eq. 2, and then
 206 forwarded to Eq. 1 for the model simulations in the next time step, i.e., the assimilation window
 207 is one hour. We assume fixed model errors (50%). The observation errors of satellite data are
 208 calculated based on the MOPITT error covariance matrix. The observation errors of surface
 209 observations include measurement errors and representative errors. The measurement errors
 210 are calculated following Feng et al. (2020): $\varepsilon_0 = ermax + 0.005 * \Pi_0$, where *ermax* is
 211 the base error (6 ppb) and Π_0 represents the observed CO concentrations. The representation
 212 errors are calculated following Elbern et al. (2007) and Tang et al. (2013): $\varepsilon_r = \gamma \varepsilon_0 \sqrt{\Delta l / L}$,
 213 where γ is a scaling factor (0.5), Δl is the model resolution (~56 km in this study), and L
 214 represents the range that observation can reflect, which depends on the station type (2 km for
 215 urban, 4 km for suburban). Given the measurement error ε_0 and the representative error ε_r ,
 216 the total observation error is defined as $\varepsilon_t = \sqrt{\varepsilon_0^2 + \varepsilon_r^2}$. Furthermore, the "super-observation"
 217 method was applied in this work to further reduce the influence of representative error
 218 (Miyazaki et al., 2017; Feng et al., 2020):

$$\omega_j = 1/\varepsilon_j^2 \quad \text{(Eq. 4)}$$

$$y_s = \sum_{j=1}^k \omega_j y_j / \sum_{j=1}^k \omega_j \quad \text{(Eq. 5)}$$

$$1/\varepsilon_s^2 = \sum_{j=1}^k 1/\varepsilon_j^2 \quad \text{(Eq. 6)}$$

222 where y_j is CO observation of the j th station, ω_j represents the weighting factor of the j th
 223 station, y_s and ε_s are the grid-based CO observations and errors (super-observation),
 224 respectively.

226 3. Results and Discussions

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229 3.1 Kalman Filter assimilating MOPITT CO

230 We firstly assimilate MOPITT CO data with global simulations ($4^\circ \times 5^\circ$ resolution) to
231 optimize E. Asian CO boundary conditions. Same ~~to~~ Jiang et al. (2017), the MOPITT profile
232 and column data are assimilated individually to produce two types of CO boundary conditions.
233 High resolution ($0.5^\circ \times 0.625^\circ$) Kalman Filter are performed within E. Asia domain via
234 assimilating MOPITT profile and column data individually, and reading the corresponding CO
235 boundary conditions. As shown in Fig. 2a, we find marked seasonality in surface CO
236 concentrations: about 1200 ppb in winter and 600 ppb in summer, ~~over NCP in 2019~~. The
237 assimilation of MOPITT CO has ~~a small~~ ~~influence~~ on CO concentrations at ~~the~~ surface level:
238 the mean surface CO concentrations over E. China ~~increased~~ from 268 ppb to 289-296 ppb in
239 2015-2020 (Table 1). It could be associated with the limited sensitivity of MOPITT to lower
240 tropospheric CO, as well as the revisit time of satellite measurements, i.e., MOPITT visits an
241 individual model grid every 3 days. Thus, the adjustment ~~of~~ surface CO by Kalman Filter can
242 be affected by biased CO emissions in the forward simulations with a 60-minute time step.

243 In contrast to CO at ~~the~~ surface level, the Kalman Filter led to marked enhancement of
244 CO columns (Fig. 2b). As shown in Table 1, the modeled CO columns (~~Xco~~) ~~over E. China~~ in
245 2015-2020 were adjusted from about ~~101~~ to ~~121-127 ppb~~. The difference in the Kalman Filter
246 by assimilating MOPITT column and profile data is small. ~~Similarly~~, Fig. 3 exhibits the CO
247 vertical profiles from model a priori simulations and Kalman Filter. Assimilations of different
248 MOPITT CO data (blue lines) led to similar enhancement of CO abundances, except at high
249 altitudes around 100 hPa. ~~Furthermore~~, Fig. 4 demonstrates the relative differences between
250 modeled and MOPITT CO columns in 2019. There are pronounced negative biases in the a
251 priori simulations by about ~~40%~~ (Fig. 4a). By contrast, the differences are dramatically
252 mitigated by assimilating MOPITT CO column data (Fig. ~~4b~~). ~~As shown in Table 2, the~~
253 ~~modeled CO columns (smoothed with MOPITT averaging kernels and sampled at MEE~~

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locations) increased from 97 to 124-128 ppb over E. China in 2015-2020. The good agreement between assimilations and MOPITT CO observations (129 ppb, Table 2) confirms the efficiency of Kalman Filter assimilation in this work.

3.2 Kalman Filter assimilating surface CO

Fig. 2c (black line) shows MEE surface CO observations over NCP in 2019. The blue line shows the model a priori surface CO concentrations, which are lower than observed CO concentrations. The underestimated surface CO concentrations were reported in recent studies, for example, Peng et al. (2018) found that modeled surface CO concentrations by WRF-Chem ($752 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) are about 40% lower than MEE surface CO ($1318 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) in NCP in October 2014. Bouarar et al. (2019) indicated an underestimation of surface CO concentrations in WRF-Chem (about 1000 ppb) than surface observations (about 2000 ppb) in Beijing in January 2010. Feng et al. (2020) demonstrated high MEE surface CO in December 2013, i.e., $2.18 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ and $1.66 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ in contrast to $0.86 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ and $0.73 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ in WRF/CMAQ simulations over NCP and E. China, respectively.

We then assimilate MEE surface CO measurements to investigate the impacts of assimilations on atmospheric CO. In contrast to Kalman Filter by assimilating MOPITT data, the CO boundary conditions here are from a priori simulations. Fig. 2d (orange line) shows the optimized surface CO concentrations in NCP in 2019. The assimilation of surface CO measurements significantly improved the agreement between observations and model simulations. As shown in Table 1, the modeled surface CO concentrations in 2015-2020 increased from 268 to 430 ppb over E. China, 445 to 630 ppb over NCP and 418 to 598 ppb over YRD. The correlations between modeled and observed surface CO are enhanced from 0.707 to 0.934 over NCP in 2019. The enhancement of surface CO concentrations due to assimilating surface CO measurements have been reported in recent studies. For example, Peng et al. (2018) demonstrated enhancement of surface CO from $752 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ to $1418 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in NCP

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298 in October 2014. Feng et al. (2020) exhibited enhancement of surface CO from 0.73 mg/m³ to
299 1.62 mg/m³ in December 2013 over E. China. Furthermore, as shown in Table 2, the
300 assimilation led to an increase in surface CO concentrations from 397 ppb to 631 ppb over E.
301 China in 2015-2020, exhibiting better agreement with MEE observations (781 ppb).

302 3.3 Discrepancy in assimilated CO by assimilating satellite and surface data

303 As shown in Fig. 3, the modeled CO profile by assimilating MEE surface CO (red solid
304 line) is higher than MOPITT-based CO concentrations (blue lines) in the lower troposphere. It
305 indicates a possible discrepancy in the adjusted CO concentrations by assimilating satellite and
306 surface observations. As shown in Table 2, the adjusted surface CO concentrations by
307 assimilating MEE CO measurements are higher than those by assimilating MOPITT data in
308 2015-2020: 631 and 417-427 ppb over E. China; 806 and 627-639 ppb over NCP; 657 and 500-
309 509 ppb over YRD. Similarly, the adjusted CO columns (X_{co}) by assimilating MEE CO
310 measurements are higher than those by assimilating MOPITT data in 2015-2020, (Table 2): 162
311 and 138-144 ppb over E. China; 173 and 149-155 ppb over NCP; 172 and 144-151 ppb over
312 YRD. On the other hand, the adjusted CO columns by assimilating MEE CO measurements
313 are comparable with those by assimilating MOPITT data after the application of MOPITT
314 averaging kernels (Table 2), which could be associated with the weaker sensitivity of MOPITT
315 to lower free tropospheric CO.

316 MOPITT CO retrievals have been sufficiently evaluated. For example, Deeter et al.
317 (2017) indicated that the bias in MOPITT CO column data was about 3% in respect to NOAA
318 flask measurements. The higher CO columns by assimilating MEE CO measurements thus
319 indicate possible overestimated enhancements on free tropospheric CO. Similarly, Feng et al.
320 (2020) suggested a 186% enhancement of CO emissions over E. China via assimilating surface
321 CO measurements. By contrast, the MOPITT-based CO emission estimates are comparable
322 with a priori emissions in China (Elguindi et al., 2020). In addition, as shown in Fig. 4a, the

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344 modeled CO columns from the boundary conditions are biased low by about 40%, which was
345 not removed when assimilating MEE surface CO. While the influence from boundary
346 conditions on surface CO concentrations over E. China could be limited, it is expected to have
347 a noticeable influence on free tropospheric CO over E. China. It further confirms the
348 overestimated enhancements on free tropospheric CO by assimilating MEE CO measurements,
349 because potential negative biases due to the usage of a priori boundary conditions have been
350 completely covered.

351 Fig. 1c-d exhibit the model a priori simulation and observed surface CO, as well as the
352 ratios between observed and model a priori surface CO in 2019. The ratios are about 1.5 over
353 high polluted areas such as NCP and 2-6 over low polluted areas (Fig. 1d). Because most MEE
354 stations are urban air quality sites, the regional discrepancy in the ratios reveals possible
355 influences from representation error, i.e., the regional CO backgrounds are lower than
356 observations from urban stations, and the influences are stronger over low polluted areas.
357 Despite representation errors have been considered in the covariance matrix in the Kalman
358 Filter (Section 2.4), it seems that the mitigation of representation errors is limited. It is not
359 surprising because the covariance matrix is supposed to contain random errors with Gaussian
360 distribution, whereas representation errors due to differences between urban and regional
361 backgrounds are systematic biases. In addition, insufficient parameterized processes such as
362 PBL mixing can further contribute to the underestimation of modeled surface CO
363 concentrations (Castellanos et al., 2011).

364 **3.4 Kalman Filter assimilating normalized surface CO**

365 The possible systematic biases imply it may not be a good idea to assimilate surface CO
366 measurements to optimize free tropospheric CO directly. Alternatively, considering the good
367 capability of models to capture the observed CO variabilities, we can scale surface CO
368 measurements using the ratios between observations and models. The MEE surface CO

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373 measurements will be scaled using the ratios shown in Fig. 1d in the following discussions.
374 The actual effect of this adjustment is normalizing modeled and observed surface CO
375 concentrations in 2019, and hence, Kalman Filter, by assimilating the normalized surface CO
376 measurements can reflect the variabilities (i.e., trends) instead of magnitudes of CO
377 concentrations. It should be noted that the ratios are expected to be affected by interannual
378 variabilities of meteorological conditions as well as possible land usage changes. The land
379 usage changes are supposed to be insignificant due to the limited studied period (i.e., 2015-
380 2020). More efforts are needed in the future to evaluate the possible influence of meteorological
381 condition changes on the inconsistency between observations and simulations.

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382 Fig. 2e (orange line) shows surface CO concentrations in NCP in 2019 by assimilating
383 normalized surface CO measurements. The magnitudes of model a priori (blue line) and
384 Kalman Filter (orange line) are consistent in Fig. 2e due to the normalization of surface CO
385 measurements. As shown in Table 2, the adjusted surface and column CO concentrations by
386 assimilating normalized MEE CO measurements are closer to the a priori simulations in 2015-
387 2020. The correlation between modeled and observed surface CO is 0.865 over NCP in 2019,
388 which is lower than the correlation by assimilating raw surface CO measurements.
389 Furthermore, we performed sensitivity assimilation to evaluate the effects of MOPITT pass
390 time by only assimilating MEE CO measurements in the morning. As shown in Table 2, the
391 assimilation of morning data led to lower surface and column CO concentrations, and thus, the
392 discrepancy in the CO columns (Section 3.3) is not driven by different temporal resolutions
393 between satellite and surface CO observations.

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394 3.5 Assimilated atmospheric CO over E. Asia in 2015-2020

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395 Here we expand our analysis to investigate the assimilated atmospheric CO over E. Asia
396 in 2015-2020. As shown in Fig. 5a, Kalman Filter, by assimilating raw surface CO
397 measurements reveal wide declines in surface CO concentrations over E. China. The declines

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405 of surface CO resulted in decreases of CO columns (Fig. 5b, via assimilating normalized
406 surface CO measurements) by about 2.2, 2.1 and 1.8 ppb/y in 2015-2020 over E. China, South
407 Korea and Japan, respectively. By contrast, the decreasing trends in the MOPITT-based
408 assimilations (Fig. 5c-d) are weaker: 0.63-0.86, 0.97-1.29 and 1.00-1.27 ppb/y in 2015-2020
409 over E. China, South Korea and Japan, respectively. It should be noted that the decreasing
410 trends in the MOPITT-based assimilations are more affected by the a priori simulations and
411 are thus, weaker than those of MOPITT observations, as exhibited by the neutral changes over
412 central China in Fig. 5c-d. In addition, Fig. 5e demonstrates the trends of CO columns by
413 assimilating both MOPITT CO column and normalized surface CO measurements
414 simultaneously: the decreasing trends are about 2.3, 2.2 and 1.9 ppb/y over E. China, South
415 Korea and Japan, respectively.

416 As shown in Fig. 6, the a priori simulations with fixed anthropogenic CO emissions in
417 2010 (black lines) predict stable surface CO concentrations in 2015-2020. By contrast, Kalman
418 Filter by assimilating raw surface CO measurements (red solid lines) demonstrates declines in
419 surface CO concentrations by about 43.9, 19.2 and 18.3 ppb/y over NCP, YRD and E. China,
420 respectively. The difference between the a priori simulations (black lines) and assimilations
421 (red solid lines) indicates the impacts of successful CO emission controls in China. In addition,
422 Kalman Filter by assimilating normalized surface CO measurements (red dashed lines)
423 indicates declines of surface CO concentrations by about 32.1, 14.4 and 10.3 ppb/y over NCP,
424 YRD and E. China, respectively.

425 Finally, we analyze the interannual variabilities of CO columns by assimilating MOPITT
426 and surface CO measurements. As shown in Fig. 7, Kalman Filter by assimilating normalized
427 surface CO measurements (red dashed lines) demonstrates declines of CO columns by about
428 4.4, 2.8 and 2.2 ppb/y in 2015-2020 over NCP, YRD and E. China, respectively. Kalman Filter
429 by assimilating raw surface CO measurements (red solid lines) led to overestimated CO

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454 columns. Kalman Filter by assimilating MOPITT observations (blue lines) exhibits smaller
455 changes in CO columns: 1.2-1.5, 0.76-0.9 and 0.63-0.86 ppb/y in 2015-2020, over NCP, YRD
456 and E. China, respectively. Kalman Filter by assimilating both MOPITT CO column and
457 normalized surface CO measurements simultaneously (purple lines) exhibits decreasing trends
458 of CO columns by about 4.5, 2.8 and 2.3 ppb/y in 2015-2020 over NCP, YRD and E. China,
459 respectively.

460 4. Conclusion

461 A comparative analysis is provided in this work to explore the effects of satellite and
462 surface measurements on atmospheric CO assimilations over E. Asia in 2015-2020. We find
463 possible inconsistencies by assimilating satellite and surface CO measurements: the adjusted
464 CO columns (X_{co}) are about 161, 173 and 172 ppb by assimilating surface CO measurements,
465 in contrast to 138-144, 149-155 and 144-151 ppb by assimilating MOPITT CO observations in
466 2015-2020 over E. China, NCP and YRD, respectively. This difference is larger than the
467 reported uncertainties in MOPITT CO columns (Deeter et al., 2017) and similar to the reported
468 discrepancy in the derived CO emissions based on MOPITT and surface CO measurements
469 (Elguindi et al., 2020; Feng et al., 2020). In addition, we find large regional discrepancies in
470 the ratios between observed and model a priori surface CO: about 1.5 over high polluted areas
471 such as NCP and 2-6 over low polluted areas (Fig. 1d). These inconsistencies could be
472 associated with possible representation errors due to differences between urban and regional
473 CO backgrounds, which cannot be effectively contained via adjusting the covariance matrix in
474 the assimilations.

475 Assimilations of raw surface CO measurements indicate declines in surface CO
476 concentrations by about 43.9, 19.2, and 18.3 ppb/y over NCP, YRD and E. China in 2015-2020.
477 Assimilations of normalized surface CO measurements further indicate declines of CO
478 columns (X_{co}) by about 2.2, 2.1 and 1.8 ppb/y over E. China, South Korea and Japan in 2015-

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507 2020, respectively. It demonstrates the important impacts of CO emission controls in China on
508 E. Asian atmospheric CO changes. By contrast, assimilations of MOPITT CO measurements
509 suggest small trends in CO columns: 0.63-0.86, 0.97-1.29 and 1.00-1.27 ppb/y over E. China,
510 South Korea and Japan in 2015-2020, respectively. These discrepancies reflect the different
511 vertical sensitivities of satellite and surface observations to CO concentrations in the lower and
512 free troposphere. While the normalized CO measurements in this work are supposed to provide
513 a better representation of atmospheric CO in the free troposphere, Kalman Filter by
514 assimilating raw CO measurements is closer to real urban CO concentrations at the surface
515 level. More efforts to analyze the effects of meteorological variabilities on observed and
516 modeled surface CO concentrations are helpful for better assimilation of surface CO
517 observations, and more accurate evaluation of atmospheric CO changes.

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518
519 **Data availability:** The MEE CO data can be downloaded from <https://quotsoft.net/air/>. The
520 MOPITT CO data can be downloaded from <https://asdc.larc.nasa.gov/data/MOPITT/>. The
521 GEOS-Chem model (version 12.8.1) can be downloaded from
522 http://wiki.seas.harvard.edu/geos-chem/index.php/GEOS-Chem_12#12.8.1.

523
524 **Competing interests:** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

525
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531 Natural Science Foundation of China (41721002).

532

540 **Figure Legends**

541 **Table 1.** Averages and trends of surface (T 1.1) and column (T 1.2) CO concentrations in 2015-
542 2020. The domain definitions are shown in Fig. 1a. The E. Asian CO boundary conditions are
543 provided by global a priori simulations, except Kalman Filters by assimilating MOPITT CO
544 while the boundary conditions are provided by global assimilations of MOPITT CO. The
545 “MEE normalized and MOPITT column” is performed by assimilating both MOPITT CO and
546 normalized surface CO measurements simultaneously.

547
548 **Table 2.** Averages, correlations and trends of surface (T 2.1) and column (T 2.2 and T 2.3) CO
549 concentrations in 2015-2020, sampled at the locations of MEE stations. The domain definitions
550 are shown in Fig. 1a. The correlations between simulations and MOPITT observations in T 2.3
551 are not shown because MOPITT averaging kernels are not applied.

552
553 **Figure 1.** (A) Trends of MOPITT CO columns (X_{CO}) in 2015-2020 with unit ppb/y; (B) Trends
554 of MEE surface CO concentrations in 2015-2020 with unit ppb/y; (C) Modeled (contour, a
555 priori simulation) and observed (dotted) surface CO concentrations in 2019 with unit ppb; (D)
556 Ratios between observed and modeled (a priori simulation) surface CO concentrations in 2019.
557 The black boxes in panel A define the domains (land only) of E. China, NCP, YRD, South
558 Korea and Japan. The areas outside of China are excluded in the E. China domain.

559
560 **Figure 2.** (A) surface CO concentrations over NCP in 2019 from a priori simulation and
561 Kalman Filter by assimilating MOPITT CO; (B) same as panel a, but for CO columns; (C)
562 surface CO concentrations from a priori simulation and MEE observations; (D) surface CO
563 concentrations from a priori simulation, MEE observations and Kalman Filter by assimilating
564 MEE CO; (E) surface CO concentrations from a priori simulation, MEE observations and
565 Kalman Filter by assimilating normalized MEE CO.

566
567 **Figure 3.** CO profiles over NCP in 2019 from a priori simulations (black line), Kalman Filter
568 by assimilating MOPITT CO (column: blue solid line; profile: blue dashed line) and MEE CO
569 (raw data: red solid line; normalized data: red dashed line).

570

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572 **Figure 4.** (A) relative difference between a priori simulation and MOPITT in 2019, calculated
573 by (Model - MOPITT)/MOPITT; (B) same as panel A, but with Kalman Filter by assimilating
574 MOPITT CO column data; (C) same as panel A, but with Kalman Filter by assimilating
575 MOPITT CO profile data.

576
577 **Figure 5.** Trends of surface CO concentrations in 2015-2020 by assimilating (A) raw MEE CO
578 and trends of CO columns in 2015-2020 by assimilating (B) normalized MEE CO, (C)
579 MOPITT CO column data, (D) MOPITT CO profile data, and (E) normalized MEE CO +
580 MOPITT CO column data.

581
582 **Figure 6.** Surface CO concentrations in 2015-2020 from a priori simulations (black line),
583 Kalman Filter by assimilating raw (red solid line) and normalized (red dashed line) MEE CO.

584
585 **Figure 7.** CO columns (X_{CO}) in 2015-2020 from a priori simulations (black line), Kalman Filter
586 by assimilating MOPITT CO columns (blue line), MEE CO (raw data: red solid line;
587 normalized data: red dashed line) and MOPITT CO column + normalized MEE CO (purple
588 line).

589

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